Python Frequently Asked Questions 发布 3.6.8

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Python 常见问题

1.1 一般信息

1.1.1 什么是 Python?

Python 是一种解释性、交互式、面向对象的编程语言。它包含了模块、异常、动态类型、非常高层级的动态数据类型以及类的概念。Python 结合了超强的功能和极清晰的语法。它带有许多系统调用和库以及各种窗口系统的接口,并且可以用 C 或 C ++ 来进行扩展。它还可用作需要可编程接口的应用程序的扩展语言。最后,Python 还是可移植的:它可以在许多 Unix 变种、Mac 以及 Windows 2000 以上的操作系统中运行。要了解更多详情,请先查看 tutorial-index。Python 新手指南 提供了学习 Python 的其他人门教程及资源的链接。

1.1.2 什么是 Python 软件基金会?

Python 软件基金会(Python Software Foundation,简称 PSF)是一个独立的非盈利组织,它拥有 Python 2.1 及以上各版本的版权。PSF 的使命是推进与 Python 编程语言相关的开源技术,并推广 Python 的使用。PSF 的主页是 https://www.python.org/psf/。

向 PSF 提供捐助在美国是免税的。如果你在使用 Python 并且感觉它对你很有帮助,可以通过 PSF 捐助页进行捐助。

1.1.3 使用 Python 是否存在版权限制?

你可以任意使用源码,只要你保留版权信息并在你基于 Python 的产品文档中显示该版权信息。如果你遵守此版权规则,就可以将 Python 用于商业领域,以源码或二进制码的形式(不论是否经过修改)销售 Python 的副本,或是以某种形式包含了 Python 的产品。当然,我们仍然希望获知所有对 Python 的商业使用。

请参阅 PSF 许可页 以查看进一步的说明以及许可的完整文本内容的链接。

Python 的徽标是注册商标,在某些情况下需要获得允许方可使用。请参阅 商标使用政策 了解详情。

1.1.4 创造 Python 的最初理由是什么?

以下是有关最初缘起的一份 非常简短的摘要,由 Guido van Rossum 本人撰写:

我在 CWI 的 ABC 部门时在实现解释型语言方面积累了丰富经验,通过与这个部门成员的协同工作,我学到了大量有关语言设计的知识。这是许多 Python 特性的最初来源,包括使用缩进来组织语句以及包含非常高层级的数据结构(虽然在 Python 中具体的实现细节完全不同)。

我对 ABC 语言有过许多抱怨,但同时也很喜欢它的许多特性。没有可能通过扩展 ABC 语言(或它的实现)来弥补我的不满——实际上缺乏可扩展性就是它最大的问题之一。我也有一些使用 Modula-2+ 的经验,并曾与 Modula-3 的设计者进行交流,还阅读了 Modula-3 的报告。Modula-3 是 Python 中异常机制所用语法和语义,以及其他一些语言特性的最初来源。

我还曾在 CWI 的 Amoeba 分布式操作系统部门工作。当时我们需要有一种比编写 C 程序或 Bash 脚本更好的方式来进行系统管理,因为 Amoeba 有它自己的系统调用接口,并且无法方便 地通过 Bash 来访问。我在 Amoeba 中处理错误的经验令我深刻地意识到异常处理在编程语言特性当中的重要地位。

我发现,某种具有 ABC 式的语法而又能访问 Amoeba 系统调用的脚本语言将可满足需求。我意识到编写一种 Amoeba 专属的语言是愚蠢的,所以我决定编写一种具有全面可扩展性的语言。

在 1989 年的圣诞假期中,我手头的时间非常充裕,因此我决定开始尝试一下。在接下来的一年里,虽然我仍然主要用我的业余时间来做这件事,但 Python 在 Amoeba 项目中的使用获得了很大的成功,来自同事的反馈让我得以增加了许多早期的改进。

到 1991 年 2 月,经过一年多的开发,我决定将其发布到 USENET。之后的事情就都可以在 Misc/HISTORY 文件里面看了。

1.1.5 Python 适合做什么?

Python 是一种高层级的多用途编程语言,可用于解决许多不同门类的问题。

该语言附带一个庞大的标准库,涵盖了字符串处理(正则表达式,Unicode,比较文件间的差异等),因特网协议(HTTP,FTP,SMTP,XML-RPC,POP,IMAP,CGI编程等),软件工程(单元测试,日志记录,性能分析,Python代码解析等),以及操作系统接口(系统调用,文件系统,TCP/IP套接字等)。请查看library-index的目录以了解所有可用的内容。此外还可以获取到各种各样的第三方扩展。请访问Python包索引来查找你感兴趣的软件包。

1.1.6 Python 版本的编号形式是怎样的?

Python 版本的编号形式是 A.B.C 或 A.B。A 称为大版本号——它仅在对语言特性进行非常重大改变时才会递增。B 称为小版本号,它会在语言特性发生较小改变时递增。C 称为微版本号——它会在每次发布问题修正时递增。请参阅 PEP 6 了解有关问题修正发布版的详情。

发布版本并非都是问题修正版本。在新的主要发布版本开发过程中,还会发布一系列的开发版,它们以 alpha (a), beta (b) 或 release candidate (rc) 来标示。其中 alpha 版是早期发布的测试版,它的接口并未最终确定;在两个 alpha 发布版本间出现接口的改变并不意外。而 beta 版更为稳定,它会保留现有的接口,但也可能增加新的模块,release candidate 版则会保持冻结状态不会再进行改变,除非有重大问题需要修正。

以上 alpha, beta 和 release candidate 版本会附加一个后缀。用于 alpha 版本的后缀是带有一个小数字 N 的 "aN", beta 版本的后缀是带有一个小数字 N 的 "bN", release candidate 版本的后缀是带有一个小数字 N 的 "cN"。换句话说,所有标记为 2.0aN 的版本都早于标记为 2.0bN 的版本,后者又都早于标记为 2.0cN 的版本,而 这些版本全都早于 2.0。

你还可能看到带有"+"后缀的版本号,例如"2.2+"。这表示未发布版本,直接基于 CPython 开发代码仓库构建。在实际操作中,当一个小版本最终发布后,未发布版本号会递增到下一个小版本号,成为"a0"版本,例如"2.4a0"。

另请参阅 sys.version, sys.hexversion 以及 sys.version_info 的文档。

1.1.7 我应如何获取一份 Python 源代码的副本?

最新的 Python 发布版源代码总能从 python.org 获取, 下载页链接为 https://www.python.org/downloads/。最新的开发版源代码可以在 https://github.com/python/cpython/ 获取。

发布版源代码是一个以 gzip 压缩的 tar 文件, 其中包含完整的 C 源代码、Sphinx 格式的文档、Python 库模块、示例程序以及一些有用的自由分发软件。该源代码将可在大多数 UNIX 类平台上直接编译并运行。

请参阅 Python 开发者指南的初步上手部分 了解有关获取源代码并进行编译的更多信息。

1.1.8 我应如何获取 Python 的文档?

当前的 Python 稳定版本的标准文档可在 https://docs.python.org/3/ 查看。也可在 https://docs.python.org/3/download.html 获取 PDF、纯文本以及可下载的 HTML 版本。

文档以 reStructuredText 格式撰写, 并使用 Sphinx 文档工具 生成。文档的 reStructuredText 源文件是 Python 源代码发布版的一部分。

1.1.9 我之前从未接触过编程。哪里有 Python 的教程?

有许多可选择的教程和书籍。标准文档中也包含有 tutorial-index。

请参阅 新手指南 以获取针对 Python 编程初学者的信息,包括教程的清单。

1.1.10 是否有专门针对 Python 的新闻组或邮件列表?

有一个新闻组 comp. lang. python 和一个邮件列表 python-list。新闻组和邮件列表是彼此互通的——如果你可以阅读新闻就不必再订阅邮件列表。comp. lang. python 的流量很大,每天会收到数以百计的发帖, Usenet 使用者通常更擅长处理这样大的流量。

有关新软件发布和活动的公告可以在 comp.lang.python.announce 中找到,这是个严格管理的低流量列表,每天会收到五个左右的发帖。可以在 Python 公告邮件列表 页面进行订阅。

有关其他邮件列表和新闻组的更多信息可以在 https://www.python.org/community/lists/ 找到。

1.1.11 我应如何获取 Python 的公开测试版本?

可以从 https://www.python.org/downloads/ 下载 alpha 和 beta 发布版。所有发布版都会在comp.lang.python 和 comp.lang.python.announce 新闻组以及 Python 主页 https://www.python.org/ 上进行公告; 并会推送到 RSS 新闻源。

你还可以通过 Git 访问 Python 的开发版。请参阅 Python 开发者指南 了解详情。

1.1.12 我应如何为 Python 提交错误报告和补丁?

要报告错误或提交补丁,请使用安装于 https://bugs.python.org/ 上的 Roundup。

你必须拥有一个 Roundup 账号才能报告错误;这样我们就可以在有后续问题时与你联系。这也使得 Roundup 能在我们处理所报告的错误时向你发送更新消息。如果你之前使用过 SourceForge 向 Python 报告错误,你可以通过 Roundup 的 密码重置操作 来获取你的 Roundup 密码。

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有关 Python 开发流程的更多信息,请参阅 Python 开发者指南。

1.1.13 是否有任何公开发表的 Python 相关文章可以供我参考引用?

可能作为参考文献的最好方式还是引用你喜欢的 Python 相关书籍。

第一篇有关 Python 的文章写于 1991 年, 现在其内容已经相当过时了。

Guido van Rossum 与 Jelke de Boer, "使用 Python 编程语言交互式地测试远程服务器", CWI 季刊, 第 4 卷, 第 4 期 (1991 年 12 月), 阿姆斯特丹, 第 283-303 页。

1.1.14 是否有任何 Python 相关的书籍?

是的,相关的书籍很多,还有更多即将发行。请访问 python.org 的 wiki 页面 https://wiki.python.org/moin/PythonBooks 获取一份清单。

你也可以到各大在线书店搜索"Python"并过滤掉对 Monty Python 的引用;或者也可以搜索"Python"加"language"。

1.1.15 www.python.org 具体位于世界上的哪个地点?

The Python project's infrastructure is located all over the world. www.python.org is graciously hosted by Rackspace, with CDN caching provided by Fastly. Upfront Systems hosts bugs.python.org. Many other Python services like the Wiki are hosted by Oregon State University Open Source Lab.

1.1.16 为何命名为 Python?

在着手编写 Python 实现的时候, Guido van Rossum 同时还阅读了刚出版的 "Monty Python 的飞行马戏团" 剧本,这是一部自 1970 年代开始播出的 BBC 系列喜剧。Van Rossum 觉得他需要选择一个简短、独特而又略显神秘的名字,于是他决定将这个新语言命名为 Python。

1.1.17 我必须喜欢 "Monty Python 的飞行马戏团"吗?

不必, 但这对学习会有帮助。:)

1.2 现实世界中的 Python

1.2.1 Python 有多稳定?

非常稳定。自 1991 年起大约每隔 6 到 18 个月就会推出新的稳定发布版,这种状态看来还将持续下去。目前主要发布版本的间隔通常为 18 个月左右。

开发者也会推出旧版本的"问题修正"发布版,因此现有发布版的稳定性还会逐步提升。问题修正发布版会以版本号第三部分的数字来标示(例如 3.5.3, 3.6.2),用于稳定性的管理;只有对已知问题的修正会包含在问题修正发布版中,同一系列的问题修正发布版中的接口确定将会始终保持一致。

The latest stable releases can always be found on the Python download page. There are two production-ready version of Python: 2.x and 3.x, but the recommended one at this times is Python 3.x. Although Python 2.x is still widely used, it will not be maintained after January 1, 2020. Python 2.x was known for having

more third-party libraries available, however, by the time of this writing, most of the widely used libraries support Python 3.x, and some are even dropping the Python 2.x support.

1.2.2 有多少人在使用 Python?

使用者的数量肯定非常庞大,不过想要进行精确统计则是相当困难的。

Python 可以免费下载,因此并不存在销量数据,此外它也可以从许多不同网站获取,并且包含于许多 Linux 发行版之中,因此下载量统计同样无法完全说明问题。

comp.lang.python 新闻组非常活跃,但不是所有 Python 用户都会在新闻组发帖,许多人甚至不会阅读新闻组。

1.2.3 有哪些重要的项目是用 Python 开发的?

请访问 https://www.python.org/about/success 查看使用了 Python 的项目列表。阅览 历次 Python 会议 的日程纪要可以看到许多不同公司和组织所做的贡献。

高水准的 Python 项目包括 Mailman 邮件列表管理器 和 Zope 应用服务器。多个 Linux 发行版,其中最著名的有 Red Hat 均已使用 Python 来编写部分或全部的安装程序和系统管理软件。在内部使用 Python 的大公司包括了 Google, Yahoo 以及 Lucasfilm 等。

1.2.4 在未来可以期待 Python 将有什么新进展?

请访问 https://www.python.org/dev/peps/ 查看 Python 增强提议 (PEP)。PEP 是为 Python 加入某种新特性的提议进行描述的设计文档,其中会提供简明的技术规格说明与基本原理。可以查找标题为 "Python X.Y Release Schedule"的 PEP,其中 X.Y 是某个尚未公开发布的版本。

新版本的开发会在 python-dev 邮件列表 中进行讨论。

1.2.5 提议对 Python 加入不兼容的更改是否合理?

通常来说是不合理的。世界上已存在的 Python 代码数以亿计,因此,任何对该语言的更改即便仅会使得现有程序中极少的一部分失效也是难以令人接受的。就算你可以提供一个转换程序,也仍然存在需要更新全部文档的问题;另外还有大量已出版的 Python 书籍,我们不希望让它们在一瞬间全部变成废纸。

如果必须更改某个特性,则应该提供渐进式的升级路径。PEP 5 描述了引入向后不兼容的更改所需遵循的流程,以尽可能减少对用户的干扰。

1.2.6 Python 是一种对编程初学者友好的语言吗?

当然。

从过程式、静态类型的编程语言例如 Pascal, C 或者 C++ 以及 Java 的某一子集开始引导学生入门仍然是常见的做法。但以 Python 作为第一种编程语言进行学习对学生可能更有利。Python 具有非常简单和一致的语法和庞大的标准库,而且最重要的是,在编程入门教学中使用 Python 可以让学生专注于更重要的编程技能,例如问题分解与数据类型设计。使用 Python,可以快速向学生介绍基本概念例如循环与过程等。他们甚至有可能在第一次课里就开始接触用户自定义对象。

对于之前从未接触过编程的学生来说,使用静态类型语言会感觉不够自然。这会给学生带来必须掌握的额外复杂性,并减慢教学的进度。学生需要尝试像计算机一样思考,分解问题,设计一致的接口并封装数据。虽然从长远来看,学习和使用一种静态类型语言是很重要的,但这并不是最适宜在学生的第一次编程课上就进行探讨的主题。

还有许多其他方面的特点使得 Python 成为很好的人门语言。像 Java 一样, Python 拥有一个庞大的标准库, 因此可以在课程非常早期的阶段就给学生布置一些 实用的编程项目。编程作业不必仅限于标准四则运算和账目检查程序。通过使用标准库,学生可以在学习编程基础知识的同时开发真正的应用,从而获得更大的满足感。使用标准库还能使学生了解代码重用的概念。而像 PyGame 这样的第三方模块同样有助于扩大学生的接触领域。

Python 的解释器使学生能够在编程时测试语言特性。他们可以在一个窗口中输入程序源代码的同时开启一个解释器运行窗口。如果他们不记得列表有哪些方法,他们这以这样做:

```
>>> L = []
>>> dir(L)
['__add__', '__class__', '__contains__', '__delattr__', '__delitem__',
'__dir__', '__doc__', '__eq__', '__format__', '__ge__'
'__getattribute__', '__getitem__', '__gt__', '__hash__'
                    _', '__iter__', '__le__',
 __imul__', '__init__
                                               '__len__', '__lt__',
'__mul__', '__ne__', '__new__', '__reduce__', '__reduce_ex__',
'__repr__', '__reversed__', '__rmul__', '__setattr__', '__setitem__',
'__sizeof__', '__str__', '__subclasshook__', 'append', 'clear',
'copy', 'count', 'extend', 'index', 'insert', 'pop', 'remove',
'reverse', 'sort']
>>> [d for d in dir(L) if ' ' not in d]
['append', 'clear', 'copy', 'count', 'extend', 'index', 'insert', 'pop', 'remove',
→'reverse', 'sort']
>>> help(L.append)
Help on built-in function append:
append(...)
   L.append(object) -> None -- append object to end
>>> L.append(1)
>>> L
[1]
```

通过使用解释器, 学生编写程序时参考文档总是能伴随在他们身边。

Python 还拥有很好的 IDE。IDLE 是一个跨平台的 Python IDE,它基于 Tkinter 库,使用 Python 语言编写。PythonWin 是一个 Windows 专属的 IDE。Emacs 用户将高兴地了解到 Emacs 具有非常好的 Python 模式。所有这些编程环境都提供语法高亮,自动缩进以及在编写代码时使用交互式解释器等功能。请访问 Python wiki 查看 Python 编程环境的完整列表。

如果你想要讨论 Python 在教育中的使用, 你可能会有兴趣加入 edu-sig 邮件列表。

编程常见问题

2.1 一般问题

2.1.1 Python 有没有提供断点与单步调试等功能的,源码层次的调试器?

有的。

pdb 模块是一个简单但是够用的控制台模式 Python 调试器。它是标准 Python 库的一部分,并且 已收录于 库参考手册。你也可以通过使用 pdb 代码作为样例来编写你自己的调试器。

作为标准 Python 发行版附带组件的 IDLE 交互式环境(通常位于 Tools/scripts/idle)中包含一个图形化的调试器。

PythonWin 是一个包含有基于 pdb 的 GUI 调试器的 Python IDE。Pythonwin 调试器会为断点加上颜色,并具有许多很棒的特性,例如也可以非 Pythonwin 程序。Pythonwin 是 Python for Windows Extensions 项目的一部分,也是 ActivePython 发行版的一部分(参见 https://www.activestate.com/activepython)。

Boa Constructor 是一个使用 wxWidgets 的 IDE 和 GUI 构建器。它提供可视化框架创建和操作,对象检查器,源对象浏览器上的许多视图,继承层次结构,doc 字符串生成的 html 文档,高级调试器,集成帮助和 Zope 支持。

Eric 是一个基于 PyQt 和 Scintilla 编辑组件构建的 IDE。

Pydb 是标准 Python 调试器 pdb 的一个版本,经过修改后可与 DDD(数据显示调试器)一起使用,DDD 是一种流行的图形化调试器前端。Pydb 可以在 http://bashdb.sourceforge.net/pydb/ 找到,DDD 可以在 https://www.gnu.org/software/ddd 找到。

有许多商业 Python IDE 包括图形调试器。他们包括:

- Wing IDE (https://wingware.com/)
- Komodo IDE (https://komodoide.com/)
- PyCharm (https://www.jetbrains.com/pycharm/)

2.1.2 有没有工具来帮助找寻漏洞或进行静态分析?

有的。

PyChecker 是一个寻找 Python 代码漏洞以及对代码复杂性和风格给出警告的工具。你可以从这里获得 PyChecker: http://pychecker.sourceforge.net/。

Pylint 是另一个检查模块是否满足编码标准的工具,也可以编写插件来添加自定义功能。除了 PyChecker 执行的错误检查之外, Pylint 还提供了一些额外的功能,例如检查行长度,变量名称是否根据您的编码标准格式良好,声明的接口是否完全实现等等。https://docs.pylint.org/提供了 Pylint 功能的完整列表。

2.1.3 我如何能够通过一个 Python 脚本创建一个独立运行的二进制文件?

如果你想要的只是一个独立的程序,用户可以下载和运行而不必先安装 Python 发行版, 你就不需要将 Python 编译成 C 代码。有许多工具可以确定程序所需的模块集,并将这些模块与 Python 二进制文件绑定 在一起以生成单个可执行文件。

一种是使用冻结工具,它包含在 Python 源代码树 Tools/freeze 中。它将 Python 字节代码转换为 C 数组;一个 C 编译器,你可以将所有模块嵌入到一个新程序中,然后将其与标准 Python 模块链接。

它的工作原理是递归扫描源代码以获取 import 语句(两种形式),并在标准 Python 路径和源目录(用于内置模块)中查找模块。然后,它将用 Python 编写的模块的字节码转换为 C 代码(可以使用编组模块转换为代码对象的数组初始化器),并创建一个定制的配置文件,该文件仅包含程序中实际使用的内置模块。然后,它编译生成的 C 代码并将其与 Python 解释器的其余部分链接,以形成一个独立的二进制文件,其行为与你的脚本完全相同。

显然, freeze 需要一个 C 编译器。有几个其他实用工具不需要。一个是 Thomas Heller 的 py2exe (仅限 Windows)

http://www.py2exe.org/

Another tool is Anthony Tuininga's cx Freeze.

2.1.4 是否有编程标准或 Python 程序的样式指南?

是。标准库模块所要求的编码样式文档为 PEP 8。

2.2 核心语言

2.2.1 当变量有值时,为什么会出现 UnboundLocalError?

通过在函数体中的某处添加赋值语句,导致以前正常工作的代码被修改而得到 UnboundLocalError 会令人感到意外。

以下代码:

```
>>> x = 10
>>> def bar():
... print(x)
>>> bar()
10
```

正常工作,但是以下代码

```
>>> x = 10
>>> def foo():
... print(x)
... x += 1
```

会得到一个 UnboundLocalError:

```
>>> foo()
Traceback (most recent call last):
    ...
UnboundLocalError: local variable 'x' referenced before assignment
```

这是因为当你对作用域中的变量进行赋值时,该变量将成为该作用域的局部变量,并在外部作用域中隐藏任何类似命名的变量。由于 foo 中的最后一个语句为 x 分配了一个新值,编译器会将其识别为局部变量。因此,当先前的 print(x) 尝试打印未初始化的局部变量时会导致错误。

在上面的示例中, 你可以通过将其声明为全局来访问外部作用域变量:

```
>>> x = 10
>>> def foobar():
...     global x
...     print(x)
...     x += 1
>>> foobar()
10
```

这个显式声明是必需的,以便提醒你(与类和实例变量的表面类似情况不同),你实际上是在外部作用域中 修改变量的值

```
>>> print(x)
11
```

你可以使用 nonlocal 关键字在嵌套作用域中执行类似的操作:

2.2.2 What are the rules for local and global variables in Python?

In Python, variables that are only referenced inside a function are implicitly global. If a variable is assigned a value anywhere within the function's body, it's assumed to be a local unless explicitly declared as global.

Though a bit surprising at first, a moment's consideration explains this. On one hand, requiring global for assigned variables provides a bar against unintended side-effects. On the other hand, if global was required for all global references, you'd be using global all the time. You'd have to declare as global every reference

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to a built-in function or to a component of an imported module. This clutter would defeat the usefulness of the global declaration for identifying side-effects.

