Python Library Reference

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Abstract

Python is an extensible, interpreted, object-oriented programming language. It supports a wide range of applications, from simple text processing scripts to interactive WWW browsers.

While the *Python Reference Manual* describes the exact syntax and semantics of the language, it does not describe the standard library that is distributed with the language, and which greatly enhances its immediate usability. This library contains built-in modules (written in C) that provide access to system functionality such as file I/O that would otherwise be inaccessible to Python programmers, as well as modules written in Python that provide standardized solutions for many problems that occur in everyday programming. Some of these modules are explicitly designed to encourage and enhance the portability of Python programs.

This library reference manual documents Python's standard library, as well as many optional library modules (which may or may not be available, depending on whether the underlying platform supports them and on the configuration choices made at compile time). It also documents the standard types of the language and its built-in functions and exceptions, many of which are not or incompletely documented in the Reference Manual.

This manual assumes basic knowledge about the Python language. For an informal introduction to Python, see the *Python Tutorial*; the Python Reference Manual remains the highest authority on syntactic and semantic questions. Finally, the manual entitled *Extending and Embedding the Python Interpreter* describes how to add new extensions to Python and how to embed it in other applications.

Contents

Chapter 1

Introduction

The “Python library” contains several different kinds of components.

It contains data types that would normally be considered part of the “core” of a language, such as numbers and lists. For these types, the Python language core defines the form of literals and places some constraints on their semantics, but does not fully define the semantics. (On the other hand, the language core does define syntactic properties like the spelling and priorities of operators.)

The library also contains built-in functions and exceptions — objects that can be used by all Python code without the need of an `import` statement. Some of these are defined by the core language, but many are not essential for the core semantics and are only described here.

The bulk of the library, however, consists of a collection of modules. There are many ways to dissect this collection. Some modules are written in C and built in to the Python interpreter; others are written in Python and imported in source form. Some modules provide interfaces that are highly specific to Python, like printing a stack trace; some provide interfaces that are specific to particular operating systems, like socket I/O; others provide interfaces that are specific to a particular application domain, like the World-Wide Web. Some modules are avaiable in all versions and ports of Python; others are only available when the underlying system supports or requires them; yet others are available only when a particular configuration option was chosen at the time when Python was compiled and installed.

This manual is organized “from the inside out”: it first describes the built-in data types, then the built-in functions and exceptions, and finally the modules, grouped in chapters of related modules. The ordering of the chapters as well as the ordering of the modules within each chapter is roughly from most relevant to least important.

This means that if you start reading this manual from the start, and skip to the next chapter when you get bored, you will get a reasonable overview of the available modules and application areas that are supported by the Python library. Of course, you don’t *have* to read it like a novel — you can also browse the table of contents (in front of the manual), or look for a specific function, module or term in the index (in the back). And finally, if you enjoy learning about random subjects, you choose a random page number (see module `rand`) and read a section or two.

Let the show begin!

Chapter 2

Built-in Types, Exceptions and Functions

Names for built-in exceptions and functions are found in a separate symbol table. This table is searched last when the interpreter looks up the meaning of a name, so local and global user-defined names can override built-in names. Built-in types are described together here for easy reference.[1]

The tables in this chapter document the priorities of operators by listing them in order of ascending priority (within a table) and grouping operators that have the same priority in the same box. Binary operators of the same priority group from left to right. (Unary operators group from right to left, but there you have no real choice.) See Chapter 5 of the Python Reference Manual for the complete picture on operator priorities.

2.1 Built-in Types

The following sections describe the standard types that are built into the interpreter. These are the numeric types, sequence types, and several others, including types themselves. There is no explicit Boolean type; use integers instead.

Some operations are supported by several object types; in particular, all objects can be compared, tested for truth value, and converted to a string (with the `...` notation). The latter conversion is implicitly used when an object is written by the `print` statement.

2.1.1 Truth Value Testing

Any object can be tested for truth value, for use in an `if` or `while` condition or as operand of the Boolean operations below. The following values are considered false:

- `None`
- zero of any numeric type, e.g., `0`, `0L`, `0.0`.
- any empty sequence, e.g., `''`, `()`, `[]`.
- any empty mapping, e.g., `{}`.
- instances of user-defined classes, if the class defines a `__nonzero__()` or `__len__()` method, when that method returns zero.

[1] Most descriptions sorely lack explanations of the exceptions that may be raised — this will be fixed in a future version of this manual.

All other values are considered true — so objects of many types are always true.

Operations and built-in functions that have a Boolean result always return `0` for false and `1` for true, unless otherwise stated. (Important exception: the Boolean operations '`or`' and '`and`' always return one of their operands.)

2.1.2 Boolean Operations

These are the Boolean operations, ordered by ascending priority:

Operation	Result	Notes
x `or` *y*	if *x* is false, then *y*, else *x*	(1)
x `and` *y*	if *x* is false, then *x*, else *y*	(1)
`not` *x*	if *x* is false, then `1`, else `0`	(2)

Notes:

(1) These only evaluate their second argument if needed for their outcome.

(2) '`not`' has a lower priority than non-Boolean operators, so e.g. `not a == b` is interpreted as `not(a == b)`, and `a == not b` is a syntax error.

2.1.3 Comparisons

Comparison operations are supported by all objects. They all have the same priority (which is higher than that of the Boolean operations). Comparisons can be chained arbitrarily, e.g. `x < y <= z` is equivalent to `x < y and y <= z`, except that `y` is evaluated only once (but in both cases `z` is not evaluated at all when `x < y` is found to be false).

This table summarizes the comparison operations:

Operation	Meaning	Notes
`<`	strictly less than	
`<=`	less than or equal	
`>`	strictly greater than	
`>=`	greater than or equal	
`==`	equal	
`<>`	not equal	(1)
`!=`	not equal	(1)
`is`	object identity	
`is not`	negated object identity	

Notes:

(1) `<>` and `!=` are alternate spellings for the same operator. (I couldn't choose between ABC and C! :-)

Objects of different types, except different numeric types, never compare equal; such objects are ordered consistently but arbitrarily (so that sorting a heterogeneous array yields a consistent result). Furthermore, some types (e.g., windows) support only a degenerate notion of comparison where any two objects of that type are unequal. Again, such objects are ordered arbitrarily but consistently.

(Implementation note: objects of different types except numbers are ordered by their type names; objects of the same types that don't support proper comparison are ordered by their address.)

Two more operations with the same syntactic priority, `in` and `not in`, are supported only by sequence types (below).

2.1.4 Numeric Types

There are four numeric types: *plain integers*, *long integers*, *floating point numbers*, and *complex numbers*. Plain integers (also just called *integers*) are implemented using `long` in C, which gives them at least 32 bits of precision. Long integers have unlimited precision. Floating point numbers are implemented using `double` in C. All bets on their precision are off unless you happen to know the machine you are working with.

Complex numbers have a real and imaginary part, which are both implemented using `double` in C. To extract these parts from a complex number `z`, use `z.real` and `z.imag`.

Numbers are created by numeric literals or as the result of built-in functions and operators. Unadorned integer literals (including hex and octal numbers) yield plain integers. Integer literals with an '`L`' or '`l`' suffix yield long integers ('`L`' is preferred because `1l` looks too much like eleven!). Numeric literals containing a decimal point or an exponent sign yield floating point numbers. Appending `j` or `J` to a numeric literal yields a complex number.

Python fully supports mixed arithmetic: when a binary arithmetic operator has operands of different numeric types, the operand with the "smaller" type is converted to that of the other, where plain integer is smaller than long integer is smaller than floating point is smaller than complex. Comparisons between numbers of mixed type use the same rule.[2] The functions `int()`, `long()`, `float()`, and `complex()` can be used to coerce numbers to a specific type.

All numeric types support the following operations, sorted by ascending priority (operations in the same box have the same priority; all numeric operations have a higher priority than comparison operations):

Operation	Result	Notes
x + *y*	sum of *x* and *y*	
x - *y*	difference of *x* and *y*	
x * *y*	product of *x* and *y*	
x / *y*	quotient of *x* and *y*	(1)
x % *y*	remainder of *x* / *y*	
-*x*	*x* negated	
+*x*	*x* unchanged	
`abs(`*x*`)`	absolute value or magnitude of *x*	
`int(`*x*`)`	*x* converted to integer	(2)
`long(`*x*`)`	*x* converted to long integer	(2)
`float(`*x*`)`	*x* converted to floating point	
`complex(`*re*`,`*im*`)`	a complex number with real part *re*, imaginary part *im*. *im* defaults to zero.	
`divmod(`*x*`, `*y*`)`	the pair (*x* / *y*, *x* % *y*)	(3)
`pow(`*x*`, `*y*`)`	*x* to the power *y*	
x`**`*y*	*x* to the power *y*	

Notes:

(1) For (plain or long) integer division, the result is an integer. The result is always rounded towards minus infinity: 1/2 is 0, (-1)/2 is -1, 1/(-2) is -1, and (-1)/(-2) is 0.

(2) Conversion from floating point to (long or plain) integer may round or truncate as in C; see functions `floor()` and `ceil()` in module `math` for well-defined conversions.

(3) See the section on built-in functions for an exact definition.

Bit-string Operations on Integer Types

Plain and long integer types support additional operations that make sense only for bit-strings. Negative numbers are treated as their 2's complement value (for long integers, this assumes a sufficiently large number of bits that no overflow occurs during the operation).

[2] As a consequence, the list `[1, 2]` is considered equal to `[1.0, 2.0]`, and similar for tuples.

The priorities of the binary bit-wise operations are all lower than the numeric operations and higher than the comparisons; the unary operation ‘ ’ has the same priority as the other unary numeric operations (‘+’ and ‘−’).

This table lists the bit-string operations sorted in ascending priority (operations in the same box have the same priority):

Operation	Result	Notes
$x \vert y$	bitwise *or* of *x* and *y*	
x ^ *y*	bitwise *exclusive or* of *x* and *y*	
x & *y*	bitwise *and* of *x* and *y*	
x << *n*	*x* shifted left by *n* bits	(1), (2)
x >> *n*	*x* shifted right by *n* bits	(1), (3)
~*x*	the bits of *x* inverted	

Notes:

(1) Negative shift counts are illegal.

(2) A left shift by *n* bits is equivalent to multiplication by `pow(2, n)` without overflow check.

(3) A right shift by *n* bits is equivalent to division by `pow(2, n)` without overflow check.

2.1.5 Sequence Types

There are three sequence types: strings, lists and tuples.

Strings literals are written in single or double quotes: `'xyzzy'`, `"frobozz"`. See Chapter 2 of the Python Reference Manual for more about string literals. Lists are constructed with square brackets, separating items with commas: `[a, b, c]`. Tuples are constructed by the comma operator (not within square brackets), with or without enclosing parentheses, but an empty tuple must have the enclosing parentheses, e.g., `a, b, c` or `()`. A single item tuple must have a trailing comma, e.g., `(d,)`.

Sequence types support the following operations. The ‘`in`’ and ‘`not in`’ operations have the same priorities as the comparison operations. The ‘`+`’ and ‘`*`’ operations have the same priority as the corresponding numeric operations.[3]

This table lists the sequence operations sorted in ascending priority (operations in the same box have the same priority). In the table, *s* and *t* are sequences of the same type; *n*, *i* and *j* are integers:

Operation	Result	Notes
x `in` *s*	`1` if an item of *s* is equal to *x*, else `0`	
x `not in` *s*	`0` if an item of *s* is equal to *x*, else `1`	
s + *t*	the concatenation of *s* and *t*	
s * *n*, *n* * *s*	*n* copies of *s* concatenated	
s[*i*]	*i*'th item of *s*, origin 0	(1)
s[*i*:*j*]	slice of *s* from *i* to *j*	(1), (2)
`len`(*s*)	length of *s*	
`min`(*s*)	smallest item of *s*	
`max`(*s*)	largest item of *s*	

Notes:

(1) If *i* or *j* is negative, the index is relative to the end of the string, i.e., `len(`*s*`) + `*i* or `len(`*s*`) + `*j* is substituted. But note that `-0` is still `0`.

[3] They must have since the parser can't tell the type of the operands.

(2) The slice of *s* from *i* to *j* is defined as the sequence of items with index *k* such that i `<=` k `<` j. If *i* or *j* is greater than `len(`*s*`)`, use `len(`*s*`)`. If *i* is omitted, use `0`. If *j* is omitted, use `len(`*s*`)`. If *i* is greater than or equal to *j*, the slice is empty.

More String Operations

String objects have one unique built-in operation: the `%` operator (modulo) with a string left argument interprets this string as a C sprintf format string to be applied to the right argument, and returns the string resulting from this formatting operation.

The right argument should be a tuple with one item for each argument required by the format string; if the string requires a single argument, the right argument may also be a single non-tuple object.[4] The following format characters are understood: %, c, s, i, d, u, o, x, X, e, E, f, g, G. Width and precision may be a * to specify that an integer argument specifies the actual width or precision. The flag characters -, +, blank, # and 0 are understood. The size specifiers h, l or L may be present but are ignored. The `%s` conversion takes any Python object and converts it to a string using `str()` before formatting it. The ANSI features `%p` and `%n` are not supported. Since Python strings have an explicit length, `%s` conversions don't assume that `'\0'` is the end of the string.

For safety reasons, floating point precisions are clipped to 50; `%f` conversions for numbers whose absolute value is over 1e25 are replaced by `%g` conversions.[5] All other errors raise exceptions.

If the right argument is a dictionary (or any kind of mapping), then the formats in the string must have a parenthesized key into that dictionary inserted immediately after the `%` character, and each format formats the corresponding entry from the mapping. E.g.

```
>>> count = 2
>>> language = 'Python'
>>> print '%(language)s has %(count)03d quote types.' % vars()
Python has 002 quote types.
>>>
```

In this case no * specifiers may occur in a format (since they require a sequential parameter list).

Additional string operations are defined in standard module `string` and in built-in module `re`.

Mutable Sequence Types

List objects support additional operations that allow in-place modification of the object. These operations would be supported by other mutable sequence types (when added to the language) as well. Strings and tuples are immutable sequence types and such objects cannot be modified once created. The following operations are defined on mutable sequence types (where *x* is an arbitrary object):

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[4] A tuple object in this case should be a singleton.

[5] These numbers are fairly arbitrary. They are intended to avoid printing endless strings of meaningless digits without hampering correct use and without having to know the exact precision of floating point values on a particular machine.

Operation	Result	Notes
s[i] = x	item i of s is replaced by x	
s[i:j] = t	slice of s from i to j is replaced by t	
del s[i:j]	same as s[i:j] = []	
s.append(x)	same as s[len(s):len(s)] = [x]	
s.count(x)	return number of i's for which s[i] == x	
s.index(x)	return smallest i such that s[i] == x	(1)
s.insert(i, x)	same as s[i:i] = [x] if i >= 0	
s.remove(x)	same as del s[s.index(x)]	(1)
s.reverse()	reverses the items of s in place	(3)
s.sort()	sort the items of s in place	(2), (3)

Notes:

(1) Raises an exception when x is not found in s.

(2) The `sort()` method takes an optional argument specifying a comparison function of two arguments (list items) which should return `-1`, `0` or `1` depending on whether the first argument is considered smaller than, equal to, or larger than the second argument. Note that this slows the sorting process down considerably; e.g. to sort a list in reverse order it is much faster to use calls to `sort()` and `reverse()` than to use `sort()` with a comparison function that reverses the ordering of the elements.

(3) The `sort()` and `reverse()` methods modify the list in place for economy of space when sorting or reversing a large list. They don't return the sorted or reversed list to remind you of this side effect.

2.1.6 Mapping Types

A *mapping* object maps values of one type (the key type) to arbitrary objects. Mappings are mutable objects. There is currently only one standard mapping type, the *dictionary*. A dictionary's keys are almost arbitrary values. The only types of values not acceptable as keys are values containing lists or dictionaries or other mutable types that are compared by value rather than by object identity. Numeric types used for keys obey the normal rules for numeric comparison: if two numbers compare equal (e.g. 1 and 1.0) then they can be used interchangeably to index the same dictionary entry.

Dictionaries are created by placing a comma-separated list of *key*: *value* pairs within braces, for example: `{'jack':4098, 'sjoerd':4127}` or `{4098:'jack', 4127:'sjoerd'}`.

The following operations are defined on mappings (where a is a mapping, k is a key and x is an arbitrary object):

Operation	Result	Notes
len(a)	the number of items in a	
a[k]	the item of a with key k	(1)
a[k] = x	set a[k] to x	
del a[k]	remove a[k] from a	(1)
a.clear()	remove all items from a	
a.copy()	a (shallow) copy of a	
a.has_key(k)	1 if a has a key k, else 0	
a.items()	a copy of a's list of (key, item) pairs	(2)
a.keys()	a copy of a's list of keys	(2)
a.update(b)	for k, v in b.items(): a[k] = v	(3)
a.values()	a copy of a's list of values	(2)
a.get(k, f)	the item of a with key k	(4)

Notes:

(1) Raises an exception if *k* is not in the map.

(2) Keys and values are listed in random order.

(3) `b` must be of the same type as `a`.

(4) Never raises an exception if *k* is not in the map, instead it returns *f*. *f* is optional, when not provided and *k* is not in the map, `None` is returned.

2.1.7 Other Built-in Types

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

Modules

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

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

Modules are written like this: `<module 'sys'>`.

Classes and Class Instances

(See Chapters 3 and 7 of the Python Reference Manual for these.)

Functions

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

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

The implementation adds two special read-only attributes: *f*`.func_code` is a function's *code object* (see below) and *f*`.func_globals` is the dictionary used as the function's global name space (this is the same as *m*`.__dict__` where *m* is the module in which the function *f* was defined).

Methods

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

The implementation adds two special read-only attributes to class instance methods: *m*`.im_self` is the object whose method this is, and *m*`.im_func` is the function implementing the method. Calling *m*`(`*arg-1*`,` *arg-2*`, ...,` *arg-n*`)` is completely equivalent to calling *m*`.im_func(`*m*`.im_self,` *arg-1*`,` *arg-2*`, ...,` *arg-n*`)`.

(See the Python Reference Manual for more info.)

Code Objects

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

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

(See the Python Reference Manual for more info.)

Type Objects

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

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

The Null Object

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

It is written as `None`.

File Objects

File objects are implemented using C's `stdio` package and can be created with the built-in function `open()` described under Built-in Functions below. They are also returned by some other built-in functions and methods, e.g. `posix.popen()` and `posix.fdopen()` and the `makefile()` method of socket objects.

When a file operation fails for an I/O-related reason, the exception `IOError` is raised. This includes situations where the operation is not defined for some reason, like `seek()` on a tty device or writing a file opened for reading.

Files have the following methods:

`close()`
: Close the file. A closed file cannot be read or written anymore.

`flush()`
: Flush the internal buffer, like `stdio`'s `fflush()`.

`isatty()`
: Return `1` if the file is connected to a tty(-like) device, else `0`.

`fileno()`
: Return the integer "file descriptor" that is used by the underlying implementation to request I/O operations from the operating system. This can be useful for other, lower level interfaces that use file descriptors, e.g. module `fcntl` or `os.read()` and friends.

`read(` [*size*] `)`
: Read at most *size* bytes from the file (less if the read hits EOF or no more data is immediately available on a pipe, tty or similar device). If the *size* argument is negative or omitted, read all data until EOF is reached. The bytes are returned as a string object. An empty string is returned when EOF is encountered immediately. (For certain files, like ttys, it makes sense to continue reading after an EOF is hit.)

`readline([size])`
: Read one entire line from the file. A trailing newline character is kept in the string[6] (but may be absent when a file ends with an incomplete line). If the *size* argument is present and non-negative, it is a maximum byte count (including the trailing newline) and an incomplete line may be returned. An empty string is returned when EOF is hit immediately. Note: unlike `stdio`'s `fgets()`, the returned string contains null characters (`'\0'`) if they occurred in the input.

`readlines([sizehint])`
: Read until EOF using `readline()` and return a list containing the lines thus read. If the optional *bufferhint* argument is present, instead of reading up to EOF, whole lines totalling approximately *sizehint* bytes are read.

`seek(offset, whence)`
: Set the file's current position, like `stdio`'s `fseek()`. The *whence* argument is optional and defaults to `0` (absolute file positioning); other values are `1` (seek relative to the current position) and `2` (seek relative to the file's end). There is no return value.

`tell()`
: Return the file's current position, like `stdio`'s `ftell()`.

`truncate([size])`
: Truncate the file's size. If the optional size argument present, the file is truncated to (at most) that size. The size defaults to the current position. Availability of this function depends on the operating system version (e.g., not all UNIX versions support this operation).

`write(str)`
: Write a string to the file. There is no return value. Note: due to buffering, the string may not actually show up in the file until the `flush()` or `close()` method is called.

`writelines(list)`
: Write a list of strings to the file. There is no return value. (The name is intended to match `readlines`; `writelines` does not add line separators.)

Classes that are trying to simulate a file object should also have a writable `softspace` attribute, which should be initialized to zero. (`softspace` is used by the `print` statement.) This will be automatic for classes implemented in Python; types implemented in C will have to provide a writable `softspace` attribute.

Internal Objects

(See the Python Reference Manual for these.)

2.1.8 Special Attributes

The implementation adds a few special read-only attributes to several object types, where they are relevant:

- *x*`.__dict__` is a dictionary of some sort used to store an object's (writable) attributes;
- *x*`.__methods__` lists the methods of many built-in object types, e.g., `[].__methods__` yields `['append', 'count', 'index', 'insert', 'remove', 'reverse', 'sort']`;
- *x*`.__members__` lists data attributes;
- *x*`.__class__` is the class to which a class instance belongs;
- *x*`.__bases__` is the tuple of base classes of a class object.

[6] The advantage of leaving the newline on is that an empty string can be returned to mean EOF without being ambiguous. Another advantage is that (in cases where it might matter, e.g. if you want to make an exact copy of a file while scanning its lines) you can tell whether the last line of a file ended in a newline or not (yes this happens!).

2.2 Built-in Exceptions

Exceptions can be class objects or string objects. While traditionally, most exceptions have been string objects, in Python 1.5a4, all standard exceptions have been converted to class objects, and users are encouraged to the the same. The source code for those exceptions is present in the standard library module `exceptions`; this module never needs to be imported explicitly.

For backward compatibility, when Python is invoked with the `-X` option, the standard exceptions are strings. This may be needed to run some code that breaks because of the different semantics of class based exceptions. The `-X` option will become obsolete in future Python versions, so the recommended solution is to fix the code.

Two distinct string objects with the same value are considered different exceptions. This is done to force programmers to use exception names rather than their string value when specifying exception handlers. The string value of all built-in exceptions is their name, but this is not a requirement for user-defined exceptions or exceptions defined by library modules.

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

The built-in exceptions listed below can be generated by the interpreter or built-in functions. Except where mentioned, they have an "associated value" indicating the detailed cause of the error. This may be a string or a tuple containing several items of information (e.g., an error code and a string explaining the code). The associated value is the second argument to the `raise` statement. For string exceptions, the associated value itself will be stored in the variable named as the second argument of the `except` clause (if any). For class exceptions derived from the root class `Exception`, that variable receives the exception instance, and the associated value is present as the exception instance's `args` attribute; this is a tuple even if the second argument to `raise` was not (then it is a singleton tuple).

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

The following exceptions are only used as base classes for other exceptions. When string-based standard exceptions are used, they are tuples containing the directly derived classes.

`Exception`
: The root class for exceptions. All built-in exceptions are derived from this class. All user-defined exceptions should also be derived from this class, but this is not (yet) enforced. The `str()` function, when applied to an instance of this class (or most derived classes) returns the string value of the argument or arguments, or an empty string if no arguments were given to the constructor. When used as a sequence, this accesses the arguments given to the constructor (handy for backward compatibility with old code).

`StandardError`
: The base class for built-in exceptions. All built-in exceptions are derived from this class, which is itself derived from the root class `Exception`.

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

`LookupError`
: The base class for thise exceptions that are raised when a key or index used on a mapping or sequence is invalid: `IndexError`, `KeyError`.

The following exceptions are the exceptions that are actually raised. They are class objects, except when the `-X` option is used to revert back to string-based standard exceptions.

`AssertionError`
: Raised when an `assert` statement fails.

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

`EOFError`
: Raised when one of the built-in functions (`input()` or `raw_input()`) hits an end-of-file condition (EOF) without reading any data. (N.B.: the `read()` and `readline()` methods of file objects return an empty string when they hit EOF.) No associated value.

`FloatingPointError`
: Raised when a floating point operation fails. This exception is always defined, but can only be raised when Python is configured with the `--with-fpectl` option, or the `WANT_SIGFPE_HANDLER` symbol is defined in the '`config.h`' file.

`IOError`
: Raised when an I/O operation (such as a `print` statement, the built-in `open()` function or a method of a file object) fails for an I/O-related reason, e.g., "file not found" or "disk full".

When class exceptions are used, and this exception is instantiated as `IOError(errno, strerror)`, the instance has two additional attributes `errno` and `strerror` set to the error code and the error message, respectively. These attributes default to `None`.

`ImportError`
: Raised when an `import` statement fails to find the module definition or when a `from ... import` fails to find a name that is to be imported.

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

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

`KeyboardInterrupt`
: Raised when the user hits the interrupt key (normally `Control-C` or `DEL`). During execution, a check for interrupts is made regularly. Interrupts typed when a built-in function `input()` or `raw_input()`) is waiting for input also raise this exception. No associated value.

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

`NameError`
: Raised when a local or global name is not found. This applies only to unqualified names. The associated value is the name that could not be found.

`OverflowError`
: Raised when the result of an arithmetic operation is too large to be represented. This cannot occur for long integers (which would rather raise `MemoryError` than give up). Because of the lack of standardization of floating point exception handling in C, most floating point operations also aren't checked. For plain integers, all operations that can overflow are checked except left shift, where typical applications prefer to drop bits than raise an exception.

`RuntimeError`
: Raised when an error is detected that doesn't fall in any of the other categories. The associated value is a string indicating what precisely went wrong. (This exception is mostly a relic from a previous version of the interpreter; it is not used very much any more.)

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

  When class exceptions are used, instances of this class have atttributes `filename`, `lineno`, `offset` and `text` for easier access to the details; for string exceptions, the associated value is usually a tuple of the form `(message, (filename, lineno, offset, text))`. For class exceptions, `str()` returns only the message.

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

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

`SystemExit`
: This exception is raised by the `sys.exit()` function. When it is not handled, the Python interpreter exits; no stack traceback is printed. If the associated value is a plain integer, it specifies the system exit status (passed to C's `exit()` function); if it is `None`, the exit status is zero; if it has another type (such as a string), the object's value is printed and the exit status is one.

  When class exceptions are used, the instance has an attribute `code` which is set to the proposed exit status or error message (defaulting to `None`).

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

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

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

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

2.3 Built-in Functions

The Python interpreter has a number of functions built into it that are always available. They are listed here in alphabetical order.

`__import__`(*name* [, *globals* [, *locals* [, *fromlist*]]])
: This function is invoked by the `import` statement. It mainly exists so that you can replace it with another function that has a compatible interface, in order to change the semantics of the `import` statement. For examples of why and how you would do this, see the standard library modules `ni`, `ihooks` and `rexec`. See also the built-in module `imp`, which defines some useful operations out of which you can build your own `__import__()` function.

  For example, the statement `import spam` results in the following call: `__import__('spam', globals(), locals(), []);`

the statement `from spam.ham import eggs` results in `__import__('spam.ham', globals(), locals(), ['eggs'])`. Note that even though `locals()` and `['eggs']` are passed in as arguments, the `__import__()` function does not set the local variable named `eggs`; this is done by subsequent code that is generated for the import statement. (In fact, the standard implementation does not use its *locals* argument at all, and uses its *globals* only to determine the package context of the `import` statement.)

When the *name* variable is of the form `package.module`, normally, the top-level package (the name up till the first dot) is returned, *not* the module named by *name*. However, when a non-empty *fromlist* argument is given, the module named by *name* is returned. This is done for compatibility with the bytecode generated for the different kinds of import statement; when using `import spam.ham.eggs`, the top-level package `spam` must be placed in the importing namespace, but when using `from spam.ham import eggs`, the `spam.ham` subpackage must be used to find the `eggs` variable.

`abs` (*x*)
Return the absolute value of a number. The argument may be a plain or long integer or a floating point number. If the argument is a complex number, its magnitude is returned.

`apply` (*function, args* [*, keywords*])
The *function* argument must be a callable object (a user-defined or built-in function or method, or a class object) and the *args* argument must be a tuple. The *function* is called with *args* as argument list; the number of arguments is the the length of the tuple. (This is different from just calling *func* (*args*), since in that case there is always exactly one argument.) If the optional *keywords* argument is present, it must be a dictionary whose keys are strings. It specifies keyword arguments to be added to the end of the the argument list.

`callable` (*object*)
Return true if the *object* argument appears callable, false if not. If this returns true, it is still possible that a call fails, but if it is false, calling *object* will never succeed. Note that classes are callable (calling a class returns a new instance); class instances are callable if they have an attribute `__call__`.

`chr` (*i*)
Return a string of one character whose ASCII code is the integer *i*, e.g., `chr(97)` returns the string `'a'`. This is the inverse of `ord()`. The argument must be in the range [0..255], inclusive.

`cmp` (*x, y*)
Compare the two objects *x* and *y* and return an integer according to the outcome. The return value is negative if $x < y$, zero if $x == y$ and strictly positive if $x > y$.

`coerce` (*x, y*)
Return a tuple consisting of the two numeric arguments converted to a common type, using the same rules as used by arithmetic operations.

`compile` (*string, filename, kind*)
Compile the *string* into a code object. Code objects can be executed by an `exec` statement or evaluated by a call to `eval()`. The *filename* argument should give the file from which the code was read; pass e.g. `'<string>'` if it wasn't read from a file. The *kind* argument specifies what kind of code must be compiled; it can be `'exec'` if *string* consists of a sequence of statements, `'eval'` if it consists of a single expression, or `'single'` if it consists of a single interactive statement (in the latter case, expression statements that evaluate to something else than `None` will printed).

`complex` (*real* [*, imag*])
Create a complex number with the value *real* + *imag**j. Each argument may be any numeric type (including complex). If *imag* is omitted, it defaults to zero and the function serves as a numeric conversion function like `int`, `long` and `float`.

`delattr` (*object, name*)
This is a relative of `setattr`. The arguments are an object and a string. The string must be the name of one of the object's attributes. The function deletes the named attribute, provided the object allows it. For example, `delattr(x, 'foobar')` is equivalent to `del x.foobar`.

`dir()`

XXX New functionality takes anything and looks in __dict__, __methods__, __members__.

Without arguments, return the list of names in the current local symbol table. With a module, class or class instance object as argument (or anything else that has a `__dict__` attribute), returns the list of names in that object's attribute dictionary. The resulting list is sorted. For example:

```
>>> import sys
>>> dir()
['sys']
>>> dir(sys)
['argv', 'exit', 'modules', 'path', 'stderr', 'stdin', 'stdout']
>>>
```

`divmod(`*a, b*`)`

Take two numbers as arguments and return a pair of integers consisting of their integer quotient and remainder. With mixed operand types, the rules for binary arithmetic operators apply. For plain and long integers, the result is the same as `(a / b, a % b)`. For floating point numbers the result is the same as `(math.floor(a / b), a % b)`.

`eval(`*expression* [*, globals* [*, locals*]]`)`

The arguments are a string and two optional dictionaries. The *expression* argument is parsed and evaluated as a Python expression (technically speaking, a condition list) using the *globals* and *locals* dictionaries as global and local name space. If the *locals* dictionary is omitted it defaults to the *globals* dictionary. If both dictionaries are omitted, the expression is executed in the environment where `eval` is called. The return value is the result of the evaluated expression. Syntax errors are reported as exceptions. Example:

```
>>> x = 1
>>> print eval('x+1')
2
>>>
```

This function can also be used to execute arbitrary code objects (e.g. created by `compile()`). In this case pass a code object instead of a string. The code object must have been compiled passing `'eval'` to the *kind* argument.

Hints: dynamic execution of statements is supported by the `exec` statement. Execution of statements from a file is supported by the `execfile()` function. The `globals()` and `locals()` functions returns the current global and local dictionary, respectively, which may be useful to pass around for use by `eval()` or `execfile()`.

`execfile(`*file* [*, globals* [*, locals*]]`)`

This function is similar to the `exec` statement, but parses a file instead of a string. It is different from the `import` statement in that it does not use the module administration — it reads the file unconditionally and does not create a new module.[7]

The arguments are a file name and two optional dictionaries. The file is parsed and evaluated as a sequence of Python statements (similarly to a module) using the *globals* and *locals* dictionaries as global and local name space. If the *locals* dictionary is omitted it defaults to the *globals* dictionary. If both dictionaries are omitted, the expression is executed in the environment where `execfile()` is called. The return value is `None`.

`filter(`*function, list*`)`

Construct a list from those elements of *list* for which *function* returns true. If *list* is a string or a tuple, the result also has that type; otherwise it is always a list. If *function* is `None`, the identity function is assumed, i.e. all elements of *list* that are false (zero or empty) are removed.

[7] It is used relatively rarely so does not warrant being made into a statement.

`float(`*x*`)`
Convert a string or a number to floating point. If the argument is a string, it must contain a possibly singed decimal or floating point number, possibly embedded in whitespace; this behaves identical to `string.atof(`*x*`)`. Otherwise, the argument may be a plain or long integer or a floating point number, and a floating point number with the same value (within Python's floating point precision) is returned.

`getattr(`*object, name*`)`
The arguments are an object and a string. The string must be the name of one of the object's attributes. The result is the value of that attribute. For example, `getattr(`*x*`, '`*foobar*`')` is equivalent to *x*`.`*foobar*.

`globals()`
Return a dictionary representing the current global symbol table. This is always the dictionary of the current module (inside a function or method, this is the module where it is defined, not the module from which it is called).

`hasattr(`*object, name*`)`
The arguments are an object and a string. The result is 1 if the string is the name of one of the object's attributes, 0 if not. (This is implemented by calling `getattr(object, name)` and seeing whether it raises an exception or not.)

`hash(`*object*`)`
Return the hash value of the object (if it has one). Hash values are 32-bit integers. They are used to quickly compare dictionary keys during a dictionary lookup. Numeric values that compare equal have the same hash value (even if they are of different types, e.g. 1 and 1.0).

`hex(`*x*`)`
Convert an integer number (of any size) to a hexadecimal string. The result is a valid Python expression. Note: this always yields an unsigned literal, e.g. on a 32-bit machine, `hex(-1)` yields `'0xffffffff'`. When evaluated on a machine with the same word size, this literal is evaluated as -1; at a different word size, it may turn up as a large positive number or raise an `OverflowError` exception.

`id(`*object*`)`
Return the 'identity' of an object. This is an integer which is guaranteed to be unique and constant for this object during its lifetime. (Two objects whose lifetimes are disjunct may have the same id() value.) (Implementation note: this is the address of the object.)

`input(` [*prompt*] `)`
Almost equivalent to `eval(raw_input(`*prompt*`))`. Like `raw_input()`, the *prompt* argument is optional, and GNU readline is used when configured. The difference is that a long input expression may be broken over multiple lines using the backslash convention.

`intern(`*string*`)`
Enter *string* in the table of "interned" strings and return the interned string – which is *string* itself or a copy. Interning strings is useful to gain a little performance on dictionary lookup – if the keys in a dictionary are interned, and the lookup key is interned, the key comparisons (after hashing) can be done by a pointer compare instead of a string compare. Normally, the names used in Python programs are automatically interned, and the dictionaries used to hold module, class or instance attributes have interned keys. Interned strings are immortal (i.e. never get garbage collected).

`int(`*x*`)`
Convert a string or number to a plain integer. If the argument is a string, it must contain a possibly singed decimal number representable as a Python integer, possibly embedded in whitespace; this behaves identical to `string.atoi(`*x*`)`. Otherwise, the argument may be a plain or long integer or a floating point number. Conversion of floating point numbers to integers is defined by the C semantics; normally the conversion truncates towards zero.[8]

`isinstance(`*object, class*`)`

[8] This is ugly — the language definition should require truncation towards zero.

Return true if the *object* argument is an instance of the *class* argument, or of a (direct or indirect) subclass thereof. Also return true if *class* is a type object and *object* is an object of that type. If *object* is not a class instance or a object of the given type, the function always returns false. If *class* is neither a class object nor a type object, a `TypeError` exception is raised.

`issubclass` (*class1, class2*)
: Return true if *class1* is a subclass (direct or indirect) of *class2*. A class is considered a subclass of itself. If either argument is not a class object, a `TypeError` exception is raised.

`len` (*s*)
: Return the length (the number of items) of an object. The argument may be a sequence (string, tuple or list) or a mapping (dictionary).

`list` (*sequence*)
: Return a list whose items are the same and in the same order as *sequence*'s items. If *sequence* is already a list, a copy is made and returned, similar to *sequence*`[:]`. For instance, `list('abc')` returns returns `['a', 'b', 'c']` and `list( (1, 2, 3) )` returns `[1, 2, 3]`.

`locals()`
: Return a dictionary representing the current local symbol table. Inside a function, modifying this dictionary does not always have the desired effect.

`long` (*x*)
: Convert a string or number to a long integer. If the argument is a string, it must contain a possibly singed decimal number of arbitrary size, possibly embedded in whitespace; this behaves identical to `string.atol(`*x*`)`. Otherwise, the argument may be a plain or long integer or a floating point number, and a long interger with the same value is returned. Conversion of floating point numbers to integers is defined by the C semantics; see the description of `int()`.

`map` (*function, list, ...*)
: Apply *function* to every item of *list* and return a list of the results. If additional *list* arguments are passed, *function* must take that many arguments and is applied to the items of all lists in parallel; if a list is shorter than another it is assumed to be extended with `None` items. If *function* is `None`, the identity function is assumed; if there are multiple list arguments, `map` returns a list consisting of tuples containing the corresponding items from all lists (i.e. a kind of transpose operation). The *list* arguments may be any kind of sequence; the result is always a list.

`max` (*s*)
: Return the largest item of a non-empty sequence (string, tuple or list).

`min` (*s*)
: Return the smallest item of a non-empty sequence (string, tuple or list).

`oct` (*x*)
: Convert an integer number (of any size) to an octal string. The result is a valid Python expression. Note: this always yields an unsigned literal, e.g. on a 32-bit machine, `oct(-1)` yields `'037777777777'`. When evaluated on a machine with the same word size, this literal is evaluated as -1; at a different word size, it may turn up as a large positive number or raise an `OverflowError` exception.

`open` (*filename* [, *mode* [, *bufsize*]])
: Return a new file object (described earlier under Built-in Types). The first two arguments are the same as for `stdio`'s `fopen()`: *filename* is the file name to be opened, *mode* indicates how the file is to be opened: `'r'` for reading, `'w'` for writing (truncating an existing file), and `'a'` opens it for appending (which on *some* UNIX systems means that *all* writes append to the end of the file, regardless of the current seek position). Modes `'r+'`, `'w+'` and `'a+'` open the file for updating, provided the underlying `stdio` library understands this. On systems that differentiate between binary and text files, `'b'` appended to the mode opens the file in binary mode. If the file cannot be opened, `IOError` is raised. If *mode* is omitted, it defaults to `'r'`. The optional *bufsize* argument specifies the file's desired buffer size: 0 means unbuffered, 1 means line buffered, any other positive value means use a buffer of (approximately) that size. A negative *bufsize* means to use the system default, which

is usually line buffered for for tty devices and fully buffered for other files.[9]

`ord(`*c*`)`

Return the ASCII value of a string of one character. E.g., `ord('a')` returns the integer `97`. This is the inverse of `chr()`.

`pow(`*x, y* [*, z*] `)`

Return *x* to the power *y*; if *z* is present, return *x* to the power *y*, modulo *z* (computed more efficiently than `pow(`*x*`, `*y*`) %`*z*). The arguments must have numeric types. With mixed operand types, the rules for binary arithmetic operators apply. The effective operand type is also the type of the result; if the result is not expressible in this type, the function raises an exception; e.g., `pow(2, -1)` or `pow(2, 35000)` is not allowed.

`range(` [*start,*] *stop* [*, step*] `)`

This is a versatile function to create lists containing arithmetic progressions. It is most often used in `for` loops. The arguments must be plain integers. If the *step* argument is omitted, it defaults to `1`. If the *start* argument is omitted, it defaults to `0`. The full form returns a list of plain integers `[`*start*`, `*start* `+` *step*`, `*start* `+ 2 *` *step*`, ...]`. If *step* is positive, the last element is the largest *start* `+` *i* `*` *step* less than *stop*; if *step* is negative, the last element is the largest *start* `+` *i* `*` *step* greater than *stop*. *step* must not be zero (or else an exception is raised). Example:

```
>>> range(10)
[0, 1, 2, 3, 4, 5, 6, 7, 8, 9]
>>> range(1, 11)
[1, 2, 3, 4, 5, 6, 7, 8, 9, 10]
>>> range(0, 30, 5)
[0, 5, 10, 15, 20, 25]
>>> range(0, 10, 3)
[0, 3, 6, 9]
>>> range(0, -10, -1)
[0, -1, -2, -3, -4, -5, -6, -7, -8, -9]
>>> range(0)
[]
>>> range(1, 0)
[]
>>>
```

`raw_input(` [*prompt*] `)`

If the *prompt* argument is present, it is written to standard output without a trailing newline. The function then reads a line from input, converts it to a string (stripping a trailing newline), and returns that. When EOF is read, `EOFError` is raised. Example:

```
>>> s = raw_input('--> ')
--> Monty Python's Flying Circus
>>> s
"Monty Python's Flying Circus"
>>>
```

If the interpreter was built to use the GNU readline library, then `raw_input()` will use it to provide elaborate line editing and history features.

`reduce(`*function, list* [*, initializer*] `)`

Apply the binary *function* to the items of *list* so as to reduce the list to a single value. E.g.,

[9] Specifying a buffer size currently has no effect on systems that don't have `setvbuf()`. The interface to specify the buffer size is not done using a method that calls `setvbuf()`, because that may dump core when called after any I/O has been performed, and there's no reliable way to determine whether this is the case.

`reduce(lambda x, y: x*y,` *list*`, 1)` returns the product of the elements of *list*. The optional *initializer* can be thought of as being prepended to *list* so as to allow reduction of an empty *list*. The *list* arguments may be any kind of sequence.

`reload(`*module*`)`
Re-parse and re-initialize an already imported *module*. The argument must be a module object, so it must have been successfully imported before. This is useful if you have edited the module source file using an external editor and want to try out the new version without leaving the Python interpreter. The return value is the module object (i.e. the same as the *module* argument).

There are a number of caveats:

If a module is syntactically correct but its initialization fails, the first `import` statement for it does not bind its name locally, but does store a (partially initialized) module object in `sys.modules`. To reload the module you must first `import` it again (this will bind the name to the partially initialized module object) before you can `reload()` it.

When a module is reloaded, its dictionary (containing the module's global variables) is retained. Redefinitions of names will override the old definitions, so this is generally not a problem. If the new version of a module does not define a name that was defined by the old version, the old definition remains. This feature can be used to the module's advantage if it maintains a global table or cache of objects — with a `try` statement it can test for the table's presence and skip its initialization if desired.

It is legal though generally not very useful to reload built-in or dynamically loaded modules, except for `sys`, `__main__` and `__builtin__`. In certain cases, however, extension modules are not designed to be initialized more than once, and may fail in arbitrary ways when reloaded.

If a module imports objects from another module using `from ... import ...`, calling `reload()` for the other module does not redefine the objects imported from it — one way around this is to re-execute the `from` statement, another is to use `import` and qualified names (*module.name*) instead.

If a module instantiates instances of a class, reloading the module that defines the class does not affect the method definitions of the instances — they continue to use the old class definition. The same is true for derived classes.

`repr(`*object*`)`
Return a string containing a printable representation of an object. This is the same value yielded by conversions (reverse quotes). It is sometimes useful to be able to access this operation as an ordinary function. For many types, this function makes an attempt to return a string that would yield an object with the same value when passed to `eval()`.

`round(`*x, n*`)`
Return the floating point value *x* rounded to *n* digits after the decimal point. If *n* is omitted, it defaults to zero. The result is a floating point number. Values are rounded to the closest multiple of 10 to the power minus *n*; if two multiples are equally close, rounding is done away from 0 (so e.g. `round(0.5)` is `1.0` and `round(-0.5)` is `-1.0`).

`setattr(`*object, name, value*`)`
This is the counterpart of `getattr`. The arguments are an object, a string and an arbitrary value. The string must be the name of one of the object's attributes. The function assigns the value to the attribute, provided the object allows it. For example, `setattr(`*x*`, '`*foobar*`', 123)` is equivalent to *x*`.`*foobar* `= 123`.

`slice(` [*start,*] *stop* [*, step*] `)`
Return a slice object representing the set of indices specified by `range(`*start*`, `*stop*`, `*step*`)`. The *start* and *step* arguments default to None. Slice objects have read-only data attributes `start`, `stop` and `step` which merely return the argument values (or their default). They have no other explicit functionality; however they are used by Numerical Python and other third party extensions. Slice objects are also generated when extended indexing syntax is used, e.g. for `a[start:stop:step]` or `a[start:stop, i]`.

`str(`*object*`)`
Return a string containing a nicely printable representation of an object. For strings, this returns the string

itself. The difference with `repr(`*object*`)` is that `str(`*object*`)` does not always attempt to return a string that is acceptable to `eval()`; its goal is to return a printable string.

`tuple(`*sequence*`)`
: Return a tuple whose items are the same and in the same order as *sequence*'s items. If *sequence* is already a tuple, it is returned unchanged. For instance, `tuple('abc')` returns returns `('a', 'b', 'c')` and `tuple([1, 2, 3])` returns `(1, 2, 3)`.

`type(`*object*`)`
: Return the type of an *object*. The return value is a type object. The standard module `types` defines names for all built-in types. For instance:

```
>>> import types
>>> if type(x) == types.StringType: print "It's a string"
```

`vars(` [*object*] `)`
: Without arguments, return a dictionary corresponding to the current local symbol table. With a module, class or class instance object as argument (or anything else that has a `__dict__` attribute), returns a dictionary corresponding to the object's symbol table. The returned dictionary should not be modified: the effects on the corresponding symbol table are undefined.[10]

`xrange(` [*start,*] *stop* [*, step*] `)`
: This function is very similar to `range()`, but returns an "xrange object" instead of a list. This is an opaque sequence type which yields the same values as the corresponding list, without actually storing them all simultaneously. The advantage of `xrange()` over `range()` is minimal (since `xrange()` still has to create the values when asked for them) except when a very large range is used on a memory-starved machine (e.g. MS-DOS) or when all of the range's elements are never used (e.g. when the loop is usually terminated with `break`).

[10] In the current implementation, local variable bindings cannot normally be affected this way, but variables retrieved from other scopes (e.g. modules) can be. This may change.

Chapter 3

Python Services

The modules described in this chapter provide a wide range of services related to the Python interpreter and its interaction with its environment. Here's an overview:

sys — Access system specific parameters and functions.

types — Names for all built-in types.

UserDict, UserList — Class wrappers for dictionary and list objects.

operator — All python's standard operators as built-in functions.

traceback — Print or retrieve a stack traceback.

pickle — Convert Python objects to streams of bytes and back.

shelve — Python object persistency.

copy — Shallow and deep copy operations.

marshal — Convert Python objects to streams of bytes and back (with different constraints).

ni — New import (obsolete).

imp — Access the implementation of the `import` statement.

parser — Retrieve and submit parse trees from and to the runtime support environment.

keyword — Test whether a string is a keyword in the Python language.

code — Code object services.

pprint — Data pretty printer.

dis — Disassembler.

site — A standard way to reference site-specific modules.

user — A standard way to reference user-specific modules.

__builtin__ — The set of built-in functions.

__main__ — The environment where the top-level script is run.

3.1 Built-in Module `sys`

This module provides access to some variables used or maintained by the interpreter and to functions that interact strongly with the interpreter. It is always available.

`argv`
: The list of command line arguments passed to a Python script. `sys.argv[0]` is the script name (it is operating system dependent whether this is a full pathname or not). If the command was executed using the '`-c`' command line option to the interpreter, `sys.argv[0]` is set to the string `"-c"`. If no script name was passed to the Python interpreter, `sys.argv` has zero length.

`builtin_module_names`
: A tuple of strings giving the names of all modules that are compiled into this Python interpreter. (This information is not available in any other way — `sys.modules.keys()` only lists the imported modules.)

`exc_info()`
: This function returns a tuple of three values that give information about the exception that is currently being handled. The information returned is specific both to the current thread and to the current stack frame. If the current stack frame is not handling an exception, the information is taken from the calling stack frame, or its caller, and so on until a stack frame is found that is handling an exception. Here, "handling an exception" is defined as "executing or having executed an `except` clause." For any stack frame, only information about the most recently handled exception is accessible.

If no exception is being handled anywhere on the stack, a tuple containing three `None` values is returned. Otherwise, the values returned are `(`*type*`, `*value*`, `*traceback*`)`. Their meaning is: *type* gets the exception type of the exception being handled (a string or class object); *value* gets the exception parameter (its *associated value* or the second argument to `raise`, which is always a class instance if the exception type is a class object); *traceback* gets a traceback object (see the Reference Manual) which encapsulates the call stack at the point where the exception originally occurred.

Warning: assigning the *traceback* return value to a local variable in a function that is handling an exception will cause a circular reference. This will prevent anything referenced by a local variable in the same function or by the traceback from being garbage collected. Since most functions don't need access to the traceback, the best solution is to use something like `type, value = sys.exc_info()[:2]` to extract only the exception type and value. If you do need the traceback, make sure to delete it after use (best done with a `try-finally` statement) or to call `sys.exc_info()` in a function that does not itself handle an exception.

`exc_type`
`exc_value`
`exc_traceback`
: Use of these three variables is deprecated; they contain the same values as returned by `sys.exc_info()` above. However, since they are global variables, they are not specific to the current thread, so their use is not safe in a multi-threaded program. When no exception is being handled, `sys.exc_type` is set to `None` and the other two are undefined.

`exec_prefix`
: A string giving the site-specific directory prefix where the platform-dependent Python files are installed; by default, this is also `"/usr/local"`. This can be set at build time with the `--exec-prefix` argument to the `configure` script. Specifically, all configuration files (e.g. the `config.h` header file) are installed in the directory `sys.exec_prefix+"/lib/python`*VER*`/config"`, and shared library modules are installed in `sys.exec_prefix+"/lib/python`*VER*`/lib-dynload"`, where *VER* is equal to `sys.version[:3]`.

`exit(`*n*`)`
: Exit from Python with numeric exit status *n*. This is implemented by raising the `SystemExit` exception, so cleanup actions specified by `finally` clauses of `try` statements are honored, and it is possible to catch the exit attempt at an outer level.

`exitfunc`
: This value is not actually defined by the module, but can be set by the user (or by a program) to specify a clean-up action at program exit. When set, it should be a parameterless function. This function will be called when the interpreter exits in any way (except when a fatal error occurs: in that case the interpreter's internal state cannot be trusted).

`last_type`
`last_value`
`last_traceback`
: These three variables are not always defined; they are set when an exception is not handled and the interpreter prints an error message and a stack traceback. Their intended use is to allow an interactive user to import a debugger module and engage in post-mortem debugging without having to re-execute the command that caused the error. (Typical use is `import pdb; pdb.pm()` to enter the post-mortem debugger; see the chapter "The Python Debugger" for more information.)

  The meaning of the variables is the same as that of the return values from `sys.exc_info()` above. (Since there is only one interactive thread, thread-safety is not a concern for these variables, unlike for `sys.exc_type` etc.)

`modules`
: Gives the list of modules that have already been loaded. This can be manipulated to force reloading of modules and other tricks.

`path`
: A list of strings that specifies the search path for modules. Initialized from the environment variable `PYTHONPATH`, or an installation-dependent default.

  The first item of this list, `sys.path[0]`, is the directory containing the script that was used to invoke the Python interpreter. If the script directory is not available (e.g. if the interpreter is invoked interactively or if the script is read from standard input), `sys.path[0]` is the empty string, which directs Python to search modules in the current directory first. Notice that the script directory is inserted *before* the entries inserted as a result of `$PYTHONPATH`.

`platform`
: This string contains a platform identifier, e.g. `sunos5` or `linux1`. This can be used to append platform-specific components to `sys.path`, for instance.

`prefix`
: A string giving the site-specific directory prefix where the platform independent Python files are installed; by default, this is the string `"/usr/local"`. This can be set at build time with the `--prefix` argument to the `configure` script. The main collection of Python library modules is installed in the directory `sys.prefix+"/lib/python`*VER*`"` while the platform independent header files (all except `config.h`) are stored in `sys.prefix+"/include/python`*VER*`"`, where *VER* is equal to `sys.version[:3]`.

`ps1`
`ps2`
: Strings specifying the primary and secondary prompt of the interpreter. These are only defined if the interpreter is in interactive mode. Their initial values in this case are `'>>> '` and `'... '`. If a non-string object is assigned to either variable, its `str()` is re-evaluated each time the interpreter prepares to read a new interactive command; this can be used to implement a dynamic prompt.

`setcheckinterval`(*interval*)
: Set the interpreter's "check interval". This integer value determines how often the interpreter checks for periodic things such as thread switches and signal handlers. The default is 10, meaning the check is performed every 10 Python virtual instructions. Setting it to a larger value may increase performance for programs using threads. Setting it to a value <= 0 checks every virtual instruction, maximizing responsiveness as well as overhead.

`settrace`(*tracefunc*)
: Set the system's trace function, which allows you to implement a Python source code debugger in Python. See

section "How It Works" in the chapter on the Python Debugger.

`setprofile`(*profilefunc*)
: Set the system's profile function, which allows you to implement a Python source code profiler in Python. See the chapter on the Python Profiler. The system's profile function is called similarly to the system's trace function (see `sys.settrace`), but it isn't called for each executed line of code (only on call and return and when an exception occurs). Also, its return value is not used, so it can just return `None`.

`stdin`
`stdout`
`stderr`
: File objects corresponding to the interpreter's standard input, output and error streams. `sys.stdin` is used for all interpreter input except for scripts but including calls to `input()` and `raw_input()`. `sys.stdout` is used for the output of `print` and expression statements and for the prompts of `input()` and `raw_input()`. The interpreter's own prompts and (almost all of) its error messages go to `sys.stderr`. `sys.stdout` and `sys.stderr` needn't be built-in file objects: any object is acceptable as long as it has a `write()` method that takes a string argument. (Changing these objects doesn't affect the standard I/O streams of processes executed by `popen()`, `system()` or the `exec*()` family of functions in the `os` module.)

`tracebacklimit`
: When this variable is set to an integer value, it determines the maximum number of levels of traceback information printed when an unhandled exception occurs. The default is 1000. When set to 0 or less, all traceback information is suppressed and only the exception type and value are printed.

`version`
: A string containing the version number of the Python interpreter.

3.2 Standard Module `types`

This module defines names for all object types that are used by the standard Python interpreter (but not for the types defined by various extension modules). It is safe to use "`from types import *`" — the module does not export any other names besides the ones listed here. New names exported by future versions of this module will all end in `Type`.

Typical use is for functions that do different things depending on their argument types, like the following:

```
from types import *
def delete(list, item):
    if type(item) is IntType:
       del list[item]
    else:
       list.remove(item)
```

The module defines the following names:

`NoneType`
: The type of `None`.

`TypeType`
: The type of type objects (such as returned by `type()`).

`IntType`
: The type of integers (e.g. `1`).

`LongType`
: The type of long integers (e.g. `1L`).

`FloatType`
: The type of floating point numbers (e.g. `1.0`).

`StringType`
: The type of character strings (e.g. `'Spam'`).

`TupleType`
: The type of tuples (e.g. `(1, 2, 3, 'Spam')`).

`ListType`
: The type of lists (e.g. `[0, 1, 2, 3]`).

`DictType`
: The type of dictionaries (e.g. `{'Bacon': 1, 'Ham': 0}`).

`DictionaryType`
: An alternative name for `DictType`.

`FunctionType`
: The type of user-defined functions and lambdas.

`LambdaType`
: An alternative name for `FunctionType`.

`CodeType`
: The type for code objects such as returned by `compile()`.

`ClassType`
: The type of user-defined classes.

`InstanceType`
: The type of instances of user-defined classes.

`MethodType`
: The type of methods of user-defined class instances.

`UnboundMethodType`
: An alternative name for `MethodType`.

`BuiltinFunctionType`
: The type of built-in functions like `len` or `sys.exit`.

`BuiltinMethodType`
: An alternative name for `BuiltinFunction`.

`ModuleType`
: The type of modules.

`FileType`
: The type of open file objects such as `sys.stdout`.

`XRangeType`
: The type of range objects returned by `xrange()`.

`TracebackType`
: The type of traceback objects such as found in `sys.exc_traceback`.

`FrameType`
: The type of frame objects such as found in `tb.tb_frame` if `tb` is a traceback object.

3.3 Standard Modules `UserDict` and `UserList`

Each of these modules defines a class that acts as a wrapper around either dictionary or list objects. They're useful base classes for your own dictionary-like or list-like classes, which can inherit from them and override existing methods or add new ones. In this way one can add new behaviours to dictionaries or lists.

The `UserDict` module defines the `UserDict` class:

`UserDict()`
: Return a class instance that simulates a dictionary. The instance's contents are kept in a regular dictionary, which is accessible via the `data` attribute of `UserDict` instances.

The `UserList` module defines the `UserList` class:

`UserList(`[*list*]`)`
: Return a class instance that simulates a list. The instance's contents are kept in a regular list, which is accessible via the `data` attribute of `UserList` instances. The instance's contents are initially set to c copy of *list*, defaulting to the empty list `[]`. *list* can be either a regular Python list, or an instance of `UserList` (or a subclass).

3.4 Built-in Module `operator`

The `operator` module exports a set of functions implemented in C corresponding to the intrinsic operators of Python. For example, `operator.add(x, y)` is equivalent to the expression `x+y`. The function names are those used for special class methods; variants without leading and trailing '`__`' are also provided for convenience.

The `operator` module defines the following functions:

`add(`*a, b*`)`
: Return *a* + *b*, for *a* and *b* numbers.

`__add__(`*a, b*`)`
: Return *a* + *b*, for *a* and *b* numbers.

`sub(`*a, b*`)`
: Return *a* − *b*.

`__sub__(`*a, b*`)`
: Return *a* − *b*.

`mul(`*a, b*`)`
: Return *a* `*` *b*, for *a* and *b* numbers.

`__mul__(`*a, b*`)`
: Return *a* `*` *b*, for *a* and *b* numbers.

`div(`*a, b*`)`
: Return *a* `/` *b*.

`__div__(`*a, b*`)`
: Return *a* `/` *b*.

`mod(`*a, b*`)`
: Return *a* `%` *b*.

`__mod__(`*a, b*`)`
: Return *a* `%` *b*.

`neg(`*o*`)`
: Return *o* negated.

`__neg__(o)`
: Return *o* negated.

`pos(o)`
: Return *o* positive.

`__pos__(o)`
: Return *o* positive.

`abs(o)`
: Return the absolute value of *o*.

`__abs__(o)`
: Return the absolute value of *o*.

`inv(o)`
: Return the inverse of *o*.

`__inv__(o)`
: Return the inverse of *o*.

`lshift(a, b)`
: Return *a* shifted left by *b*.

`__lshift__(a, b)`
: Return *a* shifted left by *b*.

`rshift(a, b)`
: Return *a* shifted right by *b*.

`__rshift__(a, b)`
: Return *a* shifted right by *b*.

`and_(a, b)`
: Return the bitwise and of *a* and *b*.

`__and__(a, b)`
: Return the bitwise and of *a* and *b*.

`or_(a, b)`
: Return the bitwise or of *a* and *b*.

`__or__(a, b)`
: Return the bitwise or of *a* and *b*.

`concat(a, b)`
: Return *a* + *b* for *a* and *b* sequences.

`__concat__(a, b)`
: Return *a* + *b* for *a* and *b* sequences.

`repeat(a, b)`
: Return *a* `*` *b* where *a* is a sequence and *b* is an integer.

`__repeat__(a, b)`
: Return *a* `*` *b* where *a* is a sequence and *b* is an integer.

`getitem(a, b)`
: Return the value of *a* at index *b*.

`__getitem__(a, b)`
: Return the value of *a* at index *b*.

`setitem(a, b, c)`

Set the value of *a* at index *b* to *c*.

`__setitem__`(*a, b, c*)
: Set the value of *a* at index *b* to *c*.

`delitem`(*a, b*)
: Remove the value of *a* at index *b*.

`__delitem__`(*a, b*)
: Remove the value of *a* at index *b*.

`getslice`(*a, b, c*)
: Return the slice of *a* from index *b* to index *c*`-1`.

`__getslice__`(*a, b, c*)
: Return the slice of *a* from index *b* to index *c*`-1`.

`setslice`(*a, b, c, v*)
: Set the slice of *a* from index *b* to index *c*`-1` to the sequence *v*.

`__setslice__`(*a, b, c, v*)
: Set the slice of *a* from index *b* to index *c*`-1` to the sequence *v*.

`delslice`(*a, b, c*)
: Delete the slice of *a* from index *b* to index *c*`-1`.

`__delslice__`(*a, b, c*)
: Delete the slice of *a* from index *b* to index *c*`-1`.

Example: Build a dictionary that maps the ordinals from `0` to `256` to their character equivalents.

```
>>> import operator
>>> d = {}
>>> keys = range(256)
>>> vals = map(chr, keys)
>>> map(operator.setitem, [d]*len(keys), keys, vals)
```

3.5 Standard Module `traceback`

This module provides a standard interface to format and print stack traces of Python programs. It exactly mimics the behavior of the Python interpreter when it prints a stack trace. This is useful when you want to print stack traces under program control, e.g. in a "wrapper" around the interpreter.

The module uses traceback objects — this is the object type that is stored in the variables `sys.exc_traceback` and `sys.last_traceback`.

The module defines the following functions:

`print_tb`(*traceback* [, *limit*])
: Print up to *limit* stack trace entries from *traceback*. If *limit* is omitted or `None`, all entries are printed.

`extract_tb`(*traceback* [, *limit*])
: Return a list of up to *limit* "pre-processed" stack trace entries extracted from *traceback*. It is useful for alternate formatting of stack traces. If *limit* is omitted or `None`, all entries are extracted. A "pre-processed" stack trace entry is a quadruple (*filename*, *line number*, *function name*, *line text*) representing the information that is usually printed for a stack trace. The *line text* is a string with leading and trailing whitespace stripped; if the source is

not available it is `None`.

`print_exception(`*type, value, traceback* [*, limit*] `)`
Print exception information and up to *limit* stack trace entries from *traceback*. This differs from `print_tb` in the following ways: (1) if *traceback* is not `None`, it prints a header "`Traceback (innermost last):`"; (2) it prints the exception *type* and *value* after the stack trace; (3) if *type* is `SyntaxError` and *value* has the appropriate format, it prints the line where the syntax error occurred with a caret indication the approximate position of the error.

`print_exc(` [*limit*] `)`
This is a shorthand for `print_exception(sys.exc_type, sys.exc_value, sys.exc_traceback, limit)`.

`print_last(` [*limit*] `)`
This is a shorthand for `print_exception(sys.last_type, sys.last_value, sys.last_traceback, limit)`.

3.6 Standard Module `pickle`

The `pickle` module implements a basic but powerful algorithm for "pickling" (a.k.a. serializing, marshalling or flattening) nearly arbitrary Python objects. This is the act of converting objects to a stream of bytes (and back: "unpickling"). This is a more primitive notion than persistency — although `pickle` reads and writes file objects, it does not handle the issue of naming persistent objects, nor the (even more complicated) area of concurrent access to persistent objects. The `pickle` module can transform a complex object into a byte stream and it can transform the byte stream into an object with the same internal structure. The most obvious thing to do with these byte streams is to write them onto a file, but it is also conceivable to send them across a network or store them in a database. The module `shelve` provides a simple interface to pickle and unpickle objects on "dbm"-style database files.

Note: The `pickle` module is rather slow. A reimplementation of the same algorithm in C, which is up to 1000 times faster, is available as the `cPickle` module. This has the same interface except that `Pickler` and `Unpickler` are factory functions, not classes (so they cannot be used as a base class for inheritance).

Unlike the built-in module `marshal`, `pickle` handles the following correctly:

- recursive objects (objects containing references to themselves)
- object sharing (references to the same object in different places)
- user-defined classes and their instances

The data format used by `pickle` is Python-specific. This has the advantage that there are no restrictions imposed by external standards such as CORBA (which probably can't represent pointer sharing or recursive objects); however it means that non-Python programs may not be able to reconstruct pickled Python objects.

By default, the `pickle` data format uses a printable ASCII representation. This is slightly more voluminous than a binary representation. The big advantage of using printable ASCII (and of some other characteristics of `pickle`'s representation) is that for debugging or recovery purposes it is possible for a human to read the pickled file with a standard text editor.

A binary format, which is slightly more efficient, can be chosen by specifying a nonzero (true) value for the *bin* argument to the `Pickler` constructor or the `dump()` and `dumps()` functions. The binary format is not the default because of backwards compatibility with the Python 1.4 pickle module. In a future version, the default may change to binary.

The `pickle` module doesn't handle code objects, which the `marshal` module does. I suppose `pickle` could, and maybe it should, but there's probably no great need for it right now (as long as `marshal` continues to be used for reading and writing code objects), and at least this avoids the possibility of smuggling Trojan horses into a program.

For the benefit of persistency modules written using `pickle`, it supports the notion of a reference to an object outside the pickled data stream. Such objects are referenced by a name, which is an arbitrary string of printable ASCII characters. The resolution of such names is not defined by the `pickle` module — the persistent object module will have to implement a method `persistent_load`. To write references to persistent objects, the persistent module must define a method `persistent_id` which returns either `None` or the persistent ID of the object.

There are some restrictions on the pickling of class instances.

First of all, the class must be defined at the top level in a module. Furthermore, all its instance variables must be picklable.

When a pickled class instance is unpickled, its `__init__` method is normally *not* invoked. **Note:** This is a deviation from previous versions of this module; the change was introduced in Python 1.5b2. The reason for the change is that in many cases it is desirable to have a constructor that requires arguments; it is a (minor) nuisance to have to provide a `__getinitargs__` method.

If it is desirable that the `__init__` method be called on unpickling, a class can define a method `__getinitargs__()`, which should return a *tuple* containing the arguments to be passed to the class constructor (`__init__()`).

Classes can further influence how their instances are pickled — if the class defines the method `__getstate__()`, it is called and the return state is pickled as the contents for the instance, and if the class defines the method `__setstate__()`, it is called with the unpickled state. (Note that these methods can also be used to implement copying class instances.) If there is no `__getstate__()` method, the instance's `__dict__` is pickled. If there is no `__setstate__()` method, the pickled object must be a dictionary and its items are assigned to the new instance's dictionary. (If a class defines both `__getstate__()` and `__setstate__()`, the state object needn't be a dictionary — these methods can do what they want.) This protocol is also used by the shallow and deep copying operations defined in the `copy` module.

Note that when class instances are pickled, their class's code and data are not pickled along with them. Only the instance data are pickled. This is done on purpose, so you can fix bugs in a class or add methods and still load objects that were created with an earlier version of the class. If you plan to have long-lived objects that will see many versions of a class, it may be worthwhile to put a version number in the objects so that suitable conversions can be made by the class's `__setstate__()` method.

When a class itself is pickled, only its name is pickled — the class definition is not pickled, but re-imported by the unpickling process. Therefore, the restriction that the class must be defined at the top level in a module applies to pickled classes as well.

The interface can be summarized as follows.

To pickle an object `x` onto a file `f`, open for writing:

```
p = pickle.Pickler(f)
p.dump(x)
```

A shorthand for this is:

```
pickle.dump(x, f)
```

To unpickle an object `x` from a file `f`, open for reading:

```
u = pickle.Unpickler(f)
x = u.load()
```

A shorthand is:

```
x = pickle.load(f)
```

The `Pickler` class only calls the method `f.write` with a string argument. The `Unpickler` calls the methods `f.read` (with an integer argument) and `f.readline` (without argument), both returning a string. It is explicitly allowed to pass non-file objects here, as long as they have the right methods.

The constructor for the `Pickler` class has an optional second argument, *bin*. If this is present and nonzero, the binary pickle format is used; if it is zero or absent, the (less efficient, but backwards compatible) text pickle format is used. The `Unpickler` class does not have an argument to distinguish between binary and text pickle formats; it accepts either format.

The following types can be pickled:

- `None`
- integers, long integers, floating point numbers
- strings
- tuples, lists and dictionaries containing only picklable objects
- classes that are defined at the top level in a module
- instances of such classes whose `__dict__` or `__setstate__()` is picklable

Attempts to pickle unpicklable objects will raise the `PicklingError` exception; when this happens, an unspecified number of bytes may have been written to the file.

It is possible to make multiple calls to the `dump()` method of the same `Pickler` instance. These must then be matched to the same number of calls to the `load()` instance of the corresponding `Unpickler` instance. If the same object is pickled by multiple `dump()` calls, the `load()` will all yield references to the same object. *Warning*: this is intended for pickling multiple objects without intervening modifications to the objects or their parts. If you modify an object and then pickle it again using the same `Pickler` instance, the object is not pickled again — a reference to it is pickled and the `Unpickler` will return the old value, not the modified one. (There are two problems here: (a) detecting changes, and (b) marshalling a minimal set of changes. I have no answers. Garbage Collection may also become a problem here.)

Apart from the `Pickler` and `Unpickler` classes, the module defines the following functions, and an exception:

`dump(`*object, file* [*, bin*] `)`
: Write a pickled representation of *obect* to the open file object *file*. This is equivalent to `Pickler(`*file*`, `*bin*`).dump(`*object*`)`. If the optional *bin* argument is present and nonzero, the binary pickle format is used; if it is zero or absent, the (less efficient) text pickle format is used.

`load(`*file*`)`
: Read a pickled object from the open file object *file*. This is equivalent to `Unpickler(file).load()`.

`dumps(`*object* [*, bin*] `)`
: Return the pickled representation of the object as a string, instead of writing it to a file. If the optional *bin* argument is present and nonzero, the binary pickle format is used; if it is zero or absent, the (less efficient) text pickle format is used.

`loads(`*string*`)`
: Read a pickled object from a string instead of a file. Characters in the string past the pickled object's representation are ignored.

`PicklingError`
: This exception is raised when an unpicklable object is passed to `Pickler.dump()`.

3.7 Standard Module `shelve`

A "shelf" is a persistent, dictionary-like object. The difference with "dbm" databases is that the values (not the keys!) in a shelf can be essentially arbitrary Python objects — anything that the `pickle` module can handle. This includes most class instances, recursive data types, and objects containing lots of shared sub-objects. The keys are ordinary strings.

To summarize the interface (`key` is a string, `data` is an arbitrary object):

```
import shelve

d = shelve.open(filename) # open, with (g)dbm filename -- no suffix

d[key] = data   # store data at key (overwrites old data if
                # using an existing key)
data = d[key]   # retrieve data at key (raise KeyError if no
                # such key)
del d[key]      # delete data stored at key (raises KeyError
                # if no such key)
flag = d.has_key(key)   # true if the key exists
list = d.keys() # a list of all existing keys (slow!)

d.close()       # close it
```

Restrictions:

- The choice of which database package will be used (e.g. `dbm` or `gdbm`) depends on which interface is available. Therefore it isn't safe to open the database directly using `dbm`. The database is also (unfortunately) subject to the limitations of `dbm`, if it is used — this means that (the pickled representation of) the objects stored in the database should be fairly small, and in rare cases key collisions may cause the database to refuse updates.
- Dependent on the implementation, closing a persistent dictionary may or may not be necessary to flush changes to disk.
- The `shelve` module does not support *concurrent* read/write access to shelved objects. (Multiple simultaneous read accesses are safe.) When a program has a shelf open for writing, no other program should have it open for reading or writing. UNIX file locking can be used to solve this, but this differs across UNIX versions and requires knowledge about the database implementation used.

3.8 Standard Module `copy`

This module provides generic (shallow and deep) copying operations.

Interface summary:

```
import copy

x = copy.copy(y)        # make a shallow copy of y
x = copy.deepcopy(y)    # make a deep copy of y
```

For module specific errors, `copy.error` is raised.

The difference between shallow and deep copying is only relevant for compound objects (objects that contain other objects, like lists or class instances):

- A *shallow copy* constructs a new compound object and then (to the extent possible) inserts *references* into it to the objects found in the original.
- A *deep copy* constructs a new compound object and then, recursively, inserts *copies* into it of the objects found in the original.

Two problems often exist with deep copy operations that don't exist with shallow copy operations:

- Recursive objects (compound objects that, directly or indirectly, contain a reference to themselves) may cause a recursive loop.
- Because deep copy copies *everything* it may copy too much, e.g. administrative data structures that should be shared even between copies.

Python's `deepcopy()` operation avoids these problems by:

- keeping a table of objects already copied during the current copying pass; and
- letting user-defined classes override the copying operation or the set of components copied.

This version does not copy types like module, class, function, method, nor stack trace, stack frame, nor file, socket, window, nor array, nor any similar types.

Classes can use the same interfaces to control copying that they use to control pickling: they can define methods called `__getinitargs__()`, `__getstate__()` and `__setstate__()`. See the description of module `pickle` for information on these methods.

3.9 Built-in Module `marshal`

This module contains functions that can read and write Python values in a binary format. The format is specific to Python, but independent of machine architecture issues (e.g., you can write a Python value to a file on a PC, transport the file to a Sun, and read it back there). Details of the format are undocumented on purpose; it may change between Python versions (although it rarely does).[1]

This is not a general "persistency" module. For general persistency and transfer of Python objects through RPC calls, see the modules `pickle` and `shelve`. The `marshal` module exists mainly to support reading and writing the "pseudo-compiled" code for Python modules of '`.pyc`' files.

Not all Python object types are supported; in general, only objects whose value is independent from a particular invocation of Python can be written and read by this module. The following types are supported: `None`, integers, long integers, floating point numbers, strings, tuples, lists, dictionaries, and code objects, where it should be understood that tuples, lists and dictionaries are only supported as long as the values contained therein are themselves supported; and recursive lists and dictionaries should not be written (they will cause infinite loops).

Caveat: On machines where C's `long int` type has more than 32 bits (such as the DEC Alpha), it is possible to create plain Python integers that are longer than 32 bits. Since the current `marshal` module uses 32 bits to transfer plain Python integers, such values are silently truncated. This particularly affects the use of very long integer literals

[1] The name of this module stems from a bit of terminology used by the designers of Modula-3 (amongst others), who use the term "marshalling" for shipping of data around in a self-contained form. Strictly speaking, "to marshal" means to convert some data from internal to external form (in an RPC buffer for instance) and "unmarshalling" for the reverse process.

in Python modules — these will be accepted by the parser on such machines, but will be silently be truncated when the module is read from the `.pyc` instead.[2]

There are functions that read/write files as well as functions operating on strings.

The module defines these functions:

`dump` (*value, file*)
: Write the value on the open file. The value must be a supported type. The file must be an open file object such as `sys.stdout` or returned by `open()` or `posix.popen()`.

  If the value has (or contains an object that has) an unsupported type, a `ValueError` exception is raised – but garbage data will also be written to the file. The object will not be properly read back by `load()`.

`load` (*file*)
: Read one value from the open file and return it. If no valid value is read, raise `EOFError`, `ValueError` or `TypeError`. The file must be an open file object.

  Warning: If an object containing an unsupported type was marshalled with `dump()`, `load()` will substitute `None` for the unmarshallable type.

`dumps` (*value*)
: Return the string that would be written to a file by `dump(value, file)`. The value must be a supported type. Raise a `ValueError` exception if value has (or contains an object that has) an unsupported type.

`loads` (*string*)
: Convert the string to a value. If no valid value is found, raise `EOFError`, `ValueError` or `TypeError`. Extra characters in the string are ignored.

3.10 Built-in Module `imp`

This module provides an interface to the mechanisms used to implement the `import` statement. It defines the following constants and functions:

`get_magic()`
: Return the magic string value used to recognize byte-compiled code files ("`.pyc` files"). (This value may be different for each Python version.)

`get_suffixes()`
: Return a list of triples, each describing a particular type of module. Each triple has the form `(`*suffix*`,` *mode*`,` *type*`)`, where *suffix* is a string to be appended to the module name to form the filename to search for, *mode* is the mode string to pass to the built-in `open` function to open the file (this can be `'r'` for text files or `'rb'` for binary files), and *type* is the file type, which has one of the values `PY_SOURCE`, `PY_COMPILED`, or `C_EXTENSION`, defined below.

`find_module` (*name,* [*path*])
: Try to find the module *name* on the search path *path*. If *path* is a list of directory names, each directory is searched for files with any of the suffixes returned by `get_suffixes()` above. Invalid names in the list are silently ignored (but all list items must be strings). If *path* is omitted or `None`, the list of directory names given by `sys.path` is searched, but first it searches a few special places: it tries to find a built-in module with the given name (`C_BUILTIN`), then a frozen module (`PY_FROZEN`), and on some systems some other places are looked in as well (on the Mac, it looks for a resource (`PY_RESOURCE`); on Windows, it looks in the registry which may point to a specific file).

  If search is successful, the return value is a triple `(`*file*`,` *pathname*`,` *description*`)` where *file* is an open file object positioned at the beginning, *pathname* is the pathname of the file found, and *description* is a triple as

[2] A solution would be to refuse such literals in the parser, since they are inherently non-portable. Another solution would be to let the `marshal` module raise an exception when an integer value would be truncated. At least one of these solutions will be implemented in a future version.

contained in the list returned by `get_suffixes` describing the kind of module found. If the module does not live in a file, the returned *file* is `None`, *filename* is the empty string, and the *description* tuple contains empty strings for its suffix and mode; the module type is as indicate in parentheses dabove. If the search is unsuccessful, `ImportError` is raised. Other exceptions indicate problems with the arguments or environment.

This function does not handle hierarchical module names (names containing dots). In order to find varP.*M*, i.e., submodule *M* of package *P*, use `find_module()` and `load_module()` to find and load package *P*, and then use `find_module()` with the *path* argument set to *P*`.__path__`. When *P* itself has a dotted name, apply this recipe recursively.

`load_module(`*name, file, filename, description*`)`
Load a module that was previously found by `find_module()` (or by an otherwise conducted search yielding compatible results). This function does more than importing the module: if the module was already imported, it is equivalent to a `reload()`! The *name* argument indicates the full module name (including the package name, if this is a submodule of a package). The *file* argument is an open file, and *filename* is the corresponding file name; these can be `None` and `""`, respectively, when the module is not being loaded from a file. The *description* argument is a tuple as returned by `find_module()` describing what kind of module must be loaded.

If the load is successful, the return value is the module object; otherwise, an exception (usually `ImportError`) is raised.

Important: the caller is responsible for closing the *file* argument, if it was not `None`, even when an exception is raised. This is best done using a try-finally statement.

`new_module(`*name*`)`
Return a new empty module object called *name*. This object is *not* inserted in `sys.modules`.

The following constants with integer values, defined in this module, are used to indicate the search result of `find_module()`.

`PY_SOURCE`
The module was found as a source file.

`PY_COMPILED`
The module was found as a compiled code object file.

`C_EXTENSION`
The module was found as dynamically loadable shared library.

`PY_RESOURCE`
The module was found as a Macintosh resource. This value can only be returned on a Macintosh.

`PKG_DIRECTORY`
The module was found as a package directory.

`C_BUILTIN`
The module was found as a built-in module.

`PY_FROZEN`
The module was found as a frozen module (see `init_frozen`).

The following constant and functions are obsolete; their functionality is available through `find_module()` or `load_module()`. They are kept around for backward compatibility:

`SEARCH_ERROR`
Unused.

`init_builtin(`*name*`)`
Initialize the built-in module called *name* and return its module object. If the module was already initialized, it will be initialized *again*. A few modules cannot be initialized twice — attempting to initialize these again will raise an `ImportError` exception. If there is no built-in module called *name*, `None` is returned.

`init_frozen(`*name*`)`

Initialize the frozen module called *name* and return its module object. If the module was already initialized, it will be initialized *again*. If there is no frozen module called *name*, `None` is returned. (Frozen modules are modules written in Python whose compiled byte-code object is incorporated into a custom-built Python interpreter by Python's `freeze` utility. See `Tools/freeze` for now.)

`is_builtin`(*name*)
Return `1` if there is a built-in module called *name* which can be initialized again. Return `-1` if there is a built-in module called *name* which cannot be initialized again (see `init_builtin`). Return `0` if there is no built-in module called *name*.

`is_frozen`(*name*)
Return `1` if there is a frozen module (see `init_frozen`) called *name*, `0` if there is no such module.

`load_compiled`(*name, pathname, file*)
Load and initialize a module implemented as a byte-compiled code file and return its module object. If the module was already initialized, it will be initialized *again*. The *name* argument is used to create or access a module object. The *pathname* argument points to the byte-compiled code file. The *file* argument is the byte-compiled code file, open for reading in binary mode, from the beginning. It must currently be a real file object, not a user-defined class emulating a file.

`load_dynamic`(*name, pathname,* [*file*])
Load and initialize a module implemented as a dynamically loadable shared library and return its module object. If the module was already initialized, it will be initialized *again*. Some modules don't like that and may raise an exception. The *pathname* argument must point to the shared library. The *name* argument is used to construct the name of the initialization function: an external C function called `init`*name*`()` in the shared library is called. The optional *file* argment is ignored. (Note: using shared libraries is highly system dependent, and not all systems support it.)

`load_source`(*name, pathname, file*)
Load and initialize a module implemented as a Python source file and return its module object. If the module was already initialized, it will be initialized *again*. The *name* argument is used to create or access a module object. The *pathname* argument points to the source file. The *file* argument is the source file, open for reading as text, from the beginning. It must currently be a real file object, not a user-defined class emulating a file. Note that if a properly matching byte-compiled file (with suffix `.pyc`) exists, it will be used instead of parsing the given source file.

3.10.1 Examples

The following function emulates what was the standard import statement up to Python 1.4 (i.e., no hierarchical module names). (This *implementation* wouldn't work in that version, since `imp.find_module()` has been extended and `imp.load_module()` has been added in 1.4.)

```
import imp import sys

def __import__(name, globals=None, locals=None, fromlist=None):
    # Fast path: see if the module has already been imported.
    try:
        return sys.modules[name]
    except KeyError:
        pass

    # If any of the following calls raises an exception,
    # there's a problem we can't handle -- let the caller handle it.

    fp, pathname, description = imp.find_module(name)

    try:
        return imp.load_module(name, fp, pathname, description)
    finally:
        # Since we may exit via an exception, close fp explicitly.
        if fp:
            fp.close()
```

A more complete example that implements hierarchical module names and includes a `reload()` function can be found in the standard module `knee` (which is intended as an example only – don't rely on any part of it being a standard interface).

3.11 Built-in Module `ni`

Warning: This module is obsolete. As of Python 1.5a4, package support (with different semantics for `__init__` and no support for `__domain__` or `__`) is built in the interpreter. The ni module is retained only for backward compatibility. As of Python 1.5b2, it has been renamed to `ni1`; if you really need it, you can use `import ni1`, but the recommended approach is to rely on the built-in package support, converting existing packages if needed. Note that mixing `ni` and the built-in package support doesn't work once you import `ni`, all packages use it.

The `ni` module defines a new importing scheme, which supports packages containing several Python modules. To enable package support, execute `import ni` before importing any packages. Importing this module automatically installs the relevant import hooks. There are no publicly-usable functions or variables in the `ni` module.

To create a package named `spam` containing sub-modules `ham`, `bacon` and `eggs`, create a directory '`spam`' somewhere on Python's module search path, as given in `sys.path`. Then, create files called '`ham.py`', '`bacon.py`' and '`eggs.py`' inside '`spam`'.

To import module `ham` from package `spam` and use function `hamneggs()` from that module, you can use any of the following possibilities:

```
import spam.ham # *not* "import spam" !!!
spam.ham.hamneggs()
```

```
from spam import ham
ham.hamneggs()
```

```
from spam.ham import hamneggs
hamneggs()
```

import spam creates an empty package named spam if one does not already exist, but it does *not* automatically import spam's submodules. The only submodule that is guaranteed to be imported is spam.__init__, if it exists; it would be in a file named '__init__.py' in the 'spam' directory. Note that spam.__init__ is a submodule of package spam. It can refer to spam's namespace as __ (two underscores):

```
__.spam_inited = 1 # Set a package-level variable
```

Additional initialization code (setting up variables, importing other submodules) can be performed in 'spam/__init__.py'.

3.12 Built-in Module parser

The parser module provides an interface to Python's internal parser and byte-code compiler. The primary purpose for this interface is to allow Python code to edit the parse tree of a Python expression and create executable code from this. This is better than trying to parse and modify an arbitrary Python code fragment as a string because parsing is performed in a manner identical to the code forming the application. It is also faster.

There are a few things to note about this module which are important to making use of the data structures created. This is not a tutorial on editing the parse trees for Python code, but some examples of using the parser module are presented.

Most importantly, a good understanding of the Python grammar processed by the internal parser is required. For full information on the language syntax, refer to the Language Reference. The parser itself is created from a grammar specification defined in the file 'Grammar/Grammar' in the standard Python distribution. The parse trees stored in the "AST objects" created by this module are the actual output from the internal parser when created by the expr() or suite() functions, described below. The AST objects created by sequence2ast() faithfully simulate those structures. Be aware that the values of the sequences which are considered "correct" will vary from one version of Python to another as the formal grammar for the language is revised. However, transporting code from one Python version to another as source text will always allow correct parse trees to be created in the target version, with the only restriction being that migrating to an older version of the interpreter will not support more recent language constructs. The parse trees are not typically compatible from one version to another, whereas source code has always been forward-compatible.

Each element of the sequences returned by ast2list or ast2tuple() has a simple form. Sequences representing non-terminal elements in the grammar always have a length greater than one. The first element is an integer which identifies a production in the grammar. These integers are given symbolic names in the C header file 'Include/graminit.h' and the Python module symbol. Each additional element of the sequence represents a component of the production as recognized in the input string: these are always sequences which have the same form as the parent. An important aspect of this structure which should be noted is that keywords used to identify the parent node type, such as the keyword if in an if_stmt, are included in the node tree without any special treatment. For example, the if keyword is represented by the tuple (1, 'if'), where 1 is the numeric value associated with all NAME tokens, including variable and function names defined by the user. In an alternate form returned when line number information is requested, the same token might be represented as (1, 'if', 12), where the 12 represents the line number at which the terminal symbol was found.

Terminal elements are represented in much the same way, but without any child elements and the addition of the source text which was identified. The example of the if keyword above is representative. The various types of terminal symbols are defined in the C header file 'Include/token.h' and the Python module `token`.

The AST objects are not required to support the functionality of this module, but are provided for three purposes: to allow an application to amortize the cost of processing complex parse trees, to provide a parse tree representation which conserves memory space when compared to the Python list or tuple representation, and to ease the creation of additional modules in C which manipulate parse trees. A simple "wrapper" class may be created in Python to hide the use of AST objects; the `AST` library module provides a variety of such classes.

The `parser` module defines functions for a few distinct purposes. The most important purposes are to create AST objects and to convert AST objects to other representations such as parse trees and compiled code objects, but there are also functions which serve to query the type of parse tree represented by an AST object.

3.12.1 Creating AST Objects

AST objects may be created from source code or from a parse tree. When creating an AST object from source, different functions are used to create the `'eval'` and `'exec'` forms.

`expr(`*string*`)`
: The `expr()` function parses the parameter *string* as if it were an input to `compile(`*string*`, 'eval')`. If the parse succeeds, an AST object is created to hold the internal parse tree representation, otherwise an appropriate exception is thrown.

`suite(`*string*`)`
: The `suite()` function parses the parameter *string* as if it were an input to `compile(`*string*`, 'exec')`. If the parse succeeds, an AST object is created to hold the internal parse tree representation, otherwise an appropriate exception is thrown.