2.2.3 Why do lambdas defined in a loop with different values all return the same result?

Assume you use a for loop to define a few different lambdas (or even plain functions), e.g.:

```
>>> squares = []
>>> for x in range(5):
... squares.append(lambda: x**2)
```

This gives you a list that contains 5 lambdas that calculate x**2. You might expect that, when called, they would return, respectively, 0, 1, 4, 9, and 16. However, when you actually try you will see that they all return 16:

```
>>> squares[2]()
16
>>> squares[4]()
16
```

This happens because x is not local to the lambdas, but is defined in the outer scope, and it is accessed when the lambda is called —not when it is defined. At the end of the loop, the value of x is 4, so all the functions now return 4**2, i.e. 16. You can also verify this by changing the value of x and see how the results of the lambdas change:

```
>>> x = 8
>>> squares[2]()
64
```

In order to avoid this, you need to save the values in variables local to the lambdas, so that they don't rely on the value of the global x:

```
>>> squares = []
>>> for x in range(5):
... squares.append(lambda n=x: n**2)
```

Here, n=x creates a new variable n local to the lambda and computed when the lambda is defined so that it has the same value that x had at that point in the loop. This means that the value of n will be 0 in the first lambda, 1 in the second, 2 in the third, and so on. Therefore each lambda will now return the correct result:

```
>>> squares[2]()
4
>>> squares[4]()
16
```

Note that this behaviour is not peculiar to lambdas, but applies to regular functions too.

2.2.4 How do I share global variables across modules?

The canonical way to share information across modules within a single program is to create a special module (often called config or cfg). Just import the config module in all modules of your application; the module

then becomes available as a global name. Because there is only one instance of each module, any changes made to the module object get reflected everywhere. For example:

config.py:

```
\mathbf{x} = 0 # Default value of the 'x' configuration setting
```

mod.py:

```
import config
config.x = 1
```

main.py:

```
import config
import mod
print(config.x)
```

Note that using a module is also the basis for implementing the Singleton design pattern, for the same reason.

2.2.5 What are the "best practices" for using import in a module?

In general, don't use from modulename import *. Doing so clutters the importer's namespace, and makes it much harder for linters to detect undefined names.

Import modules at the top of a file. Doing so makes it clear what other modules your code requires and avoids questions of whether the module name is in scope. Using one import per line makes it easy to add and delete module imports, but using multiple imports per line uses less screen space.

It's good practice if you import modules in the following order:

- 1. standard library modules e.g. sys, os, getopt, re
- 2. third-party library modules (anything installed in Python's site-packages directory) e.g. mx.DateTime, ZODB, PIL.Image, etc.
- 3. locally-developed modules

It is sometimes necessary to move imports to a function or class to avoid problems with circular imports. Gordon McMillan says:

Circular imports are fine where both modules use the "import <module>" form of import. They fail when the 2nd module wants to grab a name out of the first ("from module import name") and the import is at the top level. That's because names in the 1st are not yet available, because the first module is busy importing the 2nd.

In this case, if the second module is only used in one function, then the import can easily be moved into that function. By the time the import is called, the first module will have finished initializing, and the second module can do its import.

It may also be necessary to move imports out of the top level of code if some of the modules are platform-specific. In that case, it may not even be possible to import all of the modules at the top of the file. In this case, importing the correct modules in the corresponding platform-specific code is a good option.

Only move imports into a local scope, such as inside a function definition, if it's necessary to solve a problem such as avoiding a circular import or are trying to reduce the initialization time of a module. This technique is especially helpful if many of the imports are unnecessary depending on how the program executes. You may also want to move imports into a function if the modules are only ever used in that function. Note that loading a module the first time may be expensive because of the one time initialization of the module, but

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loading a module multiple times is virtually free, costing only a couple of dictionary lookups. Even if the module name has gone out of scope, the module is probably available in sys.modules.

2.2.6 Why are default values shared between objects?

This type of bug commonly bites neophyte programmers. Consider this function:

```
def foo(mydict={}): # Danger: shared reference to one dict for all calls
    ... compute something ...
    mydict[key] = value
    return mydict
```

The first time you call this function, mydict contains a single item. The second time, mydict contains two items because when foo() begins executing, mydict starts out with an item already in it.

It is often expected that a function call creates new objects for default values. This is not what happens. Default values are created exactly once, when the function is defined. If that object is changed, like the dictionary in this example, subsequent calls to the function will refer to this changed object.

By definition, immutable objects such as numbers, strings, tuples, and None, are safe from change. Changes to mutable objects such as dictionaries, lists, and class instances can lead to confusion.

Because of this feature, it is good programming practice to not use mutable objects as default values. Instead, use None as the default value and inside the function, check if the parameter is None and create a new list/dictionary/whatever if it is. For example, don't write:

```
def foo(mydict={}):
    ...
```

but:

```
def foo(mydict=None):
    if mydict is None:
        mydict = {} # create a new dict for local namespace
```

This feature can be useful. When you have a function that's time-consuming to compute, a common technique is to cache the parameters and the resulting value of each call to the function, and return the cached value if the same value is requested again. This is called "memoizing", and can be implemented like this:

```
# Callers can only provide two parameters and optionally pass _cache by keyword
def expensive(arg1, arg2, *, _cache={}):
    if (arg1, arg2) in _cache:
        return _cache[(arg1, arg2)]

# Calculate the value
result = ... expensive computation ...
_cache[(arg1, arg2)] = result  # Store result in the cache
return result
```

You could use a global variable containing a dictionary instead of the default value; it's a matter of taste.

2.2.7 How can I pass optional or keyword parameters from one function to another?

Collect the arguments using the * and ** specifiers in the function' s parameter list; this gives you the positional arguments as a tuple and the keyword arguments as a dictionary. You can then pass these arguments when calling another function by using * and **:

```
def f(x, *args, **kwargs):
    ...
    kwargs['width'] = '14.3c'
    ...
    g(x, *args, **kwargs)
```

2.2.8 What is the difference between arguments and parameters?

Parameters are defined by the names that appear in a function definition, whereas *arguments* are the values actually passed to a function when calling it. Parameters define what types of arguments a function can accept. For example, given the function definition:

```
def func(foo, bar=None, **kwargs):
   pass
```

foo, bar and kwargs are parameters of func. However, when calling func, for example:

```
func(42, bar=314, extra=somevar)
```

the values 42, 314, and somevar are arguments.

2.2.9 Why did changing list 'y' also change list 'x'?

If you wrote code like:

```
>>> x = []
>>> y = x
>>> y.append(10)
>>> y
[10]
>>> x
[10]
```

you might be wondering why appending an element to y changed x too.

There are two factors that produce this result:

- 1) Variables are simply names that refer to objects. Doing y = x doesn't create a copy of the list it creates a new variable y that refers to the same object x refers to. This means that there is only one object (the list), and both x and y refer to it.
- 2) Lists are *mutable*, which means that you can change their content.

After the call to append(), the content of the mutable object has changed from [] to [10]. Since both the variables refer to the same object, using either name accesses the modified value [10].

If we instead assign an immutable object to x:

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```
>>> x = 5  # ints are immutable
>>> y = x
>>> x = x + 1  # 5 can't be mutated, we are creating a new object here
>>> x
6
>>> y
5
```

we can see that in this case x and y are not equal anymore. This is because integers are *immutable*, and when we do x = x + 1 we are not mutating the int 5 by incrementing its value; instead, we are creating a new object (the int 6) and assigning it to x (that is, changing which object x refers to). After this assignment we have two objects (the ints 6 and 5) and two variables that refer to them (x now refers to 6 but y still refers to 5).

Some operations (for example y.append(10) and y.sort()) mutate the object, whereas superficially similar operations (for example y = y + [10] and sorted(y)) create a new object. In general in Python (and in all cases in the standard library) a method that mutates an object will return None to help avoid getting the two types of operations confused. So if you mistakenly write y.sort() thinking it will give you a sorted copy of y, you'll instead end up with None, which will likely cause your program to generate an easily diagnosed error.

However, there is one class of operations where the same operation sometimes has different behaviors with different types: the augmented assignment operators. For example, += mutates lists but not tuples or ints (a_list += [1, 2, 3] is equivalent to a_list.extend([1, 2, 3]) and mutates a_list, whereas some_tuple += (1, 2, 3) and some_int += 1 create new objects).

In other words:

- If we have a mutable object (list, dict, set, etc.), we can use some specific operations to mutate it and all the variables that refer to it will see the change.
- If we have an immutable object (str, int, tuple, etc.), all the variables that refer to it will always see the same value, but operations that transform that value into a new value always return a new object.

If you want to know if two variables refer to the same object or not, you can use the is operator, or the built-in function id().

2.2.10 How do I write a function with output parameters (call by reference)?

Remember that arguments are passed by assignment in Python. Since assignment just creates references to objects, there's no alias between an argument name in the caller and callee, and so no call-by-reference per se. You can achieve the desired effect in a number of ways.

1) By returning a tuple of the results:

```
def func2(a, b):
    a = 'new-value'  # a and b are local names
    b = b + 1  # assigned to new objects
    return a, b  # return new values

x, y = 'old-value', 99
x, y = func2(x, y)
print(x, y)  # output: new-value 100
```

This is almost always the clearest solution.

2) By using global variables. This isn't thread-safe, and is not recommended.

3) By passing a mutable (changeable in-place) object:

```
def func1(a):
    a[0] = 'new-value'  # 'a' references a mutable list
    a[1] = a[1] + 1  # changes a shared object

args = ['old-value', 99]
func1(args)
print(args[0], args[1])  # output: new-value 100
```

4) By passing in a dictionary that gets mutated:

```
def func3(args):
    args['a'] = 'new-value'  # args is a mutable dictionary
    args['b'] = args['b'] + 1  # change it in-place

args = {'a': 'old-value', 'b': 99}
func3(args)
print(args['a'], args['b'])
```

5) Or bundle up values in a class instance:

```
class callByRef:
    def __init__(self, **args):
        for (key, value) in args.items():
            setattr(self, key, value)

def func4(args):
        args.a = 'new-value'  # args is a mutable callByRef
        args.b = args.b + 1  # change object in-place

args = callByRef(a='old-value', b=99)
func4(args)
print(args.a, args.b)
```

There's almost never a good reason to get this complicated.

Your best choice is to return a tuple containing the multiple results.

2.2.11 How do you make a higher order function in Python?

You have two choices: you can use nested scopes or you can use callable objects. For example, suppose you wanted to define linear(a,b) which returns a function f(x) that computes the value a*x+b. Using nested scopes:

```
def linear(a, b):
    def result(x):
        return a * x + b
    return result
```

Or using a callable object:

```
class linear: (下页继续)
```

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(续上页)

```
def __init__(self, a, b):
    self.a, self.b = a, b

def __call__(self, x):
    return self.a * x + self.b
```

In both cases,

```
taxes = linear(0.3, 2)
```

gives a callable object where taxes(10e6) == 0.3 * 10e6 + 2.

The callable object approach has the disadvantage that it is a bit slower and results in slightly longer code. However, note that a collection of callables can share their signature via inheritance:

```
class exponential(linear):
    # __init__ inherited
    def __call__(self, x):
        return self.a * (x ** self.b)
```

Object can encapsulate state for several methods:

```
class counter:
    value = 0

    def set(self, x):
        self.value = x

    def up(self):
        self.value = self.value + 1

    def down(self):
        self.value = self.value - 1

count = counter()
inc, dec, reset = count.up, count.down, count.set
```

Here inc(), dec() and reset() act like functions which share the same counting variable.

2.2.12 How do I copy an object in Python?

In general, try copy.copy() or copy.deepcopy() for the general case. Not all objects can be copied, but most can.

Some objects can be copied more easily. Dictionaries have a copy() method:

```
newdict = olddict.copy()
```

Sequences can be copied by slicing:

```
new_1 = 1[:]
```

2.2.13 How can I find the methods or attributes of an object?

For an instance x of a user-defined class, dir(x) returns an alphabetized list of the names containing the instance attributes and methods and attributes defined by its class.

2.2.14 How can my code discover the name of an object?

Generally speaking, it can't, because objects don't really have names. Essentially, assignment always binds a name to a value; The same is true of def and class statements, but in that case the value is a callable. Consider the following code:

```
>>> class A:
...     pass
...
>>> B = A
>>> a = B()
>>> b = a
>>> print(b)
<__main__.A object at 0x16D07CC>
>>> print(a)
<__main__.A object at 0x16D07CC>
```

Arguably the class has a name: even though it is bound to two names and invoked through the name B the created instance is still reported as an instance of class A. However, it is impossible to say whether the instance's name is a or b, since both names are bound to the same value.

Generally speaking it should not be necessary for your code to "know the names" of particular values. Unless you are deliberately writing introspective programs, this is usually an indication that a change of approach might be beneficial.

In comp.lang.python, Fredrik Lundh once gave an excellent analogy in answer to this question:

The same way as you get the name of that cat you found on your porch: the cat (object) itself cannot tell you its name, and it doesn't really care – so the only way to find out what it's called is to ask all your neighbours (namespaces) if it's their cat (object)…

....and don't be surprised if you'll find that it's known by many names, or no name at all!

2.2.15 What's up with the comma operator's precedence?

Comma is not an operator in Python. Consider this session:

```
>>> "a" in "b", "a"
(False, 'a')
```

Since the comma is not an operator, but a separator between expressions the above is evaluated as if you had entered:

```
("a" in "b"), "a"
```

not:

```
"a" in ("b", "a")
```

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The same is true of the various assignment operators (=, += etc). They are not truly operators but syntactic delimiters in assignment statements.

2.2.16 Is there an equivalent of C's "?:" ternary operator?

Yes, there is. The syntax is as follows:

```
[on_true] if [expression] else [on_false]

x, y = 50, 25
small = x if x < y else y</pre>
```

Before this syntax was introduced in Python 2.5, a common idiom was to use logical operators:

```
[expression] and [on_true] or [on_false]
```

However, this idiom is unsafe, as it can give wrong results when *on_true* has a false boolean value. Therefore, it is always better to use the ... if ... else ... form.

2.2.17 Is it possible to write obfuscated one-liners in Python?

Yes. Usually this is done by nesting lambda within lambda. See the following three examples, due to Ulf Bartelt:

```
from functools import reduce
# Primes < 1000
print(list(filter(None,map(lambda y:y*reduce(lambda x,y:x*y!=0,
map(lambda x, y=y:y\%x, range(2, int(pow(y, 0.5)+1))), 1), range(2, 1000)))))
# First 10 Fibonacci numbers
print(list(map(lambda x,f=lambda x,f:(f(x-1,f)+f(x-2,f)) if x>1 else 1:
f(x,f), range(10)))
# Mandelbrot set
print((lambda Ru,Ro,Iu,Io,IM,Sx,Sy:reduce(lambda x,y:x+y,map(lambda y,
Iu=Iu,Io=Io,Ru=Ru,Ro=Ro,Sy=Sy,L=lambda yc,Iu=Iu,Io=Io,Ru=Ru,Ro=Ro,i=IM,
Sx=Sx,Sy=Sy:reduce(lambda x,y:x+y,map(lambda x,xc=Ru,yc=yc,Ru=Ru,Ro=Ro,
i=i,Sx=Sx,F=lambda xc,yc,x,y,k,f=lambda xc,yc,x,y,k,f:(k<=0)or (x*x+y*y)
>=4.0) or 1+f(xc,yc,x*x-y*y+xc,2.0*x*y+yc,k-1,f):f(xc,yc,x,y,k,f):chr(
64+F(Ru+x*(Ro-Ru)/Sx,yc,0,0,i)),range(Sx))):L(Iu+y*(Io-Iu)/Sy),range(Sy)
))))(-2.1, 0.7, -1.2, 1.2, 30, 80, 24))
         ___/ \____/ | | | | lines on screen
                             /____ columns on screen
#
                          /
                          /_____ maximum of "iterations"
#
                       \_\_\_\_ range on y axis
#
#
             _____ range on x axis
```

Don't try this at home, kids!

2.3 Numbers and strings

2.3.1 How do I specify hexadecimal and octal integers?

To specify an octal digit, precede the octal value with a zero, and then a lower or uppercase "o". For example, to set the variable "a" to the octal value "10" (8 in decimal), type:

```
>>> a = 0o10
>>> a
8
```

Hexadecimal is just as easy. Simply precede the hexadecimal number with a zero, and then a lower or uppercase "x" . Hexadecimal digits can be specified in lower or uppercase. For example, in the Python interpreter:

```
>>> a = 0xa5

>>> a

165

>>> b = 0XB2

>>> b

178
```

2.3.2 Why does -22 // 10 return -3?

It's primarily driven by the desire that i % j have the same sign as j. If you want that, and also want:

```
i == (i // j) * j + (i % j)
```

then integer division has to return the floor. C also requires that identity to hold, and then compilers that truncate i // j need to make i % j have the same sign as i.

There are few real use cases for i % j when j is negative. When j is positive, there are many, and in virtually all of them it's more useful for i % j to be >= 0. If the clock says 10 now, what did it say 200 hours ago? -190 % 12 == 2 is useful; -190 % 12 == -10 is a bug waiting to bite.

2.3.3 How do I convert a string to a number?

For integers, use the built-in int() type constructor, e.g. int('144') == 144. Similarly, float() converts to floating-point, e.g. float('144') == 144.0.

By default, these interpret the number as decimal, so that int('0144') == 144 and int('0x144') raises ValueError. int(string, base) takes the base to convert from as a second optional argument, so int('0x144', 16) == 324. If the base is specified as 0, the number is interpreted using Python's rules: a leading '0o' indicates octal, and '0x' indicates a hex number.

Do not use the built-in function eval() if all you need is to convert strings to numbers. eval() will be significantly slower and it presents a security risk: someone could pass you a Python expression that might have unwanted side effects. For example, someone could pass <code>__import__('os').system("rm -rf \$HOME")</code> which would erase your home directory.

eval() also has the effect of interpreting numbers as Python expressions, so that e.g. eval('09') gives a syntax error because Python does not allow leading '0' in a decimal number (except '0').

2.3.4 How do I convert a number to a string?

To convert, e.g., the number 144 to the string '144', use the built-in type constructor str(). If you want a hexadecimal or octal representation, use the built-in functions hex() or oct(). For fancy formatting, see the f-strings and formatstrings sections, e.g. "{:04d}".format(144) yields '0144' and "{:.3f}".format(1.0/3.0) yields '0.333'.

2.3.5 How do I modify a string in place?

You can't, because strings are immutable. In most situations, you should simply construct a new string from the various parts you want to assemble it from. However, if you need an object with the ability to modify in-place unicode data, try using an io.StringIO object or the array module:

```
>>> import io
>>> s = "Hello, world"
>>> sio = io.StringIO(s)
>>> sio.getvalue()
'Hello, world'
>>> sio.seek(7)
>>> sio.write("there!")
>>> sio.getvalue()
'Hello, there!'
>>> import array
>>> a = array.array('u', s)
>>> print(a)
array('u', 'Hello, world')
>>> a[0] = 'y'
>>> print(a)
array('u', 'yello, world')
>>> a.tounicode()
'yello, world'
```

2.3.6 How do I use strings to call functions/methods?

There are various techniques.

• The best is to use a dictionary that maps strings to functions. The primary advantage of this technique is that the strings do not need to match the names of the functions. This is also the primary technique used to emulate a case construct:

```
def a():
    pass

def b():
    pass

dispatch = {'go': a, 'stop': b} # Note lack of parens for funcs

dispatch[get_input()]() # Note trailing parens to call function
```

• Use the built-in function getattr():

```
import foo
getattr(foo, 'bar')()
```

Note that getattr() works on any object, including classes, class instances, modules, and so on.

This is used in several places in the standard library, like this:

```
class Foo:
    def do_foo(self):
        ...
    def do_bar(self):
        ...

f = getattr(foo_instance, 'do_' + opname)
f()
```

• Use locals() or eval() to resolve the function name:

```
def myFunc():
    print("hello")

fname = "myFunc"

f = locals()[fname]
f()

f = eval(fname)
f()
```

Note: Using eval() is slow and dangerous. If you don't have absolute control over the contents of the string, someone could pass a string that resulted in an arbitrary function being executed.

2.3.7 Is there an equivalent to Perl's chomp() for removing trailing newlines from strings?

You can use S.rstrip("\r\n") to remove all occurrences of any line terminator from the end of the string S without removing other trailing whitespace. If the string S represents more than one line, with several empty lines at the end, the line terminators for all the blank lines will be removed:

Since this is typically only desired when reading text one line at a time, using S.rstrip() this way works well.

2.3.8 Is there a scanf() or sscanf() equivalent?

Not as such.

For simple input parsing, the easiest approach is usually to split the line into whitespace-delimited words using the split() method of string objects and then convert decimal strings to numeric values using int() or float(). split() supports an optional "sep" parameter which is useful if the line uses something other than whitespace as a separator.

For more complicated input parsing, regular expressions are more powerful than C's sscanf() and better suited for the task.

2.3.9 What does 'UnicodeDecodeError' or 'UnicodeEncodeError' error mean?

See the unicode-howto.

2.4 性能

2.4.1 My program is too slow. How do I speed it up?

That's a tough one, in general. First, here are a list of things to remember before diving further:

- Performance characteristics vary across Python implementations. This FAQ focusses on CPython.
- Behaviour can vary across operating systems, especially when talking about I/O or multi-threading.
- You should always find the hot spots in your program *before* attempting to optimize any code (see the profile module).
- Writing benchmark scripts will allow you to iterate quickly when searching for improvements (see the timeit module).
- It is highly recommended to have good code coverage (through unit testing or any other technique) before potentially introducing regressions hidden in sophisticated optimizations.

That being said, there are many tricks to speed up Python code. Here are some general principles which go a long way towards reaching acceptable performance levels:

- Making your algorithms faster (or changing to faster ones) can yield much larger benefits than trying to sprinkle micro-optimization tricks all over your code.
- Use the right data structures. Study documentation for the bltin-types and the collections module.
- When the standard library provides a primitive for doing something, it is likely (although not guaranteed) to be faster than any alternative you may come up with. This is doubly true for primitives written in C, such as builtins and some extension types. For example, be sure to use either the list. sort() built-in method or the related sorted() function to do sorting (and see the sortinghowto for examples of moderately advanced usage).
- Abstractions tend to create indirections and force the interpreter to work more. If the levels of indirection outweigh the amount of useful work done, your program will be slower. You should avoid excessive abstraction, especially under the form of tiny functions or methods (which are also often detrimental to readability).

If you have reached the limit of what pure Python can allow, there are tools to take you further away. For example, Cython can compile a slightly modified version of Python code into a C extension, and can be used on many different platforms. Cython can take advantage of compilation (and optional type annotations) to make your code significantly faster than when interpreted. If you are confident in your C programming skills, you can also write a C extension module yourself.

参见:

The wiki page devoted to performance tips.

2.4.2 What is the most efficient way to concatenate many strings together?

str and bytes objects are immutable, therefore concatenating many strings together is inefficient as each concatenation creates a new object. In the general case, the total runtime cost is quadratic in the total string length.

To accumulate many str objects, the recommended idiom is to place them into a list and call str.join() at the end:

```
chunks = []
for s in my_strings:
    chunks.append(s)
result = ''.join(chunks)
```

(another reasonably efficient idiom is to use io.StringIO)

To accumulate many bytes objects, the recommended idiom is to extend a bytearray object using in-place concatenation (the += operator):

```
result = bytearray()
for b in my_bytes_objects:
    result += b
```

2.5 Sequences (Tuples/Lists)

2.5.1 How do I convert between tuples and lists?

The type constructor tuple(seq) converts any sequence (actually, any iterable) into a tuple with the same items in the same order.

For example, tuple([1, 2, 3]) yields (1, 2, 3) and tuple('abc') yields ('a', 'b', 'c'). If the argument is a tuple, it does not make a copy but returns the same object, so it is cheap to call tuple() when you aren't sure that an object is already a tuple.

The type constructor list(seq) converts any sequence or iterable into a list with the same items in the same order. For example, list((1, 2, 3)) yields [1, 2, 3] and list('abc') yields ['a', 'b', 'c']. If the argument is a list, it makes a copy just like seq[:] would.

2.5.2 What's a negative index?

Python sequences are indexed with positive numbers and negative numbers. For positive numbers 0 is the first index 1 is the second index and so forth. For negative indices -1 is the last index and -2 is the penultimate (next to last) index and so forth. Think of seq[-n] as the same as seq[len(seq)-n].

Using negative indices can be very convenient. For example S[:-1] is all of the string except for its last character, which is useful for removing the trailing newline from a string.

2.5.3 How do I iterate over a sequence in reverse order?

Use the reversed() built-in function, which is new in Python 2.4:

```
for x in reversed(sequence):
    ... # do something with x ...
```

This won't touch your original sequence, but build a new copy with reversed order to iterate over.

With Python 2.3, you can use an extended slice syntax:

```
for x in sequence[::-1]:
    ... # do something with x ...
```

2.5.4 How do you remove duplicates from a list?

See the Python Cookbook for a long discussion of many ways to do this:

```
https://code.activestate.com/recipes/52560/
```

If you don't mind reordering the list, sort it and then scan from the end of the list, deleting duplicates as you go:

```
if mylist:
    mylist.sort()
    last = mylist[-1]
    for i in range(len(mylist)-2, -1, -1):
        if last == mylist[i]:
            del mylist[i]
        else:
            last = mylist[i]
```

If all elements of the list may be used as set keys (i.e. they are all hashable) this is often faster

```
mylist = list(set(mylist))
```

This converts the list into a set, thereby removing duplicates, and then back into a list.

2.5.5 How do you make an array in Python?

Use a list:

```
["this", 1, "is", "an", "array"]
```

Lists are equivalent to C or Pascal arrays in their time complexity; the primary difference is that a Python list can contain objects of many different types.

The array module also provides methods for creating arrays of fixed types with compact representations, but they are slower to index than lists. Also note that the Numeric extensions and others define array-like structures with various characteristics as well.

To get Lisp-style linked lists, you can emulate cons cells using tuples:

```
lisp_list = ("like", ("this", ("example", None) ) )
```

If mutability is desired, you could use lists instead of tuples. Here the analogue of lisp car is lisp_list[0] and the analogue of cdr is lisp_list[1]. Only do this if you' re sure you really need to, because it's usually a lot slower than using Python lists.

2.5.6 How do I create a multidimensional list?

You probably tried to make a multidimensional array like this:

```
>>> A = [[None] * 2] * 3
```

This looks correct if you print it:

```
>>> A
[[None, None], [None, None]]
```

But when you assign a value, it shows up in multiple places:

```
>>> A[0][0] = 5
>>> A
[[5, None], [5, None], [5, None]]
```

The reason is that replicating a list with * doesn' t create copies, it only creates references to the existing objects. The *3 creates a list containing 3 references to the same list of length two. Changes to one row will show in all rows, which is almost certainly not what you want.

The suggested approach is to create a list of the desired length first and then fill in each element with a newly created list:

```
A = [None] * 3
for i in range(3):
    A[i] = [None] * 2
```

This generates a list containing 3 different lists of length two. You can also use a list comprehension:

```
w, h = 2, 3
A = [[None] * w for i in range(h)]
```

Or, you can use an extension that provides a matrix datatype; NumPy is the best known.

2.5.7 How do I apply a method to a sequence of objects?

Use a list comprehension:

```
result = [obj.method() for obj in mylist]
```

2.5.8 Why does a_tuple[i] += ['item'] raise an exception when the addition works?

This is because of a combination of the fact that augmented assignment operators are assignment operators, and the difference between mutable and immutable objects in Python.

This discussion applies in general when augmented assignment operators are applied to elements of a tuple that point to mutable objects, but we'll use a list and += as our exemplar.

If you wrote:

```
>>> a_tuple = (1, 2)
>>> a_tuple[0] += 1
Traceback (most recent call last):
```

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```
TypeError: 'tuple' object does not support item assignment
```

The reason for the exception should be immediately clear: 1 is added to the object a_tuple[0] points to (1), producing the result object, 2, but when we attempt to assign the result of the computation, 2, to element 0 of the tuple, we get an error because we can't change what an element of a tuple points to.

Under the covers, what this augmented assignment statement is doing is approximately this:

```
>>> result = a_tuple[0] + 1
>>> a_tuple[0] = result
Traceback (most recent call last):
...
TypeError: 'tuple' object does not support item assignment
```

It is the assignment part of the operation that produces the error, since a tuple is immutable.

When you write something like:

```
>>> a_tuple = (['foo'], 'bar')
>>> a_tuple[0] += ['item']
Traceback (most recent call last):
...
TypeError: 'tuple' object does not support item assignment
```

The exception is a bit more surprising, and even more surprising is the fact that even though there was an error, the append worked:

```
>>> a_tuple[0]
['foo', 'item']
```

To see why this happens, you need to know that (a) if an object implements an <code>__iadd__</code> magic method, it gets called when the <code>+=</code> augmented assignment is executed, and its return value is what gets used in the assignment statement; and (b) for lists, <code>__iadd__</code> is equivalent to calling <code>extend</code> on the list and returning the list. That's why we say that for lists, <code>+=</code> is a "shorthand" for <code>list.extend</code>:

```
>>> a_list = []
>>> a_list += [1]
>>> a_list
[1]
```

This is equivalent to:

```
>>> result = a_list.__iadd__([1])
>>> a_list = result
```

The object pointed to by a_list has been mutated, and the pointer to the mutated object is assigned back to a_list. The end result of the assignment is a no-op, since it is a pointer to the same object that a_list was previously pointing to, but the assignment still happens.

Thus, in our tuple example what is happening is equivalent to:

```
>>> result = a_tuple[0].__iadd__(['item'])
>>> a_tuple[0] = result

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```

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```
Traceback (most recent call last):
...
TypeError: 'tuple' object does not support item assignment
```

The __iadd__ succeeds, and thus the list is extended, but even though result points to the same object that a_tuple[0] already points to, that final assignment still results in an error, because tuples are immutable.

2.6 Dictionaries

2.6.1 How can I get a dictionary to store and display its keys in a consistent order?

Use collections.OrderedDict.

2.6.2 I want to do a complicated sort: can you do a Schwartzian Transform in Python?

The technique, attributed to Randal Schwartz of the Perl community, sorts the elements of a list by a metric which maps each element to its "sort value". In Python, use the key argument for the list.sort() method:

```
Isorted = L[:]
Isorted.sort(key=lambda s: int(s[10:15]))
```

2.6.3 How can I sort one list by values from another list?

Merge them into an iterator of tuples, sort the resulting list, and then pick out the element you want.

```
>>> list1 = ["what", "I'm", "sorting", "by"]
>>> list2 = ["something", "else", "to", "sort"]
>>> pairs = zip(list1, list2)
>>> pairs = sorted(pairs)
>>> pairs
[("I'm", 'else'), ('by', 'sort'), ('sorting', 'to'), ('what', 'something')]
>>> result = [x[1] for x in pairs]
>>> result
['else', 'sort', 'to', 'something']
```

An alternative for the last step is:

```
>>> result = []
>>> for p in pairs: result.append(p[1])
```

If you find this more legible, you might prefer to use this instead of the final list comprehension. However, it is almost twice as slow for long lists. Why? First, the append() operation has to reallocate memory, and while it uses some tricks to avoid doing that each time, it still has to do it occasionally, and that costs quite a bit. Second, the expression "result.append" requires an extra attribute lookup, and third, there's a speed reduction from having to make all those function calls.

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2.7 Objects

2.7.1 What is a class?

A class is the particular object type created by executing a class statement. Class objects are used as templates to create instance objects, which embody both the data (attributes) and code (methods) specific to a datatype.

A class can be based on one or more other classes, called its base class(es). It then inherits the attributes and methods of its base classes. This allows an object model to be successively refined by inheritance. You might have a generic Mailbox class that provides basic accessor methods for a mailbox, and subclasses such as MboxMailbox, MaildirMailbox, OutlookMailbox that handle various specific mailbox formats.

2.7.2 What is a method?

A method is a function on some object x that you normally call as x.name(arguments...). Methods are defined as functions inside the class definition:

```
class C:
    def meth(self, arg):
        return arg * 2 + self.attribute
```

2.7.3 What is self?

Self is merely a conventional name for the first argument of a method. A method defined as meth(self, a, b, c) should be called as x.meth(a, b, c) for some instance x of the class in which the definition occurs; the called method will think it is called as meth(x, a, b, c).

See also 为什么必须在方法定义和调用中显式使用"self'?.

2.7.4 How do I check if an object is an instance of a given class or of a subclass of it?

Use the built-in function isinstance(obj, cls). You can check if an object is an instance of any of a number of classes by providing a tuple instead of a single class, e.g. isinstance(obj, (class1, class2, ...)), and can also check whether an object is one of Python's built-in types, e.g. isinstance(obj, str) or isinstance(obj, (int, float, complex)).

Note that most programs do not use <code>isinstance()</code> on user-defined classes very often. If you are developing the classes yourself, a more proper object-oriented style is to define methods on the classes that encapsulate a particular behaviour, instead of checking the object's class and doing a different thing based on what class it is. For example, if you have a function that does something:

```
def search(obj):
    if isinstance(obj, Mailbox):
        ... # code to search a mailbox
    elif isinstance(obj, Document):
        ... # code to search a document
    elif ...
```

A better approach is to define a search() method on all the classes and just call it:

```
class Mailbox:
    def search(self):
        ... # code to search a mailbox

class Document:
    def search(self):
        ... # code to search a document

obj.search()
```

2.7.5 What is delegation?

Delegation is an object oriented technique (also called a design pattern). Let's say you have an object x and want to change the behaviour of just one of its methods. You can create a new class that provides a new implementation of the method you're interested in changing and delegates all other methods to the corresponding method of x.

Python programmers can easily implement delegation. For example, the following class implements a class that behaves like a file but converts all written data to uppercase:

```
class UpperOut:
    def __init__(self, outfile):
        self._outfile = outfile

    def write(self, s):
        self._outfile.write(s.upper())

    def __getattr__(self, name):
        return getattr(self._outfile, name)
```

Here the UpperOut class redefines the write() method to convert the argument string to uppercase before calling the underlying self.__outfile.write() method. All other methods are delegated to the underlying self.__outfile object. The delegation is accomplished via the __getattr__ method; consult the language reference for more information about controlling attribute access.

Note that for more general cases delegation can get trickier. When attributes must be set as well as retrieved, the class must define a <code>__setattr__()</code> method too, and it must do so carefully. The basic implementation of <code>__setattr__()</code> is roughly equivalent to the following:

```
class X:
    ...
    def __setattr__(self, name, value):
        self.__dict__[name] = value
    ...
```

Most __setattr__() implementations must modify self.__dict__ to store local state for self without causing an infinite recursion.

2.7.6 How do I call a method defined in a base class from a derived class that overrides it?

Use the built-in super() function:

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```
class Derived(Base):
    def meth(self):
        super(Derived, self).meth()
```

For version prior to 3.0, you may be using classic classes: For a class definition such as class Derived(Base): ... you can call method meth() defined in Base (or one of Base's base classes) as Base.meth(self, arguments...). Here, Base.meth is an unbound method, so you need to provide the self argument.

2.7.7 How can I organize my code to make it easier to change the base class?

You could define an alias for the base class, assign the real base class to it before your class definition, and use the alias throughout your class. Then all you have to change is the value assigned to the alias. Incidentally, this trick is also handy if you want to decide dynamically (e.g. depending on availability of resources) which base class to use. Example:

```
BaseAlias = <real base class>

class Derived(BaseAlias):
    def meth(self):
        BaseAlias.meth(self)
        ...
```

2.7.8 How do I create static class data and static class methods?

Both static data and static methods (in the sense of C++ or Java) are supported in Python.

For static data, simply define a class attribute. To assign a new value to the attribute, you have to explicitly use the class name in the assignment:

```
class C:
    count = 0  # number of times C.__init__ called

    def __init__(self):
        C.count = C.count + 1

    def getcount(self):
        return C.count  # or return self.count
```

c.count also refers to C.count for any c such that isinstance(c, C) holds, unless overridden by c itself or by some class on the base-class search path from c.__class__ back to C.

Caution: within a method of C, an assignment like self.count = 42 creates a new and unrelated instance named "count" in self's own dict. Rebinding of a class-static data name must always specify the class whether inside a method or not:

```
C.count = 314
```

Static methods are possible:

```
class C:
@staticmethod
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```

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```
def static(arg1, arg2, arg3):
    # No 'self' parameter!
    ...
```

However, a far more straightforward way to get the effect of a static method is via a simple module-level function:

```
def getcount():
   return C.count
```

If your code is structured so as to define one class (or tightly related class hierarchy) per module, this supplies the desired encapsulation.

2.7.9 How can I overload constructors (or methods) in Python?

This answer actually applies to all methods, but the question usually comes up first in the context of constructors.

In C++ you' d write

```
class C {
    C() { cout << "No arguments\n"; }
    C(int i) { cout << "Argument is " << i << "\n"; }
}</pre>
```

In Python you have to write a single constructor that catches all cases using default arguments. For example:

```
class C:
    def __init__(self, i=None):
        if i is None:
            print("No arguments")
        else:
            print("Argument is", i)
```

This is not entirely equivalent, but close enough in practice.

You could also try a variable-length argument list, e.g.

```
def __init__(self, *args):
    ...
```

The same approach works for all method definitions.

2.7.10 I try to use ___spam and I get an error about _SomeClassName__spam.

Variable names with double leading underscores are "mangled" to provide a simple but effective way to define class private variables. Any identifier of the form <code>__spam</code> (at least two leading underscores, at most one trailing underscore) is textually replaced with <code>_classname__spam</code>, where <code>classname</code> is the current class name with any leading underscores stripped.

This doesn't guarantee privacy: an outside user can still deliberately access the "_classname__spam" attribute, and private values are visible in the object's __dict__. Many Python programmers never bother to use private variable names at all.

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2.7.11 My class defines ___del___ but it is not called when I delete the object.

There are several possible reasons for this.

The del statement does not necessarily call __del__() – it simply decrements the object's reference count, and if this reaches zero __del__() is called.

If your data structures contain circular links (e.g. a tree where each child has a parent reference and each parent has a list of children) the reference counts will never go back to zero. Once in a while Python runs an algorithm to detect such cycles, but the garbage collector might run some time after the last reference to your data structure vanishes, so your __del__() method may be called at an inconvenient and random time. This is inconvenient if you' re trying to reproduce a problem. Worse, the order in which object's __del__() methods are executed is arbitrary. You can run gc.collect() to force a collection, but there are pathological cases where objects will never be collected.

Despite the cycle collector, it's still a good idea to define an explicit close() method on objects to be called whenever you're done with them. The close() method can then remove attributes that refer to subobjects. Don't call __del__() directly - __del__() should call close() and close() should make sure that it can be called more than once for the same object.

Another way to avoid cyclical references is to use the weakref module, which allows you to point to objects without incrementing their reference count. Tree data structures, for instance, should use weak references for their parent and sibling references (if they need them!).

Finally, if your __del__() method raises an exception, a warning message is printed to sys.stderr.

2.7.12 How do I get a list of all instances of a given class?

Python does not keep track of all instances of a class (or of a built-in type). You can program the class's constructor to keep track of all instances by keeping a list of weak references to each instance.

2.7.13 Why does the result of id() appear to be not unique?

The id() builtin returns an integer that is guaranteed to be unique during the lifetime of the object. Since in CPython, this is the object's memory address, it happens frequently that after an object is deleted from memory, the next freshly created object is allocated at the same position in memory. This is illustrated by this example:

```
>>> id(1000) # doctest: +SKIP
13901272
>>> id(2000) # doctest: +SKIP
13901272
```

The two ids belong to different integer objects that are created before, and deleted immediately after execution of the id() call. To be sure that objects whose id you want to examine are still alive, create another reference to the object:

```
>>> a = 1000; b = 2000

>>> id(a) # doctest: +SKIP

13901272

>>> id(b) # doctest: +SKIP

13891296
```

2.8 模块

2.8.1 How do I create a .pyc file?

When a module is imported for the first time (or when the source file has changed since the current compiled file was created) a .pyc file containing the compiled code should be created in a __pycache__ subdirectory of the directory containing the .py file. The .pyc file will have a filename that starts with the same name as the .py file, and ends with .pyc, with a middle component that depends on the particular python binary that created it. (See PEP 3147 for details.)

One reason that a .pyc file may not be created is a permissions problem with the directory containing the source file, meaning that the __pycache__ subdirectory cannot be created. This can happen, for example, if you develop as one user but run as another, such as if you are testing with a web server.

Unless the PYTHONDONTWRITEBYTECODE environment variable is set, creation of a .pyc file is automatic if you're importing a module and Python has the ability (permissions, free space, etc...) to create a __pycache__ subdirectory and write the compiled module to that subdirectory.

Running Python on a top level script is not considered an import and no .pyc will be created. For example, if you have a top-level module foo.py that imports another module xyz.py, when you run foo (by typing python foo.py as a shell command), a .pyc will be created for xyz because xyz is imported, but no .pyc file will be created for foo since foo.py isn't being imported.

If you need to create a .pyc file for foo – that is, to create a .pyc file for a module that is not imported – you can, using the py_compile and compileall modules.

The py_compile module can manually compile any module. One way is to use the compile() function in that module interactively:

```
>>> import py_compile
>>> py_compile.compile('foo.py')
```

This will write the .pyc to a __pycache__ subdirectory in the same location as foo.py (or you can override that with the optional parameter cfile).

You can also automatically compile all files in a directory or directories using the compileal1 module. You can do it from the shell prompt by running compileal1.py and providing the path of a directory containing Python files to compile:

```
python -m compileall .
```

2.8.2 How do I find the current module name?

A module can find out its own module name by looking at the predefined global variable <code>__name__</code>. If this has the value '__main__', the program is running as a script. Many modules that are usually used by importing them also provide a command-line interface or a self-test, and only execute this code after checking <code>__name__</code>:

```
def main():
    print('Running test...')
    ...

if __name__ == '__main__':
    main()
```

2.8. 模块 33

2.8.3 How can I have modules that mutually import each other?

Suppose you have the following modules:

foo.py:

```
from bar import bar_var
foo_var = 1
```

bar.py:

```
from foo import foo_var
bar_var = 2
```

The problem is that the interpreter will perform the following steps:

- main imports foo
- Empty globals for foo are created
- foo is compiled and starts executing
- foo imports bar
- Empty globals for bar are created
- bar is compiled and starts executing
- bar imports foo (which is a no-op since there already is a module named foo)
- bar.foo_var = foo.foo_var

The last step fails, because Python isn't done with interpreting foo yet and the global symbol dictionary for foo is still empty.

The same thing happens when you use import foo, and then try to access foo.foo_var in global code.

There are (at least) three possible workarounds for this problem.

Guido van Rossum recommends avoiding all uses of from <module> import ..., and placing all code inside functions. Initializations of global variables and class variables should use constants or built-in functions only. This means everything from an imported module is referenced as <module>.<name>.

Jim Roskind suggests performing steps in the following order in each module:

- exports (globals, functions, and classes that don't need imported base classes)
- import statements
- active code (including globals that are initialized from imported values).

van Rossum doesn' t like this approach much because the imports appear in a strange place, but it does work.

Matthias Urlichs recommends restructuring your code so that the recursive import is not necessary in the first place.

These solutions are not mutually exclusive.