`sequence2ast(`*sequence*`)`
: This function accepts a parse tree represented as a sequence and builds an internal representation if possible. If it can validate that the tree conforms to the Python grammar and all nodes are valid node types in the host version of Python, an AST object is created from the internal representation and returned to the called. If there is a problem creating the internal representation, or if the tree cannot be validated, a `ParserError` exception is thrown. An AST object created this way should not be assumed to compile correctly; normal exceptions thrown by compilation may still be initiated when the AST object is passed to `compileast()`. This may indicate problems not related to syntax (such as a `MemoryError` exception), but may also be due to constructs such as the result of parsing `del f(0)`, which escapes the Python parser but is checked by the bytecode compiler.

  Sequences representing terminal tokens may be represented as either two-element lists of the form `(1, 'name')` or as three-element lists of the form `(1, 'name', 56)`. If the third element is present, it is assumed to be a valid line number. The line number may be specified for any subset of the terminal symbols in the input tree.

`tuple2ast(`*sequence*`)`
: This is the same function as `sequence2ast()`. This entry point is maintained for backward compatibility.

3.12.2 Converting AST Objects

AST objects, regardless of the input used to create them, may be converted to parse trees represented as list- or tuple-trees, or may be compiled into executable code objects. Parse trees may be extracted with or without line numbering information.

`ast2list(`*ast* [, *line_info* `= 0`]`)`
: This function accepts an AST object from the caller in *ast* and returns a Python list representing the equivelent parse tree. The resulting list representation can be used for inspection or the creation of a new parse tree in list form. This function does not fail so long as memory is available to build the list representation. If the parse tree will only be used for inspection, `ast2tuple()` should be used instead to reduce memory consumption

and fragmentation. When the list representation is required, this function is significantly faster than retrieving a tuple representation and converting that to nested lists.

If *line_info* is true, line number information will be included for all terminal tokens as a third element of the list representing the token. Note that the line number provided specifies the line on which the token *ends*. This information is omitted if the flag is false or omitted.

`ast2tuple(`*ast* [, *line_info* `= 0`] `)`

This function accepts an AST object from the caller in *ast* and returns a Python tuple representing the equivelent parse tree. Other than returning a tuple instead of a list, this function is identical to `ast2list()`.

If *line_info* is true, line number information will be included for all terminal tokens as a third element of the list representing the token. This information is omitted if the flag is false or omitted.

`compileast(`*ast* [, *filename* `= '<ast>'`] `)`

The Python byte compiler can be invoked on an AST object to produce code objects which can be used as part of an `exec` statement or a call to the built-in `eval()` function. This function provides the interface to the compiler, passing the internal parse tree from *ast* to the parser, using the source file name specified by the *filename* parameter. The default value supplied for *filename* indicates that the source was an AST object.

Compiling an AST object may result in exceptions related to compilation; an example would be a `SyntaxError` caused by the parse tree for `del f(0)`: this statement is considered legal within the formal grammar for Python but is not a legal language construct. The `SyntaxError` raised for this condition is actually generated by the Python byte-compiler normally, which is why it can be raised at this point by the `parser` module. Most causes of compilation failure can be diagnosed programmatically by inspection of the parse tree.

3.12.3 Queries on AST Objects

Two functions are provided which allow an application to determine if an AST was create as an expression or a suite. Neither of these functions can be used to determine if an AST was created from source code via `expr()` or `suite()` or from a parse tree via `sequence2ast()`.

`isexpr(`*ast*`)`

When *ast* represents an `'eval'` form, this function returns a true value (`1`), otherwise it returns false (`0`). This is useful, since code objects normally cannot be queried for this information using existing built-in functions. Note that the code objects created by `compileast()` cannot be queried like this either, and are identical to those created by the built-in `compile()` function.

`issuite(`*ast*`)`

This function mirrors `isexpr()` in that it reports whether an AST object represents an `'exec'` form, commonly known as a "suite." It is not safe to assume that this function is equivelent to `not isexpr(`*ast*`)`, as additional syntactic fragments may be supported in the future.

3.12.4 Exceptions and Error Handling

The parser module defines a single exception, but may also pass other built-in exceptions from other portions of the Python runtime environment. See each function for information about the exceptions it can raise.

`ParserError`

Exception raised when a failure occurs within the parser module. This is generally produced for validation failures rather than the built in `SyntaxError` thrown during normal parsing. The exception argument is either a string describing the reason of the failure or a tuple containing a sequence causing the failure from a parse tree passed to `sequence2ast()` and an explanatory string. Calls to `sequence2ast()` need to be able to handle either type of exception, while calls to other functions in the module will only need to be aware of the simple string values.

Note that the functions `compileast()`, `expr()`, and `suite()` may throw exceptions which are normally thrown by the parsing and compilation process. These include the built in exceptions `MemoryError`, `OverflowError`, `SyntaxError`, and `SystemError`. In these cases, these exceptions carry all the meaning normally associated with them. Refer to the descriptions of each function for detailed information.

3.12.5 AST Objects

AST objects returned by `expr()`, `suite()`, and `sequence2ast()` have no methods of their own. Some of the functions defined which accept an AST object as their first argument may change to object methods in the future. The type of these objects is available as `ASTType` in the module.

Ordered and equality comparisons are supported between AST objects.

3.12.6 Examples

The parser modules allows operations to be performed on the parse tree of Python source code before the bytecode is generated, and provides for inspection of the parse tree for information gathering purposes. Two examples are presented. The simple example demonstrates emulation of the `compile()` built-in function and the complex example shows the use of a parse tree for information discovery.

Emulation of `compile()`

While many useful operations may take place between parsing and bytecode generation, the simplest operation is to do nothing. For this purpose, using the `parser` module to produce an intermediate data structure is equivelent to the code

```
>>> code = compile('a + 5', 'eval')
>>> a = 5
>>> eval(code)
10
```

The equivelent operation using the `parser` module is somewhat longer, and allows the intermediate internal parse tree to be retained as an AST object:

```
>>> import parser
>>> ast = parser.expr('a + 5')
>>> code = parser.compileast(ast)
>>> a = 5
>>> eval(code)
10
```

An application which needs both AST and code objects can package this code into readily available functions:

```
import parser

def load_suite(source_string):
    ast = parser.suite(source_string)
    code = parser.compileast(ast)
    return ast, code

def load_expression(source_string):
    ast = parser.expr(source_string)
    code = parser.compileast(ast)
    return ast, code
```

Information Discovery

Some applications benefit from direct access to the parse tree. The remainder of this section demonstrates how the parse tree provides access to module documentation defined in docstrings without requiring that the code being examined be loaded into a running interpreter via `import`. This can be very useful for performing analyses of untrusted code.

Generally, the example will demonstrate how the parse tree may be traversed to distill interesting information. Two functions and a set of classes are developed which provide programmatic access to high level function and class definitions provided by a module. The classes extract information from the parse tree and provide access to the information at a useful semantic level, one function provides a simple low-level pattern matching capability, and the other function defines a high-level interface to the classes by handling file operations on behalf of the caller. All source files mentioned here which are not part of the Python installation are located in the '`Demo/parser/`' directory of the distribution.

The dynamic nature of Python allows the programmer a great deal of flexibility, but most modules need only a limited measure of this when defining classes, functions, and methods. In this example, the only definitions that will be considered are those which are defined in the top level of their context, e.g., a function defined by a `def` statement at column zero of a module, but not a function defined within a branch of an `if` ... `else` construct, though there are some good reasons for doing so in some situations. Nesting of definitions will be handled by the code developed in the example.

To construct the upper-level extraction methods, we need to know what the parse tree structure looks like and how much of it we actually need to be concerned about. Python uses a moderately deep parse tree so there are a large number of intermediate nodes. It is important to read and understand the formal grammar used by Python. This is specified in the file '`Grammar/Grammar`' in the distribution. Consider the simplest case of interest when searching for docstrings: a module consisting of a docstring and nothing else. (See file '`docstring.py`'.)

```
"""Some documentation.
"""
```

Using the interpreter to take a look at the parse tree, we find a bewildering mass of numbers and parentheses, with the documentation buried deep in nested tuples.

```
>>> import parser
>>> import pprint
>>> ast = parser.suite(open('docstring.py').read())
>>> tup = parser.ast2tuple(ast)
>>> pprint.pprint(tup)
(257,
 (264,
  (265,
   (266,
    (267,
     (307,
      (287,
       (288,
        (289,
         (290,
          (292,
           (293,
            (294,
             (295,
              (296,
               (297,
                (298,
                 (299,
                  (300, (3, '"""Some documentation.\012"""'))))))))))))))))),
   (4, ''))),
 (4, ''),
 (0, ''))
```

The numbers at the first element of each node in the tree are the node types; they map directly to terminal and non-terminal symbols in the grammar. Unfortunately, they are represented as integers in the internal representation, and the Python structures generated do not change that. However, the `symbol` and `token` modules provide symbolic names for the node types and dictionaries which map from the integers to the symbolic names for the node types.

In the output presented above, the outermost tuple contains four elements: the integer `257` and three additional tuples. Node type `257` has the symbolic name `file_input`. Each of these inner tuples contains an integer as the first element; these integers, `264`, `4`, and `0`, represent the node types `stmt`, `NEWLINE`, and `ENDMARKER`, respectively. Note that these values may change depending on the version of Python you are using; consult '`symbol.py`' and '`token.py`' for details of the mapping. It should be fairly clear that the outermost node is related primarily to the input source rather than the contents of the file, and may be disregarded for the moment. The `stmt` node is much more interesting. In particular, all docstrings are found in subtrees which are formed exactly as this node is formed, with the only difference being the string itself. The association between the docstring in a similar tree and the defined entity (class, function, or module) which it describes is given by the position of the docstring subtree within the tree defining the described structure.

By replacing the actual docstring with something to signify a variable component of the tree, we allow a simple pattern matching approach to check any given subtree for equivelence to the general pattern for docstrings. Since the example demonstrates information extraction, we can safely require that the tree be in tuple form rather than list form, allowing a simple variable representation to be `['variable_name']`. A simple recursive function can implement the pattern matching, returning a boolean and a dictionary of variable name to value mappings. (See file '`example.py`'.)

```
from types import ListType, TupleType

def match(pattern, data, vars=None):
    if vars is None:
        vars = {}
    if type(pattern) is ListType:
        vars[pattern[0]] = data
        return 1, vars
    if type(pattern) is not TupleType:
        return (pattern == data), vars
    if len(data) != len(pattern):
        return 0, vars
    for pattern, data in map(None, pattern, data):
        same, vars = match(pattern, data, vars)
        if not same:
            break
    return same, vars
```

Using this simple representation for syntactic variables and the symbolic node types, the pattern for the candidate docstring subtrees becomes fairly readable. (See file ‘example.py’.)

```
import symbol
import token

DOCSTRING_STMT_PATTERN = (
    symbol.stmt,
    (symbol.simple_stmt,
     (symbol.small_stmt,
      (symbol.expr_stmt,
       (symbol.testlist,
        (symbol.test,
         (symbol.and_test,
          (symbol.not_test,
           (symbol.comparison,
            (symbol.expr,
             (symbol.xor_expr,
              (symbol.and_expr,
               (symbol.shift_expr,
                (symbol.arith_expr,
                 (symbol.term,
                  (symbol.factor,
                   (symbol.power,
                    (symbol.atom,
                     (token.STRING, ['docstring'])
                     )))))))))))))))),
     (token.NEWLINE, '')
     ))
```

Using the match() function with this pattern, extracting the module docstring from the parse tree created previously is easy:

```
>>> found, vars = match(DOCSTRING_STMT_PATTERN, tup[1])
>>> found
1
>>> vars
{'docstring': '"""Some documentation.\012"""'}
```

Once specific data can be extracted from a location where it is expected, the question of where information can be expected needs to be answered. When dealing with docstrings, the answer is fairly simple: the docstring is the first `stmt` node in a code block (`file_input` or `suite` node types). A module consists of a single `file_input` node, and class and function definitions each contain exactly one `suite` node. Classes and functions are readily identified as subtrees of code block nodes which start with `(stmt, (compound_stmt, (classdef, ...` or `(stmt, (compound_stmt, (funcdef, ...`. Note that these subtrees cannot be matched by `match()` since it does not support multiple sibling nodes to match without regard to number. A more elaborate matching function could be used to overcome this limitation, but this is sufficient for the example.

Given the ability to determine whether a statement might be a docstring and extract the actual string from the statement, some work needs to be performed to walk the parse tree for an entire module and extract information about the names defined in each context of the module and associate any docstrings with the names. The code to perform this work is not complicated, but bears some explanation.

The public interface to the classes is straightforward and should probably be somewhat more flexible. Each "major" block of the module is described by an object providing several methods for inquiry and a constructor which accepts at least the subtree of the complete parse tree which it represents. The `ModuleInfo` constructor accepts an optional *name* parameter since it cannot otherwise determine the name of the module.

The public classes include `ClassInfo`, `FunctionInfo`, and `ModuleInfo`. All objects provide the methods `get_name()`, `get_docstring()`, `get_class_names()`, and `get_class_info()`. The `ClassInfo` objects support `get_method_names()` and `get_method_info()` while the other classes provide `get_function_names()` and `get_function_info()`.

Within each of the forms of code block that the public classes represent, most of the required information is in the same form and is accessed in the same way, with classes having the distinction that functions defined at the top level are referred to as "methods." Since the difference in nomenclature reflects a real semantic distinction from functions defined outside of a class, the implementation needs to maintain the distinction. Hence, most of the functionality of the public classes can be implemented in a common base class, `SuiteInfoBase`, with the accessors for function and method information provided elsewhere. Note that there is only one class which represents function and method information; this parallels the use of the `def` statement to define both types of elements.

Most of the accessor functions are declared in `SuiteInfoBase` and do not need to be overriden by subclasses. More importantly, the extraction of most information from a parse tree is handled through a method called by the `SuiteInfoBase` constructor. The example code for most of the classes is clear when read alongside the formal grammar, but the method which recursively creates new information objects requires further examination. Here is the relevant part of the `SuiteInfoBase` definition from '`example.py`':

```
class SuiteInfoBase:
    _docstring = ''
    _name = ''

    def __init__(self, tree = None):
        self._class_info = {}
        self._function_info = {}
        if tree:
            self._extract_info(tree)

    def _extract_info(self, tree):
        # extract docstring
        if len(tree) == 2:
            found, vars = match(DOCSTRING_STMT_PATTERN[1], tree[1])
        else:
            found, vars = match(DOCSTRING_STMT_PATTERN, tree[3])
        if found:
            self._docstring = eval(vars['docstring'])
        # discover inner definitions
        for node in tree[1:]:
            found, vars = match(COMPOUND_STMT_PATTERN, node)
            if found:
                cstmt = vars['compound']
                if cstmt[0] == symbol.funcdef:
                    name = cstmt[2][1]
                    self._function_info[name] = FunctionInfo(cstmt)
                elif cstmt[0] == symbol.classdef:
                    name = cstmt[2][1]
                    self._class_info[name] = ClassInfo(cstmt)
```

After initializing some internal state, the constructor calls the `_extract_info()` method. This method performs the bulk of the information extraction which takes place in the entire example. The extraction has two distinct phases: the location of the docstring for the parse tree passed in, and the discovery of additional definitions within the code block represented by the parse tree.

The initial `if` test determines whether the nested suite is of the "short form" or the "long form." The short form is used when the code block is on the same line as the definition of the code block, as in

```
def square(x): "Square an argument."; return x ** 2
```

while the long form uses an indented block and allows nested definitions:

```
def make_power(exp):
    "Make a function that raises an argument to the exponent `exp'."
    def raiser(x, y=exp):
        return x ** y
    return raiser
```

When the short form is used, the code block may contain a docstring as the first, and possibly only, `small_stmt` element. The extraction of such a docstring is slightly different and requires only a portion of the complete pattern used in the more common case. As implemented, the docstring will only be found if there is only one `small_stmt` node in the `simple_stmt` node. Since most functions and methods which use the short form do not provide a docstring, this may be considered sufficient. The extraction of the docstring proceeds using the `match()` function as described above, and the value of the docstring is stored as an attribute of the `SuiteInfoBase` object.

After docstring extraction, a simple definition discovery algorithm operates on the `stmt` nodes of the `suite` node. The special case of the short form is not tested; since there are no `stmt` nodes in the short form, the algorithm will silently skip the single `simple_stmt` node and correctly not discover any nested definitions.

Each statement in the code block is categorized as a class definition, function or method definition, or something else. For the definition statements, the name of the element defined is extracted and a representation object appropriate to the definition is created with the defining subtree passed as an argument to the constructor. The repesentation objects are stored in instance variables and may be retrieved by name using the appropriate accessor methods.

The public classes provide any accessors required which are more specific than those provided by the `SuiteInfoBase` class, but the real extraction algorithm remains common to all forms of code blocks. A high-level function can be used to extract the complete set of information from a source file. (See file '`example.py`'.)

```
def get_docs(fileName):
    source = open(fileName).read()
    import os
    basename = os.path.basename(os.path.splitext(fileName)[0])
    import parser
    ast = parser.suite(source)
    tup = parser.ast2tuple(ast)
    return ModuleInfo(tup, basename)
```

This provides an easy-to-use interface to the documentation of a module. If information is required which is not extracted by the code of this example, the code may be extended at clearly defined points to provide additional capabilities.

3.13 Standard Module `symbol`

This module provides constants which represent the numeric values of internal nodes of the parse tree. Unlike most Python constants, these use lower-case names. Refer to the file '`Grammar/Grammar`' in the Python distribution for the defintions of the names in the context of the language grammar. The specific numeric values which the names map to may change between Python versions.

This module also provides one additional data object:

`sym_name`
: Dictionary mapping the numeric values of the constants defined in this module back to name strings, allowing more human-readable representation of parse trees to be generated.

3.14 Standard Module `token`

This module provides constants which represent the numeric values of leaf nodes of the parse tree (terminal tokens). Refer to the file '`Grammar/Grammar`' in the Python distribution for the defintions of the names in the context of the language grammar. The specific numeric values which the names map to may change between Python versions.

This module also provides one data object and some functions. The functions mirror definitions in the Python C header files.

`tok_name`
: Dictionary mapping the numeric values of the constants defined in this module back to name strings, allowing

more human-readable representation of parse trees to be generated.

`ISTERMINAL(`*x*`)`
Return true for terminal token values.

`ISNONTERMINAL(`*x*`)`
Return true for non-terminal token values.

`ISEOF(`*x*`)`
Return true if *x* is the marker indicating the end of input.

3.15 Standard Module `keyword`

This module allows a Python program to determine if a string is a keyword. A single function is provided:

`iskeyword(`*s*`)`
Return true if *s* is a Python keyword.

3.16 Standard module `code`

The `code` module defines operations pertaining to Python code objects.

The `code` module defines the following functions:

`compile_command(`*source*, [*filename* [, *symbol*]] `)`
This function is useful for programs that want to emulate Python's interpreter main loop (a.k.a. the read-eval-print loop). The tricky part is to determine when the user has entered an incomplete command that can be completed by entering more text (as opposed to a complete command or a syntax error). This function *almost* always makes the same decision as the real interpreter main loop.

Arguments: *source* is the source string; *filename* is the optional filename from which source was read, defaulting to `"<input>"`; and *symbol* is the optional grammar start symbol, which should be either `"single"` (the default) or `"eval"`.

Return a code object (the same as `compile(`*source*`, `*filename*`, `*symbol*`)`) if the command is complete and valid; return `None` if the command is incomplete; raise `SyntaxError` if the command is a syntax error.

3.17 Standard module `pprint`

The `pprint` module provides a capability to "pretty-print" arbitrary Python data structures in a form which can be used as input to the interpreter. If the formatted structures include objects which are not fundamental Python types, the representation may not be loadable. This may be the case if objects such as files, sockets, classes, or instances are included, as well as many other builtin objects which are not representable as Python constants.

The formatted representation keeps objects on a single line if it can, and breaks them onto multiple lines if they don't fit within the allowed width. Construct PrettyPrinter objects explicitly if you need to adjust the width constraint.

The `pprint` module defines one class:

`PrettyPrinter(`...`)`
Construct a PrettyPrinter instance. This constructor understands several keyword parameters. An output stream may be set using the *stream* keyword; the only method used on the stream object is the file protocol's `write()` method. If not specified, the PrettyPrinter adopts `sys.stdout`. Three additional parameters may be used to control the formatted representation. The keywords are *indent*, *depth*, and *width*. The amount of indentation added for each recursive level is specified by *indent*; the default is one. Other values can cause output to look

a little odd, but can make nesting easier to spot. The number of levels which may be printed is controlled by *depth*; if the data structure being printed is too deep, the next contained level is replaced by '`...`'. By default, there is no constraint on the depth of the objects being formatted. The desired output width is constrained using the *width* parameter; the default is eighty characters. If a structure cannot be formatted within the constrained width, a best effort will be made.

```
>>> import pprint, sys
>>> stuff = sys.path[:]
>>> stuff.insert(0, stuff[:])
>>> pp = pprint.PrettyPrinter(indent=4)
>>> pp.pprint(stuff)
[   [   '',
        '/usr/local/lib/python1.5',
        '/usr/local/lib/python1.5/test',
        '/usr/local/lib/python1.5/sunos5',
        '/usr/local/lib/python1.5/sharedmodules',
        '/usr/local/lib/python1.5/tkinter'],
    '',
    '/usr/local/lib/python1.5',
    '/usr/local/lib/python1.5/test',
    '/usr/local/lib/python1.5/sunos5',
    '/usr/local/lib/python1.5/sharedmodules',
    '/usr/local/lib/python1.5/tkinter']
>>>
>>> import parser
>>> tup = parser.ast2tuple(
...     parser.suite(open('pprint.py').read()))[1][1][1]
>>> pp = pprint.PrettyPrinter(depth=6)
>>> pp.pprint(tup)
(266, (267, (307, (287, (288, (...))))))
```

The PrettyPrinter class supports several derivative functions:

`pformat`(*object*)
Return the formatted representation of *object* as a string. The default parameters for formatting are used.

`pprint`(*object* [, *stream*])
Prints the formatted representation of *object* on *stream*, followed by a newline. If *stream* is omitted, `sys.stdout` is used. This may be used in the interactive interpreter instead of a `print` command for inspecting values. The default parameters for formatting are used.

```
>>> stuff = sys.path[:]
>>> stuff.insert(0, stuff)
>>> pprint.pprint(stuff)
[<Recursion on list with id=869440>,
 '',
 '/usr/local/lib/python1.5',
 '/usr/local/lib/python1.5/test',
 '/usr/local/lib/python1.5/sunos5',
 '/usr/local/lib/python1.5/sharedmodules',
 '/usr/local/lib/python1.5/tkinter']
```

`isreadable`(*object*)
Determine if the formatted representation of *object* is "readable," or can be used to reconstruct the value using `eval()`. Note that this returns false for recursive objects.

```
>>> pprint.isreadable(stuff)
0
```

`isrecursive(`*object*`)`
: Determine if *object* requires a recursive representation.

One more support function is also defined:

`saferepr(`*object*`)`
: Return a string representation of *object*, protected against recursive data structures. If the representation of *object* exposes a recursive entry, the recursive reference will be represented as `<Recursion on` *typename* `with id=`*number*`>`. The representation is not otherwise formatted.

```
>>> pprint.saferepr(stuff)
"[<Recursion on list with id=682968>, '', '/usr/local/lib/python1.4', '/usr/loca
l/lib/python1.4/test', '/usr/local/lib/python1.4/sunos5', '/usr/local/lib/python
1.4/sharedmodules', '/usr/local/lib/python1.4/tkinter']"
```

3.17.1 PrettyPrinter Objects

PrettyPrinter instances (returned by `PrettyPrinter()` above) have the following methods.

`pformat(`*object*`)`
: Return the formatted representation of *object*. This takes into account the options passed to the PrettyPrinter constructor.

`pprint(`*object*`)`
: Print the formatted representation of *object* on the configured stream, followed by a newline.

The following methods provide the implementations for the corresponding functions of the same names. Using these methods on an instance is slightly more efficient since new PrettyPrinter objects don't need to be created.

`isreadable(`*object*`)`
: Determine if the formatted representation of the object is "readable," or can be used to reconstruct the value using `eval()`. Note that this returns false for recursive objects. If the *depth* parameter of the PrettyPrinter is set and the object is deeper than allowed, this returns false.

`isrecursive(`*object*`)`
: Determine if the object requires a recursive representation.

3.18 Standard module `dis`

The `dis` module supports the analysis of Python byte code by disassembling it. Since there is no Python assembler, this module defines the Python assembly language. The Python byte code which this module takes as an input is defined in the file '`Include/opcode.h`' and used by the compiler and the interpreter.

Example: Given the function myfunc

```
def myfunc(alist):
  return len(alist)
```

the following command can be used to get the disassembly of `myfunc()`:

```
>>> dis.dis(myfunc)
          0 SET_LINENO          1

          3 SET_LINENO          2
          6 LOAD_GLOBAL         0 (len)
```

```
 9 LOAD_FAST           0 (alist)
12 CALL_FUNCTION       1
15 RETURN_VALUE
16 LOAD_CONST          0 (None)
19 RETURN_VALUE
```

The `dis` module defines the following functions:

`dis(`[*bytesource*]`)`
: Disassemble the *bytesource* object. *bytesource* can denote either a class, a method, a function, or a code object. For a class, it disassembles all methods. For a single code sequence, it prints one line per byte code instruction. If no object is provided, it disassembles the last traceback.

`distb(`[*tb*]`)`
: Disassembles the top-of-stack function of a traceback, using the last traceback if none was passed. The instruction causing the exception is indicated.

`disassemble(`*code* [, *lasti*]`)`
: Disassembles a code object, indicating the last instruction if *lasti* was provided. The output is divided in the following columns:

- the current instruction, indicated as `-->`,
- a labelled instruction, indicated with `>>`,
- the address of the instruction,
- the operation code name,
- operation parameters, and
- interpretation of the parameters in parentheses.

The parameter interpretation recognizes local and global variable names, constant values, branch targets, and compare operators.

`disco(`*code* [, *lasti*]`)`
: A synonym for disassemble. It is more convenient to type, and kept for compatibility with earlier Python releases.

`opname`
: Sequence of a operation names, indexable using the byte code.

`cmp_op`
: Sequence of all compare operation names.

`hasconst`
: Sequence of byte codes that have a constant parameter.

`hasname`
: Sequence of byte codes that access a attribute by name.

`hasjrel`
: Sequence of byte codes that have a relative jump target.

`hasjabs`
: Sequence of byte codes that have an absolute jump target.

`haslocal`
: Sequence of byte codes that access a a local variable.

`hascompare`
: Sequence of byte codes of boolean operations.

3.18.1 Python Byte Code Instructions

The Python compiler currently generates the following byte code instructions.

`STOP_CODE`
: Indicates end-of-code to the compiler, not used by the interpreter.

`POP_TOP`
: Removes the top-of-stack (TOS) item.

`ROT_TWO`
: Swaps the two top-most stack items.

`ROT_THREE`
: Lifts second and third stack item one position up, moves top down to position three.

`DUP_TOP`
: Duplicates the reference on top of the stack.

Unary Operations take the top of the stack, apply the operation, and push the result back on the stack.

`UNARY_POSITIVE`
: Implements `TOS = +TOS`.

`UNARY_NEG`
: Implements `TOS = -TOS`.

`UNARY_NOT`
: Implements `TOS = not TOS`.

`UNARY_CONVERT`
: Implements ``TOS = `TOS` ``.

`UNARY_INVERT`
: Implements `TOS =  TOS`.

Binary operations remove the top of the stack (TOS) and the second top-most stack item (TOS1) from the stack. They perform the operation, and put the result back on the stack.

`BINARY_POWER`
: Implements `TOS = TOS1 ** TOS`.

`BINARY_MULTIPLY`
: Implements `TOS = TOS1 * TOS`.

`BINARY_DIVIDE`
: Implements `TOS = TOS1 / TOS`.

`BINARY_MODULO`
: Implements `TOS = TOS1 %TOS`.

`BINARY_ADD`
: Implements `TOS = TOS1 + TOS`.

`BINARY_SUBTRACT`
: Implements `TOS = TOS1 - TOS`.

`BINARY_SUBSCR`
: Implements `TOS = TOS1[TOS]`.

`BINARY_LSHIFT`
: Implements `TOS = TOS1 << TOS`.

`BINARY_RSHIFT`

Implements `TOS = TOS1 >> TOS`.

`BINARY_AND`
: Implements `TOS = TOS1 and TOS`.

`BINARY_XOR`
: Implements `TOS = TOS1 ^ TOS`.

`BINARY_OR`
: Implements `TOS = TOS1 or TOS`.

The slice opcodes take up to three parameters.

`SLICE+0`
: Implements `TOS = TOS[:]`.

`SLICE+1`
: Implements `TOS = TOS1[TOS:]`.

`SLICE+2`
: Implements `TOS = TOS1[:TOS1]`.

`SLICE+3`
: Implements `TOS = TOS2[TOS1:TOS]`.

Slice assignment needs even an additional parameter. As any statement, they put nothing on the stack.

`STORE_SLICE+0`
: Implements `TOS[:]  = TOS1`.

`STORE_SLICE+1`
: Implements `TOS1[TOS:] = TOS2`.

`STORE_SLICE+2`
: Implements `TOS1[:TOS] = TOS2`.

`STORE_SLICE+3`
: Implements `TOS2[TOS1:TOS] = TOS3`.

`DELETE_SLICE+0`
: Implements `del TOS[:]`.

`DELETE_SLICE+1`
: Implements `del TOS1[TOS:]`.

`DELETE_SLICE+2`
: Implements `del TOS1[:TOS]`.

`DELETE_SLICE+3`
: Implements `del TOS2[TOS1:TOS]`.

`STORE_SUBSCR`
: Implements `TOS1[TOS] = TOS2`.

`DELETE_SUBSCR`
: Implements `del TOS1[TOS]`.

`PRINT_EXPR`
: Implements the expression statement for the interactive mode. TOS is removed from the stack and printed. In non-interactive mode, an expression statement is terminated with `POP_STACK`.

`PRINT_ITEM`
: Prints TOS. There is one such instruction for each item in the print statement.

`PRINT_NEWLINE`

Prints a new line on `sys.stdout`. This is generated as the last operation of a print statement, unless the statement ends with a comma.

`BREAK_LOOP`
Terminates a loop due to a break statement.

`LOAD_LOCALS`
Pushes a reference to the locals of the current scope on the stack. This is used in the code for a class definition: After the class body is evaluated, the locals are passed to the class definition.

`RETURN_VALUE`
Returns with TOS to the caller of the function.

`EXEC_STMT`
Implements `exec TOS2,TOS1,TOS`. The compiler fills missing optional parameters with None.

`POP_BLOCK`
Removes one block from the block stack. Per frame, there is a stack of blocks, denoting nested loops, try statements, and such.

`END_FINALLY`
Terminates a finally-block. The interpreter recalls whether the exception has to be re-raised, or whether the function returns, and continues with the outer-next block.

`BUILD_CLASS`
Creates a new class object. TOS is the methods dictionary, TOS1 the tuple of the names of the base classes, and TOS2 the class name.

All of the following opcodes expect arguments. An argument is two bytes, with the more significant byte last.

`STORE_NAME` *namei*
Implements `name = TOS`. *namei* is the index of *name* in the attribute `co_names` of the code object. The compiler tries to use `STORE_LOCAL` or `STORE_GLOBAL` if possible.

`DELETE_NAME` *namei*
Implements `del name`, where *namei* is the index into `co_names` attribute of the code object.

`UNPACK_TUPLE` *count*
Unpacks TOS into *count* individual values, which are put onto the stack right-to-left.

`UNPACK_LIST` *count*
Unpacks TOS into *count* individual values.

`STORE_ATTR` *namei*
Implements `TOS.name = TOS1`, where *namei* is the index of name in `co_names`.

`DELETE_ATTR` *namei*
Implements `del TOS.name`, using *namei* as index into `co_names`.

`STORE_GLOBAL` *namei*
Works as `STORE_NAME`, but stores the name as a global.

`DELETE_GLOBAL` *namei*
Works as `DELETE_NAME`, but deletes a global name.

`LOAD_CONST` *consti*
Pushes `co_consts[consti]` onto the stack.

`LOAD_NAME` *namei*
Pushes the value associated with `co_names[namei]` onto the stack.

`BUILD_TUPLE` *count*
Creates a tuple consuming *count* items from the stack, and pushes the resulting tuple onto the stack.

`BUILD_LIST` *count*
: Works as `BUILD_TUPLE`, but creates a list.

`BUILD_MAP` *zero*
: Pushes an empty dictionary object onto the stack. The argument is ignored and set to zero by the compiler.

`LOAD_ATTR` *namei*
: Replaces TOS with `getattr(TOS,co_names[namei]`.

`COMPARE_OP` *opname*
: Performs a boolean operation. The operation name can be found in `cmp_op[opname]`.

`IMPORT_NAME` *namei*
: Imports the module `co_names[namei]`. The module object is pushed onto the stack. The current name space is not affect: for a proper import statement, a subsequent `STORE_FAST` instruction modifies the name space.

`IMPORT_FROM` *namei*
: Imports the attribute `co_names[namei]`. The module to import from is found in TOS and left there.

`JUMP_FORWARD` *delta*
: Increments byte code counter by *delta*.

`JUMP_IF_TRUE` *delta*
: If TOS is true, increment the byte code counter by *delta*. TOS is left on the stack.

`JUMP_IF_FALSE` *delta*
: If TOS is false, increment the byte code counter by *delta*. TOS is not changed.

`JUMP_ABSOLUTE` *target*
: Set byte code counter to *target*.

`FOR_LOOP` *delta*
: Iterate over a sequence. TOS is the current index, TOS1 the sequence. First, the next element is computed. If the sequence is exhausted, increment byte code counter by *delta*. Otherwise, push the sequence, the incremented counter, and the current item onto the stack.

`LOAD_GLOBAL` *namei*
: Loads the global named `co_names[namei]` onto the stack.

`SETUP_LOOP` *delta*
: Pushes a block for a loop onto the block stack. The block spans from the current instruction with a size of *delta* bytes.

`SETUP_EXCEPT` *delta*
: Pushes a try block from a try-except clause onto the block stack. *delta* points to the first except block.

`SETUP_FINALLY` *delta*
: Pushes a try block from a try-except clause onto the block stack. *delta* points to the finally block.

`LOAD_FAST` *var_num*
: Pushes a reference to the local `co_varnames[var_num]` onto the stack.

`STORE_FAST` *var_num*
: Stores TOS into the local `co_varnames[var_num]`.

`DELETE_FAST` *var_num*
: Deletes local `co_varnames[var_num]`.

`SET_LINE_NO` *lineno*
: Sets the current line number to *lineno*.

`RAISE_VARARGS` *argc*
: Raises an exception. *argc* indicates the number of parameters to the raise statement, ranging from 1 to 3. The

handler will find the traceback as TOS2, the parameter as TOS1, and the exception as TOS.

`CALL_FUNCTION` *argc*
: Calls a function. The low byte of *argc* indicates the number of positional parameters, the high byte the number of keyword parameters. On the stack, the opcode finds the keyword parameters first. For each keyword argument, the value is on top of the key. Below the keyword parameters, the positional parameters are on the stack, with the right-most parameter on top. Below the parameters, the function object to call is on the stack.

`MAKE_FUNCTION` *argc*
: Pushes a new function object on the stack. TOS is the code associated with the function. The function object is defined to have *argc* default parameters, which are found below TOS.

`BUILD_SLICE` *argc*
: Pushes a slice object on the stack. If *argc* is three, creates `TOS3[TOS2:TOS1:TOS]`. Otherwise, expects three arguments.

3.19 Standard Module `site`

This module is automatically imported during initialization.

In earlier versions of Python (up to and including 1.5a3), scripts or modules that needed to use site-specific modules would place `import site` somewhere near the top of their code. This is no longer necessary.

This will append site-specific paths to to the module search path.

It starts by constructing up to four directories from a head and a tail part. For the head part, it uses `sys.prefix` and `sys.exec_prefix`; empty heads are skipped. For the tail part, it uses the empty string (on Mac or Windows) or it uses first '`lib/python`*version*`/site-packages`' and then '`lib/site-python`' (on Unix). For each of the distinct head-tail combinations, it sees if it refers to an existing directory, and if so, adds to `sys.path`, and also inspected for path configuration files.

A path configuration file is a file whose name has the form '*package*`.pth`'; its contents are additional items (one per line) to be added to `sys.path`. Non-existing items are never added to `sys.path`, but no check is made that the item refers to a directory (rather than a file). No item is added to `sys.path` more than once. Blank lines and lines beginning with # are skipped.

For example, suppose `sys.prefix` and `sys.exec_prefix` are set to '`/usr/local`'. The Python 1.5 library is then installed in '`/usr/local/lib/python1.5`'. Suppose this has a subdirectory '`/usr/local/python1.5/site-packages`' with three subsubdirectories, '`foo`', '`bar`' and '`spam`', and two path configuration files, '`foo.pth`' and '`bar.pth`'. Assume '`foo.pth`' contains the following:

```
# foo package configuration

foo
bar
bletch
```

and '`bar.pth`' contains:

```
# bar package configuration

bar
```

Then the following directories are added to sys.path, in this order:

```
/usr/local/python1.5/site-packages/bar
/usr/local/python1.5/site-packages/foo
```

Note that 'bletch' is omitted because it doesn't exist; the 'bar' directory precedes the 'foo' directory because 'bar.pth' comes alphabetically before 'foo.pth'; and 'spam' is omitted because it is not mentioned in either path configuration file.

After these path manipulations, an attempt is made to import a module named sitecustomize, which can perform arbitrary site-specific customizations. If this import fails with an ImportError exception, it is silently ignored.

Note that for some non-Unix systems, sys.prefix and sys.exec_prefix are empty, and the path manipulations are skipped; however the import of sitecustomize is still attempted.

3.20 Standard Module user

As a policy, Python doesn't run user-specified code on startup of Python programs. (Only interactive sessions execute the script specified in the PYTHONSTARTUP environment variable if it exists).

However, some programs or sites may find it convenient to allow users to have a standard customization file, which gets run when a program requests it. This module implements such a mechanism. A program that wishes to use the mechanism must execute the statement

```
import user
```

The user module looks for a file '.pythonrc.py' in the user's home directory and if it can be opened, exececutes it (using execfile()) in its own (i.e. the module user's) global namespace. Errors during this phase are not caught; that's up to the program that imports the user module, if it wishes. The home directory is assumed to be named by the HOME environment variable; if this is not set, the current directory is used.

The user's '.pythonrc.py' could conceivably test for sys.version if it wishes to do different things depending on the Python version.

A warning to users: be very conservative in what you place in your '.pythonrc.py' file. Since you don't know which programs will use it, changing the behavior of standard modules or functions is generally not a good idea.

A suggestion for programmers who wish to use this mechanism: a simple way to let users specify options for your package is to have them define variables in their '.pythonrc.py' file that you test in your module. For example, a module spam that has a verbosity level can look for a variable user.spam_verbose, as follows:

```
import user
try:
    verbose = user.spam_verbose  # user's verbosity preference
except AttributeError:
    verbose = 0                  # default verbosity
```

Programs with extensive customization needs are better off reading a program-specific customization file.

Programs with security or privacy concerns should *not* import this module; a user can easily break into a a program by placing arbitrary code in the '.pythonrc.py' file.

Modules for general use should *not* import this module; it may interfere with the operation of the importing program.

For a site-wide customization mechanism, see module site.

3.21 Built-in Module `__builtin__`

This module provides direct access to all 'built-in' identifiers of Python; e.g. `__builtin__.open` is the full name for the built-in function `open()`. See section 2.3, "Built-in Functions."

3.22 Built-in Module `__main__`

This module represents the (otherwise anonymous) scope in which the interpreter's main program executes — commands read either from standard input or from a script file.

Chapter 4

String Services

The modules described in this chapter provide a wide range of string manipulation operations. Here's an overview:

string — Common string operations.

regex — Regular expression search and match operations.

regsub — Substitution and splitting operations that use regular expressions.

struct — Interpret strings as packed binary data.

StringIO — Read and write strings as if they were files.

4.1 Standard Module `string`

This module defines some constants useful for checking character classes and some useful string functions. See the module `re` for string functions based on regular expressions.

The constants defined in this module are are:

`digits`
: The string `'0123456789'`.

`hexdigits`
: The string `'0123456789abcdefABCDEF'`.

`letters`
: The concatenation of the strings `lowercase` and `uppercase` described below.

`lowercase`
: A string containing all the characters that are considered lowercase letters. On most systems this is the string `'abcdefghijklmnopqrstuvwxyz'`. Do not change its definition — the effect on the routines `upper` and `swapcase` is undefined.

`octdigits`
: The string `'01234567'`.

`uppercase`
: A string containing all the characters that are considered uppercase letters. On most systems this is the string `'ABCDEFGHIJKLMNOPQRSTUVWXYZ'`. Do not change its definition — the effect on the routines `lower` and `swapcase` is undefined.

`whitespace`
: A string containing all characters that are considered whitespace. On most systems this includes the characters space, tab, linefeed, return, formfeed, and vertical tab. Do not change its definition — the effect on the routines `strip` and `split` is undefined.

The functions defined in this module are:

`atof(`*s*`)`
: Convert a string to a floating point number. The string must have the standard syntax for a floating point literal in Python, optionally preceded by a sign (‘`+`’ or ‘`-`’). Note that this behaves identical to the built-in function `float()` when passed a string.

`atoi(`*s* [*, base*] `)`
: Convert string *s* to an integer in the given *base*. The string must consist of one or more digits, optionally preceded by a sign (‘`+`’ or ‘`-`’). The *base* defaults to 10. If it is 0, a default base is chosen depending on the leading characters of the string (after stripping the sign): ‘`0x`’ or ‘`0X`’ means 16, ‘`0`’ means 8, anything else means 10. If *base* is 16, a leading ‘`0x`’ or ‘`0X`’ is always accepted. Note that when invoked without *base* or with *base* set to 10, this behaves identical to the built-in function `int()` when passed a string. (Also note: for a more flexible interpretation of numeric literals, use the built-in function `eval()`.)

`atol(`*s* [*, base*] `)`
: Convert string *s* to a long integer in the given *base*. The string must consist of one or more digits, optionally preceded by a sign (‘`+`’ or ‘`-`’). The *base* argument has the same meaning as for `atoi()`. A trailing ‘`l`’ or ‘`L`’ is not allowed, except if the base is 0. Note that when invoked without *base* or with *base* set to 10, this behaves identical to the built-in function `long()` when passed a string.

`capitalize(`*word*`)`
: Capitalize the first character of the argument.

`capwords(`*s*`)`
: Split the argument into words using `split`, capitalize each word using `capitalize`, and join the capitalized words using `join`. Note that this replaces runs of whitespace characters by a single space. (See also `regsub.capwords()` for a version that doesn't change the delimiters, and lets you specify a word separator.)

`expandtabs(`*s, tabsize*`)`
: Expand tabs in a string, i.e. replace them by one or more spaces, depending on the current column and the given tab size. The column number is reset to zero after each newline occurring in the string. This doesn't understand other non-printing characters or escape sequences.

`find(`*s, sub* [*, start* [*,end*]] `)`
: Return the lowest index in *s* where the substring *sub* is found such that *sub* is wholly contained in *s*`[`*start*`:`*end*`]`. Return -1 on failure. Defaults for *start* and *end* and interpretation of negative values is the same as for slices.

`rfind(`*s, sub* [*, start* [*,end*]] `)`
: Like `find` but find the highest index.

`index(`*s, sub* [*, start* [*,end*]] `)`
: Like `find` but raise `ValueError` when the substring is not found.

`rindex(`*s, sub* [*, start* [*,end*]] `)`
: Like `rfind` but raise `ValueError` when the substring is not found.

`count(`*s, sub* [*, start* [*,end*]] `)`
: Return the number of (non-overlapping) occurrences of substring *sub* in string *s*`[`*start*`:`*end*`]`. Defaults for *start* and *end* and interpretation of negative values is the same as for slices.

`lower(`*s*`)`
: Convert letters to lower case.

`maketrans(`*from, to*`)`
: Return a translation table suitable for passing to `string.translate` or `regex.compile`, that will map

each character in *from* into the character at the same position in *to*; *from* and *to* must have the same length.

`split(`*s* [*, sep* [*, maxsplit*]]`)`
: Return a list of the words of the string *s*. If the optional second argument *sep* is absent or `None`, the words are separated by arbitrary strings of whitespace characters (space, tab, newline, return, formfeed). If the second argument *sep* is present and not `None`, it specifies a string to be used as the word separator. The returned list will then have one more items than the number of non-overlapping occurrences of the separator in the string. The optional third argument *maxsplit* defaults to 0. If it is nonzero, at most *maxsplit* number of splits occur, and the remainder of the string is returned as the final element of the list (thus, the list will have at most *maxsplit*+`1` elements). (See also `regsub.split()` for a version that allows specifying a regular expression as the separator.)

`splitfields(`*s* [*, sep* [*, maxsplit*]]`)`
: This function behaves identically to `split`. (In the past, `split` was only used with one argument, while `splitfields` was only used with two arguments.)

`join(`*words* [*, sep*]`)`
: Concatenate a list or tuple of words with intervening occurrences of *sep*. The default value for *sep* is a single space character. It is always true that `string.join(string.split(`*s*`, `*sep*`), `*sep*`)` equals *s*.

`joinfields(`*words* [*, sep*]`)`
: This function behaves identical to `join`. (In the past, `join` was only used with one argument, while `joinfields` was only used with two arguments.)

`lstrip(`*s*`)`
: Remove leading whitespace from the string *s*.

`rstrip(`*s*`)`
: Remove trailing whitespace from the string *s*.

`strip(`*s*`)`
: Remove leading and trailing whitespace from the string *s*.

`swapcase(`*s*`)`
: Convert lower case letters to upper case and vice versa.

`translate(`*s, table* [*, deletechars*]`)`
: Delete all characters from *s* that are in *deletechars* (if present), and then translate the characters using *table*, which must be a 256-character string giving the translation for each character value, indexed by its ordinal.

`upper(`*s*`)`
: Convert letters to upper case.

`ljust(`*s, width*`)`
`rjust(`*s, width*`)`
`center(`*s, width*`)`
: These functions respectively left-justify, right-justify and center a string in a field of given width. They return a string that is at least *width* characters wide, created by padding the string *s* with spaces until the given width on the right, left or both sides. The string is never truncated.

`zfill(`*s, width*`)`
: Pad a numeric string on the left with zero digits until the given width is reached. Strings starting with a sign are handled correctly.

`replace(`*str, old, new* [*, maxsplit*]`)`
: Return a copy of string *str* with all occurrences of substring *old* replaced by *new*. If the optional argument *maxsplit* is given, the first *maxsplit* occurrences are replaced.

This module is implemented in Python. Much of its functionality has been reimplemented in the built-in module `strop`. However, you should *never* import the latter module directly. When `string` discovers that `strop` exists, it transparently replaces parts of itself with the implementation from `strop`. After initialization, there is *no* overhead in using `string` instead of `strop`.

4.2 Built-in Module `re`

This documentation is preliminary and incomplete. If you find a bug or documentation error, or just find something unclear, please send a message to `string-sig@python.org`, and we'll fix it.

This module provides regular expression matching operations similar to those found in Perl. It's 8-bit clean: both patterns and strings may contain null bytes and characters whose high bit is set. It is always available.

Regular expressions use the backslash character (`\`) to indicate special forms or to allow special characters to be used without invoking their special meaning. This collides with Python's usage of the same character for the same purpose in string literals; for example, to match a literal backslash, one might have to write `\\\\` as the pattern string, because the regular expression must be `\\`, and each backslash must be expressed as `\\` inside a regular Python string literal.

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

4.2.1 Regular Expression Syntax

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

Regular expressions can be concatenated to form new regular expressions; if *A* and *B* are both regular expressions, then *AB* is also an regular expression. If a string *p* matches A and another string *q* matches B, the string *pq* will match AB. Thus, complex expressions can easily be constructed from simpler primitive expressions like the ones described here. For details of the theory and implementation of regular expressions, consult the Friedl book referenced below, or almost any textbook about compiler construction.

A brief explanation of the format of regular expressions follows.

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

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

The special characters are:

- `.` (Dot.) In the default mode, this matches any character except a newline. If the `DOTALL` flag has been specified, this matches any character including a newline.
- `^` (Caret.) Matches the start of the string, and in `MULTILINE` mode also immediately after each newline.
- `$` Matches the end of the string, and in `MULTILINE` mode also matches before a newline. `foo` matches both 'foo' and 'foobar', while the regular expression `foo$` matches only 'foo'.
- `*` Causes the resulting RE to match 0 or more repetitions of the preceding RE, as many repetitions as are possible. `ab*` will match 'a', 'ab', or 'a' followed by any number of 'b's.

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

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

*?, +?, ?? The *, +, and ? qualifiers are all *greedy*; they match as much text as possible. Sometimes this behaviour isn't desired; if the RE <.*> is matched against <H1>title</H1>, it will match the entire string, and not just <H1>. Adding ? after the qualifier makes it perform the match in *non-greedy* or *minimal* fashion; as few characters as possible will be matched. Using .*? in the previous expression will match only <H1>.

\ Either escapes special characters (permitting you to match characters like '*?+&$'), or signals a special sequence; special sequences are discussed below.

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

[] Used to indicate a set of characters. Characters can be listed individually, or a range of characters can be indicated by giving two characters and separating them by a '-'. Special characters are not active inside sets. For example, [akm$] will match any of the characters 'a', 'k', 'm', or '$'; [a-z] will match any lowercase letter and [a-zA-Z0-9] matches any letter or digit. Character classes such as \w or \S (defined below) are also acceptable inside a range. If you want to include a] or a - inside a set, precede it with a backslash.

Characters *not* within a range can be matched by including a ^ as the first character of the set; ^ elsewhere will simply match the '^' character.

| A|B, where A and B can be arbitrary REs, creates a regular expression that will match either A or B. This can be used inside groups (see below) as well. To match a literal '—', use \|, or enclose it inside a character class, like [|].

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

(?...) This is an extension notation (a '?' following a '(' is not meaningful otherwise). The first character after the '?' determines what the meaning and further syntax of the construct is. Following are the currently supported extensions.

(?iLmsx) (One or more letters from the set 'i', 'L', 'm', 's', 'x'.) The group matches the empty string; the letters set the corresponding flags (re.I, re.L, re.M, re.S, re.X) for the entire regular expression. This is useful if you wish include the flags as part of the regular expression, instead of passing a *flag* argument to the compile function.

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

(?P<*name*>...) Similar to regular parentheses, but the text matched by the group is accessible via the symbolic group name *name*. Group names must be valid Python identifiers. A symbolic group is also a numbered group, just as if the group were not named. So the group named 'id' in the example above can also be referenced as the numbered group 1.

For example, if the pattern is (?P<id>[a-zA-Z_]\w*), the group can be referenced by its name in arguments to methods of match objects, such as m.group('id') or m.end('id'), and also by name in pattern text (e.g. (?P=id)) and replacement text (e.g. \g<id>).

(?P=*name*) Matches whatever text was matched by the earlier group named *name*.

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

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

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

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

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

`\A` Matches only at the start of the string.

`\b` Matches the empty string, but only at the beginning or end of a word. A word is defined as a sequence of alphanumeric characters, so the end of a word is indicated by whitespace or a non-alphanumeric character. Inside a character range, `\b` represents the backspace character, for compatibility with Python's string literals.

`\B` Matches the empty string, but only when it is *not* at the beginning or end of a word.

`\d` Matches any decimal digit; this is equivalent to the set `[0-9]`.

`\D` Matches any non-digit character; this is equivalent to the set `[^0-9]`.

`\s` Matches any whitespace character; this is equivalent to the set `[ \t\n\r\f\v]`.

`\S` Matches any non-whitespace character; this is equivalent to the set `[^ \t\n\r\f\v]`.

`\w` When the LOCALE flag is not specified, matches any alphanumeric character; this is equivalent to the set `[a-zA-Z0-9_]`. With LOCALE, it will match the set `[0-9_]` plus whatever characters are defined as letters for the current locale.

`\W` When the LOCALE flag is not specified, matches any non-alphanumeric character; this is equivalent to the set `[^a-zA-Z0-9_]`. With LOCALE, it will match any character not in the set `[0-9_]`, and not defined as a letter for the current locale.

`\Z` Matches only at the end of the string.

`\\` Matches a literal backslash.

4.2.2 Module Contents

The module defines the following functions and constants, and an exception:

`compile(`*pattern* [, *flags*]`)`

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

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

- I or IGNORECASE or `(?i)`

  Perform case-insensitive matching; expressions like `[A-Z]` will match lowercase letters, too. This is not affected by the current locale.

- L or LOCALE or `(?L)`

  Make `\w`, `\W`, `\b`, `\B`, dependent on the current locale.

- M or MULTILINE or `(?m)`

  When specified, the pattern character `^` matches at the beginning of the string and at the beginning of each line (immediately following each newline); and the pattern character `$` matches at the end of the string and at the end of each line (immediately preceding each newline). By default, `^` matches only at the beginning of the string, and `$` only at the end of the string and immediately before the newline (if any) at the end of the string.

- S or DOTALL or `(?s)`

  Make the `.` special character any character at all, including a newline; without this flag, `.` will match anything *except* a newline.

- X or VERBOSE or `(?x)`

  Ignore whitespace within the pattern except when in a character class or preceded by an unescaped backslash, and, when a line contains a `#` neither in a character class or preceded by an unescaped backslash, all characters from the leftmost such `#` through the end of the line are ignored.

The sequence

```
prog = re.compile(pat)
result = prog.match(str)
```

is equivalent to

```
result = re.match(pat, str)
```

but the version using `compile()` is more efficient when the expression will be used several times in a single program.

`escape(`*string*`)`
: Return *string* with all non-alphanumerics backslashed; this is useful if you want to match an arbitrary literal string that may have regular expression metacharacters in it.

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

`search(`*pattern, string* [*, flags*]`)`
: Scan through *string* looking for a location where the regular expression *pattern* produces a match. Return `None` if no position in the string matches the pattern; note that this is different from finding a zero-length match at some point in the string.

`split(`*pattern, string,* [*, maxsplit=0*]`)`
: Split *string* by the occurrences of *pattern*. If capturing parentheses are used in pattern, then occurrences of patterns or subpatterns are also returned.

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

This function combines and extends the functionality of the old `regex.split()` and `regex.splitx()`.

`sub`(*pattern, repl, string* [*, count=0*])

Return the string obtained by replacing the leftmost non-overlapping occurrences of *pattern* in *string* by the replacement *repl*. If the pattern isn't found, *string* is returned unchanged. *repl* can be a string or a function; if a function, it is called for every non-overlapping occurance of *pattern*. The function takes a single match object argument, and returns the replacement string. For example:

```
>>> def dashrepl(matchobj):
...     if matchobj.group(0) == '-': return ' '
...     else: return '-'
>>> re.sub('-{1,2}', dashrepl, 'pro----gram-files')
'pro--gram files'
```

The pattern may be a string or a regex object; if you need to specify regular expression flags, you must use a regex object, or use embedded modifiers in a pattern; e.g.

```
sub("(?i)b+", "x", "bbbb BBBB") returns 'x x'.
```

The optional argument *count* is the maximum number of pattern occurrences to be replaced; count must be a non-negative integer, and the default value of 0 means to replace all occurrences.

Empty matches for the pattern are replaced only when not adjacent to a previous match, so `sub('x*', '-', 'abc')` returns '-a-b-c-'.

`subn`(*pattern, repl, string* [*, count=0*])

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

`error`

Exception raised when a string passed to one of the functions here is not a valid regular expression (e.g., unmatched parentheses) or when some other error occurs during compilation or matching. (It is never an error if a string contains no match for a pattern.)

4.2.3 Regular Expression Objects

Compiled regular expression objects support the following methods and attributes:

`match`(*string* [*, pos*] [*, endpos*])

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

The optional second parameter *pos* gives an index in the string where the search is to start; it defaults to `0`. The `'^'` pattern character will match at the index where the search is to start.

The optional parameter *endpos* limits how far the string will be searched; it will be as if the string is *endpos* characters long, so only the characters from *pos* to *endpos* will be searched for a match.

`search`(*string* [*, pos*] [*, endpos*])

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

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

`split`(*string,* [*, maxsplit=0*])

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

`sub`(*repl, string* [*, count=0*])
: Identical to the `sub` function, using the compiled pattern.

`subn`(*repl, string* [*, count=0*])
: Identical to the `subn` function, using the compiled pattern.

`flags`
: The flags argument used when the regex object was compiled, or 0 if no flags were provided.

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

`pattern`
: The pattern string from which the regex object was compiled.

4.2.4 MatchObjects

`Matchobject` instances support the following methods and attributes:

`group`([*g1, g2, ...*])
: Returns one or more groups of the match. If there is a single *index* argument, the result is a single string; if there are multiple arguments, the result is a tuple with one item per argument. If the *index* is zero, the corresponding return value is the entire matching string; if it is in the inclusive range [1..99], it is the string matching the the corresponding parenthesized group. If no such group exists, the corresponding result is `None`.

If the regular expression uses the `(?P`<*name*>`...)` syntax, the *index* arguments may also be strings identifying groups by their group name.

A moderately complicated example:

```
m = re.match(r"(?P<int>\d+)\.(\d*)", '3.14')
```

After performing this match, `m.group(1)` is `'3'`, as is `m.group('int')`. `m.group(2)` is `'14'`.

`groups()`
: Return a tuple containing all the subgroups of the match, from 1 up to however many groups are in the pattern. Groups that did not participate in the match have values of `None`. If the tuple would only be one element long, a string will be returned instead.

`start`(*group*)

`end`(*group*)
: Return the indices of the start and end of the substring matched by *group*. Return `None` if *group* exists but did not contribute to the match. For a match object `m`, and a group `g` that did contribute to the match, the substring matched by group `g` (equivalent to `m.group(g)`) is

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

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

`span`(*group*)
: Return the 2-tuple `(start`(*group*)`, end`(*group*)`)`. Note that if *group* did not contribute to the match, this is `(None, None)`.

`pos`
: The value of *pos* which was passed to the `search` or `match` function. This is the index into the string at which the regex engine started looking for a match.

`endpos`
: The value of *endpos* which was passed to the `search` or `match` function. This is the index into the string beyond which the regex engine will not go.

`re`
: The regular expression object whose `match()` or `search()` method produced this `MatchObject` instance.

`string`
: The string passed to `match()` or `search()`.

See Also:

Jeffrey Friedl, *Mastering Regular Expressions*, O'Reilly. The Python material in this book dates from before the re module, but it covers writing good regular expression patterns in great detail.

4.3 Built-in Module `regex`

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

Obsolescence note: This module is obsolete as of Python version 1.5; it is still being maintained because much existing code still uses it. All new code in need of regular expressions should use the new `re` module, which supports the more powerful and regular Perl-style regular expressions. Existing code should be converted. The standard library module `reconvert` helps in converting `regex` style regular expressions to `re` style regular expressions. (For more conversion help, see the URL '`http://starship.skyport.net/crew/amk/regex/regex-to-re.html`'.)

By default the patterns are Emacs-style regular expressions (with one exception). There is a way to change the syntax to match that of several well-known UNIX utilities. The exception is that Emacs' '`\s`' pattern is not supported, since the original implementation references the Emacs syntax tables.

This module is 8-bit clean: both patterns and strings may contain null bytes and characters whose high bit is set.

Please note: There is a little-known fact about Python string literals which means that you don't usually have to worry about doubling backslashes, even though they are used to escape special characters in string literals as well as in regular expressions. This is because Python doesn't remove backslashes from string literals if they are followed by an unrecognized escape character. *However*, if you want to include a literal *backslash* in a regular expression represented as a string literal, you have to *quadruple* it or enclose it in a singleton character class. E.g. to extract LaTeX '`\section{...}`' headers from a document, you can use this pattern: `'[\] section{\(.*\)}'`. *Another exception:* the escape sequece '`\b`' is significant in string literals (where it means the ASCII bell character) as well as in Emacs regular expressions (where it stands for a word boundary), so in order to search for a word boundary, you should use the pattern `'\\b'`. Similarly, a backslash followed by a digit 0-7 should be doubled to avoid interpretation as an octal escape.

4.3.1 Regular Expressions

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

Regular expressions can be concatenated to form new regular expressions; if *A* and *B* are both regular expressions, then *AB* is also an regular expression. If a string *p* matches A and another string *q* matches B, the string *pq* will match AB. Thus, complex expressions can easily be constructed from simpler ones like the primitives described here. For details of the theory and implementation of regular expressions, consult almost any textbook about compiler construction.

A brief explanation of the format of regular expressions follows.

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

Special characters either stand for classes of ordinary characters, or affect how the regular expressions around them are interpreted.

The special characters are:

- `.` (Dot.) Matches any character except a newline.
- `^` (Caret.) Matches the start of the string.
- `$` Matches the end of the string. `foo` matches both 'foo' and 'foobar', while the regular expression '`foo$`' matches only 'foo'.
- `*` Causes the resulting RE to match 0 or more repetitions of the preceding RE. `ab*` will match 'a', 'ab', or 'a' followed by any number of 'b's.
- `+` Causes the resulting RE to match 1 or more repetitions of the preceding RE. `ab+` will match 'a' followed by any non-zero number of 'b's; it will not match just 'a'.
- `?` Causes the resulting RE to match 0 or 1 repetitions of the preceding RE. `ab?` will match either 'a' or 'ab'.
- `\` Either escapes special characters (permitting you to match characters like '*?+&$'), or signals a special sequence; special sequences are discussed below. Remember that Python also uses the backslash as an escape sequence in string literals; if the escape sequence isn't recognized by Python's parser, the backslash and subsequent character are included in the resulting string. However, if Python would recognize the resulting sequence, the backslash should be repeated twice.
- `[]` Used to indicate a set of characters. Characters can be listed individually, or a range is indicated by giving two characters and separating them by a '-'. Special characters are not active inside sets. For example, `[akm$]` will match any of the characters 'a', 'k', 'm', or '$'; `[a-z]` will match any lowercase letter.

  If you want to include a `]` inside a set, it must be the first character of the set; to include a `-`, place it as the first or last character.

  Characters *not* within a range can be matched by including a `^` as the first character of the set; `^` elsewhere will simply match the '`^`' character.

The special sequences consist of '`\`' and a character from the list below. If the ordinary character is not on the list, then the resulting RE will match the second character. For example, `\$` matches the character '$'. Ones where the backslash should be doubled are indicated.

- `\|` `A\|B`, where A and B can be arbitrary REs, creates a regular expression that will match either A or B. This can be used inside groups (see below) as well.
- `\( \)` Indicates the start and end of a group; the contents of a group can be matched later in the string with the `\[1-9]` special sequence, described next.
- `\\1, ... \\7, \8, \9`

  Matches the contents of the group of the same number. For example, `\(.+\) \\1` matches 'the the' or '55 55', but not 'the end' (note the space after the group). This special sequence can only be used to match one of the first 9 groups; groups with higher numbers can be matched using the `\v` sequence. (`\8` and `\9` don't need a double backslash because they are not octal digits.)

\\b Matches the empty string, but only at the beginning or end of a word. A word is defined as a sequence of alphanumeric characters, so the end of a word is indicated by whitespace or a non-alphanumeric character.

\B Matches the empty string, but when it is *not* at the beginning or end of a word.

\v Must be followed by a two digit decimal number, and matches the contents of the group of the same number. The group number must be between 1 and 99, inclusive.

\w Matches any alphanumeric character; this is equivalent to the set `[a-zA-Z0-9]`.

\W Matches any non-alphanumeric character; this is equivalent to the set `[^a-zA-Z0-9]`.

\< Matches the empty string, but only at the beginning of a word. A word is defined as a sequence of alphanumeric characters, so the end of a word is indicated by whitespace or a non-alphanumeric character.

\> Matches the empty string, but only at the end of a word.

\\\\ Matches a literal backslash.

\` Like ^, this only matches at the start of the string.

\\' Like $, this only matches at the end of the string.

4.3.2 Module Contents

The module defines these functions, and an exception:

`match` (*pattern, string*)
Return how many characters at the beginning of *string* match the regular expression *pattern*. Return `-1` if the string does not match the pattern (this is different from a zero-length match!).

`search` (*pattern, string*)
Return the first position in *string* that matches the regular expression *pattern*. Return `-1` if no position in the string matches the pattern (this is different from a zero-length match anywhere!).

`compile` (*pattern* [*, translate*])
Compile a regular expression pattern into a regular expression object, which can be used for matching using its `match` and `search` methods, described below. The optional argument *translate*, if present, must be a 256-character string indicating how characters (both of the pattern and of the strings to be matched) are translated before comparing them; the `i`-th element of the string gives the translation for the character with ASCII code `i`. This can be used to implement case-insensitive matching; see the `casefold` data item below.

The sequence

```
prog = regex.compile(pat)
result = prog.match(str)
```

is equivalent to

```
result = regex.match(pat, str)
```

but the version using `compile()` is more efficient when multiple regular expressions are used concurrently in a single program. (The compiled version of the last pattern passed to `regex.match()` or `regex.search()` is cached, so programs that use only a single regular expression at a time needn't worry about compiling regular expressions.)

`set_syntax` (*flags*)
: Set the syntax to be used by future calls to `compile`, `match` and `search`. (Already compiled expression objects are not affected.) The argument is an integer which is the OR of several flag bits. The return value is the previous value of the syntax flags. Names for the flags are defined in the standard module `regex_syntax`; read the file '`regex_syntax.py`' for more information.

`get_syntax()`
: Returns the current value of the syntax flags as an integer.

`symcomp` (*pattern* [, *translate*])
: This is like `compile`, but supports symbolic group names: if a parenthesis-enclosed group begins with a group name in angular brackets, e.g. `'\(<id>[a-z][a-z0-9]*\)'`, the group can be referenced by its name in arguments to the `group` method of the resulting compiled regular expression object, like this: `p.group('id')`. Group names may contain alphanumeric characters and `'_'` only.

`error`
: Exception raised when a string passed to one of the functions here is not a valid regular expression (e.g., unmatched parentheses) or when some other error occurs during compilation or matching. (It is never an error if a string contains no match for a pattern.)

`casefold`
: A string suitable to pass as *translate* argument to `compile` to map all upper case characters to their lowercase equivalents.

Compiled regular expression objects support these methods:

`match` (*string* [, *pos*])
: Return how many characters at the beginning of *string* match the compiled regular expression. Return `-1` if the string does not match the pattern (this is different from a zero-length match!).

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

`search` (*string* [, *pos*])
: Return the first position in *string* that matches the regular expression `pattern`. Return `-1` if no position in the string matches the pattern (this is different from a zero-length match anywhere!).

  The optional second parameter has the same meaning as for the `match` method.

`group` (*index, index, ...*)
: This method is only valid when the last call to the `match` or `search` method found a match. It returns one or more groups of the match. If there is a single *index* argument, the result is a single string; if there are multiple arguments, the result is a tuple with one item per argument. If the *index* is zero, the corresponding return value is the entire matching string; if it is in the inclusive range [1..99], it is the string matching the the corresponding parenthesized group (using the default syntax, groups are parenthesized using `(` and `)`). If no such group exists, the corresponding result is `None`.

  If the regular expression was compiled by `symcomp` instead of `compile`, the *index* arguments may also be strings identifying groups by their group name.

Compiled regular expressions support these data attributes:

`regs`
: When the last call to the `match` or `search` method found a match, this is a tuple of pairs of indices corresponding to the beginning and end of all parenthesized groups in the pattern. Indices are relative to the string argument passed to `match` or `search`. The 0-th tuple gives the beginning and end or the whole pattern. When the last match or search failed, this is `None`.

`last`
: When the last call to the `match` or `search` method found a match, this is the string argument passed to that method. When the last match or search failed, this is `None`.

`translate`
: This is the value of the *translate* argument to `regex.compile` that created this regular expression object. If the *translate* argument was omitted in the `regex.compile` call, this is `None`.

`givenpat`
: The regular expression pattern as passed to `compile` or `symcomp`.

`realpat`
: The regular expression after stripping the group names for regular expressions compiled with `symcomp`. Same as `givenpat` otherwise.

`groupindex`
: A dictionary giving the mapping from symbolic group names to numerical group indices for regular expressions compiled with `symcomp`. `None` otherwise.

4.4 Standard Module `regsub`

This module defines a number of functions useful for working with regular expressions (see built-in module `regex`).

Warning: these functions are not thread-safe.

Obsolescence note: This module is obsolete as of Python version 1.5; it is still being maintained because much existing code still uses it. All new code in need of regular expressions should use the new `re` module, which supports the more powerful and regular Perl-style regular expressions. Existing code should be converted. The standard library module `reconvert` helps in converting `regex` style regular expressions to `re` style regular expressions. (For more conversion help, see the URL '`http://starship.skyport.net/crew/amk/regex/regex-to-re.html`'.)

`sub` (*pat, repl, str*)
: Replace the first occurrence of pattern *pat* in string *str* by replacement *repl*. If the pattern isn't found, the string is returned unchanged. The pattern may be a string or an already compiled pattern. The replacement may contain references '`\`*digit*' to subpatterns and escaped backslashes.

`gsub` (*pat, repl, str*)
: Replace all (non-overlapping) occurrences of pattern *pat* in string *str* by replacement *repl*. The same rules as for `sub()` apply. Empty matches for the pattern are replaced only when not adjacent to a previous match, so e.g. `gsub('', '-', 'abc')` returns `'-a-b-c-'`.

`split` (*str, pat* [*, maxsplit*])
: Split the string *str* in fields separated by delimiters matching the pattern *pat*, and return a list containing the fields. Only non-empty matches for the pattern are considered, so e.g. `split('a:b', ':*')` returns `['a', 'b']` and `split('abc', '')` returns `['abc']`. The *maxsplit* defaults to 0. If it is nonzero, only *maxsplit* number of splits occur, and the remainder of the string is returned as the final element of the list.

`splitx` (*str, pat* [*, maxsplit*])
: Split the string *str* in fields separated by delimiters matching the pattern *pat*, and return a list containing the fields as well as the separators. For example, `splitx('a:::b', ':*')` returns `['a', ':::', 'b']`. Otherwise, this function behaves the same as `split`.

`capwords` (*s* [*, pat*])
: Capitalize words separated by optional pattern *pat*. The default pattern uses any characters except letters, digits and underscores as word delimiters. Capitalization is done by changing the first character of each word to upper case.

`clear_cache` ()
: The regsub module maintains a cache of compiled regular expressions, keyed on the regular expression string and the syntax of the regex module at the time the expression was compiled. This function clears that cache.

4.5 Built-in Module `struct`

This module performs conversions between Python values and C structs represented as Python strings. It uses *format strings* (explained below) as compact descriptions of the lay-out of the C structs and the intended conversion to/from Python values.

See also built-in module `array`.

The module defines the following exception and functions:

`error`
Exception raised on various occasions; argument is a string describing what is wrong.

`pack` (*fmt, v1, v2, . . .*)
Return a string containing the values *v1*, *v2*, ... packed according to the given format. The arguments must match the values required by the format exactly.

`unpack` (*fmt, string*)
Unpack the string (presumably packed by `pack` (*fmt*, ...)) according to the given format. The result is a tuple even if it contains exactly one item. The string must contain exactly the amount of data required by the format (i.e. `len` (*string*) must equal `calcsize` (*fmt*)).

`calcsize` (*fmt*)
Return the size of the struct (and hence of the string) corresponding to the given format.

Format characters have the following meaning; the conversion between C and Python values should be obvious given their types:

Format	C	Python
'x'	pad byte	no value
'c'	char	string of length 1
'b'	signed char	integer
'B'	unsigned char	integer
'h'	short	integer
'H'	unsigned short	integer
'i'	int	integer
'I'	unsigned int	integer
'l'	long	integer
'L'	unsigned long	integer
'f'	float	float
'd'	double	float
's'	char[]	string

A format character may be preceded by an integral repeat count; e.g. the format string `'4h'` means exactly the same as `'hhhh'`.

Whitespace characters between formats are ignored; a count and its format must not contain whitespace though.

For the `'s'` format character, the count is interpreted as the size of the string, not a repeat count like for the other format characters; e.g. `'10s'` means a single 10-byte string, while `'10c'` means 10 characters. For packing, the string is truncated or padded with null bytes as appropriate to make it fit. For unpacking, the resulting string always has exactly the specified number of bytes. As a special case, `'0s'` means a single, empty string (while `'0c'` means 0 characters).

For the `'I'` and `'L'` format characters, the return value is a Python long integer.

By default, C numbers are represented in the machine's native format and byte order, and properly aligned by skipping pad bytes if necessary (according to the rules used by the C compiler).

Alternatively, the first character of the format string can be used to indicate the byte order, size and alignment of the packed data, according to the following table:

Character	Byte order	Size and alignment
‘@’	native	native
‘=’	native	standard
‘<’	little-endian	standard
‘>’	big-endian	standard
‘!’	network (= big-endian)	standard

If the first character is not one of these, `'@'` is assumed.

Native byte order is big-endian or little-endian, depending on the host system (e.g. Motorola and Sun are big-endian; Intel and DEC are little-endian).

Native size and alignment are determined using the C compiler's sizeof expression. This is always combined with native byte order.

Standard size and alignment are as follows: no alignment is required for any type (so you have to use pad bytes); short is 2 bytes; int and long are 4 bytes. Float and double are 32-bit and 64-bit IEEE floating point numbers, respectively.

Note the difference between `'@'` and `'='`: both use native byte order, but the size and alignment of the latter is standardized.

The form `'!'` is available for those poor souls who claim they can't remember whether network byte order is big-endian or little-endian.

There is no way to indicate non-native byte order (i.e. force byte-swapping); use the appropriate choice of `'<'` or `'>'`.

Examples (all using native byte order, size and alignment, on a big-endian machine):

```
>>> from struct import *
>>> pack('hhl', 1, 2, 3)
'\000\001\000\002\000\000\000\003'
>>> unpack('hhl', '\000\001\000\002\000\000\000\003')
(1, 2, 3)
>>> calcsize('hhl')
8
>>>
```

Hint: to align the end of a structure to the alignment requirement of a particular type, end the format with the code for that type with a repeat count of zero, e.g. the format `'llh0l'` specifies two pad bytes at the end, assuming longs are aligned on 4-byte boundaries. (This only works when native size and alignment are in effect; standard size and alignment does not enforce any alignment.)

4.6 Standard Module `StringIO`

This module implements a file-like class, `StringIO`, that reads and writes a string buffer (also known as *memory files*). See the description on file objects for operations.

When a `StringIO` object is created, it can be initialized to an existing string by passing the string to the constructor. If no string is given, the `StringIO` will start empty.

The method `getvalue()` can be called to retrieve the entire contents of the "file" at any time before the `StringIO` object's `close()` method is called. Calling `close()` will free the memory buffer.

4.7 Standard Module `soundex`

The soundex algorithm takes an English word, and returns an easily-computed hash of it; this hash is intended to be the same for words that sound alike. This module provides an interface to the soundex algorithm.

Note that the soundex algorithm is quite simple-minded, and isn't perfect by any measure. Its main purpose is to help looking up names in databases, when the name may be misspelled – soundex hashes common misspellings together.

`get_soundex(`*string*`)`
  Return the soundex hash value for a word; it will always be a 6-character string. *string* must contain the word to be hashed, with no leading whitespace; the case of the word is ignored.

`sound_similar(`*string1, string2*`)`
  Compare the word in *string1* with the word in *string2*; this is equivalent to `get_soundex(`*string1*`)==get_soundex(`*string2*`)`.

Chapter 5

Miscellaneous Services

The modules described in this chapter provide miscellaneous services that are available in all Python versions. Here's an overview:

math — Mathematical functions (`sin()` etc.).

whrandom — Floating point pseudo-random number generator.

random — Generate pseudo-random numbers with various common distributions.

rand — Integer pseudo-random number generator (obsolete).

array — Efficient arrays of uniformly typed numeric values.

5.1 Built-in Module `math`

This module is always available. It provides access to the mathematical functions defined by the C standard. They are:

`acos(`*x*`)`
: Return the arc cosine of *x*.

`asin(`*x*`)`
: Return the arc sine of *x*.

`atan(`*x*`)`
: Return the arc tangent of *x*.

`atan2(`*x, y*`)`
: Return `atan(x / y)`.

`ceil(`*x*`)`
: Return the ceiling of *x*.

`cos(`*x*`)`
: Return the cosine of *x*.

`cosh(`*x*`)`
: Return the hyperbolic cosine of *x*.

`exp(`*x*`)`
: Return `e**`*x*.

`fabs(`*x*`)`
: Return the absolute value of the real *x*.

`floor(x)`
: Return the floor of *x*.

`fmod(x, y)`
: Return `x %y`.

`frexp(x)`
: Return the matissa and exponent for *x*. The mantissa is positive.

`hypot(x, y)`
: Return the Euclidean distance, `sqrt(x*x + y*y)`.

`ldexp(x, i)`
: Return `x * (2**i)`.

`modf(x)`
: Return the fractional and integer parts of *x*. Both results carry the sign of *x*.

`pow(x, y)`
: Return `x**y`.

`sin(x)`
: Return the sine of *x*.

`sinh(x)`
: Return the hyperbolic sine of *x*.

`sqrt(x)`
: Return the square root of *x*.

`tan(x)`
: Return the tangent of *x*.

`tanh(x)`
: Return the hyperbolic tangent of *x*.

Note that `frexp` and `modf` have a different call/return pattern than their C equivalents: they take a single argument and return a pair of values, rather than returning their second return value through an 'output parameter' (there is no such thing in Python).

The module also defines two mathematical constants:

`pi`
: The mathematical constant *pi*.

`e`
: The mathematical constant *e*.

See Also: 5.2: `cmath` (Complex number versions of many of these functions.)

5.2 Built-in Module `cmath`

This module is always available. It provides access to mathematical functions for complex numbers. The functions are:

`acos(x)`
: Return the arc cosine of *x*.

`acosh(x)`
: Return the hyperbolic arc cosine of *x*.

`asin(x)`

Return the arc sine of *x*.

`asinh(x)`
Return the hyperbolic arc sine of *x*.

`atan(x)`
Return the arc tangent of *x*.

`atanh(x)`
Return the hyperbolic arc tangent of *x*.

`cos(x)`
Return the cosine of *x*.

`cosh(x)`
Return the hyperbolic cosine of *x*.

`exp(x)`
Return the exponential value e^x.

`log(x)`
Return the natural logarithm of *x*.

`log10(x)`
Return the base-10 logarithm of *x*.

`sin(x)`
Return the sine of *x*.

`sinh(x)`
Return the hyperbolic sine of *x*.

`sqrt(x)`
Return the square root of *x*.

`tan(x)`
Return the tangent of *x*.

`tanh(x)`
Return the hyperbolic tangent of *x*.

The module also defines two mathematical constants:

`pi`
The mathematical constant *pi*, as a real.

`e`
The mathematical constant *e*, as a real.

Note that the selection of functions is similar, but not identical, to that in module `math`. The reason for having two modules is, that some users aren't interested in complex numbers, and perhaps don't even know what they are. They would rather have `math.sqrt(-1)` raise an exception than return a complex number. Also note that the functions defined in `cmath` always return a complex number, even if the answer can be expressed as a real number (in which case the complex number has an imaginary part of zero).

5.3 Standard Module `whrandom`

This module implements a Wichmann-Hill pseudo-random number generator class that is also named `whrandom`. Instances of the `whrandom` class have the following methods:

`choice(seq)`

Chooses a random element from the non-empty sequence *seq* and returns it.

`randint` (*a, b*)
: Returns a random integer *N* such that *a*<=*N*<=*b*.

`random()`
: Returns the next random floating point number in the range [0.0 ... 1.0).

`seed` (*x, y, z*)
: Initializes the random number generator from the integers *x*, *y* and *z*. When the module is first imported, the random number is initialized using values derived from the current time.

`uniform` (*a, b*)
: Returns a random real number *N* such that *a*<=*N*<*b*.

When imported, the `whrandom` module also creates an instance of the `whrandom` class, and makes the methods of that instance available at the module level. Therefore one can write either `N = whrandom.random()` or:

```
generator = whrandom.whrandom()
N = generator.random()
```

See Also: 5.4: `random` (generators for various random distributions)

Wichmann, B. A. & Hill, I. D., "Algorithm AS 183: An efficient and portable pseudo-random number generator", Applied Statistics 31 (1982) 188-190

5.4 Standard Module `random`

This module implements pseudo-random number generators for various distributions: on the real line, there are functions to compute normal or Gaussian, lognormal, negative exponential, gamma, and beta distributions. For generating distribution of angles, the circular uniform and von Mises distributions are available.

The module exports the following functions, which are exactly equivalent to those in the `whrandom` module: `choice`, `randint`, `random`, `uniform`. See the documentation for the `whrandom` module for these functions.

The following functions specific to the `random` module are also defined, and all return real values. Function parameters are named after the corresponding variables in the distribution's equation, as used in common mathematical practice; most of these equations can be found in any statistics text.

`betavariate` (*alpha, beta*)
: Beta distribution. Conditions on the parameters are `alpha>-1` and `beta>-1`. Returned values will range between 0 and 1.

`cunifvariate` (*mean, arc*)
: Circular uniform distribution. *mean* is the mean angle, and *arc* is the range of the distribution, centered around the mean angle. Both values must be expressed in radians, and can range between 0 and `pi`. Returned values will range between `mean - arc/2` and `mean + arc/2`.

`expovariate` (*lambd*)
: Exponential distribution. *lambd* is 1.0 divided by the desired mean. (The parameter would be called "lambda", but that's also a reserved word in Python.) Returned values will range from 0 to positive infinity.

`gamma` (*alpha, beta*)
: Gamma distribution. (*Not* the gamma function!) Conditions on the parameters are `alpha>-1` and `beta>0`.

`gauss` (*mu, sigma*)
: Gaussian distribution. *mu* is the mean, and *sigma* is the standard deviation. This is slightly faster than the `normalvariate` function defined below.

`lognormvariate(`*mu, sigma*`)`
Log normal distribution. If you take the natural logarithm of this distribution, you'll get a normal distribution with mean *mu* and standard deviation *sigma mu* can have any value, and *sigma* must be greater than zero.

`normalvariate(`*mu, sigma*`)`
Normal distribution. *mu* is the mean, and *sigma* is the standard deviation.

`vonmisesvariate(`*mu, kappa*`)`
mu is the mean angle, expressed in radians between 0 and pi, and *kappa* is the concentration parameter, which must be greater then or equal to zero. If *kappa* is equal to zero, this distribution reduces to a uniform random angle over the range 0 to `2*pi`.

`paretovariate(`*alpha*`)`
XXX

`weibullvariate(`*alpha, beta*`)`
XXX

See Also: 5.3: `whrandom` (the standard Python random number generator)

5.5 Standard Module `rand`

The `rand` module simulates the C library's `rand()` interface, though the results aren't necessarily compatible with any given library's implementation. While still supported for compatibility, the `rand` module is now considered obsolete; if possible, use the `whrandom` module instead.

`choice(`*seq*`)`
Returns a random element from the sequence *seq*.

`rand()`
Return a random integer between 0 and 32767, inclusive.

`srand(`*seed*`)`
Set a starting seed value for the random number generator; *seed* can be an arbitrary integer.

See Also: 5.3: `whrandom` (the standard Python random number generator)

5.6 Built-in Module `array`

This module defines a new object type which can efficiently represent an array of basic values: characters, integers, floating point numbers. Arrays are sequence types and behave very much like lists, except that the type of objects stored in them is constrained. The type is specified at object creation time by using a *type code*, which is a single character. The following type codes are defined:

Typecode	Type	Minimal size in bytes
`'c'`	character	1
`'b'`	signed integer	1
`'B'`	unsigned integer	1
`'h'`	signed integer	2
`'H'`	unsigned integer	2
`'i'`	signed integer	2
`'I'`	unsigned integer	2
`'l'`	signed integer	4
`'L'`	unsigned integer	4
`'f'`	floating point	4
`'d'`	floating point	8

The actual representation of values is determined by the machine architecture (strictly speaking, by the C implementation). The actual size can be accessed through the *itemsize* attribute. The values stored for `'L'` and `'I'` items will be represented as Python long integers when retrieved, because Python's plain integer type can't represent the full range of C's unsigned (long) integers.

See also built-in module `struct`.

The module defines the following function:

`array`(*typecode* [, *initializer*])
  Return a new array whose items are restricted by *typecode*, and initialized from the optional *initializer* value, which must be a list or a string. The list or string is passed to the new array's `fromlist()` or `fromstring()` method (see below) to add initial items to the array.

Array objects support the following data items and methods:

`typecode`
  The typecode character used to create the array.

`itemsize`
  The length in bytes of one array item in the internal representation.

`append`(*x*)
  Append a new item with value *x* to the end of the array.

`buffer_info()`
  Return a tuple (*address*, `varlength`) giving the current memory address and the length in bytes of the buffer used to hold array's contents. This is occasionally useful when working with low-level (and inherently unsafe) I/O interfaces that require memory addresses, such as certain `ioctl` operations. The returned numbers are valid as long as the array exists and no length-changing operations are applied to it.

`byteswap`(*x*)
  "Byteswap" all items of the array. This is only supported for integer values. It is useful when reading data from a file written on a machine with a different byte order.

`fromfile`(*f*, *n*)
  Read *n* items (as machine values) from the file object *f* and append them to the end of the array. If less than *n* items are available, `EOFError` is raised, but the items that were available are still inserted into the array. *f* must be a real built-in file object; something else with a `read()` method won't do.

`fromlist`(*list*)
  Append items from the list. This is equivalent to `for x in` *list*`: a.append(x)` except that if there is a type error, the array is unchanged.

`fromstring`(*s*)
  Appends items from the string, interpreting the string as an array of machine values (i.e. as if it had been read from a file using the `fromfile()` method).

`insert(`*i, x*`)`
: Insert a new item with value *x* in the array before position *i*.

`tofile(`*f*`)`
: Write all items (as machine values) to the file object *f*.

`tolist()`
: Convert the array to an ordinary list with the same items.

`tostring()`
: Convert the array to an array of machine values and return the string representation (the same sequence of bytes that would be written to a file by the `tofile()` method.)

When an array object is printed or converted to a string, it is represented as `array(`*typecode*`,` *initializer*`)`. The *initializer* is omitted if the array is empty, otherwise it is a string if the *typecode* is `'c'`, otherwise it is a list of numbers. The string is guaranteed to be able to be converted back to an array with the same type and value using reverse quotes (` `` `). Examples:

```
array('l')
array('c', 'hello world')
array('l', [1, 2, 3, 4, 5])
array('d', [1.0, 2.0, 3.14])
```

Chapter 6

Generic Operating System Services

The modules described in this chapter provide interfaces to operating system features that are available on (almost) all operating systems, such as files and a clock. The interfaces are generally modelled after the UNIX or C interfaces but they are available on most other systems as well. Here's an overview:

os — Miscellaneous OS interfaces.

time — Time access and conversions.

getopt — Parser for command line options.

tempfile — Generate temporary file names.

errno — Standard errno system symbols.

glob — Unix shell style pathname pattern expansion.

fnmatch — Unix shell style pathname pattern matching.

locale — Internationalization services.

6.1 Standard Module `os`

This module provides a more portable way of using operating system (OS) dependent functionality than importing an OS dependent built-in module like `posix`.

When the optional built-in module `posix` is available, this module exports the same functions and data as `posix`; otherwise, it searches for an OS dependent built-in module like `mac` and exports the same functions and data as found there. The design of all Python's built-in OS dependent modules is such that as long as the same functionality is available, it uses the same interface; e.g., the function `os.stat`(*file*) returns stat info about a *file* in a format compatible with the POSIX interface.

Extensions peculiar to a particular OS are also available through the `os` module, but using them is of course a threat to portability!

Note that after the first time `os` is imported, there is *no* performance penalty in using functions from `os` instead of directly from the OS dependent built-in module, so there should be *no* reason not to use `os`!

In addition to whatever the correct OS dependent module exports, the following variables and functions are always exported by `os`:

`name`
    The name of the OS dependent module imported. The following names have currently been registered: `'posix'`,`'nt'`,`'dos'`,`'mac'`.

`path`
: The corresponding OS dependent standard module for pathname operations, e.g., `posixpath` or `macpath`. Thus, (given the proper imports), `os.path.split(`*file*`)` is equivalent to but more portable than `posixpath.split(`*file*`)`.