```
2.8.4 __import__( 'x.y.z' ) returns <module 'x' >; how do I get z?
```

Consider using the convenience function import_module() from importlib instead:

```
z = importlib.import_module('x.y.z')
```

2.8.5 When I edit an imported module and reimport it, the changes don't show up. Why does this happen?

For reasons of efficiency as well as consistency, Python only reads the module file on the first time a module is imported. If it didn't, in a program consisting of many modules where each one imports the same basic module, the basic module would be parsed and re-parsed many times. To force re-reading of a changed module, do this:

```
import importlib
import modname
importlib.reload(modname)
```

Warning: this technique is not 100% fool-proof. In particular, modules containing statements like

```
from modname import some_objects
```

will continue to work with the old version of the imported objects. If the module contains class definitions, existing class instances will *not* be updated to use the new class definition. This can result in the following paradoxical behaviour:

```
>>> import importlib
>>> import cls
>>> c = cls.C()  # Create an instance of C
>>> importlib.reload(cls)
<module 'cls' from 'cls.py'>
>>> isinstance(c, cls.C)  # isinstance is false?!?
False
```

The nature of the problem is made clear if you print out the "identity" of the class objects:

```
>>> hex(id(c.__class__))
'0x7352a0'
>>> hex(id(cls.C))
'0x4198d0'
```

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设计和历史常见问题

3.1 为什么 Python 使用缩进来分组语句?

Guido van Rossum 认为使用缩进进行分组非常优雅,并且大大提高了普通 Python 程序的清晰度。大多数人在一段时间后就学会并喜欢上这个功能。

由于没有开始/结束括号,因此解析器感知的分组与人类读者之间不会存在分歧。偶尔 C 程序员会遇到像这样的代码片段:

如果条件为真,则只执行 x++ 语句,但缩进会使你认为情况并非如此。即使是经验丰富的 C 程序员有时会长时间盯着它,想知道为什么即使 x > y ,y 也在减少。

因为没有开始/结束括号,所以 Python 不太容易发生编码式冲突。在 C 中,括号可以放到许多不同的位置。如果您习惯于阅读和编写使用一种风格的代码,那么在阅读(或被要求编写)另一种风格时,您至少会感到有些不安。

许多编码风格将开始/结束括号单独放在一行上。这使得程序相当长,浪费了宝贵的屏幕空间,使得更难以对程序进行全面的了解。理想情况下,函数应该适合一个屏幕(例如,20-30 行)。20 行 Python 可以完成比 20 行 C 更多的工作。这不仅仅是由于缺少开始/结束括号 - 缺少声明和高级数据类型也是其中的原因 - 但缩进基于语法肯定有帮助。

3.2 为什么简单的算术运算得到奇怪的结果?

请看下一个问题。

3.3 为什么浮点计算不准确?

用户经常对这样的结果感到惊讶:

>>> 1.2 - 1.0

0.199999999999996

并且认为这是 Python 中的一个 bug。其实不是这样。这与 Python 关系不大,而与底层平台如何处理浮点数字关系更大。

CPython 中的 float 类型使用 C 语言的 double 类型进行存储。float 对象的值是以固定的精度(通常为53 位)存储的二进制浮点数,由于 Python 使用 C 操作,而后者依赖于处理器中的硬件实现来执行浮点运算。这意味着就浮点运算而言,Python 的行为类似于许多流行的语言,包括 C 和 Java。

许多可以轻松地用十进制表示的数字不能用二进制浮点表示。例如,之后:

>>> x = 1.2

为 x 存储的值是与十进制的值 1.2 (非常接近) 的近似值,但不完全等于它。在典型的机器上,实际存储的值是:

确切地说:

1.199999999999999555910790149937383830547332763671875 (decimal)

典型的 53 位精度为 Python 浮点数提供了 15-16 位小数的精度。

要获得更完整的解释,请参阅 Python 教程中的 浮点算术一章。

3.4 为什么 Python 字符串是不可变的?

有几个优点。

一个是性能:知道字符串是不可变的,意味着我们可以在创建时为它分配空间,并且存储需求是固定不变的。这也是元组和列表之间区别的原因之一。

另一个优点是, Python 中的字符串被视为与数字一样"基本"。任何动作都不会将值 8 更改为其他值, 在 Python 中, 任何动作都不会将字符串"8"更改为其他值。

3.5 为什么必须在方法定义和调用中显式使用 "self"?

这个想法借鉴了 Modula-3 语言。出于多种原因它被证明是非常有用的。

首先,更明显的显示出,使用的是方法或实例属性而不是局部变量。阅读 self.x 或 self.meth() 可以清楚 地表明,即使您不知道类的定义,也会使用实例变量或方法。在 C++ 中,可以通过缺少局部变量声明来判断(假设全局变量很少见或容易识别)——但是在 Python 中没有局部变量声明,所以必须查找类定义才能确定。一些 C++ 和 Java 编码标准要求实例属性具有 m_ 前缀,因此这种显式性在这些语言中仍然有用。

其次,这意味着如果要显式引用或从特定类调用该方法,不需要特殊语法。在 C++ 中,如果你想使用在派生类中重写基类中的方法,你必须使用::运算符-在 Python 中你可以编写 baseclass.methodname(self, <argument list>)。这对于 __init__()方法非常有用,特别是在派生类方法想要扩展同名的基类方法,而必须以某种方式调用基类方法时。

最后,它解决了变量赋值的语法问题:为了 Python 中的局部变量(根据定义!)在函数体中赋值的那些变量(并且没有明确声明为全局)赋值,就必须以某种方式告诉解释器一个赋值是为了分配一个实例变量而不是一个局部变量,它最好是通过语法实现的(出于效率原因)。C++ 通过声明来做到这一点,但是 Python没有声明,仅仅为了这个目的而引入它们会很可惜。使用显式的 self.var 很好地解决了这个问题。类似地,对于使用实例变量,必须编写 self.var 意味着对方法内部的非限定名称的引用不必搜索实例的目录。换句话说,局部变量和实例变量存在于两个不同的命名空间中,您需要告诉 Python 使用哪个命名空间。

3.6 为什么不能在表达式中赋值?

许多习惯于 C 或 Perl 的人抱怨, 他们想要使用 C 的这个特性:

```
while (line = readline(f)) {
    // do something with line
}
```

但在 Python 中被强制写成这样:

```
while True:
    line = f.readline()
    if not line:
        break
        ... # do something with line
```

不允许在 Python 表达式中赋值的原因是这些其他语言中常见的、很难发现的错误,是由这个结构引起的:

```
if (x = 0) {
    // error handling
}
else {
    // code that only works for nonzero x
}
```

错误是一个简单的错字: x = 0 , 将 0 赋给变量 x , 而比较 x == 0 肯定是可以预期的。

已经有许多替代方案提案。大多数是为了少打一些字的黑客方案,但使用任意或隐含的语法或关键词,并不符合语言变更提案的简单标准:它应该直观地向尚未被介绍到这一概念的人类读者提供正确的含义。

一个有趣的现象是,大多数有经验的 Python 程序员都认识到 while True 的习惯用法,也不太在意是否能在表达式构造中赋值;只有新人表达了强烈的愿望希望将其添加到语言中。

有一种替代的拼写方式看起来很有吸引力,但通常不如"while True"解决方案可靠:

```
line = f.readline()
while line:
    ... # do something with line...
line = f.readline()
```

问题在于,如果你改变主意(例如你想把它改成 sys.stdin.readline()),如何知道下一行。你必须记住改变程序中的两个地方 – 第二次出现隐藏在循环的底部。

最好的方法是使用迭代器,这样能通过 for 语句来循环遍历对象。例如file objects 支持迭代器协议,因此可以简单地写成:

```
for line in f:
... # do something with line...
```

3.7 为什么 Python 对某些功能 (例如 list.index()) 使用方法来实现,而 其他功能 (例如 len(List)) 使用函数实现?

正如 Guido 所说:

- (a) 对于某些操作,前缀表示法比后缀更容易阅读 前缀(和中缀!)运算在数学中有着悠久的传统,就像在视觉上帮助数学家思考问题的记法。比较一下我们将 $x^*(a+b)$ 这样的公式改写为 x^*a+x^*b 的容易程度,以及使用原始 OO 符号做相同事情的笨拙程度。
- (b) 当读到写有 len(X) 的代码时,就知道它要求的是某件东西的长度。这告诉我们两件事:结果是一个整数,参数是某种容器。相反,当阅读 x.len() 时,必须已经知道 x 是某种实现接口的容器,或者是从具有标准 len() 的类继承的容器。当没有实现映射的类有 get() 或 key() 方法,或者不是文件的类有 write() 方法时,我们偶尔会感到困惑。

—https://mail.python.org/pipermail/python-3000/2006-November/004643.html

3.8 为什么 join() 是一个字符串方法而不是列表或元组方法?

从 Python 1.6 开始,字符串变得更像其他标准类型,当添加方法时,这些方法提供的功能与始终使用 String 模块的函数时提供的功能相同。这些新方法中的大多数已被广泛接受,但似乎让一些程序员感到不舒服的一种方法是:

```
", ".join(['1', '2', '4', '8', '16'])
```

结果如下:

```
"1, 2, 4, 8, 16"
```

反对这种用法有两个常见的论点。

第一条是这样的: "使用字符串文本 (String Constant) 的方法看起来真的很难看", 答案是也许吧, 但是字符串文本只是一个固定值。如果在绑定到字符串的名称上允许使用这些方法, 则没有逻辑上的理由使其在文字上不可用。

第二个异议通常是这样的:"我实际上是在告诉序列使用字符串常量将其成员连接在一起"。遗憾的是并非如此。出于某种原因,把 split()作为一个字符串方法似乎要容易得多,因为在这种情况下,很容易看到:

```
"1, 2, 4, 8, 16".split(", ")
```

是对字符串文本的指令,用于返回由给定分隔符分隔的子字符串(或在默认情况下,返回任意空格)。

join()是字符串方法,因为在使用该方法时,您告诉分隔符字符串去迭代一个字符串序列,并在相邻元素之间插入自身。此方法的参数可以是任何遵循序列规则的对象,包括您自己定义的任何新的类。对于字节和字节数组对象也有类似的方法。

3.9 异常有多快?

如果没有引发异常,则 try/except 块的效率极高。实际上捕获异常是昂贵的。在 2.0 之前的 Python 版本中,通常使用这个习惯用法:

```
try:
    value = mydict[key]
except KeyError:
    mydict[key] = getvalue(key)
    value = mydict[key]
```

只有当你期望 dict 在任何时候都有 key 时,这才有意义。如果不是这样的话,你就是应该这样编码:

```
if key in mydict:
    value = mydict[key]
else:
    value = mydict[key] = getvalue(key)
```

对于这种特定的情况,您还可以使用 value = dict.setdefault(key, getvalue(key)),但前提是调用 getvalue()足够便宜,因为在所有情况下都会对其进行评估。

3.10 为什么 Python 中没有 switch 或 case 语句?

你可以通过一系列 if... elif... elif... else. 轻松完成这项工作。对于 switch 语句语法已经有了一些建议,但尚未就是否以及如何进行范围测试达成共识。有关完整的详细信息和当前状态,请参阅 PEP 275。对于需要从大量可能性中进行选择的情况,可以创建一个字典,将 case 值映射到要调用的函数。例如:

对于对象调用方法,可以通过使用 getattr() 内置检索具有特定名称的方法来进一步简化:

```
def visit_a(self, ...):
    ...

def dispatch(self, value):
    method_name = 'visit_' + str(value)
    method = getattr(self, method_name)
    method()
```

建议对方法名使用前缀,例如本例中的 visit_。如果没有这样的前缀,如果值来自不受信任的源,攻击者将能够调用对象上的任何方法。

3.11 难道不能在解释器中模拟线程,而非得依赖特定于操作系统的线程实现吗?

答案 1: 不幸的是,解释器为每个 Python 堆栈帧推送至少一个 C 堆栈帧。此外,扩展可以随时回调 Python。因此,一个完整的线程实现需要对 C 的线程支持。

Answer 2: Fortunately, there is Stackless Python, which has a completely redesigned interpreter loop that avoids the C stack.

3.12 为什么 lambda 表达式不能包含语句?

Python 的 lambda 表达式不能包含语句,因为 Python 的语法框架不能处理嵌套在表达式内部的语句。然而,在 Python 中,这并不是一个严重的问题。与其他语言中添加功能的 lambda 表单不同, Python 的 lambdas 只是一种速记符号,如果您懒得定义函数的话。

函数已经是 Python 中的第一类对象,可以在本地范围内声明。因此,使用 lambda 而不是本地定义的函数的唯一优点是你不需要为函数创建一个名称 – 这只是一个分配了函数对象 (与 lambda 表达式生成的对象类型完全相同) 的局部变量!

3.13 可以将 Python 编译为机器代码, C 或其他语言吗?

Cython 将带有可选注释的 Python 修改版本编译到 C 扩展中。Nuitka 是一个将 Python 编译成 C++ 代码的新兴编译器,旨在支持完整的 Python 语言。要编译成 Java,可以考虑 VOC。

3.14 Python 如何管理内存?

Python 内存管理的细节取决于实现。Python 的标准实现*CPython* 使用引用计数来检测不可访问的对象,并使用另一种机制来收集引用循环,定期执行循环检测算法来查找不可访问的循环并删除所涉及的对象。gc 模块提供了执行垃圾回收、获取调试统计信息和优化收集器参数的函数。

但是,其他实现 (如 Jython 或 PyPy),)可以依赖不同的机制,如完全的垃圾回收器。如果你的 Python 代码依赖于引用计数实现的行为,则这种差异可能会导致一些微妙的移植问题。

在一些 Python 实现中,以下代码(在 CPython 中工作的很好)可能会耗尽文件描述符:

```
for file in very_long_list_of_files:
    f = open(file)
    c = f.read(1)
```

实际上,使用 CPython 的引用计数和析构函数方案,每个新赋值的 f 都会关闭前一个文件。然而,对于传统的 GC,这些文件对象只能以不同的时间间隔(可能很长的时间间隔)被收集(和关闭)。

如果要编写可用于任何 python 实现的代码,则应显式关闭该文件或使用 with 语句;无论内存管理方案如何,这都有效:

```
for file in very_long_list_of_files:
    with open(file) as f:
    c = f.read(1)
```

3.15 为什么 CPython 不使用更传统的垃圾回收方案?

首先,这不是 C 标准特性,因此不能移植。(是的,我们知道 Boehm GC 库。它包含了 大多数常见平台(但不是所有平台)的汇编代码,尽管它基本上是透明的,但也不是完全透明的;要让 Python 使用它,需要使用补丁。)

当 Python 嵌入到其他应用程序中时,传统的 GC 也成为一个问题。在独立的 Python 中,可以用 GC 库提供的版本替换标准的 malloc() 和 free(), 嵌入 Python 的应用程序可能希望用 它自己替代 malloc() 和 free(), 而可能不需要 Python 的。现在,CPython 可以正确地实现 malloc() 和 free()。

3.16 CPython 退出时为什么不释放所有内存?

当 Python 退出时,从全局命名空间或 Python 模块引用的对象并不总是被释放。如果存在循环引用,则可能发生这种情况 C 库分配的某些内存也是不可能释放的(例如像 Purify 这样的工具会抱怨这些内容)。但是, Python 在退出时清理内存并尝试销毁每个对象。

如果要强制 Python 在释放时删除某些内容,请使用 atexit 模块运行一个函数,强制删除这些内容。

3.17 为什么有单独的元组和列表数据类型?

虽然列表和元组在许多方面是相似的,但它们的使用方式通常是完全不同的。可以认为元组类似于 Pascal 记录或 C 结构;它们是相关数据的小集合,可以是不同类型的数据,可以作为一个组进行操作。例如,笛卡尔坐标适当地表示为两个或三个数字的元组。

另一方面,列表更像其他语言中的数组。它们倾向于持有不同数量的对象,所有对象都具有相同的类型,并且逐个操作。例如,os.listdir('.')返回表示当前目录中的文件的字符串列表。如果向目录中添加了一两个文件,对此输出进行操作的函数通常不会中断。

元组是不可变的,这意味着一旦创建了元组,就不能用新值替换它的任何元素。列表是可变的,这意味着您始终可以更改列表的元素。只有不变元素可以用作字典的 key,因此只能将元组和非列表用作 key。

3.18 列表是如何在 CPython 中实现的?

CPython 的列表实际上是可变长度的数组,而不是 lisp 风格的链表。该实现使用对其他对象的引用的连续数组,并在列表头结构中保留指向该数组和数组长度的指针。

这使得索引列表 a[i] 的操作成本与列表的大小或索引的值无关。

当添加或插入项时,将调整引用数组的大小。并采用了一些巧妙的方法来提高重复添加项的性能;当数组必须增长时,会分配一些额外的空间,以便在接下来的几次中不需要实际调整大小。

3.19 字典是如何在 CPython 中实现的?

CPython 的字典实现为可调整大小的哈希表。与 B-树相比,这在大多数情况下为查找(目前最常见的操作)提供了更好的性能,并且实现更简单。

Dictionaries work by computing a hash code for each key stored in the dictionary using the hash() built-in function. The hash code varies widely depending on the key and a per-process seed; for example, "Python" could hash to -539294296 while "python", a string that differs by a single bit, could hash to 1142331976. The hash code is then used to calculate a location in an internal array where the value will be stored. Assuming

that you're storing keys that all have different hash values, this means that dictionaries take constant time -O(1), in computer science notation - to retrieve a key. It also means that no sorted order of the keys is maintained, and traversing the array as the .keys() and .items() do will output the dictionary's content in some arbitrary jumbled order that can change with every invocation of a program.

3.20 为什么字典 key 必须是不可变的?

字典的哈希表实现使用从键值计算的哈希值来查找键。如果键是可变对象,则其值可能会发生变化,因此其哈希值也会发生变化。但是,由于无论谁更改键对象都无法判断它是否被用作字典键值,因此无法在字典中修改条目。然后,当你尝试在字典中查找相同的对象时,将无法找到它,因为其哈希值不同。如果你尝试查找旧值,也不会找到它,因为在该哈希表中找到的对象的值会有所不同。

如果你想要一个用列表索引的字典,只需先将列表转换为元组;用函数 tuple(L) 创建一个元组,其条目与列表 L 相同。元组是不可变的,因此可以用作字典键。

已经提出的一些不可接受的解决方案:

• 哈希按其地址(对象 ID)列出。这不起作用,因为如果你构造一个具有相同值的新列表,它将无法找到;例如:

```
mydict = {[1, 2]: '12'}
print(mydict[[1, 2]])
```

would raise a KeyError exception because the id of the [1, 2] used in the second line differs from that in the first line. In other words, dictionary keys should be compared using ==, not using is.

- 使用列表作为键时进行复制。这没有用的,因为作为可变对象的列表可以包含对自身的引用,然后复制代码将进入无限循环。
- 允许列表作为键,但告诉用户不要修改它们。当你意外忘记或修改列表时,这将产生程序中的一类难以跟踪的错误。它还使一个重要的字典不变量无效: d.keys() 中的每个值都可用作字典的键。
- 将列表用作字典键后,应标记为其只读。问题是,它不仅仅是可以改变其值的顶级对象;你可以使用 包含列表作为键的元组。将任何内容作为键关联到字典中都需要将从那里可到达的所有对象标记为只 读——并且自引用对象可能会导致无限循环。

如果需要,可以使用以下方法来解决这个问题,但使用它需要你自担风险: 你可以将一个可变结构包装在一个类实例中,该实例同时具有 __eq__() 和 __hash__() 方法。然后,你必须确保驻留在字典(或其他基于hash 的结构)中的所有此类包装器对象的哈希值在对象位于字典(或其他结构)中时保持固定。:

```
class ListWrapper:
    def __init__(self, the_list):
        self.the_list = the_list

def __eq__(self, other):
        return self.the_list == other.the_list

def __hash__(self):
        l = self.the_list
        result = 98767 - len(1)*555
        for i, el in enumerate(l):
            try:
            result = result + (hash(el) % 9999999) * 1001 + i
            except Exception:
                 result = (result % 7777777) + i * 333
        return result
```

注意,哈希计算由于列表的某些成员可能不可用以及算术溢出的可能性而变得复杂。

此外,必须始终如此,如果 o1 == o2 (即 o1.__eq__(o2) is True)则 hash(o1) == hash(o2)``(即 ``o1.__hash__() == o2.__hash__()),无论对象是否在字典中。如果你不能满足这些限制,字典和其他基于 hash 的结构将会出错。

对于 ListWrapper ,只要包装器对象在字典中,包装列表就不能更改以避免异常。除非你准备好认真考虑需求以及不正确地满足这些需求的后果,否则不要这样做。请留意。

3.21 为什么 list.sort() 没有返回排序列表?

在性能很重要的情况下,仅仅为了排序而复制一份列表将是一种浪费。因此,list.sort()对列表进行了适当的排序。为了提醒您这一事实,它不会返回已排序的列表。这样,当您需要排序的副本,但也需要保留未排序的版本时,就不会意外地覆盖列表。

如果要返回新列表,请使用内置 sorted() 函数。此函数从提供的可迭代列表中创建新列表,对其进行排序并返回。例如,下面是如何迭代遍历字典并按 keys 排序:

for key in sorted(mydict):

... # do whatever with mydict[key]...

3.22 如何在 Python 中指定和实施接口规范?

由 C++ 和 Java 等语言提供的模块接口规范描述了模块的方法和函数的原型。许多人认为接口规范的编译时强制执行有助于构建大型程序。

Python 2.6 添加了一个 abc 模块,允许定义抽象基类 (ABCs)。然后可以使用 isinstance() 和 issubclass() 来检查实例或类是否实现了特定的 ABC。collections.abc 模块定义了一组有用的 ABCs 例如 Iterable, Container,和 MutableMapping

对于 Python,通过对组件进行适当的测试规程,可以获得接口规范的许多好处。还有一个工具 PyChecker,可用于查找由于子类化引起的问题。

一个好的模块测试套件既可以提供回归测试,也可以作为模块接口规范和一组示例。许多 Python 模块可以作为脚本运行,以提供简单的"自我测试"。即使是使用复杂外部接口的模块,也常常可以使用外部接口的简单"桩代码(stub)"模拟进行隔离测试。可以使用 doctest 和 unittest 模块或第三方测试框架来构造详尽的测试套件,以运行模块中的每一行代码。

适当的测试规程可以帮助在 Python 中构建大型的、复杂的应用程序以及接口规范。事实上,它可能会更好,因为接口规范不能测试程序的某些属性。例如,append()方法将向一些内部列表的末尾添加新元素;接口规范不能测试您的 append() 实现是否能够正确执行此操作,但是在测试套件中检查这个属性是很简单的。

编写测试套件非常有用,您可能希望设计代码时着眼于使其易于测试。一种日益流行的技术是面向测试的开发,它要求在编写任何实际代码之前,首先编写测试套件的各个部分。当然,Python 允许您草率行事,根本不编写测试用例。

3.23 为什么没有 goto?

可以使用异常捕获来提供"goto 结构", 甚至可以跨函数调用工作的。许多人认为异常捕获可以方便地模拟 C, Fortran 和其他语言的"go"或"goto"结构的所有合理用法。例如:

```
class label(Exception): pass # declare a label

try:
    ...
    if condition: raise label() # goto label
    ...
except label: # where to goto
    pass
...
```

但是不允许你跳到循环的中间,这通常被认为是滥用 goto。谨慎使用。

3.24 为什么原始字符串(r-strings)不能以反斜杠结尾?

更准确地说,它们不能以奇数个反斜杠结束:结尾处的不成对反斜杠会转义结束引号字符,留下未结束的字符串。

原始字符串的设计是为了方便想要执行自己的反斜杠转义处理的处理器 (主要是正则表达式引擎) 创建输入。此类处理器将不匹配的尾随反斜杠视为错误,因此原始字符串不允许这样做。反过来,允许通过使用引号字符转义反斜杠转义字符串。当 r-string 用于它们的预期目的时,这些规则工作的很好。

如果您正在尝试构建 Windows 路径名,请注意所有 Windows 系统调用都使用正斜杠:

```
f = open("/mydir/file.txt") # works fine!
```

如果您正在尝试为 DOS 命令构建路径名,请尝试以下示例

```
dir = r"\this\is\my\dos\dir" "\\"
dir = r"\this\is\my\dos\dir\ "[:-1]
dir = "\\this\\is\\my\\dos\\dir\\"
```

3.25 为什么 Python 没有属性赋值的 "with" 语句?

Python 有一个'with'语句,它封装了块的执行,在块的人口和出口调用代码。有些语言的结构是这样的:

在 Python 中,这样的结构是不明确的。

其他语言,如 ObjectPascal、Delphi 和 C++ 使用静态类型,因此可以毫不含糊地知道分配给什么成员。这是静态类型的要点 – 编译器 总是在编译时知道每个变量的作用域。

Python 使用动态类型。事先不可能知道在运行时引用哪个属性。可以动态地在对象中添加或删除成员属性。 这使得无法通过简单的阅读就知道引用的是什么属性:局部属性、全局属性还是成员属性?

例如,采用以下不完整的代码段:

```
def foo(a):
    with a:
        print(x)
```

该代码段假设"a"必须有一个名为"x"的成员属性。然而, Python 中并没有告诉解释器这一点。假设"a"是整数, 会发生什么?如果有一个名为"x"的全局变量, 它是否会在 with 块中使用?如您所见, Python 的动态特性使得这样的选择更加困难。

然而, Python 可以通过赋值轻松实现"with"和类似语言特性(减少代码量)的主要好处。代替:

```
function(args).mydict[index][index].a = 21
function(args).mydict[index][index].b = 42
function(args).mydict[index][index].c = 63
```

写成这样:

```
ref = function(args).mydict[index][index]
ref.a = 21
ref.b = 42
ref.c = 63
```

这也具有提高执行速度的副作用,因为 Python 在运行时解析名称绑定,而第二个版本只需要执行一次解析。

3.26 为什么 if/while/def/class 语句需要冒号?

冒号主要用于增强可读性 (ABC 语言实验的结果之一)。考虑一下这个:

```
if a == b
    print(a)
```

与

```
if a == b:
    print(a)
```

注意第二种方法稍微容易一些。请进一步注意,在这个 FAQ 解答的示例中,冒号是如何设置的;这是英语中的标准用法。

另一个次要原因是冒号使带有语法突出显示的编辑器更容易工作;他们可以寻找冒号来决定何时需要增加缩进,而不必对程序文本进行更精细的解析。

3.27 为什么 Python 在列表和元组的末尾允许使用逗号?

Python 允许您在列表,元组和字典的末尾添加一个尾随逗号:

```
[1, 2, 3,]
('a', 'b', 'c',)
d = {
    "A": [1, 5],
    "B": [6, 7], # last trailing comma is optional but good style
}
```

有几个理由允许这样做。

如果列表,元组或字典的字面值分布在多行中,则更容易添加更多元素,因为不必记住在上一行中添加逗号。这些行也可以重新排序,而不会产生语法错误。

不小心省略逗号会导致难以诊断的错误。例如:

```
x = [
  "fee",
  "fie"
  "foo",
  "fum"
]
```

这个列表看起来有四个元素,但实际上包含三个: "fee", "fiefoo" 和 "fum"。总是加上逗号可以避免这个错误的来源。

允许尾随逗号也可以使编程代码更容易生成。

代码库和插件 FAQ

4.1 通用的代码库问题

4.1.1 如何找到可以用来做 XXX 的模块或应用?

在 代码库参考中查找是否有适合的标准库模块。(如果你已经了解标准库的内容,可以跳过这一步) 对于第三方软件包,请搜索 Python Package Index 或是 Google 等其他搜索引擎。用"Python"加上一两个你需要的关键字通常会找到有用的东西。

4.1.2 math.py (socket.py, regex.py 等) 的源文件在哪?

如果找不到模块的源文件,可能它是一个内建的模块,或是使用 C, C++ 或其他编译型语言实现的动态加载模块。这种情况下可能是没有源码文件的,类似 mathmodule.c 这样的文件会存放在 C 代码目录中(但不在 Python 目录中)。

Python 中(至少) 有三类模块:

- 1) 使用 Python 编写的模块 (.py);
- 2) 使用 C 编写的动态加载模块 (.dll, .pyd, .so, .sl 等);
- 3) 使用 C 编写并链接到解释器的模块, 要获取此列表, 输入:

```
import sys
print(sys.builtin_module_names)
```

4.1.3 在 Unix 中怎样让 Python 脚本可执行?

你需要做两件事:文件必须是可执行的,并且第一行需要以 #! 开头,后面跟上 Python 解释器的路径。 第一点可以用执行 chmod +x scriptfile 或是 chmod 755 scriptfile 做到。 第二点有很多种做法,最直接的方式是:

```
#!/usr/local/bin/python
```

在文件第一行,使用你所在平台上的 Python 解释器的路径。

如果你希望脚本不依赖 Python 解释器的具体路径,你也可以使用 env 程序。假设你的 Python 解释器所在目录已经添加到了 PATH 环境变量中,几乎所有的类 Unix 系统都支持下面的写法:

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

不要在 CGI 脚本中这样做。CGI 脚本的 PATH 环境变量通常会非常精简,所以你必须使用解释器的完整绝对路径。

有时候,用户的环境变量如果太长,可能会导致 /usr/bin/env 执行失败;又或者甚至根本就不存在 env 程序。在这种情况下,你可以尝试使用下面的 hack 方法 (来自 Alex Rezinsky):

```
#! /bin/sh
""":"
exec python $0 ${1+"$@"}
```

这样做有一个小小的缺点,它会定义脚本的 ___doc__ 字符串。不过可以这样修复:

```
__doc__ = """...Whatever..."""
```

4.1.4 Python 中有 curses/termcap 包吗?

对于类 Unix 系统:标准 Python 源码发行版会在 Modules 子目录中附带 curses 模块,但默认并不会编译。(注意:在 Windows 平台下不可用——Windows 中没有 curses 模块。)

curses 模块支持基本的 curses 特性,同时也支持 ncurses 和 SYSV curses 中的很多额外功能,比如颜色、不同的字符集支持、填充和鼠标支持。这意味着这个模块不兼容只有 BSD curses 模块的操作系统,但是目前仍在维护的系统应该都不会存在这种情况。

对于 Windows 平台: 使用 consolelib 模块.

4.1.5 Python 中存在类似 C 的 onexit() 函数的东西吗?

atexit 模块提供了一个与 C 的 onexit() 函数类似的注册函数。

4.1.6 为什么我的信号处理函数不能工作?

最常见的问题是信号处理函数没有正确定义参数列表。它会被这样调用:

```
handler(signum, frame)
```

因此函数应该定义两个参数:

```
def handler(signum, frame):
    ...
```

4.2 通用任务

4.2.1 怎样测试 Python 程序或组件?

Python 带有两个测试框架。doctest 模块从模块的 docstring 中寻找示例并执行, 对比输出是否与 docstring 中给出的是否一致。

unittest 模块是一个模仿 Java 和 Smalltalk 测试框架的更棒的测试框架。

为了使测试更容易,你应该在程序中使用良好的模块化设计。程序中的绝大多数功能都应该用函数或类方法 封装——有时这样做会有额外惊喜,程序会运行得更快(因为局部变量比全局变量访问要快)。除此之外,程 序应该避免依赖可变的局部变量,这会使得测试困难许多。

程序的"全局主逻辑"应该尽量简单:

```
if __name__ == "__main__":
    main_logic()
```

并放置在程序主模块的最后面。

一旦你的程序已经用函数和类完善地组织起来,你就应该编写测试函数来测试其行为。可以使用自动执行一系列测试函数的测试集与每个模块进行关联。听起来似乎需要大量的工作,但是因为 Python 非常简洁和灵活,所以实际上会相当简单。在编写"生产代码"的同时别忘了也要编写测试函数,你会发现编程会变得更愉快、更有趣,因为这样会使得发现 bug 和设计缺陷更加容易。

程序主模块之外的其他"辅助模块"中可以增加自测试的入口。

```
if __name__ == "__main__":
    self_test()
```

通过使用 Python 实现的"假"接口,即使是需要与复杂的外部接口交互的程序也可以在外部接口不可用时进行测试。

4.2.2 怎样用 docstring 创建文档?

pydoc 模块可以用 Python 源码中的 docstring 创建 HTML 文件。也可以使用 epydoc 来只通过 docstring 创建 API 文档。Sphinx 也可以引入 docstring 的内容。

4.2.3 怎样一次只获取一个按键?

在类 Unix 系统中有多种方案。最直接的方法是使用 curses, 但是 curses 模块太大了, 难以学习。

4.3 线程相关

4.3.1 程序中怎样使用线程?

一定要使用 threading 模块,不要使用 _thread 模块。threading 模块对 _thread 模块提供的底层线程原语做了更易用的抽象。

Aahz 的非常实用的 threading 教程中有一些幻灯片;可以参阅 http://www.pythoncraft.com/OSCON2001/。

4.2. 通用任务 51

4.3.2 我的线程都没有运行,为什么?

一旦主线程退出,所有的子线程都会被杀掉。你的主线程运行得太快了,子线程还没来得及工作。 简单的解决方法是在程序中加一个时间足够长的 sleep, 让子线程能够完成运行。

```
import threading, time

def thread_task(name, n):
    for i in range(n):
        print(name, i)

for i in range(10):
    T = threading.Thread(target=thread_task, args=(str(i), i))
    T.start()

time.sleep(10) # <------!</pre>
```

但目前(在许多平台上)线程不是并行运行的,而是按顺序依次执行!原因是系统线程调度器在前一个线程阻塞之前不会启动新线程。

简单的解决方法是在运行函数的开始处加一个时间很短的 sleep。

比起用 time.sleep() 猜一个合适的等待时间,使用信号量机制会更好些。有一个办法是使用 queue 模块创建一个 queue 对象,让每一个线程在运行结束时 append 一个令牌到 queue 对象中,主线程中从 queue 对象中读取与线程数量一致的令牌数量即可。

4.3.3 如何将任务分配给多个工作线程?

最简单的方法是使用新的 concurrent.futures 模块,尤其是其中的 ThreadPoolExecutor 类。

或者,如果你想更好地控制分发算法,你也可以自己写逻辑实现。使用 queue 模块来创建任务列表队列。Queue 类维护一个了一个存有对象的列表,提供了.put(obj)方法添加元素,并且可以用.get()方法获取元素。这个类会使用必要的加锁操作,以此确保每个任务只会执行一次。

这是一个简单的例子:

```
import threading, queue, time

# The worker thread gets jobs off the queue. When the queue is empty, it
# assumes there will be no more work and exits.
# (Realistically workers will run until terminated.)
def worker():
    print('Running worker')
```

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```
time.sleep(0.1)
   while True:
        try:
            arg = q.get(block=False)
        except queue. Empty:
            print('Worker', threading.currentThread(), end=' ')
            print('queue empty')
            break
        else:
            print('Worker', threading.currentThread(), end=' ')
            print('running with argument', arg)
            time.sleep(0.5)
# Create queue
q = queue.Queue()
# Start a pool of 5 workers
for i in range(5):
   t = threading.Thread(target=worker, name='worker %i' % (i+1))
   t.start()
# Begin adding work to the queue
for i in range(50):
   q.put(i)
# Give threads time to run
print('Main thread sleeping')
time.sleep(5)
```

运行时会产生如下输出:

```
Running worker
Running worker
Running worker
Running worker
Running worker
Main thread sleeping
Worker <Thread(worker 1, started 130283832797456)> running with argument 0
Worker <Thread(worker 2, started 130283824404752)> running with argument 1
Worker <Thread(worker 3, started 130283816012048)> running with argument 2
Worker <Thread(worker 4, started 130283807619344)> running with argument 3
Worker <Thread(worker 5, started 130283799226640)> running with argument 4
Worker <Thread(worker 1, started 130283832797456)> running with argument 5
...
```

查看模块的文档以获取更多信息; Queue 类提供了多种接口。

4.3.4 怎样修改全局变量是线程安全的?

Python VM 内部会使用 global interpreter lock(GIL)来确保同一时间只有一个线程运行。通常 Python 只会在字节码指令之间切换线程;切换的频率可以通过设置 sys.setswitchinterval() 指定。从 Python 程序的角度来看,每一条字节码指令以及每一条指令对应的 C 代码实现都是原子的。

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理论上说,具体的结果要看具体的 PVM 字节码实现对指令的解释。而实际上,对内建类型(int, list, dict等)的共享变量的"类原子"操作都是原子的。

举例来说, 下面的操作是原子的 (L、L1、L2 是列表, D、D1、D2 是字典, x、y 是对象, i, j 是 int 变量):

```
L.append(x)
L1.extend(L2)
x = L[i]
x = L.pop()
L1[i:j] = L2
L.sort()
x = y
x.field = y
D[x] = y
D1.update(D2)
D.keys()
```

这些不是原子的:

```
i = i+1
L.append(L[-1])
L[i] = L[j]
D[x] = D[x] + 1
```

覆盖其他对象的操作会在其他对象的引用计数变成 0 时触发其 __del__() 方法,这可能会产生一些影响。对字典和列表进行大量操作时尤其如此。如果有疑问的话,使用互斥锁!

4.3.5 不能删除全局解释器锁吗?

global interpreter lock (GIL) 通常被视为 Python 在高端多核服务器上开发时的阻力,因为(几乎)所有 Python 代码只有在获取到 GIL 时才能运行,所以多线程的 Python 程序只能有效地使用一个 CPU。

Back in the days of Python 1.5, Greg Stein actually implemented a comprehensive patch set (the "free threading" patches) that removed the GIL and replaced it with fine-grained locking. Adam Olsen recently did a similar experiment in his python-safethread project. Unfortunately, both experiments exhibited a sharp drop in single-thread performance (at least 30% slower), due to the amount of fine-grained locking necessary to compensate for the removal of the GIL.

但这并意味着你不能在多核机器上很好地使用 Python! 你只需将任务划分为多 * 进程 *, 而不是多 * 线程 *。新的 concurrent.futures 模块中的 ProcessPoolExecutor 类提供了一个简单的方法; 如果你想对任务分发做更多控制,可以使用 multiprocessing 模块提供的底层 API。

恰当地使用 C 拓展也很有用;使用 C 拓展处理耗时较久的任务时,拓展可以在线程执行 C 代码时释放 GIL, 让其他线程执行。z1ib 和 hashlib 等标准库模块已经这样做了。

也有建议说 GIL 应该是解释器状态锁,而不是完全的全局锁;解释器不应该共享对象。不幸的是,这也不可能发生。由于目前许多对象的实现都有全局的状态,因此这是一个艰巨的工作。举例来说,小整型数和短字符串会缓存起来,这些缓存将不得不移动到解释器状态中。其他对象类型都有自己的自由变量列表,这些自由变量列表也必须移动到解释器状态中。等等。

我甚至怀疑这些工作是否可能在优先的时间内完成,因为同样的问题在第三方拓展中也会存在。第三方拓展 编写的速度可比你将它们转换为把全局状态存入解释器状态中的速度快得多。

最后、假设多个解释器不共享任何状态、那么这样做比每个进程一个解释器好在哪里呢?

4.4 输入输出

4.4.1 怎样删除文件?(以及其他文件相关的问题……)

使用 os.remove(filename) 或 os.unlink(filename)。查看 os 模块以获取更多文档。这两个函数是一样的, unlink() 是这个函数在 Unix 系统调用中的名字。

如果要删除目录,应该使用 os.rmdir();使用 os.mkdir()创建目录。os.makedirs(path)会创建 path 中任何不存在的目录。os.removedirs(path)则会删除其中的目录,只要它们都是空的;如果你想删除整个目录以及其中的内容,可以使用 shutil.rmtree()。

重命名文件可以使用 os.rename(old_path, new_path)。

如果需要截断文件,使用 f = open(filename, "rb+") 打开文件,然后使用 f.truncate(offset); offset 默认是当前的搜索位置。也可以对使用 os.open() 打开的文件使用 os.ftruncate(fd, offset), 其中 fd 是文件描述符(一个小的整型数)。

shutil 模块也包含了一些处理文件的函数,包括 copyfile(),copytree()和 rmtree()。

4.4.2 怎样复制文件?

shutil 模块有一个 copyfile() 函数。注意在 MacOS 9 中不会复制 resource fork 和 Finder info。

4.4.3 怎样读取(或写入)二进制数据?

要读写复杂的二进制数据格式,最好使用 struct 模块。该模块可以读取包含二进制数据(通常是数字)的字符串并转换为 Python 对象,反之亦然。

举例来说,下面的代码会从文件中以大端序格式读取一个2字节的整型和一个4字节的整型:

```
import struct
with open(filename, "rb") as f:
    s = f.read(8)
    x, y, z = struct.unpack(">hhl", s)
```

格式字符串中的'>'强制以大端序读取数据;字母'h'从字符串中读取一个"短整型"(2字节),字母'l'读取一个"长整型"(4字节)。

对于更常规的数据(例如整型或浮点类型的列表), 你也可以使用 array 模块。

注解: 要读写二进制数据的话,需要强制以二进制模式打开文件(这里为 open() 函数传入 "rb")。如果(默认) 传入 "r" 的话,文件会以文本模式打开,f.read()会返回 str 对象,而不是 bytes 对象。

4.4.4 似乎 os.popen() 创建的管道不能使用 os.read(), 这是为什么?

os.read() 是一个底层函数,它接收的是文件描述符——用小整型数表示的打开的文件。os.popen() 创建的是一个高级文件对象,和内建的 open() 方法返回的类型一样。因此,如果要从 os.popen() 创建的管道 p 中读取 n 个字节的话,你应该使用 p.read(n)。

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4.4.5 怎样访问 (RS232) 串口?

对于 Win32, POSIX (Linux, BSD 等), Jython:

http://pyserial.sourceforge.net

对于 Unix, 查看 Mitch Chapman 发布的帖子:

https://groups.google.com/groups?selm=34A04430.CF9@ohioee.com

4.4.6 为什么关闭 sys.stdout (stdin, stderr) 并不会真正关掉它?

Python 文件对象 是一个对底层 C 文件描述符的高层抽象。

对于在 Python 中通过内建的 open() 函数创建的多数文件对象来说, f.close() 从 Python 的角度将其标记为已关闭, 并且会关闭底层的 C 文件描述符。在 f 被垃圾回收的时候, 析构函数中也会自动处理。

但由于 stdin, stdout 和 stderr 在 C 中的特殊地位,在 Python 中也会对它们做特殊处理。运行 sys.stdout.close()会将 Python 的文件对象标记为已关闭,但是* 不会* 关闭与之关联的文件描述符。

要关闭这三者的 C 文件描述符的话,首先你应该确认确实需要关闭它(比如,这可能会影响到处理 I/O 的 拓展)。如果确实需要这么做的话,使用 os.close():

```
os.close(stdin.fileno())
os.close(stdout.fileno())
os.close(stderr.fileno())
```

或者也可以使用常量 0, 1, 2 代替。

4.5 网络 / Internet 编程

4.5.1 Python 中的 WWW 工具是什么?

参阅代码库参考手册中 internet 和 netdata 这两章的内容。Python 有大量模块来帮助你构建服务端和客户端 web 系统。

Paul Boddie 维护了一份可用框架的概览,见 https://wiki.python.org/moin/WebProgramming 。

Cameron Laird 维护了一份关于 Python web 技术的实用网页的集合,见 http://phaseit.net/claird/comp. lang.python/web_python 。

4.5.2 怎样模拟发送 CGI 表单 (METHOD=POST)?

我需要通过 POST 表单获取网页,有什么代码能简单做到吗?

是的,这里有一个使用 urllib.request 的简单例子:

```
#!/usr/local/bin/python
import urllib.request

# build the query string
qs = "First=Josephine&MI=Q&Last=Public"
```

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注意,通常在百分号编码的 POST 操作中,查询字符串必须使用 urllib.parse.urlencode()处理一下。举个例子,如果要发送 name=Guy Steele, Jr. 的话:

```
>>> import urllib.parse
>>> urllib.parse.urlencode({'name': 'Guy Steele, Jr.'})
'name=Guy+Steele%2C+Jr.'
```

参见:

查看 urllib-howto 获取更多示例。

4.5.3 生成 HTML 需要使用什么模块?

你可以在 Web 编程 wiki 页面 找到许多有用的链接。

4.5.4 怎样使用 Python 脚本发送邮件?

使用 smtplib 标准库模块。

下面是一个很简单的交互式发送邮件的代码。这个方法适用于任何支持 SMTP 协议的主机。

```
import sys, smtplib

fromaddr = input("From: ")
toaddrs = input("To: ").split(',')
print("Enter message, end with ^D:")
msg = ''
while True:
    line = sys.stdin.readline()
    if not line:
        break
    msg += line

# The actual mail send
server = smtplib.SMTP('localhost')
server.sendmail(fromaddr, toaddrs, msg)
server.quit()
```

在 Unix 系统中还可以使用 sendmail。sendmail 程序的位置在不同系统中不一样,有时是在 /usr/lib/sendmail,有时是在 /usr/sbin/sendmail。sendmail 手册页面会对你有所帮助。以下是示例代码:

```
import os

SENDMAIL = "/usr/sbin/sendmail" # sendmail location
p = os.popen("%s -t -i" % SENDMAIL, "w")
```

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```
p.write("To: receiver@example.com\n")
p.write("Subject: test\n")
p.write("\n")  # blank line separating headers from body
p.write("Some text\n")
p.write("some more text\n")
sts = p.close()
if sts != 0:
    print("Sendmail exit status", sts)
```

4.5.5 socket 的 connect() 方法怎样避免阻塞?

通常会用 select 模块处理 socket 异步 I/O。

要避免 TCP 连接阻塞, 你可以设置将 socket 设置为非阻塞模式。此时当调用 connect() 时,要么连接会立刻建立好(几乎不可能),要么会收到一个包含了错误码.error 的异常。errno.EINPROGRESS 表示连接正在进行,但还没有完成。不同的系统会返回不同的值,所以你需要确认你使用的系统会返回什么。

你可以使用 connect_ex() 方法来避免产生异常。这个方法只会返回错误码。如果需要轮询的话,你可以再次调用 connect_ex() ——0 或 errno.EISCONN 表示连接已建立,或者你也可以用 select 检查这个 socket 是否可写。

注解: asyncore 模块提供了编写非阻塞网络代码框架性的方法。第三方的 Twisted 库也很常用且功能强大。

4.6 数据库

4.6.1 Python 中有数据库包的接口吗?

当然。

标准 Python 还包含了基于磁盘的哈希接口例如 DBM 和 GDBM。除此之外还有 sqlite3 模块,该模块提供了一个轻量级的基于磁盘的关系型数据库。

大多数关系型数据库都已经支持。查看数据库编程 wiki 页面 获取更多信息。

4.6.2 在 Python 中如何实现持久化对象?

pickle 库模块以一种非常通用的方式解决了这个问题(虽然你依然不能用它保存打开的文件、套接字或窗口之类的东西), 此外 shelve 库模块可使用 pickle 和 (g)dbm 来创建包含任意 Python 对象的持久化映射。

4.7 数学和数字

4.7.1 Python 中怎样生成随机数?

random 标准库模块实现了随机数生成器,使用起来非常简单:

```
import random
random.random()
```

这个函数会返回[0,1)之间的随机浮点数。

该模块中还有许多其他的专门的生成器,例如:

- randrange(a, b) 返回 [a, b) 区间内的一个整型数。
- uniform(a, b) 返回 [a, b) 区间之间的浮点数。
- normalvariate(mean, sdev) 使用正态(高斯)分布采样。

还有一些高级函数直接对序列进行操作,例如:

- choice(S) 从给定的序列中随机选择一个元素。
- shuffle(L) 对列表进行原地重排,也就是说随机打乱。

还有 Random 类,你可以将其实例化,用来创建多个独立的随机数生成器。

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扩展/嵌入常见问题

5.1 可以使用 C 语言中创建自己的函数吗?

是的,您可以在 C 中创建包含函数、变量、异常甚至新类型的内置模块。在文档 extending-index 中有说明。 大多数中级或高级的 Python 书籍也涵盖这个主题。

5.2 可以使用 C++ 语言中创建自己的函数吗?

是的,可以使用 C ++ 中兼容 C 的功能。在 Python include 文件周围放置 'extern "C" {···} ',并在 Python 解释器调用的每个函数之前放置 extern "C"。具有构造函数的全局或静态 C ++ 对象可能不是一个好主意。

5.3 C 很难写, 有没有其他选择?

编写自己的 C 扩展有很多选择, 具体取决于您要做的事情。

Cython 及其相关的 Pyrex 是接受稍微修改过的 Python 形式并生成相应 C 代码的编译器。Cython 和 Pyrex 可以编写扩展而无需学习 Python 的 C API。

如果需要连接到某些当前不存在 Python 扩展的 C 或 C ++ 库,可以尝试使用 SWIG 等工具包装库的数据 类型和函数。SIP ,CXX Boost ,或 Weave 也是包装 C ++ 库的替代方案。

5.4 如何从 C 执行任意 Python 语句?

The highest-level function to do this is PyRun_SimpleString() which takes a single string argument to be executed in the context of the module __main__ and returns 0 for success and -1 when an exception occurred (including SyntaxError). If you want more control, use PyRun_String(); see the source for PyRun_SimpleString() in Python/pythonrun.c.

5.5 如何从 C 中评估任意 Python 表达式?

Call the function PyRun_String() from the previous question with the start symbol Py_eval_input; it parses an expression, evaluates it and returns its value.

5.6 如何从 Python 对象中提取 C 的值?

That depends on the object's type. If it's a tuple, PyTuple_Size() returns its length and PyTuple_GetItem() returns the item at a specified index. Lists have similar functions, PyListSize() and PyList_GetItem().

For bytes, PyBytes_Size() returns its length and PyBytes_AsStringAndSize() provides a pointer to its value and its length. Note that Python bytes objects may contain null bytes so C's strlen() should not be used.

要测试对象的类型,首先要确保它不是 NULL, 然后使用 PyBytes_Check(), PyTuple_Check(), PyList_Check()等

There is also a high-level API to Python objects which is provided by the so-called 'abstract' interface – read Include/abstract.h for further details. It allows interfacing with any kind of Python sequence using calls like PySequence_Length(), PySequence_GetItem(), etc. as well as many other useful protocols such as numbers (PyNumber Index() et al.) and mappings in the PyMapping APIs.

5.7 如何使用 Py_BuildValue() 创建任意长度的元组?

不可以。应该使用 PyTuple Pack()。

5.8 如何从 C 调用对象的方法?

The PyObject_CallMethod() function can be used to call an arbitrary method of an object. The parameters are the object, the name of the method to call, a format string like that used with Py_BuildValue(), and the argument values:

This works for any object that has methods – whether built-in or user-defined. You are responsible for eventually Py_DECREF()' ing the return value.

To call, e.g., a file object's "seek" method with arguments 10, 0 (assuming the file object pointer is "f"):

Note that since PyObject_CallObject() always wants a tuple for the argument list, to call a function without arguments, pass "()" for the format, and to call a function with one argument, surround the argument in parentheses, e.g. "(i)".

5.9 如何捕获 PyErr_Print() (或打印到 stdout / stderr 的任何内容) 的 输出?

In Python code, define an object that supports the write() method. Assign this object to sys.stdout and sys.stderr. Call print_error, or just allow the standard traceback mechanism to work. Then, the output will go wherever your write() method sends it.

The easiest way to do this is to use the io.StringIO class:

```
>>> import io, sys
>>> sys.stdout = io.StringIO()
>>> print('foo')
>>> print('hello world!')
>>> sys.stderr.write(sys.stdout.getvalue())
foo
hello world!
```

A custom object to do the same would look like this:

```
>>> import io, sys
>>> class StdoutCatcher(io.TextIOBase):
...     def __init__(self):
...         self.data = []
...     def write(self, stuff):
...         self.data.append(stuff)
...
>>> import sys
>>> sys.stdout = StdoutCatcher()
>>> print('foo')
>>> print('hello world!')
>>> sys.stderr.write(''.join(sys.stdout.data))
foo
hello world!
```

5.10 如何从 C 访问用 Python 编写的模块?

You can get a pointer to the module object as follows:

```
module = PyImport_ImportModule("<modulename>");
```

If the module hasn't been imported yet (i.e. it is not yet present in sys.modules), this initializes the module; otherwise it simply returns the value of sys.modules["<modulename>"]. Note that it doesn't enter the module into any namespace — it only ensures it has been initialized and is stored in sys.modules.

You can then access the module's attributes (i.e. any name defined in the module) as follows:

```
attr = PyObject GetAttrString(module, "<attrname>");
```

Calling PyObject_SetAttrString() to assign to variables in the module also works.

5.11 如何从 Python 接口到 C ++ 对象?

Depending on your requirements, there are many approaches. To do this manually, begin by reading the "Extending and Embedding" document. Realize that for the Python run-time system, there isn't a whole lot of difference between C and C++ – so the strategy of building a new Python type around a C structure (pointer) type will also work for C++ objects.

For C++ libraries, see C 很难写,有没有其他选择?.

5.12 我使用 Setup 文件添加了一个模块, 为什么 make 失败了?

安装程序必须以换行符结束,如果没有换行符,则构建过程将失败。(修复这个需要一些丑陋的 shell 脚本编程,而且这个 bug 很小,看起来不值得花这么大力气。)

5.13 如何调试扩展?

将 GDB 与动态加载的扩展名一起使用时,在加载扩展名之前,不能在扩展名中设置断点。

在您的.gdbinit 文件中(或交互式)添加命令:

```
br _PyImport_LoadDynamicModule
```

然后运行 GDB:

\$ gdb /local/bin/python

- gdb) run myscript.py
- gdb) continue # repeat until your extension is loaded
- gdb) finish # so that your extension is loaded
- gdb) br myfunction.c:50
- gdb) continue

5.14 我想在 Linux 系统上编译一个 Python 模块,但是缺少一些文件。为什么?

大多数打包的 Python 版本不包含 /usr/lib/python2.x/config/ 目录,该目录中包含编译 Python 扩展所需的各种文件。

对于 Red Hat,安装 python-devel RPM 以获取必要的文件。

对于 Debian, 运行 apt-get install python-dev 。

5.15 如何区分"输入不完整"和"输入无效"?

有时,希望模仿 Python 交互式解释器的行为,在输入不完整时 (例如,您键入了"if"语句的开头,或者没有关闭括号或三个字符串引号),给出一个延续提示,但当输入无效时,立即给出一条语法错误消息。

在 Python 中, 您可以使用 codeop 模块, 该模块非常接近解析器的行为。例如, IDLE 就使用了这个。

在 C 中执行此操作的最简单方法是调用 PyRun_InteractiveLoop() (可能在单独的线程中) 并让 Python 解释器为您处理输入。您还可以设置 PyOS_ReadlineFunctionPointer() 指向您的自定义输入函数。有关 更多提示,请参阅 Modules/readline.c 和 Parser/myreadline.c。

但是,有时必须在与其他应用程序相同的线程中运行嵌入式 Python 解释器,并且不能允许 PyRun_InteractiveLoop() 在等待用户输入时停止。那么另一个解决方案是调用 PyParser_ParseString() 并测试 e.error 等于 E_EOF ,如果等于,就意味着输入不完整。这是一个示例代码片段,未经测试,灵感来自 Alex Farber 的代码:

```
#include <Python.h>
#include <node.h>
#include <errcode.h>
#include <grammar.h>
#include <parsetok.h>
#include <compile.h>
int testcomplete(char *code)
  /* code should end in \n */
  /* return -1 for error, 0 for incomplete, 1 for complete */
  node *n;
 perrdetail e;
 n = PyParser ParseString(code, & PyParser Grammar,
                           Py_file_input, &e);
  if (n == NULL) {
    if (e.error == E_EOF)
      return 0;
    return -1;
  PyNode_Free(n);
  return 1;
```

Another solution is trying to compile the received string with Py_CompileString(). If it compiles without errors, try to execute the returned code object by calling PyEval_EvalCode(). Otherwise save the input for later. If the compilation fails, find out if it's an error or just more input is required - by extracting the message string from the exception tuple and comparing it to the string "unexpected EOF while parsing". Here is a complete example using the GNU readline library (you may want to ignore SIGINT while calling readline()):

```
#include <stdio.h>
#include <readline.h>
#include <Python.h>
#include <object.h>
```

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```
#include <compile.h>
#include <eval.h>
int main (int argc, char* argv[])
 int i, j, done = 0;
                                              /* lengths of line, code */
 char ps1[] = ">>> ";
 char ps2[] = "...";
  char *prompt = ps1;
  char *msg, *line, *code = NULL;
  PyObject *src, *glb, *loc;
 PyObject *exc, *val, *trb, *obj, *dum;
 Py_Initialize ();
 loc = PyDict_New ();
  glb = PyDict_New ();
 PyDict_SetItemString (glb, "__builtins__", PyEval_GetBuiltins ());
  while (!done)
   line = readline (prompt);
   if (NULL == line)
                                              /* Ctrl-D pressed */
     done = 1;
   }
   else
     i = strlen (line);
     if (i > 0)
       add_history (line);
                                              /* save non-empty lines */
     if (NULL == code)
                                              /* nothing in code yet */
        j = 0;
      else
       j = strlen (code);
      code = realloc (code, i + j + 2);
     if (NULL == code)
                                               /* out of memory */
       exit (1);
     if (0 == j)
                                               /* code was empty, so */
       code[0] = ' \setminus 0';
                                               /* keep strncat happy */
      strncat (code, line, i);
                                              /* append line to code */
                                               /* append '\n' to code */
      code[i + j] = '\n';
      code[i + j + 1] = '\0';
     src = Py_CompileString (code, "<stdin>", Py_single_input);
      if (NULL != src)
                                              /* compiled just fine - */
```

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```
{
                                            /* ">>> " or */
      if (ps1 == prompt | |
         ' n' == code[i + j - 1])
                                           /* "... " and double '\n' */
                                                     /* so execute it */
        dum = PyEval_EvalCode (src, glb, loc);
       Py_XDECREF (dum);
       Py_XDECREF (src);
       free (code);
        code = NULL;
        if (PyErr_Occurred ())
         PyErr_Print ();
       prompt = ps1;
                                             /* syntax error or E_EOF? */
    else if (PyErr_ExceptionMatches (PyExc_SyntaxError))
     PyErr_Fetch (&exc, &val, &trb);
                                             /* clears exception! */
      if (PyArg_ParseTuple (val, "s0", &msg, &obj) &&
          !strcmp (msg, "unexpected EOF while parsing")) /* E_EOF */
        Py_XDECREF (exc);
       Py_XDECREF (val);
       Py_XDECREF (trb);
       prompt = ps2;
     }
     else
                                             /* some other syntax error */
       PyErr_Restore (exc, val, trb);
       PyErr_Print ();
       free (code);
        code = NULL;
       prompt = ps1;
    }
    else
                                             /* some non-syntax error */
     PyErr_Print ();
     free (code);
     code = NULL;
     prompt = ps1;
    free (line);
  }
}
Py_XDECREF(glb);
Py_XDECREF(loc);
Py_Finalize();
exit(0);
```

5.16 如何找到未定义的 g++ 符号 ___builtin_new 或 ___pure_virtual?

要动态加载 g ++ 扩展模块,必须重新编译 Python,要使用 g ++ 重新链接(在 Python Modules Makefile 中更改 LINKCC),及链接扩展模块(例如: g++ -shared -o mymodule.so mymodule.o)。

5.17 能否创建一个对象类,其中部分方法在 C 中实现,而其他方法在 Python 中实现 (例如通过继承)?

是的,您可以继承内置类,例如 int, list, dict 等。

Boost Python 库 (BPL, http://www.boost.org/libs/python/doc/index.html) 提供了一种从 C ++ 执行此操作的方法 (即, 您可以使用 BPL 继承自 C ++ 编写的扩展类)。

Python 在 Windows 上的常见问题

6.1 我怎样在 Windows 下运行一个 Python 程序?

这不一定是一个简单的问题。如果你已经熟悉在 Windows 的命令行中运行程序的方法,一切都显而易见;不然的话,你也许需要额外获得些许指导。

除非你在使用某种集成开发环境,否则你将会在被称为"DOS窗口"或"命令提示符窗口"的地方输入Windows命令。通常你可以在搜索栏搜索cmd来创建这种窗口。你应该能够识别你何时打开了这样的窗口,因为你将看到一个Windows"命令提示符",通常看起来是这样:

C:\>

前面的字母可能会不同,而且后面有可能会有其他东西,所以你也许会看到类似这样的东西:

D:\YourName\Projects\Python>

出现的内容具体取决与你的电脑如何设置和你最近用它做的事。当你启动了这样一个窗口后,就可以开始运行 Python 程序了。

Python 脚本需要被另外一个叫做 Python 解释器的程序来处理。解释器读取脚本,把它编译成字节码,然后执行字节码来运行你的程序。所以怎样安排解释器来处理你的 Python 脚本呢?

首先,确保命令窗口能够将"py"识别为指令来开启解释器。如果你打开过一个命令窗口,尝试输入命令 py 然后按回车:

C:\Users\YourName> py

然后你应当看见类似类似这样的东西:

Python 3.6.4 (v3.6.4:d48eceb, Dec 19 2017, 06:04:45) [MSC v.1900 32 bit (Intel)] on win32 Type "help", "copyright", "credits" or "license" for more information.

解释器已经以"交互模式"打开。这意味着你可以交互输入 Python 语句或表达式,并在等待时执行或评估它们。这是 Python 最强大的功能之一。输入几个表达式并看看结果:

```
>>> print("Hello")
Hello
>>> "Hello" * 3
'HelloHelloHello'
```

许多人把交互模式当作方便和高度可编程的计算器。想结束交互式 Python 会话时,调用 exit() 函数,或者按住 Ctrl 键时输入 Z , 之后按 Enter 键返回 Windows 命令提示符。

你可能发现在开始菜单有这样一个条目 开始 \rightarrow 所有程序 \rightarrow $Python~3.x \rightarrow$ Python~(命令行),运行它后会 出现一个有着 >>> 提示的新窗口。在此之后,如果调用 exit() 函数或按 Ctrl-Z 组合键后窗口将会消失。Windows 会在这个窗口中运行一个"python"命令,并且在你终止解释器的时候关闭它。

现在我们知道 py 命令已经被识别,可以输入 Python 脚本了。你需要提供 Python 脚本的绝对路径或相对路径。假设 Python 脚本位于桌面上并命名为 hello.py,并且命令提示符在用户主目录打开,那么可以看到类似于这样的东西:

C:\Users\YourName>

那么现在可以让 "py"命令执行你的脚本,只需要输入 "py" 和脚本路径:

```
C:\Users\YourName> py Desktop\hello.py
hello
```

6.2 我怎么让 Python 脚本可执行?

在 Windows 上,标准 Python 安装程序已将.py 扩展名与文件类型 (Python.File) 相关联,并为该文件类型 提供运行解释器的打开命令 (D:\Program Files\Python\python.exe "%1" %*)。这足以使脚本在命令提示符下作为 "foo.py" 命令被执行。如果希望通过简单地键人 "foo" 而无需输入文件扩展名来执行脚本,则需要将.py 添加到 PATHEXT 环境变量中。

6.3 为什么有时候 Python 程序会启动缓慢?

通常, Python 在 Windows 上启动得很快, 但偶尔会有错误报告说 Python 突然需要很长时间才能启动。更令人费解的是, 在其他配置相同的 Windows 系统上, Python 却可以工作得很好。

该问题可能是由于计算机上的杀毒软件配置错误造成的。当将病毒扫描配置为监视文件系统中所有读取行为时,一些杀毒扫描程序会导致两个数量级的启动开销。请检查你系统安装的杀毒扫描程序的配置,确保两台机它们是同样的配置。已知的,McAfee 杀毒软件在将它设置为扫描所有文件系统访问时,会产生这个问题。

6.4 我怎样使用 Python 脚本制作可执行文件?

See http://cx-freeze.sourceforge.net/ for a distutils extension that allows you to create console and GUI executables from Python code. py2exe, the most popular extension for building Python 2.x-based executables, does not yet support Python 3 but a version that does is in development.

6.5 *.pyd 文件和 DLL 文件相同吗?

是的,.pyd 文件也是 dll,但有一些差异。如果你有一个名为 foo.pyd 的 DLL,那么它必须有一个函数 PyInit_foo()。然后你可以编写 Python 代码 "import foo", Python 将搜索 foo.pyd(以及 foo.py、foo.pyc)。如果找到它,将尝试调用 PyInit_foo()来初始化它。你不应将.exe 与 foo.lib 链接,因为这会导致 Windows 要求存在 DLL。

请注意, foo.pyd 的搜索路径是 PYTHONPATH, 与 Windows 用于搜索 foo.dll 的路径不同。此外, foo.pyd 不需要存在来运行你的程序, 而如果你将程序与 dll 链接, 则需要 dll。当然, 如果你想 import foo,则需要 foo.pyd。在 DLL 中,链接在源代码中用 __declspec(dllexport) 声明。在.pyd 中,链接在可用函数列表中定义。

6.6 我怎样将 Python 嵌入一个 Windows 程序?

在 Windows 应用程序中嵌入 Python 解释器可以总结如下:

1. 请 _ 不要 _ 直接在你的.exe 文件中内置 Python。在 Windows 上, Python 必须是一个 DLL,这样才可以处理导入的本身就是 DLL 的模块。(这是第一个未记录的关键事实。) 相反, 链接到 python NN.dll;它通常安装在 C:\Windows\System 中。 NN 是 Python 版本,如数字"33"代表 Python 3.3。

你可以通过两种不同的方式链接到 Python。加载时链接意味着链接到 python NN.lib, 而运行时链接意味着链接 python NN.dll。(一般说明: python NN.lib 是所谓的"import lib", 对应于 python NN.dll。它只定义了链接器的符号。)

运行时链接极大地简化了链接选项,一切都在运行时发生。你的代码必须使用 Windows 的 LoadLibraryEx() 程序加载 python/W.dll 。代码还必须使用使用 Windows 的 GetProcAddress() 例程获得的指针访问 python/W.dll 中程序和数据(即 Python 的 C API)。宏可以使这些指针对任何调用 Python C API 中的例程的 C 代码都是透明的。

Borland 提示: 首先使用 Coff2Omf.exe 将 python MV. lib 转换为 OMF 格式。

- 2. 如果你使用 SWIG,很容易创建一个 Python "扩展模块",它将使应用程序的数据和方法可供 Python 使用。SWIG 将为你处理所有蹩脚的细节。结果是你将链接到.exe 文件 中的 C 代码 (!) 你不必创建 DLL 文件,这也简化了链接。
- 3. SWIG 将创建一个 init 函数 (一个 C 函数), 其名称取决于扩展模块的名称。例如, 如果模块的名称 是 leo ,则 init 函数将被称为 initleo()。如果您使用 SWIG 阴影类,则 init 函数将被称为 initleoc()。 这初始化了一个由阴影类使用的隐藏辅助类。

你可以将步骤 2 中的 C 代码链接到.exe 文件的原因是调用初始化函数等同于将模块导入 Python!(这是第二个关键的未记载事实。)

4. 简而言之, 你可以用以下代码使用扩展模块初始化 Python 解释器。

```
#include "python.h"
...
Py_Initialize(); // Initialize Python.
initmyAppc(); // Initialize (import) the helper class.
PyRun_SimpleString("import myApp"); // Import the shadow class.
```

5. Python C API 存在两个问题,如果你使用除 MSVC 之外的编译器用于构建 python.dll ,这将会变得明显。

问题 1: 采用 FILE* 参数的所谓"极高级"函数在多编译器环境中不起作用,因为每个编译器的 FILE 结构体概念都不同。从实现的角度来看,这些是非常 $_$ 低 $_$ 级的功能。

问题 2: 在为 void 函数生成包装器时, SWIG 会生成以下代码:

```
Py_INCREF(Py_None);
_resultobj = Py_None;
return _resultobj;
```

Py_None 是一个宏,它扩展为对 pythonNN.dll 中名为 _Py_NoneStruct 的复杂数据结构的引用。同样,此代码将在多编译器环境中失败。将此类代码替换为:

```
return Py_BuildValue("");
```

有可能使用 SWIG 的 %typemap 命令自动进行更改,但我无法使其工作(我是一个完全的 SWIG 新手)。

6. 使用 Python shell 脚本从 Windows 应用程序内部建立 Python 解释器窗口并不是一个好主意;生成的窗口将独立于应用程序的窗口系统。相反,你(或 wxPythonWindow 类)应该创建一个"本机"解释器窗口。将该窗口连接到 Python 解释器很容易。你可以将 Python 的 i/o 重定向到支持读写的 _ 任意 _ 对象,因此你只需要一个包含 read()和 write()方法的 Python 对象(在扩展模块中定义)。

6.7 如何让编辑器不要在我的 Python 源代码中插入 tab ?

本 FAQ 不建议使用制表符, Python 样式指南 PEP 8 , 为发行的 Python 代码推荐 4 个空格; 这也是 Emacs python-mode 默认值。

在任何编辑器下,混合制表符和空格都是一个坏主意。MSVC 在这方面没有什么不同,并且很容易配置为使用空格:点击 $Tools \to Options \to Tabs$,对于文件类型 "Default",设置 "Tab size" 和 "Indent size" 为 4,并选择"插入空格"单选按钮。

如果混合制表符和空格导致前导空格出现问题,Python 会引发 IndentationError 或 TabError 。你还可以运行 tabnanny 模块以批处理模式检查目录树。

6.8 如何在不阻塞的情况下检查按键?

使用 msvcrt 模块。是标准的 Windows 特定扩展模块。它定义了一个函数 kbhit() 来检查是否存在键盘命中,而 getch() 来获取一个字符而不回显它。

图形用户界面(GUI)常见问题

7.1 图形界面常见问题

7.2 Python 是否有平台无关的图形界面工具包?

针对不同的(操作系统或)平台,有多种工具包可供选择。虽然有些工具包还没有移植到 Python 3 上,但至少目前 Tkinter 以及 Qt 是兼容 Python 3 的。

7.2.1 Tkinter

Python 的标准编译包含了 tkinter。这是一个面向对象的接口,指向 Tcl/Tk 微件包。该接口大概是最容易安装(因为该接口包含在 Python 的大部分 二进制发行版 中)和使用的工具包。要了解 Tk 的详情,比如源代码等,可访问 Tcl/Tk 项目主页。Tcl/Tk 可完整移植至 $Mac\ OS\ X$,Windows 和 Unix 操作系统上。

7.2.2 wxWidgets

wxWidgets (https://www.wxwidgets.org) 是一个自由、可移植的 GUI 图形用户界面类库,使用 C++ 编写。它可以在多个操作系统平台上提供原生自然的界面观感。包括 Windows、Mac OS X、GTK 和 X11 平台在内,都是 wxWidgets 当前稳定支持的平台。在语言绑定适配方面,wxWidgets 类库可用于较多语言,包括 Python,Perl,Ruby 等。

wxPython (http://www.wxpython.org) is the Python binding for wxwidgets. While it often lags slightly behind the official wxWidgets releases, it also offers a number of features via pure Python extensions that are not available in other language bindings. There is an active wxPython user and developer community.

wxWidgets 和 wxPython 都是自由开源库。宽松的许可证允许人们在商业软件、自由软件和共享软件中使用它们。

7.2.3 Qt

Qt 工具包 (可使用 PyQt 或 PySide) 及 KDE (PyKDE4) 有多个绑定适配可供选择。PyQt 当前相较 PySide 更成熟,但如果你想编写专有软件,就必须要从 Riverbank Computing 购买 PyQt 许可证。PySide 则可以自由使用于各类软件。

Qt 4.5 以上版本使用 LGPL 进行许可;此外,商业许可证可从 Qt 公司 那里获得。

7.2.4 Gtk+

The GObject introspection bindings for Python allow you to write GTK+ 3 applications. There is also a Python GTK+ 3 Tutorial.

The older PyGtk bindings for the Gtk+ 2 toolkit have been implemented by James Henstridge; see http://www.pygtk.org.

7.2.5 Kivy

Kivy 是一种跨平台图形用户界面库,同时支持桌面操作系统(Windows, macOS 和 Linux)以及移动设备 (Android, iOS)。该库使用 Python 和 Cython 编写,可以使用一系列窗口后端。

Kivy 是自由的开源软件,使用 MIT 许可证分发。

7.2.6 FLTK

the FLTK toolkit 的 Python 绑定是简单却功能强大且成熟的跨平台窗口系统,可以在 the PyFLTK project 里获得相关信息。

7.2.7 OpenGL

对于 OpenGL 绑定,请参阅 PyOpenGL。

7.3 有哪些 Python 的 GUI 工具是某个平台专用的?

通过安装 PyObjc Objective-C bridge, Python 程序可以使用 Mac OS X 的 Cocoa 库。

Mark Hammond 的 Pythonwin 包括一个微软基础类 (MFC) 的接口和一个绝大多数由使用 MFC 类的 Python 写成的 Python 编程环境。

7.4 有关 Tkinter 的问题

7.4.1 我怎样 "冻结" Tkinter 程序?

Freeze 是一个用来创建独立应用程序的工具。当冻结 (freeze) Tkinter 程序时,程序并不是真的能够独立运行,因为程序仍然需要 Tcl 和 Tk 库。

一种解决方法是将程序与 Tcl 和 Tk 库一同发布,并且在运行时使用环境变量 TCL_LIBRARY 和 TK_LIBRARY 指向他们的位置。

为了获得真正能独立运行的应用程序,来自库里的 Tcl 脚本也需要被整合进应用程序。一个做这种事情的工具叫 SAM (stand-alone modules, 独立模块),它是 Tix distribution (http://tix.sourceforge.net/) 的一部分。

在启用 SAM 时编译 Tix, 在 Python 文件 Modules/tkappinit.c 中执行对 Tclsam_init()等的适当调用, 并且将程序与 libtclsam 和 libtksam 相链接(可能也要包括 Tix 的库)。

7.4.2 在等待 I/O 操作时能够处理 Tk 事件吗?

在 Windows 以外的其他平台上可以,你甚至不需要使用线程! 但是你必须稍微修改一下你的 I/O 代码。Tk 有与 Xt 的 XtAddInput() 对应的调用,它允许你注册一个回调函数,当一个文件描述符可以进行 I/O 操作的时候,Tk 主循环将会调用这个回调函数。参见 tkinter-file-handlers。

7.4.3 在 Tkinter 中键绑定不工作: 为什么?

经常听到的抱怨是:已经通过 bind()方法绑定了事件的处理程序,但是,当按下相关的按键后,这个处理程序却没有执行。

最常见的原因是,那个绑定的控件没有"键盘焦点"。请在 Tk 文档中查找 focus 指令。通常一个控件要获得"键盘焦点",需要点击那个控件(而不是标签;请查看 takefocus 选项)。

"为什么我的电脑上安装了 Python ?"

8.1 什么是 Python?

Python 是一种程序语言,被许多应用程序使用。它不仅因易学而在许多高校用于编程入门,还被工作于 Google、NASA 和卢卡斯影业等公司的软件开发人员使用。

如果你想学习更多 Python,看看 Beginner's Guide to Python.

8.2 为什么我的电脑上安装了 Python ?

如果你不记得你曾主动安装过 Python, 但它却出现在了你的电脑上, 这里有一些可能的原因。

- 可能是这台电脑的其他用户因想学习编程而安装了它,你得琢磨一下谁用过这台电脑并安装了 Python。
- 电脑上安装的第三方应用程序可能由 Python 写成并附带了一份 Python。这样的应用程序有很多,例 如 GUI 程序、网络服务器、管理脚本等。
- 一些 Windows 可能预装了 Python。在撰写本文时,我们了解到 Hewlett-Packard 和 Compaq 的计算机包含 Python。显然,HP/Compaq 的一些管理工具是用 Python 编写的。
- 许多 Unix 兼容的操作系统,例如 Mac OS X 和一些 Linux 发行版,默认安装了 Python;它被包含在基本安装套件中。

8.3 我能删除 Python 吗?

这取决于所安装 Python 的来源

如果有人主动安装了 Python, 你可以在不影响其它程序的情况下安全移除它。在 Windows 中, 可使用"控制面板"中的"添加/删除程序"卸载。

如果 Python 来源于第三方应用程序,你也能删除它,但那些程序将不能正常工作。你应该使用那些应用程序的卸载器而不是直接删除 Python。

如果 Python 来自于你的操作系统,不推荐删除! 如果删除了它,任何用 Python 写成的工具将无法工作,其中某些工具对于你来说可能十分重要。你甚至可能需要重装整个系统来修复因删除 Python 留下的烂摊子。

术语对照表

- >>> 交互式终端中默认的 Python 提示符。往往会显示于能以交互方式在解释器里执行的样例代码之前。
- ... 交互式终端中输入特殊代码行时默认的 Python 提示符,包括:缩进的代码块,成对的分隔符之内(圆括号、方括号、花括号或三重引号),或是指定一个装饰器之后。
- **2to3** 一个将 Python 2.x 代码转换为 Python 3.x 代码的工具,能够处理大部分通过解析源码并遍历解析树可检测到的不兼容问题。

2to3 包含在标准库中,模块名为 lib2to3;并提供一个独立人口点 Tools/scripts/2to3。参见 2to3-reference。

- abstract base class **抽象基类** 抽象基类简称 ABC,是对duck-typing 的补充,它提供了一种定义接口的新方式,相比之下其他技巧例如 hasattr()显得过于笨拙或有微妙错误(例如使用魔术方法)。ABC引入了虚拟子类,这种类并非继承自其他类,但却仍能被 isinstance()和 issubclass()所认可;详见 abc 模块文档。Python 自带许多内置的 ABC 用于实现数据结构(在 collections.abc 模块中)、数字(在 numbers 模块中)、流(在 io 模块中)、导入查找器和加载器(在 importlib.abc 模块中)。你可以使用 abc 模块来创建自己的 ABC。
- annotation 标注 关联到某个变量、类属性、函数形参或返回值的标签、被约定作为type hint 来使用。

局部变量的标注在运行时不可访问,但全局变量、类属性和函数的标注会分别存放模块、类和函数的 __annotations__ 特殊属性中。

参见variable annotation、function annotation、PEP 484 和 PEP 526,对此功能均有介绍。

argument – **参数** 在调用函数时传给function (或method)的值。参数分为两种:

• 关键字参数: 在函数调用中前面带有标识符 (例如 name=) 或者作为包含在前面带有 ** 的字典里的值传入。举例来说, 3 和 5 在以下对 complex() 的调用中均属于关键字参数:

```
complex(real=3, imag=5)
complex(**{'real': 3, 'imag': 5})
```

• 位置参数: 不属于关键字参数的参数。位置参数可出现于参数列表的开头以及/或者作为前面带有 * 的*iterable* 里的元素被传入。举例来说, 3 和 5 在以下调用中均属于位置参数:

```
complex(3, 5)
complex(*(3, 5))
```

参数会被赋值给函数体中对应的局部变量。有关赋值规则参见 calls 一节。根据语法,任何表达式都可用来表示一个参数;最终算出的值会被赋给对应的局部变量。

另参见parameter 术语表条目,常见问题中参数与形参的区别 以及 PEP 362。

- asynchronous context manager **异步上下文管理器** 此 种 对 象 通 过 定 义 __aenter__() 和 __aexit__() 方法来对 async with 语句中的环境进行控制。由 PEP 492 引入。
- asynchronous generator 异步生成器 返回值为asynchronous generator iterator 的函数。它与使用 async def 定义的协程函数很相似,不同之处在于它包含 yield 表达式以产生一系列可在 async for 循环中使用的值。

此术语通常是指异步生成器函数,但在某些情况下则可能是指 异步生成器迭代器。如果需要清楚表达 具体含义,请使用全称以避免歧义。

- 一个异步生成器函数可能包含 await 表达式或者 async for 以及 async with 语句。
- asynchronous generator iterator 异步生成器迭代器 asynchronous generator 函数所创建的对象。

此对象属于asynchronous iterator, 当使用 __anext__() 方法调用时会返回一个可等待对象来执行异步生成器函数的代码直到下一个 yield 表达式。

每个 yield 会临时暂停处理,记住当前位置执行状态 (包括局部变量和挂起的 try 语句)。当该 异步生成器迭代器与其他 __anext__()返回的可等待对象有效恢复时,它会从离开位置继续执行。参见 PEP 492 和 PEP 525。

- asynchronous iterable **异步可迭代对象** 可在 async for 语句中被使用的对象。必须通过它的 __aiter__() 方法返回一个asynchronous iterator。由 PEP 492 引入。
- asynchronous iterator **异步迭代器** 实现了 __aiter__() 和 __anext__() 方法的对象。__anext__ 必 须返回一个awaitable 对象。async for 会处理异步迭代器的 __anext__() 方法所返回的可等待对象,直到其引发一个 StopAsyncIteration 异常。由 PEP 492 引入。
- attribute **属性** 关联到一个对象的值,可以使用点号表达式通过其名称来引用。例如,如果一个对象 o 具有一个属性 a,就可以用 o.a 来引用它。
- awaitable 可等待对象 能在 await 表达式中使用的对象。可以是 coroutine 或是具有 __await__() 方法的对象。参见 PEP 492。
- BDFL Benevolent Dictator For Life, a.k.a. Guido van Rossum, Python's creator.
- binary file 二进制文件 file object 能够读写字节类对象。二进制文件的例子包括以二进制模式 ('rb', 'wb' or 'rb+') 打开的文件、sys.stdin.buffer、sys.stdout.buffer 以及 io.BytesIO 和 gzip. GzipFile 的实例。

另请参见text file 了解能够读写 str 对象的文件对象。

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bytes-like object – 字节类对象 支持 bufferobjects 并且能导出 C-contiguous 缓冲的对象。这包括所有 bytes、bytearray 和 array.array 对象,以及许多普通 memoryview 对象。字节类对象可在多种二进制数据操作中使用;这些操作包括压缩、保存为二进制文件以及通过套接字发送等。

某些操作需要可变的二进制数据。这种对象在文档中常被称为"可读写字节类对象"。可变缓冲对象的例子包括 bytearray 以及 bytearray 的 memoryview。其他操作要求二进制数据存放于不可变对象("只读字节类对象"); 这种对象的例子包括 bytes 以及 bytes 对象的 memoryview。

bytecode - 字节码 Python 源代码会被编译为字节码,即 CPython 解释器中表示 Python 程序的内部代码。字节码还会缓存在 .pyc 文件中,这样第二次执行同一文件时速度更快(可以免去将源码重新编译为字节码)。这种"中间语言"运行在根据字节码执行相应机器码的 virtual machine 之上。请注意不同Python 虚拟机上的字节码不一定通用,也不一定能在不同Python 版本上兼容。

字节码指令列表可以在 dis 模块的文档中查看。

- class 类 用来创建用户定义对象的模板。类定义通常包含对该类的实例进行操作的方法定义。
- class variable 类变量 在类中定义的变量,并且仅限在类的层级上修改(而不是在类的实例中修改)。
- coercion 强制类型转换 The implicit conversion of an instance of one type to another during an operation which involves two arguments of the same type. For example, int(3.15) converts the floating point number to the integer 3, but in 3+4.5, each argument is of a different type (one int, one float), and both must be converted to the same type before they can be added or it will raise a TypeError. Without coercion, all arguments of even compatible types would have to be normalized to the same value by the programmer, e.g., float(3)+4.5 rather than just 3+4.5.
- complex number 复数 对普通实数系统的扩展,其中所有数字都被表示为一个实部和一个虚部的和。虚数是虚数单位(-1 的平方根)的实倍数,通常在数学中写为 i,在工程学中写为 j。Python 内置了对复数的支持,采用工程学标记方式;虚部带有一个 j 后缀,例如 3+1j。如果需要 math 模块内对象的对应复数版本,请使用 cmath,复数的使用是一个比较高级的数学特性。如果你感觉没有必要,忽略它们也几乎不会有任何问题。
- **context manager 上下文管理器** 在 with 语句中使用, 通过定义 __enter__() 和 __exit__() 方法来控制环境状态的对象。参见 PEP 343。
- **contiguous 连续** 一个缓冲如果是 *C* 连续或 *Fortran* 连续就会被认为是连续的。零维缓冲是 C 和 Fortran 连续的。在一维数组中,所有条目必须在内存中彼此相邻地排列,采用从零开始的递增索引顺序。在 多维 C-连续数组中,当按内存地址排列时用最后一个索引访问条目时速度最快。但是在 Fortran 连续 数组中则是用第一个索引最快。
- **coroutine 协程** 协程是子例程的更一般形式。子例程可以在某一点进入并在另一点退出。协程则可以在 许多不同的点上进入、退出和恢复。它们可通过 async def 语句来实现。参见 PEP 492。
- coroutine function 协程函数 返回一个 coroutine 对象的函数。协程函数可通过 async def 语句来定义, 并可能包含 await、async for 和 async with 关键字。这些特性是由 PEP 492 引入的。
- **CPython** Python 编程语言的规范实现,在 python.org 上发布。" CPython"一词用于在必要时将此实现与 其他实现例如 Jython 或 IronPython 相区别。
- decorator 装饰器 返回值为另一个函数的函数,通常使用 @wrapper 语法形式来进行函数变换。装饰器的常见例子包括 classmethod()和 staticmethod()。

装饰器语法只是一种语法糖,以下两个函数定义在语义上完全等价:

同的样概念也适用于类,但通常较少这样使用。有关装饰器的详情可参见 函数定义和 类定义的文档。

descriptor - 描述器 任何定义了 __get__(), __set__() 或 __delete__() 方法的对象。当一个类属性为描述器时,它的特殊绑定行为就会在属性查找时被触发。通常情况下,使用 a.b 来获取、设置或删除一个属性时会在 a 的类字典中查找名称为 b 的对象,但如果 b 是一个描述器,则会调用对应的描述器方法。理解描述器的概念是更深层次理解 Python 的关键,因为这是许多重要特性的基础,包括函数、方法、属性、类方法、静态方法以及对超类的引用等等。

有关描述符的方法的详情可参看 descriptors。

dictionary - 字典 一个关联数组,其中的任意键都映射到相应的值。键可以是任何具有 __hash__() 和 __eq__() 方法的对象。在 Perl 语言中称为 hash。

- dictionary view 字典视图 从 dict.keys(), dict.values() 和 dict.items() 返回的对象被称为字典 视图。它们提供了字典条目的一个动态视图,这意味着当字典改变时,视图也会相应改变。要将字典 视图强制转换为真正的列表,可使用 list(dictview)。参见 dict-views。
- docstring 文档字符串 作为类、函数或模块之内的第一个表达式出现的字符串字面值。它在代码执行时会被忽略,但会被解释器识别并放入所在类、函数或模块的 __doc__ 属性中。由于它可用于代码内省,因此是对象存放文档的规范位置。
- duck-typing 鸭子类型 指一种编程风格,它并不依靠查找对象类型来确定其是否具有正确的接口,而是直接调用或使用其方法或属性("看起来像鸭子,叫起来也像鸭子,那么肯定就是鸭子。")由于强调接口而非特定类型,设计良好的代码可通过允许多态替代来提升灵活性。鸭子类型避免使用 type()或isinstance()检测。(但要注意鸭子类型可以使用抽象基类 作为补充。)而往往会采用 hasattr()检测或是*EAFP* 编程。
- **EAFP** "求原谅比求许可更容易"的英文缩写。这种 Python 常用代码编写风格会假定所需的键或属性存在,并在假定错误时捕获异常。这种简洁快速风格的特点就是大量运用 try 和 except 语句。于其相对的则是所谓*LBYL* 风格,常见于 C 等许多其他语言。
- expression 表达式 A piece of syntax which can be evaluated to some value. In other words, an expression is an accumulation of expression elements like literals, names, attribute access, operators or function calls which all return a value. In contrast to many other languages, not all language constructs are expressions. There are also *statements* which cannot be used as expressions, such as if. Assignments are also statements, not expressions.
- **extension module** 扩展模块 以 C 或 C++ 编写的模块,使用 Python 的 C API 来与语言核心以及用户代码进行交互。
- **f-string f-字符串** 带有 'f' 或 'F' 前缀的字符串字面值通常被称为 "f-字符串" 即 格式化字符串字面值 的简写。参见 PEP 498。
- file object 文件对象 对外提供面向文件 API 以使用下层资源的对象 (带有 read()或 write()这样的方法)。根据其创建方式的不同,文件对象可以处理对真实磁盘文件,对其他类型存储,或是对通讯设备的访问 (例如标准输入/输出、内存缓冲区、套接字、管道等等)。文件对象也被称为 文件类对象或流。

实际上共有三种类别的文件对象: 原始二进制文件, 缓冲二进制文件 以及文本文件。它们的接口定义均在 io 模块中。创建文件对象的规范方式是使用 open() 函数。

- file-like object 文件类对象 file object 的同义词。
- finder 查找器 一种会尝试查找被导入模块的loader 的对象。

从 Python 3.3 起存在两种类型的查找器: 元路径查找器 配合 sys.meta_path 使用,以及path entry finders 配合 sys.path_hooks 使用。

更多详情可参见 PEP 302, PEP 420 和 PEP 451。

- floor division 向下取整除法 向下舍入到最接近的整数的数学除法。向下取整除法的运算符是 // 。例如,表达式 11 // 4 的计算结果是 2,而与之相反的是浮点数的真正除法返回 2.75。注意 (-11) // 4 会返回 -3 因为这是 -2.75 向下舍入得到的结果。见 PEP 238。
- **function 函数** 可以向调用者返回某个值的一组语句。还可以向其传入零个或多个参数 并在函数体执行中被使用。另见*parameter*, *method* 和 function 等节。
- function annotation 函数标注 即针对函数形参或返回值的annotation。

函数标注通常用于类型提示:例如以下函数预期接受两个 int 参数并预期返回一个 int 值:

```
def sum_two_numbers(a: int, b: int) -> int:
    return a + b
```

函数标注语法的详解见 function 一节。

请参看variable annotation 和 PEP 484 对此功能的描述。

__future___ 一种伪模块,可被程序员用来启用与当前解释器不兼容的新语言特性。

通过导入 __future__ 模块并对其中的变量求值,你可以查看新特性何时首次加入语言以及何时成为默认:

```
>>> import __future__
>>> __future__.division
_Feature((2, 2, 0, 'alpha', 2), (3, 0, 0, 'alpha', 0), 8192)
```

- garbage collection 垃圾回收 释放不再被使用的内存空间的过程。Python 是通过引用计数和一个能够 检测和打破循环引用的循环垃圾回收器来执行垃圾回收的。可以使用 gc 模块来控制垃圾回收器。
- **generator 生成器** 返回一个*generator* iterator 的函数。它看起来很像普通函数,不同点在于其包含 yield 表达式以便产生一系列值供给 for-循环使用或是通过 next() 函数逐一获取。

通常是指生成器函数,但在某些情况下也可能是指 生成器迭代器。如果需要清楚表达具体含义,请使 用全称以避免歧义。

generator iterator - 生成器迭代器 generator 函数所创建的对象。

每个 yield 会临时暂停处理,记住当前位置执行状态(包括局部变量和挂起的 try 语句)。当该 生成 器迭代器恢复时,它会从离开位置继续执行(这与每次调用都从新开始的普通函数差别很大)。

generator expression — 生成器表达式 An expression that returns an iterator. It looks like a normal expression followed by a for expression defining a loop variable, range, and an optional if expression. The combined expression generates values for an enclosing function:

```
>>> sum(i*i for i in range(10))  # sum of squares 0, 1, 4, ... 81
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```

generic function – **泛型函数** 为不同的类型实现相同操作的多个函数所组成的函数。在调用时会由调度算 法来确定应该使用哪个实现。

另请参见single dispatch 术语表条目、functools.singledispatch() 装饰器以及 PEP 443。

- GIL 参见global interpreter lock。
- global interpreter lock **全局解释器锁** *CPython* 解释器所采用的一种机制,它确保同一时刻只有一个 线程在执行 Python *bytecode*。此机制通过设置对象模型(包括 dict 等重要内置类型)针对并发访问 的隐式安全简化了 CPython 实现。给整个解释器加锁使得解释器多线程运行更方便,其代价则是牺牲 了在多处理器上的并行性。

不过,某些标准库或第三方库的扩展模块被设计为在执行计算密集型任务如压缩或哈希时释放 GIL。此外,在执行 I/O 操作时也总是会释放 GIL。

创建一个(以更精细粒度来锁定共享数据的)"自由线程"解释器的努力从未获得成功,因为这会牺牲在普通单处理器情况下的性能。据信克服这种性能问题的措施将导致实现变得更复杂,从而更难以维护。

hashable - **可哈希** 一个对象的哈希值如果在其生命周期内绝不改变,就被称为 可哈希(它需要具有 __hash__()方法),并可以同其他对象进行比较(它需要具有 __eq__()方法)。可哈希对象必须具有相同的哈希值比较结果才会相同。

可哈希性使得对象能够作为字典键或集合成员使用、因为这些数据结构要在内部使用哈希值。

所有 Python 中的不可变内置对象都是可哈希的;可变容器(例如列表或字典)都不可哈希。用户定义类的实例对象默认是可哈希的。它们在比较时一定不相同(除非是与自己比较),它们的哈希值的生成基于其 id()。