`curdir`
: The constant string used by the OS to refer to the current directory, e.g. `'.'` for POSIX or `':'` for the Mac.

`pardir`
: The constant string used by the OS to refer to the parent directory, e.g. `'..'` for POSIX or `'::'` for the Mac.

`sep`
: The character used by the OS to separate pathname components, e.g. `'/'` for POSIX or `':'` for the Mac. Note that knowing this is not sufficient to be able to parse or concatenate pathnames—better use `os.path.split()` and `os.path.join()`—but it is occasionally useful.

`altsep`
: An alternative character used by the OS to separate pathname components, or `None` if only one separator character exists. This is set to `'/'` on DOS/Windows systems where `sep` is a backslash.

`pathsep`
: The character conventionally used by the OS to separate search patch components (as in `$PATH`), e.g. `':'` for POSIX or `';'` for MS-DOS.

`defpath`
: The default search path used by `os.exec*p*()` if the environment doesn't have a `'PATH'` key.

`execl(`*path, arg0, arg1, ...*`)`
: This is equivalent to `os.execv(`*path*`, (`*arg0*`, `*arg1*`, ...))`.

`execle(`*path, arg0, arg1, ..., env*`)`
: This is equivalent to `os.execve(`*path*`, (`*arg0*`, `*arg1*`, ...), `*env*`)`.

`execlp(`*path, arg0, arg1, ...*`)`
: This is equivalent to `os.execvp(`*path*`, (`*arg0*`, `*arg1*`, ...))`.

`execvp(`*path, args*`)`
: This is like `os.execv(`*path*`, `*args*`)` but duplicates the shell's actions in searching for an executable file in a list of directories. The directory list is obtained from `os.environ['PATH']`.

`execvpe(`*path, args, env*`)`
: This is a cross between `os.execve()` and `os.execvp()`. The directory list is obtained from *env*`['PATH']`.

(The functions `os.execv()` and `execve()` are not documented here, since they are implemented by the OS dependent module. If the OS dependent module doesn't define either of these, the functions that rely on it will raise an exception. They are documented in the section on module `posix`, together with all other functions that `os` imports from the OS dependent module.)

6.2 Built-in Module `time`

This module provides various time-related functions. It is always available.

An explanation of some terminology and conventions is in order.

- The "epoch" is the point where the time starts. On January 1st of that year, at 0 hours, the "time since the epoch" is zero. For UNIX, the epoch is 1970. To find out what the epoch is, look at `gmtime(0)`.
- UTC is Coordinated Universal Time (formerly known as Greenwich Mean Time). The acronym UTC is not a mistake but a compromise between English and French.

- DST is Daylight Saving Time, an adjustment of the timezone by (usually) one hour during part of the year. DST rules are magic (determined by local law) and can change from year to year. The C library has a table containing the local rules (often it is read from a system file for flexibility) and is the only source of True Wisdom in this respect.
- The precision of the various real-time functions may be less than suggested by the units in which their value or argument is expressed. E.g. on most UNIX systems, the clock "ticks" only 50 or 100 times a second, and on the Mac, times are only accurate to whole seconds.
- On the other hand, the precision of `time()` and `sleep()` is better than their UNIX equivalents: times are expressed as floating point numbers, `time()` returns the most accurate time available (using UNIX `gettimeofday()` where available), and `sleep()` will accept a time with a nonzero fraction (UNIX `select()` is used to implement this, where available).
- The time tuple as returned by `gmtime()` and `localtime()`, or as accpted by `mktime()` is a tuple of 9 integers: year (e.g. 1993), month (1–12), day (1–31), hour (0–23), minute (0–59), second (0–59), weekday (0–6, monday is 0), Julian day (1–366) and daylight savings flag (-1, 0 or 1). Note that unlike the C structure, the month value is a range of 1-12, not 0-11. A year value less than 100 will typically be silently converted to 1900 plus the year value. A -1 argument as daylight savings flag, passed to `mktime()` will usually result in the correct daylight savings state to be filled in.

The module defines the following functions and data items:

`altzone`
: The offset of the local DST timezone, in seconds west of the 0th meridian, if one is defined. Negative if the local DST timezone is east of the 0th meridian (as in Western Europe, including the UK). Only use this if `daylight` is nonzero.

`asctime(`*tuple*`)`
: Convert a tuple representing a time as returned by `gmtime()` or `localtime()` to a 24-character string of the following form: `'Sun Jun 20 23:21:05 1993'`. Note: unlike the C function of the same name, there is no trailing newline.

`clock()`
: Return the current CPU time as a floating point number expressed in seconds. The precision, and in fact the very definiton of the meaning of "CPU time", depends on that of the C function of the same name, but in any case, this is the function to use for benchmarking Python or timing algorithms.

`ctime(`*secs*`)`
: Convert a time expressed in seconds since the epoch to a string representing local time. `ctime(t)` is equivalent to `asctime(localtime(t))`.

`daylight`
: Nonzero if a DST timezone is defined.

`gmtime(`*secs*`)`
: Convert a time expressed in seconds since the epoch to a time tuple in UTC in which the dst flag is always zero. Fractions of a second are ignored.

`localtime(`*secs*`)`
: Like `gmtime` but converts to local time. The dst flag is set to 1 when DST applies to the given time.

`mktime(`*tuple*`)`
: This is the inverse function of `localtime`. Its argument is the full 9-tuple (since the dst flag is needed — pass -1 as the dst flag if it is unknown) which expresses the time in *local* time, not UTC. It returns a floating point number, for compatibility with `time.time()`. If the input value can't be represented as a valid time, OverflowError is raised.

`sleep(`*secs*`)`
: Suspend execution for the given number of seconds. The argument may be a floating point number to indicate a more precise sleep time.

`strftime` (*format, tuple*)

Convert a tuple representing a time as returned by `gmtime()` or `localtime()` to a string as specified by the format argument.

The following directives, shown without the optional field width and precision specification, are replaced by the indicated characters:

Directive	Meaning
`%a`	Locale's abbreviated weekday name.
`%A`	Locale's full weekday name.
`%b`	Locale's abbreviated month name.
`%B`	Locale's full month name.
`%c`	Locale's appropriate date and time representation.
`%d`	Day of the month as a decimal number [01,31].
`%H`	Hour (24-hour clock) as a decimal number [00,23].
`%I`	Hour (12-hour clock) as a decimal number [01,12].
`%j`	Day of the year as a decimal number [001,366].
`%m`	Month as a decimal number [01,12].
`%M`	Minute as a decimal number [00,59].
`%p`	Locale's equivalent of either AM or PM.
`%S`	Second as a decimal number [00,61].
`%U`	Week number of the year (Sunday as the first day of the week) as a decimal number [00,53]. All days in a new year preceding the first Sunday are considered to be in week 0.
`%w`	Weekday as a decimal number [0(Sunday),6].
`%W`	Week number of the year (Monday as the first day of the week) as a decimal number [00,53]. All days in a new year preceding the first Sunday are considered to be in week 0.
`%x`	Locale's appropriate date representation.
`%X`	Locale's appropriate time representation.
`%y`	Year without century as a decimal number [00,99].
`%Y`	Year with century as a decimal number.
`%Z`	Time zone name (or by no characters if no time zone exists).
`%%`	%

Additional directives may be supported on certain platforms, but only the ones listed here have a meaning standardized by ANSI C.

On some platforms, an optional field width and precision specification can immediately follow the initial % of a directive in the following order; this is also not portable. The field width is normally 2 except for %j where it is 3.

`time()`

Return the time as a floating point number expressed in seconds since the epoch, in UTC. Note that even though the time is always returned as a floating point number, not all systems provide time with a better precision than 1 second.

`timezone`

The offset of the local (non-DST) timezone, in seconds west of the 0th meridian (i.e. negative in most of Western Europe, positive in the US, zero in the UK).

`tzname`

A tuple of two strings: the first is the name of the local non-DST timezone, the second is the name of the local DST timezone. If no DST timezone is defined, the second string should not be used.

6.3 Standard Module `getopt`

This module helps scripts to parse the command line arguments in `sys.argv`. It supports the same conventions as the UNIX `getopt()` function (including the special meanings of arguments of the form '-' and '--'). Long options similar to those supported by GNU software may be used as well via an optional third argument. It defines the function `getopt.getopt(args, options [, long_options])` and the exception `getopt.error`.

The first argument to `getopt()` is the argument list passed to the script with its first element chopped off (i.e., `sys.argv[1:]`). The second argument is the string of option letters that the script wants to recognize, with options that require an argument followed by a colon (i.e., the same format that UNIX `getopt()` uses). The third option, if specified, is a list of strings with the names of the long options which should be supported. The leading `'--'` characters should not be included in the option name. Options which require an argument should be followed by an equal sign (`'='`). The return value consists of two elements: the first is a list of option-and-value pairs; the second is the list of program arguments left after the option list was stripped (this is a trailing slice of the first argument). Each option-and-value pair returned has the option as its first element, prefixed with a hyphen (e.g., `'-x'`), and the option argument as its second element, or an empty string if the option has no argument. The options occur in the list in the same order in which they were found, thus allowing multiple occurrences. Long and short options may be mixed.

An example using only UNIX style options:

```
>>> import getopt, string
>>> args = string.split('-a -b -cfoo -d bar a1 a2')
>>> args
['-a', '-b', '-cfoo', '-d', 'bar', 'a1', 'a2']
>>> optlist, args = getopt.getopt(args, 'abc:d:')
>>> optlist
[('-a', ''), ('-b', ''), ('-c', 'foo'), ('-d', 'bar')]
>>> args
['a1', 'a2']
>>>
```

Using long option names is equally easy:

```
>>> s = '--condition=foo --testing --output-file abc.def -x a1 a2'
>>> args = string.split(s)
>>> args
['--condition=foo', '--testing', '--output-file', 'abc.def', '-x', 'a1', 'a2']
>>> optlist, args = getopt.getopt(args, 'x', [
...     'condition=', 'output-file=', 'testing'])
>>> optlist
[('--condition', 'foo'), ('--testing', ''), ('--output-file', 'abc.def'), ('-x', '')]
>>> args
['a1', 'a2']
>>>
```

The exception `getopt.error = 'getopt.error'` is raised when an unrecognized option is found in the argument list or when an option requiring an argument is given none. The argument to the exception is a string indicating the cause of the error. For long options, an argument given to an option which does not require one will also cause this exception to be raised.

6.4 Standard Module `tempfile`

This module generates temporary file names. It is not UNIX specific, but it may require some help on non-UNIX systems.

Note: the modules does not create temporary files, nor does it automatically remove them when the current process exits or dies.

The module defines a single user-callable function:

`mktemp()`
: Return a unique temporary filename. This is an absolute pathname of a file that does not exist at the time the call is made. No two calls will return the same filename.

The module uses two global variables that tell it how to construct a temporary name. The caller may assign values to them; by default they are initialized at the first call to `mktemp()`.

`tempdir`
: When set to a value other than `None`, this variable defines the directory in which filenames returned by `mktemp()` reside. The default is taken from the environment variable `TMPDIR`; if this is not set, either `/usr/tmp` is used (on UNIX), or the current working directory (all other systems). No check is made to see whether its value is valid.

`template`
: When set to a value other than `None`, this variable defines the prefix of the final component of the filenames returned by `mktemp()`. A string of decimal digits is added to generate unique filenames. The default is either "`@`*pid*`.`" where *pid* is the current process ID (on UNIX), or "`tmp`" (all other systems).

Warning: if a UNIX process uses `mktemp()`, then calls `fork()` and both parent and child continue to use `mktemp()`, the processes will generate conflicting temporary names. To resolve this, the child process should assign `None` to `template`, to force recomputing the default on the next call to `mktemp()`.

6.5 Standard Module `errno`

This module makes available standard errno system symbols. The value of each symbol is the corresponding integer value. The names and descriptions are borrowed from '`linux/include/errno.h`', which should be pretty all-inclusive. Of the following list, symbols that are not used on the current platform are not defined by the module.

The module also defines the dictionary variable `errorcode` which maps numeric error codes back to their symbol names, so that e.g. `errno.errorcode[errno.EPERM] == 'EPERM'`. To translate a numeric error code to an error message, use `os.strerror()`.

Symbols available can include:

`EPERM`
: Operation not permitted

`ENOENT`
: No such file or directory

`ESRCH`
: No such process

`EINTR`
: Interrupted system call

`EIO`
: I/O error

`ENXIO`

No such device or address

`E2BIG`
Arg list too long

`ENOEXEC`
Exec format error

`EBADF`
Bad file number

`ECHILD`
No child processes

`EAGAIN`
Try again

`ENOMEM`
Out of memory

`EACCES`
Permission denied

`EFAULT`
Bad address

`ENOTBLK`
Block device required

`EBUSY`
Device or resource busy

`EEXIST`
File exists

`EXDEV`
Cross-device link

`ENODEV`
No such device

`ENOTDIR`
Not a directory

`EISDIR`
Is a directory

`EINVAL`
Invalid argument

`ENFILE`
File table overflow

`EMFILE`
Too many open files

`ENOTTY`
Not a typewriter

`ETXTBSY`
Text file busy

`EFBIG`
File too large

ENOSPC
: No space left on device

ESPIPE
: Illegal seek

EROFS
: Read-only file system

EMLINK
: Too many links

EPIPE
: Broken pipe

EDOM
: Math argument out of domain of func

ERANGE
: Math result not representable

EDEADLK
: Resource deadlock would occur

ENAMETOOLONG
: File name too long

ENOLCK
: No record locks available

ENOSYS
: Function not implemented

ENOTEMPTY
: Directory not empty

ELOOP
: Too many symbolic links encountered

EWOULDBLOCK
: Operation would block

ENOMSG
: No message of desired type

EIDRM
: Identifier removed

ECHRNG
: Channel number out of range

EL2NSYNC
: Level 2 not synchronized

EL3HLT
: Level 3 halted

EL3RST
: Level 3 reset

ELNRNG
: Link number out of range

EUNATCH

Protocol driver not attached

`ENOCSI`
: No CSI structure available

`EL2HLT`
: Level 2 halted

`EBADE`
: Invalid exchange

`EBADR`
: Invalid request descriptor

`EXFULL`
: Exchange full

`ENOANO`
: No anode

`EBADRQC`
: Invalid request code

`EBADSLT`
: Invalid slot

`EDEADLOCK`
: File locking deadlock error

`EBFONT`
: Bad font file format

`ENOSTR`
: Device not a stream

`ENODATA`
: No data available

`ETIME`
: Timer expired

`ENOSR`
: Out of streams resources

`ENONET`
: Machine is not on the network

`ENOPKG`
: Package not installed

`EREMOTE`
: Object is remote

`ENOLINK`
: Link has been severed

`EADV`
: Advertise error

`ESRMNT`
: Srmount error

`ECOMM`
: Communication error on send

`EPROTO`
: Protocol error

`EMULTIHOP`
: Multihop attempted

`EDOTDOT`
: RFS specific error

`EBADMSG`
: Not a data message

`EOVERFLOW`
: Value too large for defined data type

`ENOTUNIQ`
: Name not unique on network

`EBADFD`
: File descriptor in bad state

`EREMCHG`
: Remote address changed

`ELIBACC`
: Can not access a needed shared library

`ELIBBAD`
: Accessing a corrupted shared library

`ELIBSCN`
: .lib section in a.out corrupted

`ELIBMAX`
: Attempting to link in too many shared libraries

`ELIBEXEC`
: Cannot exec a shared library directly

`EILSEQ`
: Illegal byte sequence

`ERESTART`
: Interrupted system call should be restarted

`ESTRPIPE`
: Streams pipe error

`EUSERS`
: Too many users

`ENOTSOCK`
: Socket operation on non-socket

`EDESTADDRREQ`
: Destination address required

`EMSGSIZE`
: Message too long

`EPROTOTYPE`
: Protocol wrong type for socket

`ENOPROTOOPT`

Protocol not available

`EPROTONOSUPPORT`
Protocol not supported

`ESOCKTNOSUPPORT`
Socket type not supported

`EOPNOTSUPP`
Operation not supported on transport endpoint

`EPFNOSUPPORT`
Protocol family not supported

`EAFNOSUPPORT`
Address family not supported by protocol

`EADDRINUSE`
Address already in use

`EADDRNOTAVAIL`
Cannot assign requested address

`ENETDOWN`
Network is down

`ENETUNREACH`
Network is unreachable

`ENETRESET`
Network dropped connection because of reset

`ECONNABORTED`
Software caused connection abort

`ECONNRESET`
Connection reset by peer

`ENOBUFS`
No buffer space available

`EISCONN`
Transport endpoint is already connected

`ENOTCONN`
Transport endpoint is not connected

`ESHUTDOWN`
Cannot send after transport endpoint shutdown

`ETOOMANYREFS`
Too many references: cannot splice

`ETIMEDOUT`
Connection timed out

`ECONNREFUSED`
Connection refused

`EHOSTDOWN`
Host is down

`EHOSTUNREACH`
No route to host

EALREADY
: Operation already in progress

EINPROGRESS
: Operation now in progress

ESTALE
: Stale NFS file handle

EUCLEAN
: Structure needs cleaning

ENOTNAM
: Not a XENIX named type file

ENAVAIL
: No XENIX semaphores available

EISNAM
: Is a named type file

EREMOTEIO
: Remote I/O error

EDQUOT
: Quota exceeded

6.6 Standard Module `glob`

The `glob` module finds all the pathnames matching a specified pattern according to the rules used by the UNIX shell. No tilde expansion is done, but `*`, `?`, and character ranges expressed with `[]` will be correctly matched. This is done by using the `os.listdir()` and `fnmatch.fnmatch()` functions in concert, and not by actually invoking a subshell. (For tilde and shell variable expansion, use `os.path.expanduser()` and `os.path.expandvars()`.)

`glob` (*pathname*)
: Returns a possibly-empty list of path names that match *pathname*, which must be a string containing a path specification. *pathname* can be either absolute (like '`/usr/src/Python1.4/Makefile`') or relative (like '`../../Tools/*.gif`'), and can contain shell-style wildcards.

For example, consider a directory containing only the following files: '`1.gif`', '`2.txt`', and '`card.gif`'. `glob.glob()` will produce the following results. Notice how any leading components of the path are preserved.

```
>>> import glob
>>> glob.glob('./[0-9].*')
['./1.gif', './2.txt']
>>> glob.glob('*.gif')
['1.gif', 'card.gif']
>>> glob.glob('?.gif')
['1.gif']
```

6.7 Standard Module `fnmatch`

This module provides support for Unix shell-style wildcards, which are *not* the same as Python's regular expressions (which are documented in the `re` module). The special characters used in shell-style wildcards are:

`*` matches everything

`?` matches any single character

`[`*seq*`]` matches any character in *seq*

`[!`*seq*`]` matches any character not in *seq*

Note that the filename separator (`'/'` on Unix) is *not* special to this module. See module `glob` for pathname expansion (`glob` uses `fnmatch` to match filename segments).

`fnmatch` (*filename, pattern*)
: Test whether the *filename* string matches the *pattern* string, returning true or false. If the operating system is case-insensitive, then both parameters will be normalized to all lower- or upper-case before the comparision is performed. If you require a case-sensitive comparision regardless of whether that's standard for your operating system, use `fnmatchcase()` instead.

`fnmatchcase()`
: Test whether *filename* matches *pattern*, returning true or false; the comparision is case-sensitive.

`translate` (*pattern*)
: Translate a shell pattern into a corresponding regular expression, returning a string describing the pattern. It does not compile the expression.

6.8 Standard module `locale`

The `locale` module opens access to the POSIX locale database and functionality. The POSIX locale mechanism allows applications to integrate certain cultural aspects into an applications, without requiring the programmer to know all the specifics of each country where the software is executed.

The `locale` module is implemented on top of the `_locale` module, which in turn uses an ANSI C locale implementation if available.

The `locale` module defines the following functions:

`setlocale` (*category* [, *value*])
: If *value* is specified, modifies the locale setting for the *category*. The available categories are listed in the data description below. The value is the name of a locale. An empty string specifies the user's default settings. If the modification of the locale fails, the exception `locale.Error` is raised. If successful, the new locale setting is returned.

  If no *value* is specified, the current setting for the *category* is returned.

  `setlocale` is not thread safe on most systems. Applications typically start with a call of

```
import locale
locale.setlocale(locale.LC_ALL,"")
```

  This sets the locale for all categories to the user's default setting (typically specified in the `LANG` environment variable). If the locale is not changed thereafter, using multithreading should not cause problems.

`localeconv()`
: Returns the database of of the local conventions as a dictionary. This dictionary has the following strings as keys:

  - `decimal_point` specifies the decimal point used in floating point number representations for the `LC_NUMERIC` category.

- `grouping` is a sequence of numbers specifying at which relative positions the `thousands_sep` is expected. If the sequence is terminated with `locale.CHAR_MAX`, no further grouping is performed. If the sequence terminates with a 0, the last group size is repeatedly used.
- `thousands_sep` is the character used between groups.
- `int_curr_symbol` specifies the international currency symbol from the `LC_MONETARY` category.
- `currency_symbol` is the local currency symbol.
- `mon_decimal_point` is the decimal point used in monetary values.
- `mon_thousands_sep` is the separator for grouping of monetary values.
- `mon_grouping` has the same format as the `grouping` key; it is used for monetary values.
- `positive_sign` and `negative_sign` gives the sign used for positive and negative monetary quantities.
- `int_frac_digits` and `frac_digits` specify the number of fractional digits used in the international and local formatting of monetary values.
- `p_cs_precedes` and `n_cs_precedes` specifies whether the currency symbol precedes the value for positive or negative values.
- `p_sep_by_space` and `n_sep_by_space` specifies whether there is a space between the positive or negative value and the currency symbol.
- `p_sign_posn` and `n_sign_posn` indicate how the sign should be placed for positive and negative monetary values.

The possible values for `p_sign_posn` and `n_sign_posn` are given below.

- 0 - Currency and value are surrounded by parentheses.
- 1 - The sign should precede the value and currency symbol.
- 2 - The sign should follow the value and currency symbol.
- 3 - The sign should immediately precede the value.
- 4 - The sign should immediately follow the value.
- LC_MAX - nothing is specified in this locale.

`strcoll` (*string1,string2*)
: Compares two strings according to the current LC_COLLATE setting. As any other compare function, returns a negative, or a positive value, or 0, depending on whether *string1* collates before or after *string2* or is equal to it.

`strxfrm` (*string*)
: Transforms a string to one that can be used for the builtin function `cmp`, and still returns locale-aware results. This function can be used when the same string is compared repeatedly, e.g. when collating a sequence of strings.

`format` (*format,val* [*grouping=0*])
: Formats a number *val* according to the current LC_NUMERIC setting. The format follows the conventions of the % operator. For floating point values, the decimal point is modified if appropriate. If *grouping* is true, also takes the grouping into account.

`str` (*float*)
: Formats a floating point number using the same format as `string.str`, but takes the decimal point into account.

`atof` (*string*)
: Converts a string to a floating point number, following the LC_NUMERIC settings.

`atoi` (*string*)
: Converts a string to an integer, following the LC_NUMERIC conventions.

`LC_CTYPE`
: Locale category for the character type functions. Depending on the settings of this category, the functions of module `string` dealing with case change their behaviour.

`LC_COLLATE`
: Locale category for sorting strings. The functions `strcoll` and `strxfrm` of the locale module are affected.

LC_TIME
: Locale category for the formatting of time. The function `time.strftime` follows these conventions.

LC_MONETARY
: Locale category for formatting of monetary values. The available options are available from the `localeconv` function.

LC_MESSAGES
: Locale category for message display. Python currently does not support application specific locale-aware messages. Messages displayed by the operating system, like those returned by `posix.strerror` might be affected by this category.

LC_NUMERIC
: Locale category for formatting numbers. The functions `format`, `atoi`, `atof` and `str` of the locale module are affected by that category. All other numeric formatting operations are not affected.

LC_ALL
: Combination of all locale settings. If this flag is used when the locale is changed, setting the locale for all categories is attempted. If that fails for any category, no category is changed at all. When the locale is retrieved using this flag, a string indicating the setting for all categories is returned. This string can be later used to restore the settings.

CHAR_MAX
: This is a symbolic constant used for different values returned by `localeconv`.

Error
: Exception raised when `setlocale` fails.

Example:

```
>>> import locale
>>> locale.open(locale.LC_ALL,"de") #setting locale to German
>>> locale.strcoll("f\344n","foo")  #comparing a string containing an umlaut
>>> can.close()
```

Chapter 7

Optional Operating System Services

The modules described in this chapter provide interfaces to operating system features that are available on selected operating systems only. The interfaces are generally modelled after the UNIX or C interfaces but they are available on some other systems as well (e.g. Windows or NT). Here's an overview:

signal — Set handlers for asynchronous events.

socket — Low-level networking interface.

select — Wait for I/O completion on multiple streams.

thread — Create multiple threads of control within one namespace.

Queue — A stynchronized queue class.

anydbm — Generic interface to DBM-style database modules.

whichdb — Guess which DBM-style module created a given database.

zlib

gzip — Compression and decompression compatible with the `gzip` program (zlib is the low-level interface, gzip the high-level one).

7.1 Built-in Module `signal`

This module provides mechanisms to use signal handlers in Python. Some general rules for working with signals handlers:

- A handler for a particular signal, once set, remains installed until it is explicitly reset (i.e. Python emulates the BSD style interface regardless of the underlying implementation), with the exception of the handler for `SIGCHLD`, which follows the underlying implementation.
- There is no way to "block" signals temporarily from critical sections (since this is not supported by all UNIX flavors).
- Although Python signal handlers are called asynchronously as far as the Python user is concerned, they can only occur between the "atomic" instructions of the Python interpreter. This means that signals arriving during long calculations implemented purely in C (e.g. regular expression matches on large bodies of text) may be delayed for an arbitrary amount of time.
- When a signal arrives during an I/O operation, it is possible that the I/O operation raises an exception after the signal handler returns. This is dependent on the underlying UNIX system's semantics regarding interrupted system calls.

- Because the C signal handler always returns, it makes little sense to catch synchronous errors like `SIGFPE` or `SIGSEGV`.
- Python installs a small number of signal handlers by default: `SIGPIPE` is ignored (so write errors on pipes and sockets can be reported as ordinary Python exceptions), `SIGINT` is translated into a `KeyboardInterrupt` exception, and `SIGTERM` is caught so that necessary cleanup (especially `sys.exitfunc`) can be performed before actually terminating. All of these can be overridden.
- Some care must be taken if both signals and threads are used in the same program. The fundamental thing to remember in using signals and threads simultaneously is: always perform `signal()` operations in the main thread of execution. Any thread can perform an `alarm()`, `getsignal()`, or `pause()`; only the main thread can set a new signal handler, and the main thread will be the only one to receive signals (this is enforced by the Python signal module, even if the underlying thread implementation supports sending signals to individual threads). This means that signals can't be used as a means of interthread communication. Use locks instead.

The variables defined in the signal module are:

`SIG_DFL`
This is one of two standard signal handling options; it will simply perform the default function for the signal. For example, on most systems the default action for SIGQUIT is to dump core and exit, while the default action for SIGCLD is to simply ignore it.

`SIG_IGN`
This is another standard signal handler, which will simply ignore the given signal.

`SIG*`
All the signal numbers are defined symbolically. For example, the hangup signal is defined as `signal.SIGHUP`; the variable names are identical to the names used in C programs, as found in '`signal.h`'. The UNIX man page for '`signal`' lists the existing signals (on some systems this is '`signal(2)`', on others the list is in '`signal(7)`'). Note that not all systems define the same set of signal names; only those names defined by the system are defined by this module.

`NSIG`
One more than the number of the highest signal number.

The signal module defines the following functions:

`alarm(`*time*`)`
If *time* is non-zero, this function requests that a `SIGALRM` signal be sent to the process in *time* seconds. Any previously scheduled alarm is canceled (i.e. only one alarm can be scheduled at any time). The returned value is then the number of seconds before any previously set alarm was to have been delivered. If *time* is zero, no alarm id scheduled, and any scheduled alarm is canceled. The return value is the number of seconds remaining before a previously scheduled alarm. If the return value is zero, no alarm is currently scheduled. (See the UNIX man page `alarm(2)`.)

`getsignal(`*signalnum*`)`
Return the current signal handler for the signal *signalnum*. The returned value may be a callable Python object, or one of the special values `signal.SIG_IGN`, `signal.SIG_DFL` or `None`. Here, `signal.SIG_IGN` means that the signal was previously ignored, `signal.SIG_DFL` means that the default way of handling the signal was previously in use, and `None` means that the previous signal handler was not installed from Python.

`pause()`
Cause the process to sleep until a signal is received; the appropriate handler will then be called. Returns nothing. (See the UNIX man page `signal(2)`.)

`signal(`*signalnum, handler*`)`
Set the handler for signal *signalnum* to the function *handler*. *handler* can be any callable Python object, or one of the special values `signal.SIG_IGN` or `signal.SIG_DFL`. The previous signal handler will be returned (see the description of `getsignal()` above). (See the UNIX man page `signal(2)`.)

When threads are enabled, this function can only be called from the main thread; attempting to call it from other threads will cause a ValueError exception to be raised.

The *handler* is called with two arguments: the signal number and the current stack frame (None or a frame object; see the reference manual for a description of frame objects).

7.2 Built-in Module socket

This module provides access to the BSD *socket* interface. It is available on UNIX systems that support this interface.

For an introduction to socket programming (in C), see the following papers: *An Introductory 4.3BSD Interprocess Communication Tutorial*, by Stuart Sechrest and *An Advanced 4.3BSD Interprocess Communication Tutorial*, by Samuel J. Leffler et al, both in the UNIX Programmer's Manual, Supplementary Documents 1 (sections PS1:7 and PS1:8). The UNIX manual pages for the various socket-related system calls are also a valuable source of information on the details of socket semantics.

The Python interface is a straightforward transliteration of the UNIX system call and library interface for sockets to Python's object-oriented style: the socket() function returns a *socket object* whose methods implement the various socket system calls. Parameter types are somewhat higher-level than in the C interface: as with read() and write() operations on Python files, buffer allocation on receive operations is automatic, and buffer length is implicit on send operations.

Socket addresses are represented as a single string for the AF_UNIX address family and as a pair (*host*, *port*) for the AF_INET address family, where *host* is a string representing either a hostname in Internet domain notation like 'daring.cwi.nl' or an IP address like '100.50.200.5', and *port* is an integral port number. Other address families are currently not supported. The address format required by a particular socket object is automatically selected based on the address family specified when the socket object was created.

For IP addresses, two special forms are accepted instead of a host address: the empty string represents INADDR_ANY, and the string "<broadcast>" represents INADDR_BROADCAST.

All errors raise exceptions. The normal exceptions for invalid argument types and out-of-memory conditions can be raised; errors related to socket or address semantics raise the error socket.error.

Non-blocking mode is supported through the setblocking() method.

The module socket exports the following constants and functions:

error
: This exception is raised for socket- or address-related errors. The accompanying value is either a string telling what went wrong or a pair (*errno*, *string*) representing an error returned by a system call, similar to the value accompanying posix.error.

AF_UNIX
AF_INET
: These constants represent the address (and protocol) families, used for the first argument to socket(). If the AF_UNIX constant is not defined then this protocol is unsupported.

SOCK_STREAM
SOCK_DGRAM
SOCK_RAW
SOCK_RDM
SOCK_SEQPACKET
: These constants represent the socket types, used for the second argument to socket(). (Only SOCK_STREAM and SOCK_DGRAM appear to be generally useful.)

SO_*
SOMAXCONN
MSG_*

`SOL_*`
`IPPROTO_*`
`IPPORT_*`
`INADDR_*`
`IP_*`

Many constants of these forms, documented in the UNIX documentation on sockets and/or the IP protocol, are also defined in the socket module. They are generally used in arguments to the `setsockopt` and `getsockopt` methods of socket objects. In most cases, only those symbols that are defined in the UNIX header files are defined; for a few symbols, default values are provided.

`gethostbyname`(*hostname*)

Translate a host name to IP address format. The IP address is returned as a string, e.g., `'100.50.200.5'`. If the host name is an IP address itself it is returned unchanged.

`gethostname()`

Return a string containing the hostname of the machine where the Python interpreter is currently executing. If you want to know the current machine's IP address, use `socket.gethostbyname(socket.gethostname())`. Note: `gethostname()` doesn't always return the fully qualified domain name; use `socket.gethostbyaddr(socket.gethostname())` (see below).

`gethostbyaddr`(*ip_address*)

Return a triple `(hostname, aliaslist, ipaddrlist)` where `hostname` is the primary host name responding to the given *ip_address*, `aliaslist` is a (possibly empty) list of alternative host names for the same address, and `ipaddrlist` is a list of IP addresses for the same interface on the same host (most likely containing only a single address). To find the fully qualified domain name, check *hostname* and the items of *aliaslist* for an entry containing at least one period.

`getprotobyname`(*protocolname*)

Translate an Internet protocol name (e.g. `'icmp'`) to a constant suitable for passing as the (optional) third argument to the `socket()` function. This is usually only needed for sockets opened in "raw" mode (`SOCK_RAW`); for the normal socket modes, the correct protocol is chosen automatically if the protocol is omitted or zero.

`getservbyname`(*servicename, protocolname*)

Translate an Internet service name and protocol name to a port number for that service. The protocol name should be `'tcp'` or `'udp'`.

`socket`(*family, type* [*, proto*])

Create a new socket using the given address family, socket type and protocol number. The address family should be `AF_INET` or `AF_UNIX`. The socket type should be `SOCK_STREAM`, `SOCK_DGRAM` or perhaps one of the other '`SOCK_`' constants. The protocol number is usually zero and may be omitted in that case.

`fromfd`(*fd, family, type* [*, proto*])

Build a socket object from an existing file descriptor (an integer as returned by a file object's `fileno` method). Address family, socket type and protocol number are as for the `socket` function above. The file descriptor should refer to a socket, but this is not checked — subsequent operations on the object may fail if the file descriptor is invalid. This function is rarely needed, but can be used to get or set socket options on a socket passed to a program as standard input or output (e.g. a server started by the UNIX inet daemon).

`ntohl`(*x*)

Convert 32-bit integers from network to host byte order. On machines where the host byte order is the same as network byte order, this is a no-op; otherwise, it performs a 4-byte swap operation.

`ntohs`(*x*)

Convert 16-bit integers from network to host byte order. On machines where the host byte order is the same as network byte order, this is a no-op; otherwise, it performs a 2-byte swap operation.

`htonl`(*x*)

Convert 32-bit integers from host to network byte order. On machines where the host byte order is the same as network byte order, this is a no-op; otherwise, it performs a 4-byte swap operation.

`htons(`*x*`)`
: Convert 16-bit integers from host to network byte order. On machines where the host byte order is the same as network byte order, this is a no-op; otherwise, it performs a 2-byte swap operation.

`SocketType`
: This is a Python type object that represents the socket object type. It is the same as `type(socket.socket(...))`.

7.2.1 Socket Objects

Socket objects have the following methods. Except for `makefile()` these correspond to UNIX system calls applicable to sockets.

`accept()`
: Accept a connection. The socket must be bound to an address and listening for connections. The return value is a pair `(`*conn*`, `*address*`)` where *conn* is a *new* socket object usable to send and receive data on the connection, and *address* is the address bound to the socket on the other end of the connection.

`bind(`*address*`)`
: Bind the socket to *address*. The socket must not already be bound. (The format of *address* depends on the address family — see above.)

`close()`
: Close the socket. All future operations on the socket object will fail. The remote end will receive no more data (after queued data is flushed). Sockets are automatically closed when they are garbage-collected.

`connect(`*address*`)`
: Connect to a remote socket at *address*. (The format of *address* depends on the address family — see above.)

`connect_ex(`*address*`)`
: Like `connect(`*address*`)`, but return an error indicator instead of raising an exception. The error indicator is 0 if the operation succeeded, otherwise the value of the `errno` variable. This is useful e.g. for asynchronous connects.

`fileno()`
: Return the socket's file descriptor (a small integer). This is useful with `select`.

`getpeername()`
: Return the remote address to which the socket is connected. This is useful to find out the port number of a remote IP socket, for instance. (The format of the address returned depends on the address family — see above.) On some systems this function is not supported.

`getsockname()`
: Return the socket's own address. This is useful to find out the port number of an IP socket, for instance. (The format of the address returned depends on the address family — see above.)

`getsockopt(`*level, optname* [, *buflen*]`)`
: Return the value of the given socket option (see the UNIX man page *getsockopt*(2)). The needed symbolic constants (`SO_*` etc.) are defined in this module. If *buflen* is absent, an integer option is assumed and its integer value is returned by the function. If *buflen* is present, it specifies the maximum length of the buffer used to receive the option in, and this buffer is returned as a string. It is up to the caller to decode the contents of the buffer (see the optional built-in module `struct` for a way to decode C structures encoded as strings).

`listen(`*backlog*`)`
: Listen for connections made to the socket. The *backlog* argument specifies the maximum number of queued connections and should be at least 1; the maximum value is system-dependent (usually 5).

`makefile(`[*mode* [, *bufsize*]]`)`
: Return a *file object* associated with the socket. (File objects were described earlier under Built-in Types.) The file object references a `dup()`ped version of the socket file descriptor, so the file object and socket object may be closed or garbage-collected independently. The optional *mode* and *bufsize* arguments are interpreted the same way as by the built-in `open()` function.

`recv(`*bufsize* [, *flags*]`)`
: Receive data from the socket. The return value is a string representing the data received. The maximum amount of data to be received at once is specified by *bufsize*. See the UNIX manual page for the meaning of the optional argument *flags*; it defaults to zero.

`recvfrom(`*bufsize* [, *flags*]`)`
: Receive data from the socket. The return value is a pair `(`*string*`, `*address*`)` where *string* is a string representing the data received and *address* is the address of the socket sending the data. The optional *flags* argument has the same meaning as for `recv()` above. (The format of *address* depends on the address family — see above.)

`send(`*string* [, *flags*]`)`
: Send data to the socket. The socket must be connected to a remote socket. The optional *flags* argument has the same meaning as for `recv()` above. Return the number of bytes sent.

`sendto(`*string* [, *flags*], *address*`)`
: Send data to the socket. The socket should not be connected to a remote socket, since the destination socket is specified by `address`. The optional *flags* argument has the same meaning as for `recv()` above. Return the number of bytes sent. (The format of *address* depends on the address family — see above.)

`setblocking(`*flag*`)`
: Set blocking or non-blocking mode of the socket: if *flag* is 0, the socket is set to non-blocking, else to blocking mode. Initially all sockets are in blocking mode. In non-blocking mode, if a `recv` call doesn't find any data, or if a `send` call can't immediately dispose of the data, a `socket.error` exception is raised; in blocking mode, the calls block until they can proceed.

`setsockopt(`*level, optname, value*`)`
: Set the value of the given socket option (see the UNIX man page *setsockopt*(2)). The needed symbolic constants are defined in the `socket` module (`SO_*` etc.). The value can be an integer or a string representing a buffer. In the latter case it is up to the caller to ensure that the string contains the proper bits (see the optional built-in module `struct` for a way to encode C structures as strings).

`shutdown(`*how*`)`
: Shut down one or both halves of the connection. If *how* is `0`, further receives are disallowed. If *how* is `1`, further sends are disallowed. If *how* is `2`, further sends and receives are disallowed.

Note that there are no methods `read()` or `write()`; use `recv()` and `send()` without *flags* argument instead.

7.2.2 Example

Here are two minimal example programs using the TCP/IP protocol: a server that echoes all data that it receives back (servicing only one client), and a client using it. Note that a server must perform the sequence `socket`, `bind`, `listen`, `accept` (possibly repeating the `accept` to service more than one client), while a client only needs the sequence `socket`, `connect`. Also note that the server does not `send`/`receive` on the socket it is listening on but on the new socket returned by `accept`.

```
# Echo server program
from socket import *
HOST = ''                 # Symbolic name meaning the local host
PORT = 50007              # Arbitrary non-privileged server
s = socket(AF_INET, SOCK_STREAM)
s.bind(HOST, PORT)
s.listen(1)
conn, addr = s.accept()
print 'Connected by', addr
while 1:
    data = conn.recv(1024)
    if not data: break
    conn.send(data)
conn.close()
```

```
# Echo client program
from socket import *
HOST = 'daring.cwi.nl'    # The remote host
PORT = 50007              # The same port as used by the server
s = socket(AF_INET, SOCK_STREAM)
s.connect(HOST, PORT)
s.send('Hello, world')
data = s.recv(1024)
s.close()
print 'Received', `data`
```

See Also: 11.21: `SocketServer` (classes that simplify writing network servers)

7.3 Built-in Module `select`

This module provides access to the function `select` available in most UNIX versions. It defines the following:

`error`
: The exception raised when an error occurs. The accompanying value is a pair containing the numeric error code from `errno` and the corresponding string, as would be printed by the C function `perror()`.

`select` (*iwtd, owtd, ewtd* [*, timeout*])
: This is a straightforward interface to the UNIX `select()` system call. The first three arguments are lists of 'waitable objects': either integers representing UNIX file descriptors or objects with a parameterless method named `fileno()` returning such an integer. The three lists of waitable objects are for input, output and 'exceptional conditions', respectively. Empty lists are allowed. The optional *timeout* argument specifies a time-out as a floating point number in seconds. When the *timeout* argument is omitted the function blocks until at least one file descriptor is ready. A time-out value of zero specifies a poll and never blocks.

The return value is a triple of lists of objects that are ready: subsets of the first three arguments. When the time-out is reached without a file descriptor becoming ready, three empty lists are returned.

Amongst the acceptable object types in the lists are Python file objects (e.g. `sys.stdin`, or objects returned by `open()` or `posix.popen()`), socket objects returned by `socket.socket()`, and the module `stdwin` which happens to define a function `fileno()` for just this purpose. You may also define a *wrapper* class yourself, as long as it has an appropriate `fileno()` method (that really returns a UNIX file descriptor, not just a random integer).

7.4 Built-in Module `thread`

This module provides low-level primitives for working with multiple threads (a.k.a. *light-weight processes* or *tasks*) — multiple threads of control sharing their global data space. For synchronization, simple locks (a.k.a. *mutexes* or *binary semaphores*) are provided.

The module is optional. It is supported on Windows NT and '95, SGI IRIX, Solaris 2.x, as well as on systems that have a POSIX thread (a.k.a. "pthread") implementation.

It defines the following constant and functions:

`error`
  Raised on thread-specific errors.

`start_new_thread` (*func, arg*)
  Start a new thread. The thread executes the function *func* with the argument list *arg* (which must be a tuple). When the function returns, the thread silently exits. When the function terminates with an unhandled exception, a stack trace is printed and then the thread exits (but other threads continue to run).

`exit()`
  This is a shorthand for `thread.exit_thread()`.

`exit_thread()`
  Raise the `SystemExit` exception. When not caught, this will cause the thread to exit silently.

`allocate_lock()`
  Return a new lock object. Methods of locks are described below. The lock is initially unlocked.

`get_ident()`
  Return the 'thread identifier' of the current thread. This is a nonzero integer. Its value has no direct meaning; it is intended as a magic cookie to be used e.g. to index a dictionary of thread-specific data. Thread identifiers may be recycled when a thread exits and another thread is created.

Lock objects have the following methods:

`acquire(` [*waitflag*] `)`
  Without the optional argument, this method acquires the lock unconditionally, if necessary waiting until it is released by another thread (only one thread at a time can acquire a lock — that's their reason for existence), and returns `None`. If the integer *waitflag* argument is present, the action depends on its value: if it is zero, the lock is only acquired if it can be acquired immediately without waiting, while if it is nonzero, the lock is acquired unconditionally as before. If an argument is present, the return value is 1 if the lock is acquired successfully, 0 if not.

`release()`
  Releases the lock. The lock must have been acquired earlier, but not necessarily by the same thread.

`locked()`
  Return the status of the lock: 1 if it has been acquired by some thread, 0 if not.

Caveats:

- Threads interact strangely with interrupts: the `KeyboardInterrupt` exception will be received by an arbitrary thread. (When the `signal` module is available, interrupts always go to the main thread.)
- Calling `sys.exit()` or raising the `SystemExit` exception is equivalent to calling `thread.exit_thread()`.
- Not all built-in functions that may block waiting for I/O allow other threads to run. (The most popular ones (`sleep`, `read`, `select`) work as expected.)
- It is not possible to interrupt the `acquire()` method on a lock – the `KeyboardInterrupt` exception will happen after the lock has been acquired.

- When the main thread exits, it is system defined whether the other threads survive. On SGI IRIX using the native thread implementation, they survive. On most other systems, they are killed without executing "try-finally" clauses or executing object destructors.
- When the main thread exits, it doesn't do any of its usual cleanup (except that "try-finally" clauses are honored), and the standard I/O files are not flushed.

7.5 Standard module `Queue`

The `Queue` module implements a multi-producer, multi-consumer FIFO queue. It is especially useful in threads programming when information must be exchanged safely between multiple threads. The `Queue` class in this module implements all the required locking semantics. It depends on the availability of thread support in Python.

The `Queue` module defines the following exception:

`Empty`
: Exception raised when non-blocking get (e.g. `get_nowait()`) is called on a Queue object which is empty, or for which the emptyiness cannot be determined (i.e. because the appropriate locks cannot be acquired).

7.5.1 Queue Objects

Class `Queue` implements queue objects and has the methods described below. This class can be derived from in order to implement other queue organizations (e.g. stack) but the inheritable interface is not described here. See the source code for details. The public interface methods are:

`__init__(`*maxsize*`)`
: Constructor for the class. *maxsize* is an integer that sets the upperbound limit on the number of items that can be placed in the queue. Insertion will block once this size has been reached, until queue items are consumed. If *maxsize* is less than or equal to zero, the queue size is infinite.

`qsize()`
: Returns the approximate size of the queue. Because of multithreading semantics, this number is not reliable.

`empty()`
: Returns 1 if the queue is empty, 0 otherwise. Because of multithreading semantics, this is not reliable.

`full()`
: Returns 1 if the queue is full, 0 otherwise. Because of multithreading semantics, this is not reliable.

`put(`*item*`)`
: Puts *item* into the queue.

`get()`
: Gets and returns an item from the queue, blocking if necessary until one is available.

`get_nowait()`
: Gets and returns an item from the queue if one is immediately available. Raises an `Empty` exception if the queue is empty or if the queue's emptiness cannot be determined.

7.6 Standard Modules `anydbm` and `dumbdbm`

`anydbm` is a generic interface to variants of the DBM database–DBM, GDBM, or dbhash. If none of these modules is installed, the slow-but-simple implementation in module `dumbdbm` will be used. Both modules provide the same interface:

`open` (*filename* [, *flag, mode*])
: Open the database file *filename* and return a corresponding object. The optional *flag* argument can be `'r'` to open an existing database for reading only, `'w'` to open an existing database for reading and writing, `'c'` to create the database if it doesn't exist, or `'n'`, which will always create a new empty database. If not specified, the default value is `'r'`.

  The optional *mode* argument is the UNIX mode of the file, used only when the database has to be created. It defaults to octal `0666` (and will be modified by the prevailing umask).

The object returned by `open()` supports most of the same functionality as dictionaries; keys and their corresponding values can be stored, retrieved, and deleted, and the `has_key()` and `keys()` methods are available. Keys and values must always be strings.

Both modules also export the exception `error`, which is raised for various problems. The `anydbm.error` exception is simply a different name for the `error` exception of the underlying implementation module used.

7.7 Standard Module `whichdb`

The single function in this module attempts to guess which of the several simple database modules available–dbm, gdbm, or dbhash–should be used to open a given file.

`whichdb` (*filename*)
: Returns one of the following values: `None` if the file can't be opened because it's unreadable or doesn't exist; the empty string (`""`) if the file's format can't be guessed; or a string containing the required module name, such as `"dbm"` or `"gdbm"`.

7.8 Built-in Module `zlib`

For applications that require data compression, the functions in this module allow compression and decompression, using the zlib library, which is based on GNU zip. The zlib library has its own home page at `http://www.cdrom.com/pub/infozip/zlib/`. Version 1.0.4 is the most recent version as of April 30, 1997; use a later version if one is available.

The available functions in this module are:

`adler32` (*string* [, *value*])
: Computes a Adler-32 checksum of *string*. (An Adler-32 checksum is almost as reliable as a CRC32 but can be computed much more quickly.) If *value* is present, it is used as the starting value of the checksum; otherwise, a fixed default value is used. This allows computing a running checksum over the concatenation of several input strings. The algorithm is not cryptographically strong, and should not be used for authentication or digital signatures.

`compress` (*string* [, *level*])
: Compresses the data in *string*, returning a string contained compressed data. *level* is an integer from 1 to 9 controlling the level of compression; 1 is fastest and produces the least compression, 9 is slowest and produces the most. The default value is 6. Raises the `zlib.error` exception if any error occurs.

`compressobj` ([*level*])
: Returns a compression object, to be used for compressing data streams that won't fit into memory at once. *level* is an integer from 1 to 9 controlling the level of compression; 1 is fastest and produces the least compression, 9 is slowest and produces the most. The default value is 6.

`crc32` (*string* [, *value*])
: Computes a CRC (Cyclic Redundancy Check) sum of *string*. If *value* is present, it is used as the starting value of the checksum; otherwise, a fixed default value is used. This allows computing a running checksum over the

concatenation of several input strings. The algorithm is not cryptographically strong, and should not be used for authentication or digital signatures.

`decompress` (*string*)
: Decompresses the data in *string*, returning a string containing the uncompressed data. Raises the `zlib.error` exception if any error occurs.

`decompressobj(` [*wbits*] `)`
: Returns a compression object, to be used for decompressing data streams that won't fit into memory at once. The *wbits* parameter controls the size of the window buffer; usually this can be left alone.

Compression objects support the following methods:

`compress` (*string*)
: Compress *string*, returning a string containing compressed data for at least part of the data in *string*. This data should be concatenated to the output produced by any preceding calls to the `compress()` method. Some input may be kept in internal buffers for later processing.

`flush()`
: All pending input is processed, and an string containing the remaining compressed output is returned. After calling `flush()`, the `compress()` method cannot be called again; the only realistic action is to delete the object.

Decompression objects support the following methods:

`decompress` (*string*)
: Decompress *string*, returning a string containing the uncompressed data corresponding to at least part of the data in *string*. This data should be concatenated to the output produced by any preceding calls to the `decompress()` method. Some of the input data may be preserved in internal buffers for later processing.

`flush()`
: All pending input is processed, and a string containing the remaining uncompressed output is returned. After calling `flush()`, the `decompress()` method cannot be called again; the only realistic action is to delete the object.

See Also: 7.9: `gzip` (reading and writing '`gzip`'-format files)

7.9 Built-in Module `gzip`

The data compression provided by the `zlib` module is compatible with that used by the GNU compression program '`gzip`'. Accordingly, the `gzip` module provides the `GzipFile` class to read and write '`gzip`'-format files, automatically compressing or decompressing the data so it looks like an ordinary file object.

`GzipFile` objects simulate most of the methods of a file object, though it's not possible to use the `seek()` and `tell()` methods to access the file randomly.

`open` (*fileobj* [*, filename* [*, mode, compresslevel*]])
: Returns a new `GzipFile` object on top of *fileobj*, which can be a regular file, a `StringIO` object, or any object which simulates a file.

: The '`gzip`' file format includes the original filename of the uncompressed file; when opening a `GzipFile` object for writing, it can be set by the *filename* argument. The default value is `"GzippedFile"`.

: *mode* can be either `'r'` or `'w'` depending on whether the file will be read or written. *compresslevel* is an integer from 1 to 9 controlling the level of compression; 1 is fastest and produces the least compression, and 9 is slowest and produces the most compression. The default value of *compresslevel* is 9.

: Calling a `GzipFile` object's `close()` method does not close *fileobj*, since you might wish to append more material after the compressed data. This also allows you to pass a `StringIO` object opened for writing as *fileobj*, and retrieve the resulting memory buffer using the `StringIO` object's `getvalue()` method.

See Also: 7.8: `zlib` (the basic data compression module)

Chapter 8

Unix Specific Services

The modules described in this chapter provide interfaces to features that are unique to the UNIX operating system, or in some cases to some or many variants of it. Here's an overview:

posix — The most common Posix system calls (normally used via module `os`).
posixpath — Common Posix pathname manipulations (normally used via `os.path`).
pwd — The password database (`getpwnam()` and friends).
grp — The group database (`getgrnam()` and friends).
crypt — The `crypt()` function used to check UNIX passwords.
dbm — The standard "database" interface, based on `ndbm`.
gdbm — GNU's reinterpretation of dbm.
termios — Posix style tty control.
TERMIOS — The symbolic constants required to use the `termios` module.
fcntl — The `fcntl()` and `ioctl()` system calls.
posixfile — A file-like object with support for locking.
resource — An interface to provide resource usage information on the current process.
syslog — An interface to the UNIX `syslog` library routines.

8.1 Built-in Module `posix`

This module provides access to operating system functionality that is standardized by the C Standard and the POSIX standard (a thinly disguised UNIX interface).

Do not import this module directly. Instead, import the module `os`, which provides a *portable* version of this interface. On UNIX, the `os` module provides a superset of the `posix` interface. On non-UNIX operating systems the `posix` module is not available, but a subset is always available through the `os` interface. Once `os` is imported, there is *no* performance penalty in using it instead of `posix`. In addition, `os` provides some additional functionality, such as automatically calling `putenv()` when an entry is `os.environ` is changed.

The descriptions below are very terse; refer to the corresponding UNIX manual (or POSIX documentation) entry for more information. Arguments called *path* refer to a pathname given as a string.

Errors are reported as exceptions; the usual exceptions are given for type errors, while errors reported by the system calls raise `posix.error`, described below.

Module `posix` defines the following data items:

`environ`
: A dictionary representing the string environment at the time the interpreter was started. For example, `posix.environ['HOME']` is the pathname of your home directory, equivalent to `getenv("HOME")` in C.

Modifying this dictionary does not affect the string environment passed on by `execv()`, `popen()` or `system()`; if you need to change the environment, pass `environ` to `execve()` or add variable assignments and export statements to the command string for `system()` or `popen()`.

However: If you are using this module via the `os` module (as you should – see the introduction above), `environ` is a a mapping object that behaves almost like a dictionary but invokes `putenv()` automatically called whenever an item is changed.

`error`
: This exception is raised when a POSIX function returns a POSIX-related error (e.g., not for illegal argument types). Its string value is `'posix.error'`. The accompanying value is a pair containing the numeric error code from `errno` and the corresponding string, as would be printed by the C function `perror()`.

It defines the following functions and constants:

`chdir(`*path*`)`
: Change the current working directory to *path*.

`chmod(`*path, mode*`)`
: Change the mode of *path* to the numeric *mode*.

`chown(`*path, uid, gid*`)`
: Change the owner and group id of *path* to the numeric *uid* and *gid*. (Not on MS-DOS.)

`close(`*fd*`)`
: Close file descriptor *fd*.

Note: this function is intended for low-level I/O and must be applied to a file descriptor as returned by `posix.open()` or `posix.pipe()`. To close a "file object" returned by the built-in function `open` or by `posix.popen` or `posix.fdopen`, use its `close()` method.

`dup(`*fd*`)`
: Return a duplicate of file descriptor *fd*.

`dup2(`*fd, fd2*`)`
: Duplicate file descriptor *fd* to *fd2*, closing the latter first if necessary. Return `None`.

`execv(`*path, args*`)`
: Execute the executable *path* with argument list *args*, replacing the current process (i.e., the Python interpreter). The argument list may be a tuple or list of strings. (Not on MS-DOS.)

`execve(`*path, args, env*`)`
: Execute the executable *path* with argument list *args*, and environment *env*, replacing the current process (i.e., the Python interpreter). The argument list may be a tuple or list of strings. The environment must be a dictionary mapping strings to strings. (Not on MS-DOS.)

`_exit(`*n*`)`
: Exit to the system with status *n*, without calling cleanup handlers, flushing stdio buffers, etc. (Not on MS-DOS.)

Note: the standard way to exit is `sys.exit(`*n*`)`. `posix._exit()` should normally only be used in the child process after a `fork()`.

`fdopen(`*fd* [*, mode* [*, bufsize*]]`)`
: Return an open file object connected to the file descriptor *fd*. The *mode* and *bufsize* arguments have the same meaning as the corresponding arguments to the built-in `open()` function.

`fork()`
: Fork a child process. Return 0 in the child, the child's process id in the parent. (Not on MS-DOS.)

`fstat`(*fd*)
: Return status for file descriptor *fd*, like `stat()`.

`ftruncate`(*fd, length*)
: Truncate the file corresponding to file descriptor *fd*, so that it is at most *length* bytes in size.

`getcwd()`
: Return a string representing the current working directory.

`getegid()`
: Return the current process's effective group id. (Not on MS-DOS.)

`geteuid()`
: Return the current process's effective user id. (Not on MS-DOS.)

`getgid()`
: Return the current process's group id. (Not on MS-DOS.)

`getpgrp()`
: Return the current process group id. (Not on MS-DOS.)

`getpid()`
: Return the current process id. (Not on MS-DOS.)

`getppid()`
: Return the parent's process id. (Not on MS-DOS.)

`getuid()`
: Return the current process's user id. (Not on MS-DOS.)

`kill`(*pid, sig*)
: Kill the process *pid* with signal *sig*. (Not on MS-DOS.)

`link`(*src, dst*)
: Create a hard link pointing to *src* named *dst*. (Not on MS-DOS.)

`listdir`(*path*)
: Return a list containing the names of the entries in the directory. The list is in arbitrary order. It does not include the special entries `'.'` and `'..'` even if they are present in the directory.

`lseek`(*fd, pos, how*)
: Set the current position of file descriptor *fd* to position *pos*, modified by *how*: 0 to set the position relative to the beginning of the file; 1 to set it relative to the current position; 2 to set it relative to the end of the file.

`lstat`(*path*)
: Like `stat()`, but do not follow symbolic links. (On systems without symbolic links, this is identical to `posix.stat()`.)

`mkfifo`(*path* [, *mode*])
: Create a FIFO (a POSIX named pipe) named *path* with numeric mode *mode*. The default *mode* is 0666 (octal). The current umask value is first masked out from the mode. (Not on MS-DOS.)

  FIFOs are pipes that can be accessed like regular files. FIFOs exist until they are deleted (for example with `os.unlink`). Generally, FIFOs are used as rendez-vous between "client" and "server" type processes: the server opens the FIFO for reading, and the client opens it for writing. Note that `mkfifo()` doesn't open the FIFO – it just creates the rendez-vous point.

`mkdir`(*path* [, *mode*])
: Create a directory named *path* with numeric mode *mode*. The default *mode* is 0777 (octal). On some systems, *mode* is ignored. Where it is used, the current umask value is first masked out.

`nice`(*increment*)
: Add *incr* to the process' "niceness". Return the new niceness. (Not on MS-DOS.)

`open` (*file, flags* [, *mode*])
: Open the file *file* and set various flags according to *flags* and possibly its mode according to *mode*. The default *mode* is 0777 (octal), and the current umask value is first masked out. Return the file descriptor for the newly opened file.

  For a description of the flag and mode values, see the UNIX or C run-time documentation; flag constants (like `O_RDONLY` and `O_WRONLY`) are defined in this module too (see below).

  Note: this function is intended for low-level I/O. For normal usage, use the built-in function `open`, which returns a "file object" with `read()` and `write()` methods (and many more).

`pipe()`
: Create a pipe. Return a pair of file descriptors `(r, w)` usable for reading and writing, respectively. (Not on MS-DOS.)

`plock` (*op*)
: Lock program segments into memory. The value of *op* (defined in `<sys/lock.h>`) determines which segments are locked. (Not on MS-DOS.)

`popen` (*command* [, *mode* [, *bufsize*]])
: Open a pipe to or from *command*. The return value is an open file object connected to the pipe, which can be read or written depending on whether *mode* is `'r'` (default) or `'w'`. The *bufsize* argument has the same meaning as the corresponding argument to the built-in `open()` function. The exit status of the command (encoded in the format specified for `wait()`) is available as the return value of the `close()` method of the file object. (Not on MS-DOS.)

`putenv` (*varname, value*)
: Set the environment variable named *varname* to the string *value*. Such changes to the environment affect subprocesses started with `os.system()`, `os.popen()` or `os.fork()` and `os.execv()`. (Not on all systems.)

  When `putenv()` is supported, assignments to items in `os.environ` are automatically translated into corresponding calls to `os.putenv()`; however, calls to `os.putenv()` don't update `os.environ`, so it is actually preferable to assign to items of `os.environ`.

`strerror` (*code*)
: Return the error message corresponding to the error code in *code*.

`read` (*fd, n*)
: Read at most *n* bytes from file descriptor *fd*. Return a string containing the bytes read.

  Note: this function is intended for low-level I/O and must be applied to a file descriptor as returned by `posix.open()` or `posix.pipe()`. To read a "file object" returned by the built-in function `open` or by `posix.popen` or `posix.fdopen`, or `sys.stdin`, use its `read()` or `readline()` methods.

`readlink` (*path*)
: Return a string representing the path to which the symbolic link points. (On systems without symbolic links, this always raises `posix.error`.)

`remove` (*path*)
: Remove the file *path*. See `rmdir` below to remove a directory. This is identical to the `unlink` function documented below.

`rename` (*src, dst*)
: Rename the file or directory *src* to *dst*.

`rmdir` (*path*)
: Remove the directory *path*.

`setgid` (*gid*)
: Set the current process's group id. (Not on MS-DOS.)

`setpgrp()`
: Calls the system call `setpgrp()` or `setpgrp(0, 0)` depending on which version is implemented (if any).

See the UNIX manual for the semantics. (Not on MS-DOS.)

`setpgid(`*pid, pgrp*`)`
Calls the system call `setpgid()`. See the UNIX manual for the semantics. (Not on MS-DOS.)

`setsid()`
Calls the system call `setsid()`. See the UNIX manual for the semantics. (Not on MS-DOS.)

`setuid(`*uid*`)`
Set the current process's user id. (Not on MS-DOS.)

`stat(`*path*`)`
Perform a *stat* system call on the given path. The return value is a tuple of at least 10 integers giving the most important (and portable) members of the *stat* structure, in the order `st_mode`, `st_ino`, `st_dev`, `st_nlink`, `st_uid`, `st_gid`, `st_size`, `st_atime`, `st_mtime`, `st_ctime`. More items may be added at the end by some implementations. (On MS-DOS, some items are filled with dummy values.)

Note: The standard module `stat` defines functions and constants that are useful for extracting information from a stat structure.

`symlink(`*src, dst*`)`
Create a symbolic link pointing to *src* named *dst*. (On systems without symbolic links, this always raises `posix.error`.)

`system(`*command*`)`
Execute the command (a string) in a subshell. This is implemented by calling the Standard C function `system()`, and has the same limitations. Changes to `posix.environ`, `sys.stdin` etc. are not reflected in the environment of the executed command. The return value is the exit status of the process encoded in the format specified for `wait()`.

`tcgetpgrp(`*fd*`)`
Return the process group associated with the terminal given by *fd* (an open file descriptor as returned by `posix.open()`). (Not on MS-DOS.)

`tcsetpgrp(`*fd, pg*`)`
Set the process group associated with the terminal given by *fd* (an open file descriptor as returned by `posix.open()`) to *pg*. (Not on MS-DOS.)

`times()`
Return a 5-tuple of floating point numbers indicating accumulated (CPU or other) times, in seconds. The items are: user time, system time, children's user time, children's system time, and elapsed real time since a fixed point in the past, in that order. See the UNIX manual page *times*(2). (Not on MS-DOS.)

`umask(`*mask*`)`
Set the current numeric umask and returns the previous umask. (Not on MS-DOS.)

`uname()`
Return a 5-tuple containing information identifying the current operating system. The tuple contains 5 strings: `(`*sysname*`,` *nodename*`,` *release*`,` *version*`,` *machine*`)`. Some systems truncate the nodename to 8 characters or to the leading component; a better way to get the hostname is `socket.gethostname()`. (Not on MS-DOS, nor on older UNIX systems.)

`unlink(`*path*`)`
Remove the file *path*. This is the same function as `remove`; the `unlink` name is its traditional UNIX name.

`utime(`*path,* `(`*atime, mtime*`))`
Set the access and modified time of the file to the given values. (The second argument is a tuple of two items.)

`wait()`
Wait for completion of a child process, and return a tuple containing its pid and exit status indication: a 16-bit number, whose low byte is the signal number that killed the process, and whose high byte is the exit status (if the signal number is zero); the high bit of the low byte is set if a core file was produced. (Not on MS-DOS.)

`waitpid`(*pid, options*)
Wait for completion of a child process given by proces id, and return a tuple containing its pid and exit status indication (encoded as for `wait()`). The semantics of the call are affected by the value of the integer options, which should be 0 for normal operation. (If the system does not support `waitpid()`, this always raises `posix.error`. Not on MS-DOS.)

`write`(*fd, str*)
Write the string *str* to file descriptor *fd*. Return the number of bytes actually written.

Note: this function is intended for low-level I/O and must be applied to a file descriptor as returned by `posix.open()` or `posix.pipe()`. To write a "file object" returned by the built-in function `open` or by `posix.popen` or `posix.fdopen`, or `sys.stdout` or `sys.stderr`, use its `write()` method.

`WNOHANG`
The option for `waitpid()` to avoid hanging if no child process status is available immediately.

`O_RDONLY`

`O_WRONLY`

`O_RDWR`

`O_NDELAY`

`O_NONBLOCK`

`O_APPEND`

`O_DSYNC`

`O_RSYNC`

`O_SYNC`

`O_NOCTTY`

`O_CREAT`

`O_EXCL`

`O_TRUNC`
Options for the `flag` argument to the `open()` function. These can be bit-wise OR'd together.

8.2 Standard Module `posixpath`

This module implements some useful functions on POSIX pathnames.

Do not import this module directly. Instead, import the module `os` and use `os.path`.

`basename`(*p*)
Return the base name of pathname *p*. This is the second half of the pair returned by `posixpath.split`(*p*).

`commonprefix`(*list*)
Return the longest string that is a prefix of all strings in *list*. If *list* is empty, return the empty string (`''`).

`exists`(*p*)
Return true if *p* refers to an existing path.

`expanduser`(*p*)
Return the argument with an initial component of '~' or '~*user*' replaced by that *user*'s home directory. An initial '~' is replaced by the environment variable `$HOME`; an initial '~*user*' is looked up in the password directory through the built-in module `pwd`. If the expansion fails, or if the path does not begin with a tilde, the path is returned unchanged.

`expandvars(`*p*`)`
: Return the argument with environment variables expanded. Substrings of the form '`$`*name*' or '`${`*name*`}`' are replaced by the value of environment variable *name*. Malformed variable names and references to non-existing variables are left unchanged.

`isabs(`*p*`)`
: Return true if *p* is an absolute pathname (begins with a slash).

`isfile(`*p*`)`
: Return true if *p* is an existing regular file. This follows symbolic links, so both `islink()` and `isfile()` can be true for the same path.

`isdir(`*p*`)`
: Return true if *p* is an existing directory. This follows symbolic links, so both `islink()` and `isdir()` can be true for the same path.

`islink(`*p*`)`
: Return true if *p* refers to a directory entry that is a symbolic link. Always false if symbolic links are not supported.

`ismount(`*p*`)`
: Return true if pathname *p* is a *mount point*: a point in a file system where a different file system has been mounted. The function checks whether *p*'s parent, '*p*`/..`', is on a different device than *p*, or whether '*p*`/..`' and *p* point to the same i-node on the same device — this should detect mount points for all UNIX and POSIX variants.

`join(`*p* [, *q* [, ...]]`)`
: Joins one or more path components intelligently. If any component is an absolute path, all previous components are thrown away, and joining continues. The return value is the concatenation of *p*, and optionally *q*, etc., with exactly one slash (`'/'`) inserted between components, unless *p* is empty.

`normcase(`*p*`)`
: Normalize the case of a pathname. This returns the path unchanged; however, a similar function in `macpath` converts upper case to lower case.

`samefile(`*p, q*`)`
: Return true if both pathname arguments refer to the same file or directory (as indicated by device number and i-node number). Raise an exception if a `stat()` call on either pathname fails.

`split(`*p*`)`
: Split the pathname *p* in a pair `(`*head*`, `*tail*`)`, where *tail* is the last pathname component and *head* is everything leading up to that. The *tail* part will never contain a slash; if *p* ends in a slash, *tail* will be empty. If there is no slash in *p*, *head* will be empty. If *p* is empty, both *head* and *tail* are empty. Trailing slashes are stripped from *head* unless it is the root (one or more slashes only). In nearly all cases, `join(`*head*`, `*tail*`)` equals *p* (the only exception being when there were multiple slashes separating *head* from *tail*).

`splitext(`*p*`)`
: Split the pathname *p* in a pair `(`*root*`, `*ext*`)` such that *root* `+` *ext* `==` *p*, and *ext* is empty or begins with a period and contains at most one period.

`walk(`*p, visit, arg*`)`
: Calls the function *visit* with arguments `(`*arg*`, `*dirname*`, `*names*`)` for each directory in the directory tree rooted at *p* (including *p* itself, if it is a directory). The argument *dirname* specifies the visited directory, the argument *names* lists the files in the directory (gotten from `posix.listdir(`*dirname*`)`). The *visit* function may modify *names* to influence the set of directories visited below *dirname*, e.g., to avoid visiting certain parts of the tree. (The object referred to by *names* must be modified in place, using `del` or slice assignment.)

8.3 Built-in Module `pwd`

This module provides access to the UNIX password database. It is available on all UNIX versions.

Password database entries are reported as 7-tuples containing the following items from the password database (see '<pwd.h>'), in order: `pw_name`, `pw_passwd`, `pw_uid`, `pw_gid`, `pw_gecos`, `pw_dir`, `pw_shell`. The uid and gid items are integers, all others are strings. An exception is raised if the entry asked for cannot be found.

It defines the following items:

`getpwuid(`*uid*`)`
: Return the password database entry for the given numeric user ID.

`getpwnam(`*name*`)`
: Return the password database entry for the given user name.

`getpwall()`
: Return a list of all available password database entries, in arbitrary order.

8.4 Built-in Module `grp`

This module provides access to the UNIX group database. It is available on all UNIX versions.

Group database entries are reported as 4-tuples containing the following items from the group database (see '<grp.h>'), in order: `gr_name`, `gr_passwd`, `gr_gid`, `gr_mem`. The gid is an integer, name and password are strings, and the member list is a list of strings. (Note that most users are not explicitly listed as members of the group they are in according to the password database.) An exception is raised if the entry asked for cannot be found.

It defines the following items:

`getgrgid(`*gid*`)`
: Return the group database entry for the given numeric group ID.

`getgrnam(`*name*`)`
: Return the group database entry for the given group name.

`getgrall()`
: Return a list of all available group entries, in arbitrary order.

8.5 Built-in Module `crypt`

This module implements an interface to the crypt(**3**) routine, which is a one-way hash function based upon a modified DES algorithm; see the Unix man page for further details. Possible uses include allowing Python scripts to accept typed passwords from the user, or attempting to crack Unix passwords with a dictionary.

`crypt(`*word, salt*`)`
: *word* will usually be a user's password. *salt* is a 2-character string which will be used to select one of 4096 variations of DES. The characters in *salt* must be either `.`, `/`, or an alphanumeric character. Returns the hashed password as a string, which will be composed of characters from the same alphabet as the salt.

The module and documentation were written by Steve Majewski.

8.6 Built-in Module `dbm`

The `dbm` module provides an interface to the UNIX `(n)dbm` library. Dbm objects behave like mappings (dictionaries), except that keys and values are always strings. Printing a dbm object doesn't print the keys and values, and the `items()` and `values()` methods are not supported.

See also the `gdbm` module, which provides a similar interface using the GNU GDBM library.

The module defines the following constant and functions:

`error`
: Raised on dbm-specific errors, such as I/O errors. `KeyError` is raised for general mapping errors like specifying an incorrect key.

`open` (*filename,* [*flag,* [*mode*]])
: Open a dbm database and return a dbm object. The *filename* argument is the name of the database file (without the '`.dir`' or '`.pag`' extensions).

  The optional *flag* argument can be `'r'` (to open an existing database for reading only — default), `'w'` (to open an existing database for reading and writing), `'c'` (which creates the database if it doesn't exist), or `'n'` (which always creates a new empty database).

  The optional *mode* argument is the UNIX mode of the file, used only when the database has to be created. It defaults to octal `0666`.

8.7 Built-in Module `gdbm`

This module is quite similar to the `dbm` module, but uses `gdbm` instead to provide some additional functionality. Please note that the file formats created by `gdbm` and `dbm` are incompatible.

The `gdbm` module provides an interface to the GNU DBM library. `gdbm` objects behave like mappings (dictionaries), except that keys and values are always strings. Printing a `gdbm` object doesn't print the keys and values, and the `items()` and `values()` methods are not supported.

The module defines the following constant and functions:

`error`
: Raised on `gdbm`-specific errors, such as I/O errors. `KeyError` is raised for general mapping errors like specifying an incorrect key.

`open` (*filename,* [*flag,* [*mode*]])
: Open a `gdbm` database and return a `gdbm` object. The *filename* argument is the name of the database file.

  The optional *flag* argument can be `'r'` (to open an existing database for reading only — default), `'w'` (to open an existing database for reading and writing), `'c'` (which creates the database if it doesn't exist), or `'n'` (which always creates a new empty database).

  Appending `f` to the flag opens the database in fast mode; altered data will not automatically be written to the disk after every change. This results in faster writes to the database, but may result in an inconsistent database if the program crashes while the database is still open. Use the `sync()` method to force any unwritten data to be written to the disk.

  The optional *mode* argument is the UNIX mode of the file, used only when the database has to be created. It defaults to octal `0666`.

In addition to the dictionary-like methods, `gdbm` objects have the following methods:

`firstkey()`
: It's possible to loop over every key in the database using this method and the `nextkey()` method. The traversal is ordered by `gdbm`'s internal hash values, and won't be sorted by the key values. This method returns the starting key.

`nextkey` (*key*)
: Returns the key that follows *key* in the traversal. The following code prints every key in the database `db`, without having to create a list in memory that contains them all:

```
k=db.firstkey()
while k!=None:
    print k
    k=db.nextkey(k)
```

`reorganize()`
: If you have carried out a lot of deletions and would like to shrink the space used by the `gdbm` file, this routine will reorganize the database. `gdbm` will not shorten the length of a database file except by using this reorganization; otherwise, deleted file space will be kept and reused as new (key,value) pairs are added.

`sync()`
: When the database has been opened in fast mode, this method forces any unwritten data to be written to the disk.

8.8 Built-in Module `termios`

This module provides an interface to the Posix calls for tty I/O control. For a complete description of these calls, see the Posix or UNIX manual pages. It is only available for those UNIX versions that support Posix `termios` style tty I/O control (and then only if configured at installation time).

All functions in this module take a file descriptor *fd* as their first argument. This must be an integer file descriptor, such as returned by `sys.stdin.fileno()`.

This module should be used in conjunction with the `TERMIOS` module, which defines the relevant symbolic constants (see the next section).

The module defines the following functions:

`tcgetattr` (*fd*)
: Return a list containing the tty attributes for file descriptor *fd*, as follows: `[`*iflag*`,` *oflag*`,` *cflag*`,` *lflag*`,` *ispeed*`,` *ospeed*`,` *cc*`]` where *cc* is a list of the tty special characters (each a string of length 1, except the items with indices `VMIN` and `VTIME`, which are integers when these fields are defined). The interpretation of the flags and the speeds as well as the indexing in the *cc* array must be done using the symbolic constants defined in the `TERMIOS` module.

`tcsetattr` (*fd, when, attributes*)
: Set the tty attributes for file descriptor *fd* from the *attributes*, which is a list like the one returned by `tcgetattr()`. The *when* argument determines when the attributes are changed: `TERMIOS.TCSANOW` to change immediately, `TERMIOS.TCSADRAIN` to change after transmitting all queued output, or `TERMIOS.TCSAFLUSH` to change after transmitting all queued output and discarding all queued input.

`tcsendbreak` (*fd, duration*)
: Send a break on file descriptor *fd*. A zero *duration* sends a break for 0.25–0.5 seconds; a nonzero *duration* has a system dependent meaning.

`tcdrain` (*fd*)
: Wait until all output written to file descriptor *fd* has been transmitted.

`tcflush` (*fd, queue*)
: Discard queued data on file descriptor *fd*. The *queue* selector specifies which queue: `TERMIOS.TCIFLUSH` for the input queue, `TERMIOS.TCOFLUSH` for the output queue, or `TERMIOS.TCIOFLUSH` for both queues.

`tcflow` (*fd, action*)
: Suspend or resume input or output on file descriptor *fd*. The *action* argument can be `TERMIOS.TCOOFF` to suspend output, `TERMIOS.TCOON` to restart output, `TERMIOS.TCIOFF` to suspend input, or `TERMIOS.TCION` to restart input.

8.8.1 Example

Here's a function that prompts for a password with echoing turned off. Note the technique using a separate `termios.tcgetattr()` call and a `try ... finally` statement to ensure that the old tty attributes are restored exactly no matter what happens:

```
def getpass(prompt = "Password: "):
    import termios, TERMIOS, sys
    fd = sys.stdin.fileno()
    old = termios.tcgetattr(fd)
    new = termios.tcgetattr(fd)
    new[3] = new[3] & ~TERMIOS.ECHO          # lflags
    try:
        termios.tcsetattr(fd, TERMIOS.TCSADRAIN, new)
        passwd = raw_input(prompt)
    finally:
        termios.tcsetattr(fd, TERMIOS.TCSADRAIN, old)
    return passwd
```

8.9 Standard Module `TERMIOS`

This module defines the symbolic constants required to use the `termios` module (see the previous section). See the Posix or UNIX manual pages (or the source) for a list of those constants.

Note: this module resides in a system-dependent subdirectory of the Python library directory. You may have to generate it for your particular system using the script '`Tools/scripts/h2py.py`'.

8.10 Built-in Module `fcntl`

This module performs file control and I/O control on file descriptors. It is an interface to the *fcntl()* and *ioctl()* UNIX routines. File descriptors can be obtained with the *fileno()* method of a file or socket object.

The module defines the following functions:

`fcntl` (*fd, op* [*, arg*])
: Perform the requested operation on file descriptor *fd*. The operation is defined by *op* and is operating system dependent. Typically these codes can be retrieved from the library module `FCNTL`. The argument *arg* is optional, and defaults to the integer value `0`. When it is present, it can either be an integer value, or a string. With the argument missing or an integer value, the return value of this function is the integer return value of the real `fcntl()` call. When the argument is a string it represents a binary structure, e.g. created by `struct.pack()`. The binary data is copied to a buffer whose address is passed to the real `fcntl()` call. The return value after a successful call is the contents of the buffer, converted to a string object. In case the `fcntl()` fails, an `IOError` will be raised.

`ioctl` (*fd, op, arg*)
: This function is identical to the `fcntl()` function, except that the operations are typically defined in the library module `IOCTL`.

`flock` (*fd, op*)
: Perform the lock operation *op* on file descriptor *fd*. See the Unix manual for details. (On some systems, this function is emulated using `fcntl`.)

`lockf` (*fd, code,* [*len,* [*start,* [*whence*]]])
This is a wrapper around the `F_SETLK` and `F_SETLKW` `fcntl()` calls. See the Unix manual for details.

If the library modules `FCNTL` or `IOCTL` are missing, you can find the opcodes in the C include files '`sys/fcntl.h`' and '`sys/ioctl.h`'. You can create the modules yourself with the h2py script, found in the '`Tools/scripts`' directory.

Examples (all on a SVR4 compliant system):

```
import struct, FCNTL

file = open(...)
rv = fcntl(file.fileno(), FCNTL.O_NDELAY, 1)

lockdata = struct.pack('hhllhh', FCNTL.F_WRLCK, 0, 0, 0, 0, 0)
rv = fcntl(file.fileno(), FCNTL.F_SETLKW, lockdata)
```

Note that in the first example the return value variable `rv` will hold an integer value; in the second example it will hold a string value. The structure lay-out for the *lockadata* variable is system dependent – therefore using the `flock()` call may be better.

8.11 Standard Module `posixfile`

Note: This module will become obsolete in a future release. The locking operation that it provides is done better and more portably by the `fcntl.lockf()` call.

This module implements some additional functionality over the built-in file objects. In particular, it implements file locking, control over the file flags, and an easy interface to duplicate the file object. The module defines a new file object, the posixfile object. It has all the standard file object methods and adds the methods described below. This module only works for certain flavors of UNIX, since it uses `fcntl()` for file locking.

To instantiate a posixfile object, use the `open()` function in the posixfile module. The resulting object looks and feels roughly the same as a standard file object.

The posixfile module defines the following constants:

`SEEK_SET`
offset is calculated from the start of the file

`SEEK_CUR`
offset is calculated from the current position in the file

`SEEK_END`
offset is calculated from the end of the file

The posixfile module defines the following functions:

`open` (*filename* [*, mode* [*, bufsize*]])
Create a new posixfile object with the given filename and mode. The *filename*, *mode* and *bufsize* arguments are interpreted the same way as by the built-in `open()` function.

`fileopen` (*fileobject*)
Create a new posixfile object with the given standard file object. The resulting object has the same filename and mode as the original file object.

The posixfile object defines the following additional methods:

`lock` (*fmt,* [*len* [*, start* [*, whence*]]])

Lock the specified section of the file that the file object is referring to. The format is explained below in a table. The *len* argument specifies the length of the section that should be locked. The default is `0`. *start* specifies the starting offset of the section, where the default is `0`. The *whence* argument specifies where the offset is relative to. It accepts one of the constants `SEEK_SET`, `SEEK_CUR` or `SEEK_END`. The default is `SEEK_SET`. For more information about the arguments refer to the fcntl manual page on your system.

`flags(` [*flags*] `)`
Set the specified flags for the file that the file object is referring to. The new flags are ORed with the old flags, unless specified otherwise. The format is explained below in a table. Without the *flags* argument a string indicating the current flags is returned (this is the same as the '?' modifier). For more information about the flags refer to the fcntl manual page on your system.

`dup()`
Duplicate the file object and the underlying file pointer and file descriptor. The resulting object behaves as if it were newly opened.

`dup2(`*fd*`)`
Duplicate the file object and the underlying file pointer and file descriptor. The new object will have the given file descriptor. Otherwise the resulting object behaves as if it were newly opened.

`file()`
Return the standard file object that the posixfile object is based on. This is sometimes necessary for functions that insist on a standard file object.

All methods return `IOError` when the request fails.

Format characters for the `lock()` method have the following meaning:

Format	Meaning	
'`u`'	unlock the specified region	
'`r`'	request a read lock for the specified section	
'`w`'	request a write lock for the specified section	

In addition the following modifiers can be added to the format:

Modifier	Meaning	Notes
'`|`'	wait until the lock has been granted	
'`?`'	return the first lock conflicting with the requested lock, or `None` if there is no conflict.	(1)

Note:

(1) The lock returned is in the format `(mode, len, start, whence, pid)` where mode is a character representing the type of lock ('r' or 'w'). This modifier prevents a request from being granted; it is for query purposes only.

Format character for the `flags()` method have the following meaning:

Format	Meaning	
'`a`'	append only flag	
'`c`'	close on exec flag	
'`n`'	no delay flag (also called non-blocking flag)	
'`s`'	synchronization flag	

In addition the following modifiers can be added to the format:

Modifier	Meaning	Notes
'!'	turn the specified flags 'off', instead of the default 'on'	(1)
'='	replace the flags, instead of the default 'OR' operation	(1)
'?'	return a string in which the characters represent the flags that are set.	(2)

Note:

(1) The `!` and = modifiers are mutually exclusive.

(2) This string represents the flags after they may have been altered by the same call.

Examples:

```
from posixfile import *

file = open('/tmp/test', 'w')
file.lock('w|')
...
file.lock('u')
file.close()
```

8.12 Built-in Module `resource`

This module provides basic mechanisms for measuring and controlling system resources utilized by a program.

Symbolic constants are used to specify particular system resources and to request usage information about either the current process or its children.

A single exception is defined for errors:

`error`
: The functions described below may raise this error if the underlying system call failures unexpectedly.

8.12.1 Resource Limits

Resources usage can be limited using the `setrlimit()` function described below. Each resource is controlled by a pair of limits: a soft limit and a hard limit. The soft limit is the current limit, and may be lowered or raised by a process over time. The soft limit can never exceed the hard limit. The hard limit can be lowered to any value greater than the soft limit, but not raised. (Only processes with the effective UID of the super-user can raise a hard limit.)

The specific resources that can be limited are system dependent. They are described in the `getrlimit()` man page. The resources listed below are supported when the underlying operating system supports them; resources which cannot be checked or controlled by the operating system are not defined in this module for those platforms.

`getrlimit(`*resource*`)`
: Returns a tuple `(`*soft*`, `*hard*`)` with the current soft and hard limits of *resource*. Raises `ValueError` if an invalid resource is specified, or `resource.error` if the underyling system call fails unexpectedly.

`setrlimit(`*resource, limits*`)`
: Sets new limits of consumption of *resource*. The *limits* argument must be a tuple `(`*soft*`, `*hard*`)` of two integers describing the new limits. A value of `-1` can be used to specify the maximum possible upper limit.

Raises `ValueError` if an invalid resource is specified, if the new soft limit exceeds the hard limit, or if a process tries to raise its hard limit (unless the process has an effective UID of super-user). Can also raise a `resource.error` if the underyling system call fails.

These symbols define resources whose consumption can be controlled using the `setrlimit()` and `getrlimit()` functions defined below. The values of these symbols are exactly the constants used by C programs.

The UNIX man page for `getrlimit()` lists the available resources. Note that not all systems use the same symbol or same value to denote the same resource.

`RLIMIT_CORE`
: The maximum size (in bytes) of a core file that the current process can create. This may result in the creation of a partial core file if a larger core would be required to contain the entire process image.

`RLIMIT_CPU`
: The maximum amount of CPU time (in seconds) that a process can use. If this limit is exceeded, a `SIGXCPU` signal is sent to the process. (See the `signal` module documentation for information about how to catch this signal and do something useful, e.g. flush open files to disk.)

`RLIMIT_FSIZE`
: The maximum size of a file which the process may create. This only affects the stack of the main thread in a multi-threaded process.

`RLIMIT_DATA`
: The maximum size (in bytes) of the process's heap.

`RLIMIT_STACK`
: The maximum size (in bytes) of the call stack for the current process.

`RLIMIT_RSS`
: The maximum resident set size that should be made available to the process.

`RLIMIT_NPROC`
: The maximum number of processes the current process may create.

`RLIMIT_NOFILE`
: The maximum number of open file descriptors for the current process.

`RLIMIT_OFILE`
: The BSD name for `RLIMIT_NOFILE`.

`RLIMIT_MEMLOC`
: The maximm address space which may be locked in memory.

`RLIMIT_VMEM`
: The largest area of mapped memory which the process may occupy.

`RLIMIT_AS`
: The maximum area (in bytes) of address space which may be taken by the process.

8.12.2 Resource Usage

These functiona are used to retrieve resource usage information:

`getrusage(`*who*`)`
: This function returns a large tuple that describes the resources consumed by either the current process or its children, as specified by the *who* parameter. The *who* parameter should be specified using one of the `RUSAGE_*` constants described below.

The elements of the return value each describe how a particular system resource has been used, e.g. amount of time spent running is user mode or number of times the process was swapped out of main memory. Some values are dependent on the clock tick internal, e.g. the amount of memory the process is using.

The first two elements of the return value are floating point values representing the amount of time spent executing in user mode and the amount of time spent executing in system mode, respectively. The remaining values are integers. Consult the `getrusage()` man page for detailed information about these values. A brief summary is presented here:

offset	*resource*
0	time in user mode (float)
1	time in system mode (float)
2	maximum resident set size
3	shared memory size
4	unshared memory size
5	unshared stack size
6	page faults not requiring I/O
7	page faults requiring I/O
8	number of swap outs
9	block input operations
10	block output operations
11	messages sent
12	messages received
13	signals received
14	voluntary context switches
15	involuntary context switches

This function will raise a `ValueError` if an invalid *who* parameter is specified. It may also raise a `resource.error` exception in unusual circumstances.