- **IDLE** Python 的 IDE, "集成开发与学习环境"的英文缩写。是 Python 标准发行版附带的基本编程器和解释器环境。
- immutable **不可变** 具有固定值的对象。不可变对象包括数字、字符串和元组。这样的对象不能被改变。如果必须存储一个不同的值,则必须创建新的对象。它们在需要常量哈希值的地方起着重要作用,例如作为字典中的键。
- import path 导人路径 由多个位置(或路径条目)组成的列表,会被模块的path based finder 用来查找导入目标。在导入时,此位置列表通常来自 sys.path,但对次级包来说也可能来自上级包的 __path__ 属性。
- **importing** 导人 令一个模块中的 Python 代码能为另一个模块中的 Python 代码所使用的过程。
- importer 导人器 查找并加载模块的对象;此对象既属于finder 又属于loader。
- interactive **交互** Python 带有一个交互式解释器,即你可以在解释器提示符后输入语句和表达式,立即执行并查看其结果。只需不带参数地启动 python 命令(也可以在你的计算机开始菜单中选择相应菜单项)。在测试新想法或检验模块和包的时候用这种方式会非常方便(请记得使用 help(x))。
- interpreted 解释型 Python 一是种解释型语言,与之相对的是编译型语言,虽然两者的区别由于字节码编译器的存在而会有所模糊。这意味着源文件可以直接运行而不必显式地创建可执行文件再运行。解释型语言通常具有比编译型语言更短的开发/调试周期,但是其程序往往运行得更慢。参见interactive。
- interpreter shutdown 解释器关闭 当被要求关闭时, Python 解释器将进入一个特殊运行阶段并逐步释放所有已分配资源, 例如模块和各种关键内部结构等。它还会多次调用垃圾回收器。这会触发用户定义析构器或弱引用回调中的代码执行。在关闭阶段执行的代码可能会遇到各种异常, 因为其所依赖的资源已不再有效(常见的例子有库模块或警告机制等)。
 - 解释器需要关闭的主要原因有 __main__ 模块或所运行的脚本已完成执行。
- iterable **可迭代对象** 能够逐一返回其成员项的对象。可迭代对象的例子包括所有序列类型(例如 list、str 和 tuple)以及某些非序列类型例如 dict、文件对象 以及定义了 __iter__() 方法或是实现了 Sequence 语义的 __getitem__() 方法的任意自定义类对象。
 - 可迭代对象被可用于 for 循环以及许多其他需要一个序列的地方(zip()、map() …)。当一个可迭代对象作为参数传给内置函数 iter() 时,它会返回该对象的迭代器。这种迭代器适用于对值集合的一次性遍历。在使用可迭代对象时,你通常不需要调用 iter() 或者自己处理迭代器对象。for 语句会为你自动处理那些操作,创建一个临时的未命名变量用来在循环期间保存迭代器。参见iterator、sequence以及generator。
- iterator 迭代器 用来表示一连串数据流的对象。重复调用迭代器的 __next__() 方法(或将其传给内置函数 next()) 将逐个返回流中的项。当没有数据可用时则将引发 StopIteration 异常。到这时迭代器对象中的数据项已耗尽,继续调用其 __next__() 方法只会再次引发 StopIteration 异常。迭代器必须具有 __iter__() 方法用来返回该迭代器对象自身,因此迭代器必定也是可迭代对象,可被用于其他可迭代对象适用的大部分场合。一个显著的例外是那些会多次重复访问迭代项的代码。容器对象(例如 list)在你每次向其传入 iter() 函数或是在 for 循环中使用它时都会产生一个新的迭代器。如果在此情况下你尝试用迭代器则会返回在之前迭代过程中被耗尽的同一迭代器对象,使其看起来就像是一个空容器。
 - 更多信息可查看 typeiter。
- key function **键函数** 键函数或称整理函数,是能够返回用于排序或排位的值的可调用对象。例如,locale.strxfrm()可用于生成一个符合特定区域排序约定的排序键。
 - Python 中有许多工具都允许用键函数来控制元素的排位或分组方式。其中包括 min(), max(), sorted(), list.sort(), heapq.merge(), heapq.nsmallest(), heapq.nlargest() 以及 itertools. groupby()。
 - 要创建一个键函数有多种方式。例如, str.lower() 方法可以用作忽略大小写排序的键函数。另外, 键函数也可通过 lambda 表达式来创建, 例如 lambda r: (r[0], r[2])。还有 operator 模块提供了三

个键函数构造器: attrgetter()、itemgetter()和 methodcaller()。请查看 如何排序一节以获取 创建和使用键函数的示例。

- keyword argument 关键字参数 参见argument。
- lambda 由一个单独*expression* 构成的匿名内联函数,表达式会在调用时被求值。创建 lambda 函数的句法 为 lambda [parameters]: expression
- LBYL"先查看后跳跃"的英文缩写。这种代码编写风格会在进行调用或查找之前显式地检查前提条件。此 风格与*EAFP* 方式恰成对比,其特点是大量使用 if 语句。

在多线程环境中,LBYL 方式会导致"查看"和"跳跃"之间发生条件竞争风险。例如,以下代码 if key in mapping: return mapping[key] 可能由于在检查操作之后其他线程从 mapping 中移除了 key 而出错。这种问题可通过加锁或使用 EAFP 方式来解决。

- **list 列表** Python 内置的一种*sequence*。虽然名为列表,但更类似于其他语言中的数组而非链接列表,因为访问元素的时间复杂度为 O(1)。
- **list comprehension 列表推导式** 处理一个序列中的所有或部分元素并返回结果列表的一种紧凑写法。 result = ['{:#04x}'.format(x) for x in range(256) if x % 2 == 0] 将生成一个 0 到 255 范围内的十六进制偶数对应字符串 (0x...) 的列表。其中 if 子句是可选的,如果省略则 range(256) 中的所有元素都会被处理。
- loader 加载器 负责加载模块的对象。它必须定义名为 load_module() 的方法。加载器通常由一个finder 返回。详情参见 PEP 302,对于abstract base class 可参见 importlib.abc.Loader。
- mapping 映射 一种支持任意键查找并实现了 Mapping 或 MutableMapping 抽象基类中所规定方法的容器对象。此类对象的例子包括 dict, collections.defaultdict, collections.OrderedDict 以及collections.Counter。
- meta path finder 元路径查找器 sys.meta_path 的搜索所返回的finder。元路径查找器与path entry finders 存在关联但并不相同。

请查看 importlib.abc.MetaPathFinder 了解元路径查找器所实现的方法。

metaclass - 元类 一种用于创建类的类。类定义包含类名、类字典和基类列表。元类负责接受上述三个参数并创建相应的类。大部分面向对象的编程语言都会提供一个默认实现。Python 的特别之处在于可以创建自定义元类。大部分用户永远不需要这个工具,但当需要出现时,元类可提供强大而优雅的解决方案。它们已被用于记录属性访问日志、添加线程安全性、跟踪对象创建、实现单例,以及其他许多任务。

更多详情参见 metaclasses。

- **method 方法** 在类内部定义的函数。如果作为该类的实例的一个属性来调用,方法将会获取实例对象作为其第一个*argument* (通常命名为 **self**)。参见*function* 和 *nested scope*。
- method resolution order 方法解析顺序 方法解析顺序就是在查找成员时搜索全部基类所用的先后顺序。请查看 Python 2.3 方法解析顺序 了解自 2.3 版起 Python 解析器所用相关算法的详情。
- **module 模块** 此对象是 Python 代码的一种组织单位。各模块具有独立的命名空间,可包含任意 Python 对象。模块可通过*importing* 操作被加载到 Python 中。 另见*package*。
- module spec 模块规格 一个命名空间,其中包含用于加载模块的相关导入信息。是 importlib. machinery.ModuleSpec 的实例。
- MRO 参见method resolution order。
- mutable 可变 可变对象可以在其 id() 保持固定的情况下改变其取值。另请参见immutable。
- named tuple **具名元组** 任何类似元组的类,其中的可索引元素也能使用名称属性来访问。(例如, time. localtime() 会返回一个类似元组的对象,其中的 *year* 既可以通过索引访问如 t[0] 也可以通过名称属性访问如 t.tm_year)。

具名元组可以是一个内置类型例如 time.struct_time, 也可以通过正规的类定义来创建。一个完备的具名元组还可以通过工厂函数 collections.namedtuple()来创建。后面这种方式会自动提供一些额外特性,例如 Employee(name='jones', title='programmer')这样的自包含文档表示形式。

- namespace 命名空间 命名空间是存放变量的场所。命名空间有局部、全局和内置的,还有对象中的嵌套命名空间(在方法之内)。命名空间通过防止命名冲突来支持模块化。例如,函数 builtins.open 与 os.open() 可通过各自的命名空间来区分。命名空间还通过明确哪个模块实现那个函数来帮助提高可读性和可维护性。例如,random.seed() 或 itertools.islice() 这种写法明确了这些函数是由 random 与 itertools 模块分别实现的。
- namespace package **命名空间包 PEP 420** 所引入的一种仅被用作子包的容器的*package*, 命名空间包可以没有实体表示物, 其描述方式与*regular package* 不同, 因为它们没有 __init__.py 文件。 另可参见*module*。
- nested scope **嵌套作用域** 在一个定义范围内引用变量的能力。例如,在另一函数之内定义的函数可以引用前者的变量。请注意嵌套作用域默认只对引用有效而对赋值无效。局部变量的读写都受限于最内层作用域。类似的,全局变量的读写则作用于全局命名空间。通过 nonlocal 关键字可允许写入外层作用域。
- **new-style class 新式类** 对于目前已被应于所有类对象的类形式的旧称谓。在早先的 Python 版本中,只有新式类能够使用 Python 新增的更灵活特性,例如 __slots__、描述符、特征属性、__getattribute__()、类方法和静态方法等。
- **object 对象** 任何具有状态(属性或值)以及预定义行为(方法)的数据。object 也是任何*new-style class* 的最顶层基类名。
- **package 包** 一种可包含子模块或递归地包含子包的 Python *module*。从技术上说,包是带有 __path__ 属性的 Python 模块。

另参见regular package 和namespace package。

- **parameter 形参** *function* (或方法) 定义中的命名实体,它指定函数可以接受的一个*argument* (或在某些情况下,多个实参)。有五种形参:
 - positional-or-keyword: 位置或关键字,指定一个可以作为位置参数 传入也可以作为关键字参数 传入的实参。这是默认的形参类型,例如下面的 foo 和 bar:

```
def func(foo, bar=None): ...
```

- positional-only: 仅限位置,指定一个只能按位置传入的参数。Python 中没有定义仅限位置形参的语法。但是一些内置函数有仅限位置形参(比如 abs())。
- keyword-only: 仅限关键字,指定一个只能通过关键字传入的参数。仅限关键字形参可通过在函数定义的形参列表中包含单个可变位置形参或者在多个可变位置形参之前放一个*来定义,例如下面的 kw only1 和 kw only2:

```
def func(arg, *, kw_only1, kw_only2): ...
```

• var-positional: 可变位置,指定可以提供由一个任意数量的位置参数构成的序列(附加在其他形 参已接受的位置参数之后)。这种形参可通过在形参名称前加级*来定义,例如下面的 args:

```
def func(*args, **kwargs): ...
```

• var-keyword: 可变关键字,指定可以提供任意数量的关键字参数(附加在其他形参已接受的关键字参数之后)。这种形参可通过在形参名称前加缀**来定义,例如上面的kwargs。

形参可以同时指定可选和必选参数,也可以为某些可选参数指定默认值。

另参见argument 术语表条目、参数与形参的区别 中的常见问题、inspect.Parameter 类、function 一节以及 PEP 362。

path entry - 路径人口 import path 中的一个单独位置,会被path based finder 用来查找要导入的模块。

path entry finder - 路径人口查找器 任一可调用对象使用 sys.path_hooks (即path entry hook) 返回的finder, 此种对象能通过path entry 来定位模块。

请参看 importlib.abc.PathEntryFinder 以了解路径人口查找器所实现的各个方法。

- **path entry hook 路径人口钩子** —种可调用对象,在知道如何查找特定 *path entry* 中的模块的情况下能够使用 sys.path_hook 列表返回一个 *path entry finder*。
- path based finder 基于路径的查找器 默认的一种元路径查找器,可在一个import path 中查找模块。
- path-like object 路径类对象 代表一个文件系统路径的对象。类路径对象可以是一个表示路径的 str 或者 bytes 对象,还可以是一个实现了 os.PathLike 协议的对象。一个支持 os.PathLike 协议的对象可通过调用 os.fspath()函数转换为 str 或者 bytes 类型的文件系统路径; os.fsdecode()和 os.fsencode()可被分别用来确保获得 str 或 bytes 类型的结果。此对象是由 PEP 519 引入的。
- **PEP** "Python 增强提议"的英文缩写。一个 PEP 就是一份设计文档,用来向 Python 社区提供信息,或描述一个 Python 的新增特性及其进度或环境。PEP 应当提供精确的技术规格和所提议特性的原理说明。

PEP 应被作为提出主要新特性建议、收集社区对特定问题反馈以及为必须加入 Python 的设计决策编写文档的首选机制。PEP 的作者有责任在社区内部建立共识,并应将不同意见也记入文档。

参见 PEP 1。

portion – **部分** 构成一个命名空间包的单个目录内文件集合(也可能存放于一个 zip 文件内), 具体定义见 PEP 420。

positional argument - 位置参数 参见argument。

provisional API – **暂定** API 暂定 API 是指被有意排除在标准库的向后兼容性保证之外的应用编程接口。 虽然此类接口通常不会再有重大改变,但只要其被标记为暂定,就可能在核心开发者确定有必要的情况下进行向后不兼容的更改(甚至包括移除该接口)。此种更改并不会随意进行 – 仅在 API 被加入之前未考虑到的严重基础性缺陷被发现时才可能会这样做。

即便是对暂定 API 来说,向后不兼容的更改也会被视为"最后的解决方案"——任何问题被确认时都会尽可能先尝试找到一种向后兼容的解决方案。

这种处理过程允许标准库持续不断地演进,不至于被有问题的长期性设计缺陷所困。详情见 PEP 411。

provisional package - 暫定包 参见provisional API。

- **Python 3000** Python 3.x 发布路线的昵称(这个名字在版本 3 的发布还遥遥无期的时候就已出现了)。有时也被缩写为"Pv3k"。
- Pythonic 指一个思路或一段代码紧密遵循了 Python 语言最常用的风格和理念,而不是使用其他语言中通用的概念来实现代码。例如,Python 的常用风格是使用 for 语句循环来遍历一个可迭代对象中的所有元素。许多其他语言没有这样的结构,因此不熟悉 Python 的人有时会选择使用一个数字计数器:

```
for i in range(len(food)):
    print(food[i])
```

而相应的更简洁更 Pythonic 的方法是这样的:

```
for piece in food:
    print(piece)
```

qualified name - **限定名称** 一个以点号分隔的名称,显示从模块的全局作用域到该模块中定义的某个类、函数或方法的"路径",相关定义见 PEP 3155。对于最高层级的函数和类,限定名称与对象名称一致:

当被用于引用模块时,完整限定名称意为标示该模块的以点号分隔的整个路径,其中包含其所有的父包,例如 email.mime.text:

```
>>> import email.mime.text
>>> email.mime.text.__name__
'email.mime.text'
```

- reference count 引用计数 对特定对象的引用的数量。当一个对象的引用计数降为零时,所分配资源将被释放。引用计数对 Python 代码来说通常是不可见的,但它是*CPython* 实现的一个关键元素。sys 模块定义了一个 getrefcount() 函数,程序员可调用它来返回特定对象的引用计数。
- regular package 正规包 传统型的package, 例如包含有一个 __init__.py 文件的目录。

另参见namespace package。

- ___slots___ 一种写在类内部的声明,通过预先声明实例属性等对象并移除实例字典来节省内存。虽然这种技巧很流行,但想要用好却并不容易,最好是只保留在少数情况下采用,例如极耗内存的应用程序,并且其中包含大量实例。
- sequence **序列** 一种*iterable*,它支持通过__getitem__()特殊方法来使用整数索引进行高效的元素访问,并定义了一个返回序列长度的__len__()方法。内置的序列类型有 list、str、tuple 和 bytes。注意虽然 dict 也支持__getitem__()和 __len__(),但它被认为属于映射而非序列,因为它查找时使用任意的*immutable* 键而非整数。
 - collections.abc.Sequence 抽象基类定义了一个更丰富的接口,它超越了 __getitem__()和 __len__(),添加了 count(),index(),__contains__()和 __reversed__()。可以使用 register()显式注册实现此扩展接口的类型。
- single dispatch 单分派 一种generic function 分派形式,其实现是基于单个参数的类型来选择的。
- slice 切片 通常只包含了特定 sequence 的一部分的对象。切片是通过使用下标标记来创建的,在[]中给出几个以冒号分隔的数字,例如 variable_name [1:3:5]。方括号(下标)标记在内部使用 slice 对象。
- special method 特殊方法 一种由 Python 隐式调用的方法,用来对某个类型执行特定操作例如相加等等。这种方法的名称的首尾都为双下划线。特殊方法的文档参见 specialnames。
- statement **语句** 语句是程序段(一个代码"块")的组成单位。一条语句可以是一个*expression* 或某个带有关键字的结构,例如 if、while 或 for。
- struct sequence 结构序列 具有命名元素的元组。结构序列所暴露的接口类似于named tuple, 其元素既可通过索引也可作为属性来访问。不过,它们没有任何具名元组的方法,例如 _make()或 _asdict()。结构序列的例子包括 sys.float_info 以及 os.stat() 的返回值。
- text encoding 文本编码 用于将 Unicode 字符串编码为字节串的编码器。

text file - 文本文件 一种能够读写 str 对象的file object。通常一个文本文件实际是访问一个面向字节的数据流并自动处理 text encoding。文本文件的例子包括以文本模式('r' 或 'w') 打开的文件、sys.stdin、sys.stdout 以及 io.StringIO 的实例。

另请参看binary file 了解能够读写字节类对象 的文件对象。

- triple-quoted string 三**引号字符**串 首尾各带三个连续双引号(")或者单引号(")的字符串。它们在功能上与首尾各用一个引号标注的字符串没有什么不同,但是有多种用处。它们允许你在字符串内包含未经转义的单引号和双引号,并且可以跨越多行而无需使用连接符,在编写文档字符串时特别好用。
- type 类型 类型决定一个 Python 对象属于什么种类;每个对象都具有一种类型。要知道对象的类型,可以访问它的__class__ 属性,或是通过 type(obj)来获取。
- type alias 类型别名 一个类型的同义词, 创建方式是把类型赋值给特定的标识符。

类型别名的作用是简化类型提示。例如:

```
from typing import List, Tuple

def remove_gray_shades(
          colors: List[Tuple[int, int, int]]) -> List[Tuple[int, int, int]]:
    pass
```

可以这样提高可读性:

```
from typing import List, Tuple

Color = Tuple[int, int, int]

def remove_gray_shades(colors: List[Color]) -> List[Color]:
    pass
```

参见 typing 和 PEP 484, 其中有对此功能的详细描述。

type hint - 类型提示 annotation 为变量、类属性、函数的形参或返回值指定预期的类型。

类型提示属于可选项, Python 不要求提供, 但其可对静态类型分析工具起作用, 并可协助 IDE 实现代码补全与重构。

全局变量、类属性和函数的类型提示可以使用 typing.get_type_hints() 来访问, 但局部变量则不可以。

参见 typing 和 PEP 484, 其中有对此功能的详细描述。

universal newlines – 通用换行 —种解读文本流的方式,将以下所有符号都识别为行结束标志: Unix 的行结束约定 '\n'、Windows 的约定 '\r\n' 以及旧版 Macintosh 的约定 '\r'。参见 PEP 278 和 PEP 3116 和 bytes.splitlines() 了解更多用法说明。

variable annotation – 变量标注 对变量或类属性的annotation。

在标注变量或类属性时,还可选择为其赋值:

```
class C:
field: 'annotation'
```

变量标注通常被用作类型提示: 例如以下变量预期接受 int 类型的值:

```
count: int = 0
```

变量标注语法的详细解释见 annassign 一节。

- 请参看function annotation、PEP 484 和 PEP 526, 其中对此功能有详细描述。
- virtual environment **虚拟环境** 一种采用协作式隔离的运行时环境,允许 Python 用户和应用程序在安装和升级 Python 分发包时不会干扰到同一系统上运行的其他 Python 应用程序的行为。 另参见 venv。
- **virtual machine 虚拟机** 一台完全通过软件定义的计算机。Python 虚拟机可执行字节码编译器所生成的bytecode。
- Zen of Python Python 之禅 列出 Python 设计的原则与哲学,有助于理解与使用这种语言。查看其具体内容可在交互模式提示符中输入"import this"。

APPENDIX B

文档说明

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- Fred L. Drake, Jr., 创造了用于早期 Python 文档的工具链, 以及撰写了非常多的文档;
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- Fredrik Lundh, Sphinx 从他的 Alternative Python Reference 项目中获得了很多好的想法。

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1995 年,Guido 在弗吉尼亚州的国家创新研究公司(CNRI,见 https://www.cnri.reston.va.us/)继续他的Python 工作,在那里他发布了该软件的几个版本。

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C.3.1 Mersenne Twister

The _random module includes code based on a download from http://www.math.sci.hiroshima-u.ac.jp/~m-mat/MT/MT2002/emt19937ar.html. The following are the verbatim comments from the original code:

A C-program for MT19937, with initialization improved 2002/1/26. Coded by Takuji Nishimura and Makoto Matsumoto.

Before using, initialize the state by using init_genrand(seed) or init_by_array(init_key, key_length).

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http://www.math.sci.hiroshima-u.ac.jp/~m-mat/MT/emt.html email: m-mat @ math.sci.hiroshima-u.ac.jp (remove space)

C.3.2 套接字

The socket module uses the functions, getaddrinfo(), and getnameinfo(), which are coded in separate source files from the WIDE Project, http://www.wide.ad.jp/.

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Author: Zooko O'Whielacronx

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Modified by Jack Jansen, CWI, July 1995:

- Use binascii module to do the actual line-by-line conversion

between ascii and binary. This results in a 1000-fold speedup. The C version is still 5 times faster, though.

- Arguments more compliant with Python standard

C.3.8 XML Remote Procedure Calls

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C.3.11 SipHash24

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Original location:
   https://github.com/majek/csiphash/

Solution inspired by code from:
   Samuel Neves (supercop/crypto_auth/siphash24/little)
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   Jean-Philippe Aumasson (https://131002.net/siphash/siphash24.c)
```

C.3.12 strtod and dtoa

The file Python/dtoa.c, which supplies C functions dtoa and strtod for conversion of C doubles to and from strings, is derived from the file of the same name by David M. Gay, currently available from http://www.netlib.org/fp/. The original file, as retrieved on March 16, 2009, contains the following copyright and licensing notice:

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C.3.14 expat

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C.3.15 libffi

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C.3.16 zlib

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C.3.17 cfuhash

The implementation of the hash table used by the tracemalloc is based on the cfuhash project:

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C.3.18 libmpdec

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