`getpagesize()`
: Returns the number of bytes in a system page. (This need not be the same as the hardware page size.) This function is useful for determining the number of bytes of memory a process is using. The third element of the tuple returned by `getrusage` describes memory usage in pages; multiplying by page size produces number of bytes.

The following `RUSAGE_*` symbols are passed to the `getrusage()` function to specify which processes information should be provided for.

`RUSAGE_SELF`
: `RUSAGE_SELF` should be used to request information pertaining only to the process itself.

`RUSAGE_CHILDREN`
: Pass to `getrusage()` to request resource information for child processes of the calling process.

`RUSAGE_BOTH`
: Pass to `getrusage()` to request resources consumed by both the current process and child processes. May not be available on all systems.

8.13 Built-in Module `syslog`

This module provides an interface to the Unix `syslog` library routines. Refer to the UNIX manual pages for a detailed description of the `syslog` facility.

The module defines the following functions:

`syslog(`[*priority,*] *message*`)`
: Send the string *message* to the system logger. A trailing newline is added if necessary. Each message is tagged with a priority composed of a *facility* and a *level*. The optional *priority* argument, which defaults to `(LOG_USER | LOG_INFO)`, determines the message priority.

`openlog(`*ident,* [*logopt,* [*facility*]]`)`
: Logging options other than the defaults can be set by explicitly opening the log file with `openlog()` prior to

calling `syslog()`. The defaults are (usually) *ident* = '`syslog`', *logopt* = 0, *facility* = `LOG_USER`. The *ident* argument is a string which is prepended to every message. The optional *logopt* argument is a bit field - see below for possible values to combine. The optional *facility* argument sets the default facility for messages which do not have a facility explicitly encoded.

`closelog()`
Close the log file.

`setlogmask(`*maskpri*`)`
This function set the priority mask to *maskpri* and returns the previous mask value. Calls to `syslog` with a priority level not set in *maskpri* are ignored. The default is to log all priorities. The function `LOG_MASK(`*pri*`)` calculates the mask for the individual priority *pri*. The function `LOG_UPTO(`*pri*`)` calculates the mask for all priorities up to and including *pri*.

The module defines the following constants:

Priority levels (high to low): `LOG_EMERG`, `LOG_ALERT`, `LOG_CRIT`, `LOG_ERR`, `LOG_WARNING`, `LOG_NOTICE`, `LOG_INFO`, `LOG_DEBUG`.

Facilities: `LOG_KERN`, `LOG_USER`, `LOG_MAIL`, `LOG_DAEMON`, `LOG_AUTH`, `LOG_LPR`, `LOG_NEWS`, `LOG_UUCP`, `LOG_CRON` and `LOG_LOCAL0` to `LOG_LOCAL7`.

Log options: `LOG_PID`, `LOG_CONS`, `LOG_NDELAY`, `LOG_NOWAIT` and `LOG_PERROR` if defined in '`syslog.h`'.

8.14 Standard module `stat`

The `stat` module defines constants and functions for interpreting the results of `os.stat` and `os.lstat` (if it exists). For complete details about the `stat` and `lstat` system calls, consult your local man pages.

The `stat` module defines the following functions:

`S_ISDIR(`*mode*`)`
Return non-zero if the mode was gotten from a directory file.

`S_ISCHR(`*mode*`)`
Return non-zero if the mode was gotten from a character special device.

`S_ISREG(`*mode*`)`
Return non-zero if the mode was gotten from a regular file.

`S_ISFIFO(`*mode*`)`
Return non-zero if the mode was gotten from a FIFO.

`S_ISLNK(`*mode*`)`
Return non-zero if the mode was gotten from a symbolic link.

`S_ISSOCK(`*mode*`)`
Return non-zero if the mode was gotten from a socket.

All the data items below are simply symbolic indexes into the 10-tuple returned by `os.stat` or `os.lstat`.

`ST_MODE`
Inode protection mode.

`ST_INO`
Inode number.

`ST_DEV`
Device inode resides on.

`ST_NLINK`

Number of links to the inode.

ST_UID
User id of the owner.

ST_GID
Group id of the owner.

ST_SIZE
File size in bytes.

ST_ATIME
Time of last access.

ST_MTIME
Time of last modification.

ST_CTIME
Time of creation.

Example:

```
import os, sys
from stat import *

def process(dir, func):
    '''recursively descend the directory rooted at dir, calling func for
       each regular file'''

    for f in os.listdir(dir):
        mode = os.stat('%s/%s' % (dir, f))[ST_MODE]
        if S_ISDIR(mode):
            # recurse into directory
            process('%s/%s' % (dir, f), func)
        elif S_ISREG(mode):
            func('%s/%s' % (dir, f))
        else:
            print 'Skipping %s/%s' % (dir, f)

def f(file):
    print 'frobbed', file

if __name__ == '__main__': process(sys.argv[1], f)
```

8.15 Standard module `commands`

The `commands` module contains wrapper functions for `os.popen()` which take a system command as a string and return any output generated by the command, and optionally, the exit status.

The `commands` module is only usable on systems which support `popen()` (currently UNIX).

The `commands` module defines the following functions:

`getstatusoutput(`*cmd*`)`

Execute the string *cmd* in a shell with `os.popen()` and return a 2-tuple (status, output). *cmd* is actually run as `{cmd ; }2>&1`, so that the returned output will contain output or error messages. A trailing newline is stripped from the output. The exit status for the command can be interpreted according to the rules for the C function `wait()`.

`getoutput`(*cmd*)
Like `getstatusoutput()`, except the exit status is ignored and the return value is a string containing the command's output.

`getstatus`(*file*)
Return the output of '`ls -ld` *file*' as a string. This function uses the `getoutput()` function, and properly escapes backslashes and dollar signs in the argument.

Example:

```
>>> import commands
>>> commands.getstatusoutput('ls /bin/ls')
(0, '/bin/ls')
>>> commands.getstatusoutput('cat /bin/junk')
(256, 'cat: /bin/junk: No such file or directory')
>>> commands.getstatusoutput('/bin/junk')
(256, 'sh: /bin/junk: not found')
>>> commands.getoutput('ls /bin/ls')
'/bin/ls'
>>> commands.getstatus('/bin/ls')
'-rwxr-xr-x  1 root        13352 Oct 14  1994 /bin/ls'
```

Chapter 9

The Python Debugger

The module pdb defines an interactive source code debugger for Python programs. It supports setting (conditional) breakpoints and single stepping at the source line level, inspection of stack frames, source code listing, and evaluation of arbitrary Python code in the context of any stack frame. It also supports post-mortem debugging and can be called under program control.

The debugger is extensible — it is actually defined as a class Pdb. This is currently undocumented but easily understood by reading the source. The extension interface uses the (also undocumented) modules bdb and cmd.

A primitive windowing version of the debugger also exists — this is module wdb, which requires STDWIN (see the chapter on STDWIN specific modules).

The debugger's prompt is "(Pdb) ". Typical usage to run a program under control of the debugger is:

```
>>> import pdb
>>> import mymodule
>>> pdb.run('mymodule.test()')
> <string>(0)?()
(Pdb) continue
> <string>(1)?()
(Pdb) continue
NameError: 'spam'
> <string>(1)?()
(Pdb)
```

pdb.py can also be invoked as a script to debug other scripts. For example: `python /usr/local/lib/python1.4/pdb.py myscript.py`

Typical usage to inspect a crashed program is:

```
>>> import pdb
>>> import mymodule
>>> mymodule.test()
Traceback (innermost last):
  File "<stdin>", line 1, in ?
  File "./mymodule.py", line 4, in test
    test2()
  File "./mymodule.py", line 3, in test2
    print spam
NameError: spam
>>> pdb.pm()
> ./mymodule.py(3)test2()
-> print spam
(Pdb)
```

The module defines the following functions; each enters the debugger in a slightly different way:

`run`(*statement* [, *globals* [, *locals*]])
: Execute the *statement* (given as a string) under debugger control. The debugger prompt appears before any code is executed; you can set breakpoints and type `continue`, or you can step through the statement using `step` or `next` (all these commands are explained below). The optional *globals* and *locals* arguments specify the environment in which the code is executed; by default the dictionary of the module `__main__` is used. (See the explanation of the `exec` statement or the `eval()` built-in function.)

`runeval`(*expression* [, *globals* [, *locals*]])
: Evaluate the *expression* (given as a a string) under debugger control. When `runeval()` returns, it returns the value of the expression. Otherwise this function is similar to `run()`.

`runcall`(*function* [, *argument, ...*])
: Call the *function* (a function or method object, not a string) with the given arguments. When `runcall()` returns, it returns whatever the function call returned. The debugger prompt appears as soon as the function is entered.

`set_trace()`
: Enter the debugger at the calling stack frame. This is useful to hard-code a breakpoint at a given point in a program, even if the code is not otherwise being debugged (e.g. when an assertion fails).

`post_mortem`(*traceback*)
: Enter post-mortem debugging of the given *traceback* object.

`pm()`
: Enter post-mortem debugging of the traceback found in `sys.last_traceback`.

9.1 Debugger Commands

The debugger recognizes the following commands. Most commands can be abbreviated to one or two letters; e.g. "`h(elp)`" means that either "`h`" or "`help`" can be used to enter the help command (but not "`he`" or "`hel`", nor "`H`" or "`Help` or "`HELP`"). Arguments to commands must be separated by whitespace (spaces or tabs). Optional arguments are enclosed in square brackets ("`[]`") in the command syntax; the square brackets must not be typed. Alternatives in the command syntax are separated by a vertical bar ("`|`").

Entering a blank line repeats the last command entered. Exception: if the last command was a "`list`" command, the next 11 lines are listed.

Commands that the debugger doesn't recognize are assumed to be Python statements and are executed in the context of the program being debugged. Python statements can also be prefixed with an exclamation point ("`!`"). This is a powerful way to inspect the program being debugged; it is even possible to change a variable or call a function. When an exception occurs in such a statement, the exception name is printed but the debugger's state is not changed.

h(elp) [*command*]

Without argument, print the list of available commands. With a *command* as argument, print help about that command. "`help pdb`" displays the full documentation file; if the environment variable `PAGER` is defined, the file is piped through that command instead. Since the *command* argument must be an identifier, "`help exec`" must be entered to get help on the "`!`" command.

w(here) Print a stack trace, with the most recent frame at the bottom. An arrow indicates the current frame, which determines the context of most commands.

d(own) Move the current frame one level down in the stack trace (to an older frame).

u(p) Move the current frame one level up in the stack trace (to a newer frame).

b(reak) [*lineno*|*function* [, "*condition*"]]

With a *lineno* argument, set a break there in the current file. With a *function* argument, set a break at the entry of that function. Without argument, list all breaks. If a second argument is present, it is a string (included in string quotes!) specifying an expression which must evaluate to true before the breakpoint is honored.

cl(ear) [*lineno*]

With a *lineno* argument, clear that break in the current file. Without argument, clear all breaks (but first ask confirmation).

s(tep) Execute the current line, stop at the first possible occasion (either in a function that is called or on the next line in the current function).

n(ext) Continue execution until the next line in the current function is reached or it returns. (The difference between `next` and `step` is that `step` stops inside a called function, while `next` executes called functions at (nearly) full speed, only stopping at the next line in the current function.)

r(eturn) Continue execution until the current function returns.

c(ont(inue)) Continue execution, only stop when a breakpoint is encountered.

l(ist) [*first* [, *last*]]

List source code for the current file. Without arguments, list 11 lines around the current line or continue the previous listing. With one argument, list 11 lines around at that line. With two arguments, list the given range; if the second argument is less than the first, it is interpreted as a count.

a(rgs) Print the argument list of the current function.

p *expression* Evaluate the *expression* in the current context and print its value. (Note: `print` can also be used, but is not a debugger command — this executes the Python `print` statement.)

[! *statement*]

Execute the (one-line) *statement* in the context of the current stack frame. The exclamation point can be omitted unless the first word of the statement resembles a debugger command. To set a global variable, you can prefix the assignment command with a "`global`" command on the same line, e.g.:

```
(Pdb) global list_options; list_options = ['-l']
(Pdb)
```

q(uit) Quit from the debugger. The program being executed is aborted.

9.2 How It Works

Some changes were made to the interpreter:

- sys.settrace(func) sets the global trace function
- there can also a local trace function (see later)

Trace functions have three arguments: (*frame*, *event*, *arg*)

frame is the current stack frame

event is a string: `'call'`, `'line'`, `'return'` or `'exception'`

arg is dependent on the event type

The global trace function is invoked (with *event* set to `'call'`) whenever a new local scope is entered; it should return a reference to the local trace function to be used that scope, or `None` if the scope shouldn't be traced.

The local trace function should return a reference to itself (or to another function for further tracing in that scope), or `None` to turn off tracing in that scope.

Instance methods are accepted (and very useful!) as trace functions.

The events have the following meaning:

`'call'` A function is called (or some other code block entered). The global trace function is called; arg is the argument list to the function; the return value specifies the local trace function.

`'line'` The interpreter is about to execute a new line of code (sometimes multiple line events on one line exist). The local trace function is called; arg in None; the return value specifies the new local trace function.

`'return'` A function (or other code block) is about to return. The local trace function is called; arg is the value that will be returned. The trace function's return value is ignored.

`'exception'` An exception has occurred. The local trace function is called; arg is a triple (exception, value, traceback); the return value specifies the new local trace function

Note that as an exception is propagated down the chain of callers, an `'exception'` event is generated at each level.

Stack frame objects have the following read-only attributes:

f_code the code object being executed

f_lineno the current line number (`-1` for `'call'` events)

f_back the stack frame of the caller, or None

f_locals dictionary containing local name bindings

f_globals dictionary containing global name bindings

Code objects have the following read-only attributes:

co_code the code string

co_names the list of names used by the code

co_consts the list of (literal) constants used by the code

co_filename the filename from which the code was compiled

Chapter 10

The Python Profiler

Written by James Roskind[1]

The profiler was written after only programming in Python for 3 weeks. As a result, it is probably clumsy code, but I don't know for sure yet 'cause I'm a beginner :-). I did work hard to make the code run fast, so that profiling would be a reasonable thing to do. I tried not to repeat code fragments, but I'm sure I did some stuff in really awkward ways at times. Please send suggestions for improvements to: `jar@netscape.com`. I won't promise *any* support. ...but I'd appreciate the feedback.

10.1 Introduction to the profiler

A *profiler* is a program that describes the run time performance of a program, providing a variety of statistics. This documentation describes the profiler functionality provided in the modules `profile` and `pstats.` This profiler provides *deterministic profiling* of any Python programs. It also provides a series of report generation tools to allow users to rapidly examine the results of a profile operation.

10.2 How Is This Profiler Different From The Old Profiler?

(This section is of historical importance only; the old profiler discussed here was last seen in Python 1.1.)

[1] Updated and converted to LaTeX by Guido van Rossum. The references to the old profiler are left in the text, although it no longer exists.

The big changes from old profiling module are that you get more information, and you pay less CPU time. It's not a trade-off, it's a trade-up.

To be specific:

Bugs removed: Local stack frame is no longer molested, execution time is now charged to correct functions.

Accuracy increased: Profiler execution time is no longer charged to user's code, calibration for platform is supported, file reads are not done *by* profiler *during* profiling (and charged to user's code!).

Speed increased: Overhead CPU cost was reduced by more than a factor of two (perhaps a factor of five), lightweight profiler module is all that must be loaded, and the report generating module (`pstats`) is not needed during profiling.

Recursive functions support: Cumulative times in recursive functions are correctly calculated; recursive entries are counted.

Large growth in report generating UI: Distinct profiles runs can be added together forming a comprehensive report; functions that import statistics take arbitrary lists of files; sorting criteria is now based on keywords (instead of 4 integer options); reports shows what functions were profiled as well as what profile file was referenced; output format has been improved.

10.3 Instant Users Manual

This section is provided for users that "don't want to read the manual." It provides a very brief overview, and allows a user to rapidly perform profiling on an existing application.

To profile an application with a main entry point of '`foo()`', you would add the following to your module:

```
import profile
profile.run("foo()")
```

The above action would cause '`foo()`' to be run, and a series of informative lines (the profile) to be printed. The above approach is most useful when working with the interpreter. If you would like to save the results of a profile into a file for later examination, you can supply a file name as the second argument to the `run()` function:

```
import profile
profile.run("foo()", 'fooprof')
```

`profile.py` can also be invoked as a script to profile another script. For example: `python /usr/local/lib/python1.4/profile.py myscript.py`

When you wish to review the profile, you should use the methods in the `pstats` module. Typically you would load the statistics data as follows:

```
import pstats
p = pstats.Stats('fooprof')
```

The class `Stats` (the above code just created an instance of this class) has a variety of methods for manipulating and printing the data that was just read into '`p`'. When you ran `profile.run()` above, what was printed was the result of three method calls:

```
p.strip_dirs().sort_stats(-1).print_stats()
```

The first method removed the extraneous path from all the module names. The second method sorted all the entries according to the standard module/line/name string that is printed (this is to comply with the semantics of the old profiler). The third method printed out all the statistics. You might try the following sort calls:

```
p.sort_stats('name')
p.print_stats()
```

The first call will actually sort the list by function name, and the second call will print out the statistics. The following are some interesting calls to experiment with:

```
p.sort_stats('cumulative').print_stats(10)
```

This sorts the profile by cumulative time in a function, and then only prints the ten most significant lines. If you want to understand what algorithms are taking time, the above line is what you would use.

If you were looking to see what functions were looping a lot, and taking a lot of time, you would do:

```
p.sort_stats('time').print_stats(10)
```

to sort according to time spent within each function, and then print the statistics for the top ten functions.

You might also try:

```
p.sort_stats('file').print_stats('__init__')
```

This will sort all the statistics by file name, and then print out statistics for only the class init methods ('cause they are spelled with `__init__` in them). As one final example, you could try:

```
p.sort_stats('time', 'cum').print_stats(.5, 'init')
```

This line sorts statistics with a primary key of time, and a secondary key of cumulative time, and then prints out some of the statistics. To be specific, the list is first culled down to 50% (re: '`.5`') of its original size, then only lines containing `init` are maintained, and that sub-sub-list is printed.

If you wondered what functions called the above functions, you could now ('`p`' is still sorted according to the last criteria) do:

```
p.print_callers(.5, 'init')
```

and you would get a list of callers for each of the listed functions.

If you want more functionality, you're going to have to read the manual, or guess what the following functions do:

```
p.print_callees()
p.add('fooprof')
```

10.4 What Is Deterministic Profiling?

Deterministic profiling is meant to reflect the fact that all *function call*, *function return*, and *exception* events are monitored, and precise timings are made for the intervals between these events (during which time the user's code is executing). In contrast, *statistical profiling* (which is not done by this module) randomly samples the effective instruction pointer, and deduces where time is being spent. The latter technique traditionally involves less overhead (as the code does not need to be instrumented), but provides only relative indications of where time is being spent.

In Python, since there is an interpreter active during execution, the presence of instrumented code is not required to do deterministic profiling. Python automatically provides a *hook* (optional callback) for each event. In addition, the interpreted nature of Python tends to add so much overhead to execution, that deterministic profiling tends to only add small processing overhead in typical applications. The result is that deterministic profiling is not that expensive, yet provides extensive run time statistics about the execution of a Python program.

Call count statistics can be used to identify bugs in code (surprising counts), and to identify possible inline-expansion points (high call counts). Internal time statistics can be used to identify "hot loops" that should be carefully optimized. Cumulative time statistics should be used to identify high level errors in the selection of algorithms. Note that the unusual handling of cumulative times in this profiler allows statistics for recursive implementations of algorithms to be directly compared to iterative implementations.

10.5 Reference Manual

The primary entry point for the profiler is the global function `profile.run()`. It is typically used to create any profile information. The reports are formatted and printed using methods of the class `pstats.Stats`. The following is a description of all of these standard entry points and functions. For a more in-depth view of some of the code, consider reading the later section on Profiler Extensions, which includes discussion of how to derive "better" profilers from the classes presented, or reading the source code for these modules.

`profile.run(`*string* [*, filename* [*, ...*]] `)`

This function takes a single argument that has can be passed to the `exec` statement, and an optional file name. In all cases this routine attempts to `exec` its first argument, and gather profiling statistics from the execution. If no file name is present, then this function automatically prints a simple profiling report, sorted by the standard name string (file/line/function-name) that is presented in each line. The following is a typical output from such a call:

```
      main()
      2706 function calls (2004 primitive calls) in 4.504 CPU seconds

Ordered by: standard name

ncalls  tottime  percall  cumtime  percall filename:lineno(function)
     2    0.006    0.003    0.953    0.477 pobject.py:75(save_objects)
  43/3    0.533    0.012    0.749    0.250 pobject.py:99(evaluate)
 ...
```

The first line indicates that this profile was generated by the call:
`profile.run('main()')`, and hence the exec'ed string is `'main()'`. The second line indicates that 2706 calls were monitored. Of those calls, 2004 were *primitive*. We define *primitive* to mean that the call was not induced via recursion. The next line: `Ordered by: standard name`, indicates that the text string in the far right column was used to sort the output. The column headings include:

ncalls for the number of calls,

tottime for the total time spent in the given function (and excluding time made in calls to sub-functions),

percall is the quotient of `tottime` divided by `ncalls`

cumtime is the total time spent in this and all subfunctions (i.e., from invocation till exit). This figure is accurate *even* for recursive functions.

percall is the quotient of `cumtime` divided by primitive calls

filename:lineno(function) provides the respective data of each function

When there are two numbers in the first column (e.g.: '`43/3`'), then the latter is the number of primitive calls, and the former is the actual number of calls. Note that when the function does not recurse, these two values are the same, and only the single figure is printed.

`pstats.Stats` (*filename* [, ...])

This class constructor creates an instance of a "statistics object" from a *filename* (or set of filenames). `Stats` objects are manipulated by methods, in order to print useful reports.

The file selected by the above constructor must have been created by the corresponding version of `profile`. To be specific, there is *NO* file compatibility guaranteed with future versions of this profiler, and there is no compatibility with files produced by other profilers (e.g., the old system profiler).

If several files are provided, all the statistics for identical functions will be coalesced, so that an overall view of several processes can be considered in a single report. If additional files need to be combined with data in an existing `Stats` object, the `add()` method can be used.

10.5.1 The `Stats` Class

`strip_dirs()`

This method for the `Stats` class removes all leading path information from file names. It is very useful in reducing the size of the printout to fit within (close to) 80 columns. This method modifies the object, and the stripped information is lost. After performing a strip operation, the object is considered to have its entries in a "random" order, as it was just after object initialization and loading. If `strip_dirs()` causes two function names to be indistinguishable (i.e., they are on the same line of the same filename, and have the same function name), then the statistics for these two entries are accumulated into a single entry.

`add` (*filename* [, ...])

This method of the `Stats` class accumulates additional profiling information into the current profiling object. Its arguments should refer to filenames created by the corresponding version of `profile.run()`. Statistics for identically named (re: file, line, name) functions are automatically accumulated into single function statistics.

`sort_stats` (*key* [, ...])

This method modifies the `Stats` object by sorting it according to the supplied criteria. The argument is typically a string identifying the basis of a sort (example: `"time"` or `"name"`).

When more than one key is provided, then additional keys are used as secondary criteria when the there is equality in all keys selected before them. For example, sort_stats('name', 'file') will sort all the entries according to their function name, and resolve all ties (identical function names) by sorting by file name.

Abbreviations can be used for any key names, as long as the abbreviation is unambiguous. The following are the keys currently defined:

Valid Arg	Meaning
`"calls"`	call count
`"cumulative"`	cumulative time
`"file"`	file name
`"module"`	file name
`"pcalls"`	primitive call count
`"line"`	line number
`"name"`	function name
`"nfl"`	name/file/line
`"stdname"`	standard name
`"time"`	internal time

Note that all sorts on statistics are in descending order (placing most time consuming items first), where as name, file, and line number searches are in ascending order (i.e., alphabetical). The subtle distinction between `"nfl"` and `"stdname"` is that the standard name is a sort of the name as printed, which means that the embedded line numbers get compared in an odd way. For example, lines 3, 20, and 40 would (if the file names were the same) appear in the string order 20, 3 and 40. In contrast, `"nfl"` does a numeric compare of the line numbers. In fact, `sort_stats("nfl")` is the same as `sort_stats("name", "file", "line")`.

For compatibility with the old profiler, the numeric arguments '`-1`', '`0`', '`1`', and '`2`' are permitted. They are interpreted as `"stdname"`, `"calls"`, `"time"`, and `"cumulative"` respectively. If this old style format (numeric) is used, only one sort key (the numeric key) will be used, and additional arguments will be silently ignored.

`reverse_order()`

This method for the `Stats` class reverses the ordering of the basic list within the object. This method is provided primarily for compatibility with the old profiler. Its utility is questionable now that ascending vs descending order is properly selected based on the sort key of choice.

`print_stats(`*restriction* [, ...]`)`

This method for the `Stats` class prints out a report as described in the `profile.run()` definition.

The order of the printing is based on the last `sort_stats()` operation done on the object (subject to caveats in `add()` and `strip_dirs()`).

The arguments provided (if any) can be used to limit the list down to the significant entries. Initially, the list is taken to be the complete set of profiled functions. Each restriction is either an integer (to select a count of lines), or a decimal fraction between 0.0 and 1.0 inclusive (to select a percentage of lines), or a regular expression (to pattern match the standard name that is printed; as of Python 1.5b1, this uses the Perl-style regular expression syntax defined by the `re` module). If several restrictions are provided, then they are applied sequentially. For example:

```
print_stats(.1, "foo:")
```

would first limit the printing to first 10% of list, and then only print functions that were part of filename '`.*foo:`'. In contrast, the command:

```
print_stats("foo:", .1)
```

would limit the list to all functions having file names '`.*foo:`', and then proceed to only print the first 10% of them.

`print_callers(`*restrictions* [, ...]`)`

This method for the `Stats` class prints a list of all functions that called each function in the profiled database. The ordering is identical to that provided by `print_stats()`, and the definition of the restricting argument is also identical. For convenience, a number is shown in parentheses after each caller to show how many times this specific call was made. A second non-parenthesized number is the cumulative time spent in the function at the right.

`print_callees(`*restrictions* [, ...]`)`

This method for the `Stats` class prints a list of all function that were called by the indicated function. Aside from this reversal of direction of calls (re: called vs was called by), the arguments and ordering are identical to the `print_callers()` method.

`ignore()`

This method of the `Stats` class is used to dispose of the value returned by earlier methods. All standard methods in this class return the instance that is being processed, so that the commands can be strung together. For example:

```
pstats.Stats('foofile').strip_dirs().sort_stats('cum') \
                        .print_stats().ignore()
```

would perform all the indicated functions, but it would not return the final reference to the `Stats` instance.[2]

10.6 Limitations

There are two fundamental limitations on this profiler. The first is that it relies on the Python interpreter to dispatch *call*, *return*, and *exception* events. Compiled C code does not get interpreted, and hence is "invisible" to the profiler. All time spent in C code (including builtin functions) will be charged to the Python function that invoked the C code. If the C code calls out to some native Python code, then those calls will be profiled properly.

The second limitation has to do with accuracy of timing information. There is a fundamental problem with deterministic profilers involving accuracy. The most obvious restriction is that the underlying "clock" is only ticking at a rate (typically) of about .001 seconds. Hence no measurements will be more accurate that that underlying clock. If enough measurements are taken, then the "error" will tend to average out. Unfortunately, removing this first error induces a second source of error...

The second problem is that it "takes a while" from when an event is dispatched until the profiler's call to get the time actually *gets* the state of the clock. Similarly, there is a certain lag when exiting the profiler event handler from the time that the clock's value was obtained (and then squirreled away), until the user's code is once again executing. As a result, functions that are called many times, or call many functions, will typically accumulate this error. The error that accumulates in this fashion is typically less than the accuracy of the clock (i.e., less than one clock tick), but it *can* accumulate and become very significant. This profiler provides a means of calibrating itself for a given platform so that this error can be probabilistically (i.e., on the average) removed. After the profiler is calibrated, it will be more accurate (in a least square sense), but it will sometimes produce negative numbers (when call counts are exceptionally low, and the gods of probability work against you :-).) Do *NOT* be alarmed by negative numbers in the profile. They should *only* appear if you have calibrated your profiler, and the results are actually better than without calibration.

10.7 Calibration

The profiler class has a hard coded constant that is added to each event handling time to compensate for the overhead of calling the time function, and socking away the results. The following procedure can be used to obtain this constant for a given platform (see discussion in section Limitations above).

```
import profile
pr = profile.Profile()
pr.calibrate(100)
pr.calibrate(100)
pr.calibrate(100)
```

The argument to calibrate() is the number of times to try to do the sample calls to get the CPU times. If your computer is *very* fast, you might have to do:

```
pr.calibrate(1000)
```

or even:

```
pr.calibrate(10000)
```

[2]This was once necessary, when Python would print any unused expression result that was not `None`. The method is still defined for backward compatibility.

The object of this exercise is to get a fairly consistent result. When you have a consistent answer, you are ready to use that number in the source code. For a Sun Sparcstation 1000 running Solaris 2.3, the magical number is about .00053. If you have a choice, you are better off with a smaller constant, and your results will "less often" show up as negative in profile statistics.

The following shows how the trace_dispatch() method in the Profile class should be modified to install the calibration constant on a Sun Sparcstation 1000:

```
def trace_dispatch(self, frame, event, arg):
    t = self.timer()
    t = t[0] + t[1] - self.t - .00053 # Calibration constant

    if self.dispatch[event](frame,t):
        t = self.timer()
        self.t = t[0] + t[1]
    else:
        r = self.timer()
        self.t = r[0] + r[1] - t # put back unrecorded delta
    return
```

Note that if there is no calibration constant, then the line containing the callibration constant should simply say:

```
t = t[0] + t[1] - self.t  # no calibration constant
```

You can also achieve the same results using a derived class (and the profiler will actually run equally fast!!), but the above method is the simplest to use. I could have made the profiler "self calibrating", but it would have made the initialization of the profiler class slower, and would have required some *very* fancy coding, or else the use of a variable where the constant '`.00053`' was placed in the code shown. This is a **VERY** critical performance section, and there is no reason to use a variable lookup at this point, when a constant can be used.

10.8 Extensions — Deriving Better Profilers

The `Profile` class of module `profile` was written so that derived classes could be developed to extend the profiler. Rather than describing all the details of such an effort, I'll just present the following two examples of derived classes that can be used to do profiling. If the reader is an avid Python programmer, then it should be possible to use these as a model and create similar (and perchance better) profile classes.

If all you want to do is change how the timer is called, or which timer function is used, then the basic class has an option for that in the constructor for the class. Consider passing the name of a function to call into the constructor:

```
pr = profile.Profile(your_time_func)
```

The resulting profiler will call `your_time_func()` instead of `os.times()`. The function should return either a single number or a list of numbers (like what `os.times()` returns). If the function returns a single time number, or the list of returned numbers has length 2, then you will get an especially fast version of the dispatch routine.

Be warned that you *should* calibrate the profiler class for the timer function that you choose. For most machines, a timer that returns a lone integer value will provide the best results in terms of low overhead during profiling. (os.times is *pretty* bad, 'cause it returns a tuple of floating point values, so all arithmetic is floating point in the profiler!). If you want to substitute a better timer in the cleanest fashion, you should derive a class, and simply put in the replacement dispatch method that better handles your timer call, along with the appropriate calibration constant :-).

10.8.1 OldProfile Class

The following derived profiler simulates the old style profiler, providing errant results on recursive functions. The reason for the usefulness of this profiler is that it runs faster (i.e., less overhead) than the old profiler. It still creates all the caller stats, and is quite useful when there is *no* recursion in the user's code. It is also a lot more accurate than the old profiler, as it does not charge all its overhead time to the user's code.

```
class OldProfile(Profile):

    def trace_dispatch_exception(self, frame, t):
        rt, rtt, rct, rfn, rframe, rcur = self.cur
        if rcur and not rframe is frame:
            return self.trace_dispatch_return(rframe, t)
        return 0

    def trace_dispatch_call(self, frame, t):
        fn = `frame.f_code`

        self.cur = (t, 0, 0, fn, frame, self.cur)
        if self.timings.has_key(fn):
            tt, ct, callers = self.timings[fn]
            self.timings[fn] = tt, ct, callers
        else:
            self.timings[fn] = 0, 0, {}
        return 1

    def trace_dispatch_return(self, frame, t):
        rt, rtt, rct, rfn, frame, rcur = self.cur
        rtt = rtt + t
        sft = rtt + rct

        pt, ptt, pct, pfn, pframe, pcur = rcur
        self.cur = pt, ptt+rt, pct+sft, pfn, pframe, pcur

        tt, ct, callers = self.timings[rfn]
        if callers.has_key(pfn):
            callers[pfn] = callers[pfn] + 1
        else:
            callers[pfn] = 1
        self.timings[rfn] = tt+rtt, ct + sft, callers

        return 1


    def snapshot_stats(self):
        self.stats = {}
        for func in self.timings.keys():
            tt, ct, callers = self.timings[func]
            nor_func = self.func_normalize(func)
            nor_callers = {}
            nc = 0
            for func_caller in callers.keys():
                nor_callers[self.func_normalize(func_caller)]=\
                      callers[func_caller]
                nc = nc + callers[func_caller]
            self.stats[nor_func] = nc, nc, tt, ct, nor_callers
```

10.8.2 HotProfile Class

This profiler is the fastest derived profile example. It does not calculate caller-callee relationships, and does not calculate cumulative time under a function. It only calculates time spent in a function, so it runs very quickly (re: very low overhead). In truth, the basic profiler is so fast, that is probably not worth the savings to give up the data, but this class still provides a nice example.

```
class HotProfile(Profile):

    def trace_dispatch_exception(self, frame, t):
        rt, rtt, rfn, rframe, rcur = self.cur
        if rcur and not rframe is frame:
            return self.trace_dispatch_return(rframe, t)
        return 0

    def trace_dispatch_call(self, frame, t):
        self.cur = (t, 0, frame, self.cur)
        return 1

    def trace_dispatch_return(self, frame, t):
        rt, rtt, frame, rcur = self.cur

        rfn = `frame.f_code`

        pt, ptt, pframe, pcur = rcur
        self.cur = pt, ptt+rt, pframe, pcur

        if self.timings.has_key(rfn):
            nc, tt = self.timings[rfn]
            self.timings[rfn] = nc + 1, rt + rtt + tt
        else:
            self.timings[rfn] =      1, rt + rtt

        return 1


    def snapshot_stats(self):
        self.stats = {}
        for func in self.timings.keys():
            nc, tt = self.timings[func]
            nor_func = self.func_normalize(func)
            self.stats[nor_func] = nc, nc, tt, 0, {}
```

Chapter 11

Internet and WWW Services

The modules described in this chapter provide various services to World-Wide Web (WWW) clients and/or services, and a few modules related to news and email. They are all implemented in Python. Some of these modules require the presence of the system-dependent module `sockets`, which is currently only fully supported on Unix and Windows NT. Here is an overview:

cgi — Common Gateway Interface, used to interpret forms in server-side scripts.

urllib — Open an arbitrary object given by URL (requires sockets).

httplib — HTTP protocol client (requires sockets).

ftplib — FTP protocol client (requires sockets).

gopherlib — Gopher protocol client (requires sockets).

nntplib — NNTP protocol client (requires sockets).

urlparse — Parse a URL string into a tuple (addressing scheme identifier, network location, path, parameters, query string, fragment identifier).

sgmllib — Only as much of an SGML parser as needed to parse HTML.

htmllib — A parser for HTML documents.

xmllib — A parser for XML documents.

formatter — Generic output formatter and device interface.

rfc822 — Parse RFC-822 style mail headers.

mimetools — Tools for parsing MIME style message bodies.

binhex — Encode and decode files in binhex4 format.

uu — Encode and decode files in uuencode format.

binascii — Tools for converting between binary and various ascii-encoded binary representation

xdrlib — The External Data Representation Standard as described in RFC 1014, written by Sun Microsystems, Inc. June 1987.

mailcap — Mailcap file handling. See RFC 1524.

base64 — Encode/decode binary files using the MIME base64 encoding.

quopri — Encode/decode binary files using the MIME quoted-printable encoding.

SocketServer — A framework for network servers.

mailbox — Read various mailbox formats.

mimify — Mimification and unmimification of mail messages.

11.1 Standard Module cgi

Support module for CGI (Common Gateway Interface) scripts.

This module defines a number of utilities for use by CGI scripts written in Python.

11.1.1 Introduction

A CGI script is invoked by an HTTP server, usually to process user input submitted through an HTML <FORM> or <ISINPUT> element.

Most often, CGI scripts live in the server's special 'cgi-bin' directory. The HTTP server places all sorts of information about the request (such as the client's hostname, the requested URL, the query string, and lots of other goodies) in the script's shell environment, executes the script, and sends the script's output back to the client.

The script's input is connected to the client too, and sometimes the form data is read this way; at other times the form data is passed via the "query string" part of the URL. This module ('cgi.py') is intended to take care of the different cases and provide a simpler interface to the Python script. It also provides a number of utilities that help in debugging scripts, and the latest addition is support for file uploads from a form (if your browser supports it – Grail 0.3 and Netscape 2.0 do).

The output of a CGI script should consist of two sections, separated by a blank line. The first section contains a number of headers, telling the client what kind of data is following. Python code to generate a minimal header section looks like this:

```
print "Content-type: text/html"     # HTML is following
print                               # blank line, end of headers
```

The second section is usually HTML, which allows the client software to display nicely formatted text with header, in-line images, etc. Here's Python code that prints a simple piece of HTML:

```
print "<TITLE>CGI script output</TITLE>"
print "<H1>This is my first CGI script</H1>"
print "Hello, world!"
```

(It may not be fully legal HTML according to the letter of the standard, but any browser will understand it.)

11.1.2 Using the cgi module

Begin by writing `import cgi`. Don't use `from cgi import *` – the module defines all sorts of names for its own use or for backward compatibility that you don't want in your namespace.

It's best to use the `FieldStorage` class. The other classes define in this module are provided mostly for backward compatibility. Instantiate it exactly once, without arguments. This reads the form contents from standard input or the environment (depending on the value of various environment variables set according to the CGI standard). Since it may consume standard input, it should be instantiated only once.

The `FieldStorage` instance can be accessed as if it were a Python dictionary. For instance, the following code (which assumes that the `Content-type` header and blank line have already been printed) checks that the fields `name` and `addr` are both set to a non-empty string:

```
form = cgi.FieldStorage()
form_ok = 0
if form.has_key("name") and form.has_key("addr"):
    if form["name"].value != "" and form["addr"].value != "":
        form_ok = 1
if not form_ok:
    print "<H1>Error</H1>"
    print "Please fill in the name and addr fields."
    return
...further form processing here...
```

Here the fields, accessed through `form[key]`, are themselves instances of `FieldStorage` (or `MiniFieldStorage`, depending on the form encoding).

If the submitted form data contains more than one field with the same name, the object retrieved by `form[key]` is not a `(Mini)FieldStorage` instance but a list of such instances. If you expect this possibility (i.e., when your HTML form comtains multiple fields with the same name), use the `type()` function to determine whether you have a single instance or a list of instances. For example, here's code that concatenates any number of username fields, separated by commas:

```
username = form["username"]
if type(username) is type([]):
    # Multiple username fields specified
    usernames = ""
    for item in username:
        if usernames:
            # Next item -- insert comma
            usernames = usernames + "," + item.value
        else:
            # First item -- don't insert comma
            usernames = item.value
else:
    # Single username field specified
    usernames = username.value
```

If a field represents an uploaded file, the value attribute reads the entire file in memory as a string. This may not be what you want. You can test for an uploaded file by testing either the filename attribute or the file attribute. You can then read the data at leasure from the file attribute:

```
fileitem = form["userfile"]
if fileitem.file:
    # It's an uploaded file; count lines
    linecount = 0
    while 1:
        line = fileitem.file.readline()
        if not line: break
        linecount = linecount + 1
```

The file upload draft standard entertains the possibility of uploading multiple files from one field (using a recursive `multipart/*` encoding). When this occurs, the item will be a dictionary-like FieldStorage item. This can be determined by testing its type attribute, which should have the value `multipart/form-data` (or perhaps another string beginning with `multipart/` It this case, it can be iterated over recursively just like the top-level form object.

When a form is submitted in the "old" format (as the query string or as a single data part of type `application/x-www-form-urlencoded`), the items will actually be instances of the class `MiniFieldStorage`. In this case, the list, file and filename attributes are always `None`.

11.1.3 Old classes

These classes, present in earlier versions of the `cgi` module, are still supported for backward compatibility. New applications should use the FieldStorage class.

`SvFormContentDict` single value form content as dictionary; assumes each field name occurs in the form only once.

`FormContentDict` multiple value form content as dictionary (the form items are lists of values). Useful if your form contains multiple fields with the same name.

Other classes (`FormContent`, `InterpFormContentDict`) are present for backwards compatibility with really old applications only. If you still use these and would be inconvenienced when they disappeared from a next version of this module, drop me a note.

11.1.4 Functions

These are useful if you want more control, or if you want to employ some of the algorithms implemented in this module in other circumstances.

`parse` (*fp*)
: Parse a query in the environment or from a file (default `sys.stdin`).

`parse_qs` (*qs*)
: parse a query string given as a string argument (data of type `application/x-www-form-urlencoded`).

`parse_multipart` (*fp, pdict*)
: parse input of type `multipart/form-data` (for file uploads). Arguments are `fp` for the input file and `pdict` for the dictionary containing other parameters of `content-type` header

  Returns a dictionary just like `parse_qs()` keys are the field names, each value is a list of values for that field. This is easy to use but not much good if you are expecting megabytes to be uploaded – in that case, use the `FieldStorage` class instead which is much more flexible. Note that `content-type` is the raw, unparsed contents of the `content-type` header.

  Note that this does not parse nested multipart parts – use `FieldStorage` for that.

`parse_header` (*string*)
: parse a header like `Content-type` into a main content-type and a dictionary of parameters.

`test()`
: robust test CGI script, usable as main program. Writes minimal HTTP headers and formats all information provided to the script in HTML form.

`print_environ()`
: format the shell environment in HTML.

`print_form` (*form*)
: format a form in HTML.

`print_directory()`
: format the current directory in HTML.

`print_environ_usage()`

print a list of useful (used by CGI) environment variables in HTML.

`escape(`*s* [, *quote*]`)`
convert the characters "`&`", "<" and ">" in string *s* to HTML-safe sequences. Use this if you need to display text that might contain such characters in HTML. If the optional flag *quote* is true, the double quote character (`"`) is also translated; this helps for inclusion in an HTML attribute value, e.g. in "`<A HREF="...">`".

11.1.5 Caring about security

There's one important rule: if you invoke an external program (e.g. via the `os.system()` or `os.popen()` functions), make very sure you don't pass arbitrary strings received from the client to the shell. This is a well-known security hole whereby clever hackers anywhere on the web can exploit a gullible CGI script to invoke arbitrary shell commands. Even parts of the URL or field names cannot be trusted, since the request doesn't have to come from your form!

To be on the safe side, if you must pass a string gotten from a form to a shell command, you should make sure the string contains only alphanumeric characters, dashes, underscores, and periods.

11.1.6 Installing your CGI script on a Unix system

Read the documentation for your HTTP server and check with your local system administrator to find the directory where CGI scripts should be installed; usually this is in a directory '`cgi-bin`' in the server tree.

Make sure that your script is readable and executable by "others"; the Unix file mode should be 755 (use `chmod 755 filename`). Make sure that the first line of the script contains `#!` starting in column 1 followed by the pathname of the Python interpreter, for instance:

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

Make sure the Python interpreter exists and is executable by "others".

Make sure that any files your script needs to read or write are readable or writable, respectively, by "others" – their mode should be 644 for readable and 666 for writable. This is because, for security reasons, the HTTP server executes your script as user "nobody", without any special privileges. It can only read (write, execute) files that everybody can read (write, execute). The current directory at execution time is also different (it is usually the server's cgi-bin directory) and the set of environment variables is also different from what you get at login. in particular, don't count on the shell's search path for executables (`$PATH`) or the Python module search path (`$PYTHONPATH`) to be set to anything interesting.

If you need to load modules from a directory which is not on Python's default module search path, you can change the path in your script, before importing other modules, e.g.:

```
import sys
sys.path.insert(0, "/usr/home/joe/lib/python")
sys.path.insert(0, "/usr/local/lib/python")
```

(This way, the directory inserted last will be searched first!)

Instructions for non-Unix systems will vary; check your HTTP server's documentation (it will usually have a section on CGI scripts).

11.1.7 Testing your CGI script

Unfortunately, a CGI script will generally not run when you try it from the command line, and a script that works perfectly from the command line may fail mysteriously when run from the server. There's one reason why you should still test your script from the command line: if it contains a syntax error, the python interpreter won't execute it at all, and the HTTP server will most likely send a cryptic error to the client.

Assuming your script has no syntax errors, yet it does not work, you have no choice but to read the next section:

11.1.8 Debugging CGI scripts

First of all, check for trivial installation errors – reading the section above on installing your CGI script carefully can save you a lot of time. If you wonder whether you have understood the installation procedure correctly, try installing a copy of this module file ('`cgi.py`') as a CGI script. When invoked as a script, the file will dump its environment and the contents of the form in HTML form. Give it the right mode etc, and send it a request. If it's installed in the standard '`cgi-bin`' directory, it should be possible to send it a request by entering a URL into your browser of the form:

```
http://yourhostname/cgi-bin/cgi.py?name=Joe+Blow&addr=At+Home
```

If this gives an error of type 404, the server cannot find the script – perhaps you need to install it in a different directory. If it gives another error (e.g. 500), there's an installation problem that you should fix before trying to go any further. If you get a nicely formatted listing of the environment and form content (in this example, the fields should be listed as "addr" with value "At Home" and "name" with value "Joe Blow"), the '`cgi.py`' script has been installed correctly. If you follow the same procedure for your own script, you should now be able to debug it.

The next step could be to call the `cgi` module's `test()` function from your script: replace its main code with the single statement

```
cgi.test()
```

This should produce the same results as those gotten from installing the '`cgi.py`' file itself.

When an ordinary Python script raises an unhandled exception (e.g. because of a typo in a module name, a file that can't be opened, etc.), the Python interpreter prints a nice traceback and exits. While the Python interpreter will still do this when your CGI script raises an exception, most likely the traceback will end up in one of the HTTP server's log file, or be discarded altogether.

Fortunately, once you have managed to get your script to execute *some* code, it is easy to catch exceptions and cause a traceback to be printed. The `test()` function below in this module is an example. Here are the rules:

1. Import the traceback module (before entering the try-except!)
2. Make sure you finish printing the headers and the blank line early
3. Assign `sys.stderr` to `sys.stdout`
4. Wrap all remaining code in a try-except statement
5. In the except clause, call `traceback.print_exc()`

For example:

```
import sys
import traceback
print "Content-type: text/html"
print
sys.stderr = sys.stdout
try:
    ...your code here...
except:
    print "\n\n<PRE>"
    traceback.print_exc()
```

Notes: The assignment to `sys.stderr` is needed because the traceback prints to `sys.stderr`. The `print "\n\n<PRE>"` statement is necessary to disable the word wrapping in HTML.

If you suspect that there may be a problem in importing the traceback module, you can use an even more robust approach (which only uses built-in modules):

```
import sys
sys.stderr = sys.stdout
print "Content-type: text/plain"
print
...your code here...
```

This relies on the Python interpreter to print the traceback. The content type of the output is set to plain text, which disables all HTML processing. If your script works, the raw HTML will be displayed by your client. If it raises an exception, most likely after the first two lines have been printed, a traceback will be displayed. Because no HTML interpretation is going on, the traceback will readable.

11.1.9 Common problems and solutions

- Most HTTP servers buffer the output from CGI scripts until the script is completed. This means that it is not possible to display a progress report on the client's display while the script is running.
- Check the installation instructions above.
- Check the HTTP server's log files. (`tail -f logfile` in a separate window may be useful!)
- Always check a script for syntax errors first, by doing something like `python script.py`.
- When using any of the debugging techniques, don't forget to add `import sys` to the top of the script.
- When invoking external programs, make sure they can be found. Usually, this means using absolute path names – `$PATH` is usually not set to a very useful value in a CGI script.
- When reading or writing external files, make sure they can be read or written by every user on the system.
- Don't try to give a CGI script a set-uid mode. This doesn't work on most systems, and is a security liability as well.

11.2 Standard Module `urllib`

This module provides a high-level interface for fetching data across the World-Wide Web. In particular, the `urlopen()` function is similar to the built-in function `open()`, but accepts URLs (Universal Resource Locators) instead of filenames. Some restrictions apply — it can only open URLs for reading, and no seek operations are available.

It defines the following public functions:

`urlopen` (*url*)

Open a network object denoted by a URL for reading. If the URL does not have a scheme identifier, or if it has '`file:`' as its scheme identifier, this opens a local file; otherwise it opens a socket to a server somewhere on the network. If the connection cannot be made, or if the server returns an error code, the `IOError` exception is raised. If all went well, a file-like object is returned. This supports the following methods: `read()`, `readline()`, `readlines()`, `fileno()`, `close()` and `info()`. Except for the last one, these methods have the same interface as for file objects — see the section on File Objects earlier in this manual. (It's not a built-in file object, however, so it can't be used at those few places where a true built-in file object is required.)

The `info()` method returns an instance of the class `mimetools.Message` containing the headers received from the server, if the protocol uses such headers (currently the only supported protocol that uses this is HTTP). See the description of the `mimetools` module.

`urlretrieve` (*url*)

Copy a network object denoted by a URL to a local file, if necessary. If the URL points to a local file, or a valid cached copy of the object exists, the object is not copied. Return a tuple (*filename*, *headers*) where *filename* is the local file name under which the object can be found, and *headers* is either `None` (for a local object) or whatever the `info()` method of the object returned by `urlopen()` returned (for a remote object, possibly cached). Exceptions are the same as for `urlopen()`.

`urlcleanup()`

Clear the cache that may have been built up by previous calls to `urlretrieve()`.

`quote` (*string* [, *addsafe*])

Replace special characters in *string* using the `%xx` escape. Letters, digits, and the characters "`_,.-`" are never quoted. The optional *addsafe* parameter specifies additional characters that should not be quoted — its default value is `'/'`.

Example: `quote('/~connolly/')` yields `'/%7econnolly/'`.

`quote_plus` (*string* [, *addsafe*])

Like `quote()`, but also replaces spaces by plus signs, as required for quoting HTML form values.

`unquote` (*string*)

Replace '`%xx`' escapes by their single-character equivalent.

Example: `unquote('/%7Econnolly/')` yields `'/~connolly/'`.

`unquote_plus` (*string*)

Like `unquote()`, but also replaces plus signs by spaces, as required for unquoting HTML form values.

Restrictions:

- Currently, only the following protocols are supported: HTTP, (versions 0.9 and 1.0), Gopher (but not Gopher-+), FTP, and local files.
- The caching feature of `urlretrieve()` has been disabled until I find the time to hack proper processing of Expiration time headers.
- There should be a function to query whether a particular URL is in the cache.
- For backward compatibility, if a URL appears to point to a local file but the file can't be opened, the URL is re-interpreted using the FTP protocol. This can sometimes cause confusing error messages.
- The `urlopen()` and `urlretrieve()` functions can cause arbitrarily long delays while waiting for a network connection to be set up. This means that it is difficult to build an interactive web client using these functions without using threads.
- The data returned by `urlopen()` or `urlretrieve()` is the raw data returned by the server. This may be binary data (e.g. an image), plain text or (for example) HTML. The HTTP protocol provides type information in the reply header, which can be inspected by looking at the `Content-type` header. For the Gopher protocol, type information is encoded in the URL; there is currently no easy way to extract it. If the returned data is HTML, you can use the module `htmllib` to parse it.

- Although the `urllib` module contains (undocumented) routines to parse and unparse URL strings, the recommended interface for URL manipulation is in module `urlparse`.

11.3 Standard Module `httplib`

This module defines a class which implements the client side of the HTTP protocol. It is normally not used directly — the module `urllib` uses it to handle URLs that use HTTP.

The module defines one class, `HTTP`. An `HTTP` instance represents one transaction with an HTTP server. It should be instantiated passing it a host and optional port number. If no port number is passed, the port is extracted from the host string if it has the form `host:port`, else the default HTTP port (80) is used. If no host is passed, no connection is made, and the `connect` method should be used to connect to a server. For example, the following calls all create instances that connect to the server at the same host and port:

```
>>> h1 = httplib.HTTP('www.cwi.nl')
>>> h2 = httplib.HTTP('www.cwi.nl:80')
>>> h3 = httplib.HTTP('www.cwi.nl', 80)
```

Once an `HTTP` instance has been connected to an HTTP server, it should be used as follows:

1. Make exactly one call to the `putrequest()` method.
2. Make zero or more calls to the `putheader()` method.
3. Call the `endheaders()` method (this can be omitted if step 4 makes no calls).
4. Optional calls to the `send()` method.
5. Call the `getreply()` method.
6. Call the `getfile()` method and read the data off the file object that it returns.

11.3.1 HTTP Objects

`HTTP` instances have the following methods:

`set_debuglevel(`*level*`)`
: Set the debugging level (the amount of debugging output printed). The default debug level is `0`, meaning no debugging output is printed.

`connect(`*host* [*, port*] `)`
: Connect to the server given by *host* and *port*. See the intro for the default port. This should be called directly only if the instance was instantiated without passing a host.

`send(`*data*`)`
: Send data to the server. This should be used directly only after the `endheaders()` method has been called and before `getreply()` has been called.

`putrequest(`*request, selector*`)`
: This should be the first call after the connection to the server has been made. It sends a line to the server consisting of the *request* string, the *selector* string, and the HTTP version (`HTTP/1.0`).

`putheader(`*header, argument* [*, ...*] `)`
: Send an RFC-822 style header to the server. It sends a line to the server consisting of the header, a colon and a space, and the first argument. If more arguments are given, continuation lines are sent, each consisting of a tab and an argument.

`endheaders()`
  Send a blank line to the server, signalling the end of the headers.

`getreply()`
  Complete the request by shutting down the sending end of the socket, read the reply from the server, and return a triple (*replycode*, *message*, *headers*). Here *replycode* is the integer reply code from the request (e.g. `200` if the request was handled properly); *message* is the message string corresponding to the reply code; and *headers* is an instance of the class `mimetools.Message` containing the headers received from the server. See the description of the `mimetools` module.

`getfile()`
  Return a file object from which the data returned by the server can be read, using the `read()`, `readline()` or `readlines()` methods.

11.3.2 Example

Here is an example session:

```
>>> import httplib
>>> h = httplib.HTTP('www.cwi.nl')
>>> h.putrequest('GET', '/index.html')
>>> h.putheader('Accept', 'text/html')
>>> h.putheader('Accept', 'text/plain')
>>> h.endheaders()
>>> errcode, errmsg, headers = h.getreply()
>>> print errcode # Should be 200
>>> f = h.getfile()
>>> data = f.read() # Get the raw HTML
>>> f.close()
>>>
```

11.4 Standard Module `ftplib`

This module defines the class `FTP` and a few related items. The `FTP` class implements the client side of the FTP protocol. You can use this to write Python programs that perform a variety of automated FTP jobs, such as mirroring other ftp servers. It is also used by the module `urllib` to handle URLs that use FTP. For more information on FTP (File Transfer Protocol), see Internet RFC 959.

Here's a sample session using the `ftplib` module:

```
>>> from ftplib import FTP
>>> ftp = FTP('ftp.cwi.nl')   # connect to host, default port
>>> ftp.login()               # user anonymous, passwd user@hostname
>>> ftp.retrlines('LIST')     # list directory contents
total 24418
drwxrwsr-x   5 ftp-usr  pdmaint     1536 Mar 20 09:48 .
dr-xr-srwt 105 ftp-usr  pdmaint     1536 Mar 21 14:32 ..
-rw-r--r--   1 ftp-usr  pdmaint     5305 Mar 20 09:48 INDEX
 .
 .
 .
>>> ftp.quit()
```

The module defines the following items:

`FTP(`[*host*[, *user, passwd, acct*]]`)`
: Return a new instance of the `FTP` class. When *host* is given, the method call `connect(`*host*`)` is made. When *user* is given, additionally the method call `login(`*user*`,` *passwd*`,` *acct*`)` is made (where *passwd* and *acct* default to the empty string when not given).

`all_errors`
: The set of all exceptions (as a tuple) that methods of `FTP` instances may raise as a result of problems with the FTP connection (as opposed to programming errors made by the caller). This set includes the four exceptions listed below as well as `socket.error` and `IOError`.

`error_reply`
: Exception raised when an unexpected reply is received from the server.

`error_temp`
: Exception raised when an error code in the range 400–499 is received.

`error_perm`
: Exception raised when an error code in the range 500–599 is received.

`error_proto`
: Exception raised when a reply is received from the server that does not begin with a digit in the range 1–5.

11.4.1 FTP Objects

FTP instances have the following methods:

`set_debuglevel(`*level*`)`
: Set the instance's debugging level. This controls the amount of debugging output printed. The default, 0, produces no debugging output. A value of 1 produces a moderate amount of debugging output, generally a single line per request. A value of 2 or higher produces the maximum amount of debugging output, logging each line sent and received on the control connection.

`connect(`*host*[, *port*]`)`
: Connect to the given host and port. The default port number is 21, as specified by the FTP protocol specification. It is rarely needed to specify a different port number. This function should be called only once for each instance; it should not be called at all if a host was given when the instance was created. All other methods can only be used after a connection has been made.

`getwelcome()`
: Return the welcome message sent by the server in reply to the initial connection. (This message sometimes contains disclaimers or help information that may be relevant to the user.)

`login([user[, passwd[, acct]]])`
: Log in as the given *user*. The *passwd* and *acct* parameters are optional and default to the empty string. If no *user* is specified, it defaults to '`anonymous`'. If *user* is `anonymous`, the default *passwd* is '*realuser*`@`*host*' where *realuser* is the real user name (glanced from the '`LOGNAME`' or '`USER`' environment variable) and *host* is the hostname as returned by `socket.gethostname()`. This function should be called only once for each instance, after a connection has been established; it should not be called at all if a host and user were given when the instance was created. Most FTP commands are only allowed after the client has logged in.

`abort()`
: Abort a file transfer that is in progress. Using this does not always work, but it's worth a try.

`sendcmd(`*command*`)`
: Send a simple command string to the server and return the response string.

`voidcmd(`*command*`)`
: Send a simple command string to the server and handle the response. Return nothing if a response code in the range 200–299 is received. Raise an exception otherwise.

`retrbinary(`*command, callback*[*, maxblocksize*]`)`
: Retrieve a file in binary transfer mode. *command* should be an appropriate '`RETR`' command, i.e. `"RETR` *filename*`"`. The *callback* function is called for each block of data received, with a single string argument giving the data block. The optional *maxblocksize* argument specifies the maximum chunk size to read on the low-level socket object created to do the actual transfer (which will also be the largest size of the data blocks passed to *callback*). A reasonable default is chosen.

`retrlines(`*command*[*, callback*]`)`
: Retrieve a file or directory listing in ASCII transfer mode. *command* should be an appropriate '`RETR`' command (see `retrbinary()` or a '`LIST`' command (usually just the string `"LIST"`). The *callback* function is called for each line, with the trailing CRLF stripped. The default *callback* prints the line to `sys.stdout`.

`storbinary(`*command, file, blocksize*`)`
: Store a file in binary transfer mode. *command* should be an appropriate '`STOR`' command, i.e. `"STOR` *filename*`"`. *file* is an open file object which is read until EOF using its `read()` method in blocks of size *blocksize* to provide the data to be stored.

`storlines(`*command, file*`)`
: Store a file in ASCII transfer mode. *command* should be an appropriate '`STOR`' command (see `storbinary()`). Lines are read until EOF from the open file object *file* using its `readline()` method to privide the data to be stored.

`nlst(`*argument*[*, ...*]`)`
: Return a list of files as returned by the '`NLST`' command. The optional *argument* is a directory to list (default is the current server directory). Multiple arguments can be used to pass non-standard options to the '`NLST`' command.

`dir(`*argument*[*, ...*]`)`
: Return a directory listing as returned by the '`LIST`' command, as a list of lines. The optional *argument* is a directory to list (default is the current server directory). Multiple arguments can be used to pass non-standard options to the '`LIST`' command. If the last argument is a function, it is used as a *callback* function as for `retrlines()`.

`rename(`*fromname, toname*`)`
: Rename file *fromname* on the server to *toname*.

`cwd(`*pathname*`)`
: Set the current directory on the server.

`mkd(`*pathname*`)`
: Create a new directory on the server.

`pwd()`
: Return the pathname of the current directory on the server.

`quit()`
: Send a '`QUIT`' command to the server and close the connection. This is the "polite" way to close a connection, but it may raise an exception of the server reponds with an error to the `QUIT` command.

`close()`
: Close the connection unilaterally. This should not be applied to an already closed connection (e.g. after a successful call to `quit()`.

11.5 Standard Module `gopherlib`

This module provides a minimal implementation of client side of the the Gopher protocol. It is used by the module `urllib` to handle URLs that use the Gopher protocol.

The module defines the following functions:

`send_selector`(*selector, host* [*, port*])
: Send a *selector* string to the gopher server at *host* and *port* (default 70). Return an open file object from which the returned document can be read.

`send_query`(*selector, query, host* [*, port*])
: Send a *selector* string and a *query* string to a gopher server at *host* and *port* (default 70). Return an open file object from which the returned document can be read.

Note that the data returned by the Gopher server can be of any type, depending on the first character of the selector string. If the data is text (first character of the selector is '`0`'), lines are terminated by CRLF, and the data is terminated by a line consisting of a single '`.`', and a leading '`.`' should be stripped from lines that begin with '`..`'. Directory listings (first charactger of the selector is '`1`') are transferred using the same protocol.

11.6 Standard Module `nntplib`

This module defines the class `NNTP` which implements the client side of the NNTP protocol. It can be used to implement a news reader or poster, or automated news processors. For more information on NNTP (Network News Transfer Protocol), see Internet RFC 977.

Here are two small examples of how it can be used. To list some statistics about a newsgroup and print the subjects of the last 10 articles:

```
>>> s = NNTP('news.cwi.nl')
>>> resp, count, first, last, name = s.group('comp.lang.python')
>>> print 'Group', name, 'has', count, 'articles, range', first, 'to', last
Group comp.lang.python has 59 articles, range 3742 to 3803
>>> resp, subs = s.xhdr('subject', first + '-' + last)
>>> for id, sub in subs[-10:]: print id, sub
...
3792 Re: Removing elements from a list while iterating...
3793 Re: Who likes Info files?
3794 Emacs and doc strings
3795 a few questions about the Mac implementation
3796 Re: executable python scripts
3797 Re: executable python scripts
3798 Re: a few questions about the Mac implementation
3799 Re: PROPOSAL: A Generic Python Object Interface for Python C Modules
3802 Re: executable python scripts
3803 Re: POSIX wait and SIGCHLD
>>> s.quit()
'205 news.cwi.nl closing connection.  Goodbye.'
>>>
```

To post an article from a file (this assumes that the article has valid headers):

```
>>> s = NNTP('news.cwi.nl')
>>> f = open('/tmp/article')
>>> s.post(f)
'240 Article posted successfully.'
>>> s.quit()
'205 news.cwi.nl closing connection.  Goodbye.'
>>>
```

The module itself defines the following items:

`NNTP`(*host* [, *port*])
: Return a new instance of the `NNTP` class, representing a connection to the NNTP server running on host *host*, listening at port *port*. The default *port* is 119.

`error_reply`
: Exception raised when an unexpected reply is received from the server.

`error_temp`
: Exception raised when an error code in the range 400–499 is received.

`error_perm`
: Exception raised when an error code in the range 500–599 is received.

`error_proto`
: Exception raised when a reply is received from the server that does not begin with a digit in the range 1–5.

11.6.1 NNTP Objects

NNTP instances have the following methods. The *response* that is returned as the first item in the return tuple of almost all methods is the server's response: a string beginning with a three-digit code. If the server's response indicates an error, the method raises one of the above exceptions.

`getwelcome()`
: Return the welcome message sent by the server in reply to the initial connection. (This message sometimes contains dis-

claimers or help information that may be relevant to the user.)

`set_debuglevel`(*level*)
Set the instance's debugging level. This controls the amount of debugging output printed. The default, 0, produces no debugging output. A value of 1 produces a moderate amount of debugging output, generally a single line per request or response. A value of 2 or higher produces the maximum amount of debugging output, logging each line sent and received on the connection (including message text).

`newgroups`(*date, time*)
Send a '`NEWGROUPS`' command. The *date* argument should be a string of the form `"`*yymmdd*`"` indicating the date, and *time* should be a string of the form `"`*hhmmss*`"` indicating the time. Return a pair `(`*response*`, `*groups*`)` where *groups* is a list of group names that are new since the given date and time.

`newnews`(*group, date, time*)
Send a '`NEWNEWS`' command. Here, *group* is a group name or `"*"`, and *date* and *time* have the same meaning as for `newgroups()`. Return a pair `(`*response*`, `*articles*`)` where *articles* is a list of article ids.

`list()`
Send a '`LIST`' command. Return a pair `(`*response*`, `*list*`)` where *list* is a list of tuples. Each tuple has the form `(`*group*`, `*last*`, `*first*`, `*flag*`)`, where *group* is a group name, *last* and *first* are the last and first article numbers (as strings), and *flag* is `'y'` if posting is allowed, `'n'` if not, and `'m'` if the newsgroup is moderated. (Note the ordering: *last*, *first*.)

`group`(*name*)
Send a '`GROUP`' command, where *name* is the group name. Return a tuple `(`*response*`, `*count*`, `*first*`, `*last*`, `*name*`)` where *count* is the (estimated) number of articles in the group, *first* is the first article number in the group, *last* is the last article number in the group, and *name* is the group name. The numbers are returned as strings.

`help()`
Send a '`HELP`' command. Return a pair `(`*response*`, `*list*`)` where *list* is a list of help strings.

`stat`(*id*)
Send a '`STAT`' command, where *id* is the message id (enclosed in '<' and '>') or an article number (as a string). Return a triple `(`*response*`, `*number*`, `*id*`)` where *number* is the article number (as a string) and *id* is the article id (enclosed in '<' and '>').

`next()`
Send a '`NEXT`' command. Return as for `stat()`.

`last()`
Send a '`LAST`' command. Return as for `stat()`.

`head`(*id*)
Send a '`HEAD`' command, where *id* has the same meaning as for `stat()`. Return a pair `(`*response*`, `*list*`)` where *list* is a list of the article's headers (an uninterpreted list of lines, without trailing newlines).

`body`(*id*)
Send a '`BODY`' command, where *id* has the same meaning as for `stat()`. Return a pair `(`*response*`, `*list*`)` where *list* is a list of the article's body text (an uninterpreted list of lines, without trailing newlines).

`article`(*id*)
Send a '`ARTICLE`' command, where *id* has the same meaning as for `stat()`. Return a pair `(`*response*`, `*list*`)` where *list* is a list of the article's header and body text (an uninterpreted list of lines, without trailing newlines).

`slave()`
Send a '`SLAVE`' command. Return the server's *response*.

`xhdr`(*header, string*)
Send an '`XHDR`' command. This command is not defined in the RFC but is a common extension. The *header* argument is a header keyword, e.g. `"subject"`. The *string* argument should have the form `"`*first−last*`"` where *first* and *last* are the first and last article numbers to search. Return a pair `(`*response*`, `*list*`)`, where *list* is a list of pairs `(`*id*`, `*text*`)`, where *id* is an article id (as a string) and *text* is the text of the requested header for that article.

`post`(*file*)
Post an article using the '`POST`' command. The *file* argument is an open file object which is read until EOF using its `readline()` method. It should be a well-formed news article, including the required headers. The `post()` method

automatically escapes lines beginning with '.'.

`ihave`(*id, file*)
Send an 'IHAVE' command. If the response is not an error, treat *file* exactly as for the `post()` method.

`date()`
Return a triple `(`*response*`, `*date*`, `*time*`)`, containing the current date and time in a form suitable for the `newnews` and `newgroups` methods. This is an optional NNTP extension, and may not be supported by all servers.

`xgtitle`(*name*)
Process an XGTITLE command, returning a pair `(`*response*`, `*list*, where *list* is a list of tuples containing `(`*name*`, `*title*`)`. This is an optional NNTP extension, and may not be supported by all servers.

`xover`(*start, end*)
Return a pair `(`*resp*`, `*list*`)`. *list* is a list of tuples, one for each article in the range delimited by the *start* and *end* article numbers. Each tuple is of the form `(`*article number*`, `*subject*`, `*poster*`, `*date*`, `*id*`, `*references*`, `*size*`, `*lines*`)`. This is an optional NNTP extension, and may not be supported by all servers.

`xpath`(*id*)
Return a pair `(`*resp*`, `*path*`)`, where *path* is the directory path to the article with message ID *id*. This is an optional NNTP extension, and may not be supported by all servers.

`quit()`
Send a 'QUIT' command and close the connection. Once this method has been called, no other methods of the NNTP object should be called.

11.7 Standard Module `urlparse`

This module defines a standard interface to break URL strings up in components (addessing scheme, network location, path etc.), to combine the components back into a URL string, and to convert a "relative URL" to an absolute URL given a "base URL".

The module has been designed to match the current Internet draft on Relative Uniform Resource Locators (and discovered a bug in an earlier draft!).

It defines the following functions:

`urlparse`(*urlstring* [, *default_scheme* [, *allow_fragments*]])
Parse a URL into 6 components, returning a 6-tuple: (addressing scheme, network location, path, parameters, query, fragment identifier). This corresponds to the general structure of a URL: *scheme*`://`*netloc*`/`*path*`;`*parameters*`?`*query*`#`*fragment*. Each tuple item is a string, possibly empty. The components are not broken up in smaller parts (e.g. the network location is a single string), and % escapes are not expanded. The delimiters as shown above are not part of the tuple items, except for a leading slash in the *path* component, which is retained if present.

Example:

```
urlparse('http://www.cwi.nl:80/%7Eguido/Python.html')
```

yields the tuple

```
('http', 'www.cwi.nl:80', '/%7Eguido/Python.html', '', '', '')
```

If the *default_scheme* argument is specified, it gives the default addressing scheme, to be used only if the URL string does not specify one. The default value for this argument is the empty string.

If the *allow_fragments* argument is zero, fragment identifiers are not allowed, even if the URL's addressing scheme normally does support them. The default value for this argument is `1`.

`urlunparse`(*tuple*)
Construct a URL string from a tuple as returned by `urlparse`. This may result in a slightly different, but equivalent URL, if the URL that was parsed originally had redundant delimiters, e.g. a ? with an empty query (the draft states that these are equivalent).

`urljoin(`*base, url* [*, allow_fragments*] `)`

Construct a full ("absolute") URL by combining a "base URL" (*base*) with a "relative URL" (*url*). Informally, this uses components of the base URL, in particular the addressing scheme, the network location and (part of) the path, to provide missing components in the relative URL.

Example:

```
urljoin('http://www.cwi.nl/%7Eguido/Python.html', 'FAQ.html')
```

yields the string

```
'http://www.cwi.nl/%7Eguido/FAQ.html'
```

The *allow_fragments* argument has the same meaning as for `urlparse`.

11.8 Standard Module `sgmllib`

This module defines a class `SGMLParser` which serves as the basis for parsing text files formatted in SGML (Standard Generalized Mark-up Language). In fact, it does not provide a full SGML parser — it only parses SGML insofar as it is used by HTML, and the module only exists as a base for the `htmllib` module.

In particular, the parser is hardcoded to recognize the following constructs:

- Opening and closing tags of the form "`<`*tag attr*`="`*value*`" ...>`" and "`</`*tag*`>`", respectively.
- Numeric character references of the form "`&#`*name*`;`".
- Entity references of the form "`&`*name*`;`".
- SGML comments of the form "`<!--`*text*`-->`". Note that spaces, tabs, and newlines are allowed between the trailing "`>`" and the immediately preceeding "`--`".

The `SGMLParser` class must be instantiated without arguments. It has the following interface methods:

`reset()`

Reset the instance. Loses all unprocessed data. This is called implicitly at instantiation time.

`setnomoretags()`

Stop processing tags. Treat all following input as literal input (CDATA). (This is only provided so the HTML tag `<PLAINTEXT>` can be implemented.)

`setliteral()`

Enter literal mode (CDATA mode).

`feed(`*data*`)`

Feed some text to the parser. It is processed insofar as it consists of complete elements; incomplete data is buffered until more data is fed or `close()` is called.

`close()`

Force processing of all buffered data as if it were followed by an end-of-file mark. This method may be redefined by a derived class to define additional processing at the end of the input, but the redefined version should always call `SGMLParser.close()`.

`handle_starttag(`*tag, method, attributes*`)`

This method is called to handle start tags for which either a `start_`*tag*`()` or `do_`*tag*`()` method has been defined. The `tag` argument is the name of the tag converted to lower case, and the `method` argument is the bound method which should be used to support semantic interpretation of the start tag. The *attributes* argument is a list of (*name*, *value*) pairs containing the attributes found inside the tag's <> brackets. The *name* has been translated to lower case and double quotes and backslashes in the *value* have been interpreted. For instance, for the tag `<A HREF="http://www.cwi.nl/">`, this method would be called as `unknown_starttag('a', [('href', 'http://www.cwi.nl/')])`. The base implementation simply calls `method` with `attributes` as the only argument.

`handle_endtag(`*tag, method*`)`
: This method is called to handle endtags for which an `end_`*tag*`()` method has been defined. The `tag` argument is the name of the tag converted to lower case, and the `method` argument is the bound method which should be used to support semantic interpretation of the end tag. If no `end_`*tag*`()` method is defined for the closing element, this handler is not called. The base implementation simply calls `method`.

`handle_data(`*data*`)`
: This method is called to process arbitrary data. It is intended to be overridden by a derived class; the base class implementation does nothing.

`handle_charref(`*ref*`)`
: This method is called to process a character reference of the form "`&#`*ref*`;`". In the base implementation, *ref* must be a decimal number in the range 0-255. It translates the character to ASCII and calls the method `handle_data()` with the character as argument. If *ref* is invalid or out of range, the method `unknown_charref(`*ref*`)` is called to handle the error. A subclass must override this method to provide support for named character entities.

`handle_entityref(`*ref*`)`
: This method is called to process a general entity reference of the form "`&`*ref*`;`" where *ref* is an general entity reference. It looks for *ref* in the instance (or class) variable `entitydefs` which should be a mapping from entity names to corresponding translations. If a translation is found, it calls the method `handle_data()` with the translation; otherwise, it calls the method `unknown_entityref(`*ref*`)`. The default `entitydefs` defines translations for `&`, `&apos`, `>`, `<`, and `"`.

`handle_comment(`*comment*`)`
: This method is called when a comment is encountered. The `comment` argument is a string containing the text between the "`<!--`" and "`-->`" delimiters, but not the delimiters themselves. For example, the comment "`<!--text-->`" will cause this method to be called with the argument `'text'`. The default method does nothing.

`report_unbalanced(`*tag*`)`
: This method is called when an end tag is found which does not correspond to any open element.

`unknown_starttag(`*tag, attributes*`)`
: This method is called to process an unknown start tag. It is intended to be overridden by a derived class; the base class implementation does nothing.

`unknown_endtag(`*tag*`)`
: This method is called to process an unknown end tag. It is intended to be overridden by a derived class; the base class implementation does nothing.

`unknown_charref(`*ref*`)`
: This method is called to process unresolvable numeric character references. It is intended to be overridden by a derived class; the base class implementation does nothing.

`unknown_entityref(`*ref*`)`
: This method is called to process an unknown entity reference. It is intended to be overridden by a derived class; the base class implementation does nothing.

Apart from overriding or extending the methods listed above, derived classes may also define methods of the following form to define processing of specific tags. Tag names in the input stream are case independent; the *tag* occurring in method names must be in lower case:

`start_`*tag*`(`*attributes*`)`
: This method is called to process an opening tag *tag*. It has preference over `do_`*tag*`()`. The *attributes* argument has the same meaning as described for `handle_starttag()` above.

`do_`*tag*`(`*attributes*`)`
: This method is called to process an opening tag *tag* that does not come with a matching closing tag. The *attributes* argument has the same meaning as described for `handle_starttag()` above.

`end_`*tag*`()`
: This method is called to process a closing tag *tag*.

Note that the parser maintains a stack of open elements for which no end tag has been found yet. Only tags processed by `start_`*tag*`()` are pushed on this stack. Definition of an `end_`*tag*`()` method is optional for these tags. For tags processed by `do_`*tag*`()` or by `unknown_tag()`, no `end_`*tag*`()` method must be defined; if defined, it will not be used. If both `start_`*tag*`()`

and do_*tag*() methods exist for a tag, the start_*tag*() method takes precedence.

11.9 Standard Module htmllib

This module defines a class which can serve as a base for parsing text files formatted in the HyperText Mark-up Language (HTML). The class is not directly concerned with I/O — it must be provided with input in string form via a method, and makes calls to methods of a "formatter" object in order to produce output. The HTMLParser class is designed to be used as a base class for other classes in order to add functionality, and allows most of its methods to be extended or overridden. In turn, this class is derived from and extends the SGMLParser class defined in module sgmllib. Two implementations of formatter objects are provided in the formatter module; refer to the documentation for that module for information on the formatter interface.

The following is a summary of the interface defined by sgmllib.SGMLParser:

- The interface to feed data to an instance is through the feed() method, which takes a string argument. This can be called with as little or as much text at a time as desired; p.feed(a); p.feed(b) has the same effect as p.feed(a+b). When the data contains complete HTML tags, these are processed immediately; incomplete elements are saved in a buffer. To force processing of all unprocessed data, call the close() method.
  For example, to parse the entire contents of a file, use:

  ```
  parser.feed(open('myfile.html').read())
  parser.close()
  ```

- The interface to define semantics for HTML tags is very simple: derive a class and define methods called start_*tag*(), end_*tag*(), or do_*tag*(). The parser will call these at appropriate moments: start_*tag* or do_*tag* is called when an opening tag of the form <*tag* ...> is encountered; end_*tag* is called when a closing tag of the form <*tag*> is encountered. If an opening tag requires a corresponding closing tag, like <H1> ... </H1>, the class should define the start_*tag* method; if a tag requires no closing tag, like <P>, the class should define the do_*tag* method.

The module defines a single class:

HTMLParser(*formatter*)
: This is the basic HTML parser class. It supports all entity names required by the HTML 2.0 specification (RFC 1866). It also defines handlers for all HTML 2.0 and many HTML 3.0 and 3.2 elements.

In addition to tag methods, the HTMLParser class provides some additional methods and instance variables for use within tag methods.

formatter
: This is the formatter instance associated with the parser.

nofill
: Boolean flag which should be true when whitespace should not be collapsed, or false when it should be. In general, this should only be true when character data is to be treated as "preformatted" text, as within a <PRE> element. The default value is false. This affects the operation of handle_data() and save_end().

anchor_bgn(*href, name, type*)
: This method is called at the start of an anchor region. The arguments correspond to the attributes of the <A> tag with the same names. The default implementation maintains a list of hyperlinks (defined by the href argument) within the document. The list of hyperlinks is available as the data attribute anchorlist.

anchor_end()
: This method is called at the end of an anchor region. The default implementation adds a textual footnote marker using an index into the list of hyperlinks created by anchor_bgn().

handle_image(*source, alt* [*, ismap* [*, align* [*, width* [*, height*]]]])
: This method is called to handle images. The default implementation simply passes the alt value to the handle_data() method.

save_bgn()
: Begins saving character data in a buffer instead of sending it to the formatter object. Retrieve the stored data via save_end() Use of the save_bgn() / save_end() pair may not be nested.

`save_end()`
: Ends buffering character data and returns all data saved since the preceeding call to `save_bgn()`. If `nofill` flag is false, whitespace is collapsed to single spaces. A call to this method without a preceeding call to `save_bgn()` will raise a `TypeError` exception.

11.10 Standard Module `xmllib`

This module defines a class `XMLParser` which serves as the basis for parsing text files formatted in XML (eXtended Markup Language).

The `XMLParser` class must be instantiated without arguments. It has the following interface methods:

`reset()`
: Reset the instance. Loses all unprocessed data. This is called implicitly at the instantiation time.

`setnomoretags()`
: Stop processing tags. Treat all following input as literal input (CDATA).

`setliteral()`
: Enter literal mode (CDATA mode).

`feed(`*data*`)`
: Feed some text to the parser. It is processed insofar as it consists of complete elements; incomplete data is buffered until more data is fed or `close()` is called.

`close()`
: Force processing of all buffered data as if it were followed by an end-of-file mark. This method may be redefined by a derived class to define additional processing at the end of the input, but the redefined version should always call `XMLParser.close()`.

`handle_starttag(`*tag, method, attributes*`)`
: This method is called to handle start tags for which a `start_`*tag*`()` method has been defined. The `tag` argument is the name of the tag, and the `method` argument is the bound method which should be used to support semantic interpretation of the start tag. The *attributes* argument is a dictionary of attributes, the key being the *name* and the value being the *value* of the attribute found inside the tag's <> brackets. Lower case and double quotes and backslashes in the *value* have been interpreted. For instance, for the tag <A HREF="http://www.cwi.nl/">, this method would be called as `handle_starttag('A', self.start_A, 'HREF': 'http://www.cwi.nl/')`. The base implementation simply calls `method` with `attributes` as the only argument.

`handle_endtag(`*tag, method*`)`
: This method is called to handle endtags for which an `end_`*tag*`()` method has been defined. The `tag` argument is the name of the tag, and the `method` argument is the bound method which should be used to support semantic interpretation of the end tag. If no `end_`*tag*`()` method is defined for the closing element, this handler is not called. The base implementation simply calls `method`.

`handle_data(`*data*`)`
: This method is called to process arbitrary data. It is intended to be overridden by a derived class; the base class implementation does nothing.

`handle_charref(`*ref*`)`
: This method is called to process a character reference of the form "`&#`*ref*`;`". *ref* can either be a decimal number, or a hexadecimal number when preceded by `x`. In the base implementation, *ref* must be a number in the range 0-255. It translates the character to ASCII and calls the method `handle_data()` with the character as argument. If *ref* is invalid or out of range, the method `unknown_charref(`*ref*`)` is called to handle the error. A subclass must override this method to provide support for character references outside of the ASCII range.

`handle_entityref(`*ref*`)`
: This method is called to process a general entity reference of the form "`&`*ref*`;`" where *ref* is an general entity reference. It looks for *ref* in the instance (or class) variable `entitydefs` which should be a mapping from entity names to corresponding translations. If a translation is found, it calls the method `handle_data()` with the translation; otherwise, it calls the method `unknown_entityref(`*ref*`)`. The default `entitydefs` defines translations for `&`, `&apos`, `>`, `<`, and `"`.

handle_comment(*comment*)
: This method is called when a comment is encountered. The comment argument is a string containing the text between the “<!--” and “-->” delimiters, but not the delimiters themselves. For example, the comment “<!--text-->” will cause this method to be called with the argument 'text'. The default method does nothing.

handle_cdata(*data*)
: This method is called when a CDATA element is encountered. The data argument is a string containing the text between the “<![CDATA[” and “]]>” delimiters, but not the delimiters themselves. For example, the entity “<![CDATA[text]]>” will cause this method to be called with the argument 'text'. The default method does nothing.

handle_proc(*name, data*)
: This method is called when a processing instruction (PI) is encountered. The name is the PI target, and the data argument is a string containing the text between the PI target and the closing delimiter, but not the delimiter itself. For example, the instruction “<?XML text?>” will cause this method to be called with the arguments 'XML' and 'text'. The default method does nothing.

handle_special(*data*)
: This method is called when a declaration is encountered. The data argument is a string containing the text between the “<!” and “>” delimiters, but not the delimiters themselves. For example, the entity “<!DOCTYPE text>” will cause this method to be called with the argument 'DOCTYPE text'. The default method does nothing.

syntax_error(*lineno, message*)
: This method is called when a syntax error is encountered. The lineno argument is the line number of the error, and the message is a description of what was wrong. The default method raises a RuntimeError exception. If this method is overridden, it is permissable for it to return. This method is only called when the error can be recovered from.

unknown_starttag(*tag, attributes*)
: This method is called to process an unknown start tag. It is intended to be overridden by a derived class; the base class implementation does nothing.

unknown_endtag(*tag*)
: This method is called to process an unknown end tag. It is intended to be overridden by a derived class; the base class implementation does nothing.

unknown_charref(*ref*)
: This method is called to process unresolvable numeric character references. It is intended to be overridden by a derived class; the base class implementation does nothing.

unknown_entityref(*ref*)
: This method is called to process an unknown entity reference. It is intended to be overridden by a derived class; the base class implementation does nothing.

Apart from overriding or extending the methods listed above, derived classes may also define methods of the following form to define processing of specific tags. Tag names in the input stream are case dependent; the *tag* occurring in method names must be in the correct case:

start_*tag*(*attributes*)
: This method is called to process an opening tag *tag*. The *attributes* argument has the same meaning as described for handle_starttag() above.

end_*tag*()
: This method is called to process a closing tag *tag*.

11.11 Standard Module formatter

This module supports two interface definitions, each with mulitple implementations. The *formatter* interface is used by the HTMLParser class of the htmllib module, and the *writer* interface is required by the formatter interface.

Formatter objects transform an abstract flow of formatting events into specific output events on writer objects. Formatters manage several stack structures to allow various properties of a writer object to be changed and restored; writers need not be able to handle relative changes nor any sort of “change back” operation. Specific writer properties which may be controlled via formatter objects are horizontal alignment, font, and left margin indentations. A mechanism is provided which supports providing arbitrary, non-exclusive style settings to a writer as well. Additional interfaces facilitate formatting events which are not reversible, such as paragraph separation.

Writer objects encapsulate device interfaces. Abstract devices, such as file formats, are supported as well as physical devices. The provided implementations all work with abstract devices. The interface makes available mechanisms for setting the properties which formatter objects manage and inserting data into the output.

11.11.1 The Formatter Interface

Interfaces to create formatters are dependent on the specific formatter class being instantiated. The interfaces described below are the required interfaces which all formatters must support once initialized.

One data element is defined at the module level:

`AS_IS`
: Value which can be used in the font specification passed to the `push_font()` method described below, or as the new value to any other `push_`*property*`()` method. Pushing the `AS_IS` value allows the corresponding `pop_`*property*`()` method to be called without having to track whether the property was changed.

The following attributes are defined for formatter instance objects:

`writer`
: The writer instance with which the formatter interacts.

`end_paragraph(`*blanklines*`)`
: Close any open paragraphs and insert at least `blanklines` before the next paragraph.

`add_line_break()`
: Add a hard line break if one does not already exist. This does not break the logical paragraph.

`add_hor_rule(`**args, **kw*`)`
: Insert a horizontal rule in the output. A hard break is inserted if there is data in the current paragraph, but the logical paragraph is not broken. The arguments and keywords are passed on to the writer's `send_line_break()` method.

`add_flowing_data(`*data*`)`
: Provide data which should be formatted with collapsed whitespaces. Whitespace from preceeding and successive calls to `add_flowing_data()` is considered as well when the whitespace collapse is performed. The data which is passed to this method is expected to be word-wrapped by the output device. Note that any word-wrapping still must be performed by the writer object due to the need to rely on device and font information.

`add_literal_data(`*data*`)`
: Provide data which should be passed to the writer unchanged. Whitespace, including newline and tab characters, are considered legal in the value of `data`.

`add_label_data(`*format, counter*`)`
: Insert a label which should be placed to the left of the current left margin. This should be used for constructing bulleted or numbered lists. If the `format` value is a string, it is interpreted as a format specification for `counter`, which should be an integer. The result of this formatting becomes the value of the label; if `format` is not a string it is used as the label value directly. The label value is passed as the only argument to the writer's `send_label_data()` method. Interpretation of non-string label values is dependent on the associated writer.

  Format specifications are strings which, in combination with a counter value, are used to compute label values. Each character in the format string is copied to the label value, with some characters recognized to indicate a transform on the counter value. Specifically, the character "`1`" represents the counter value formatter as an arabic number, the characters "`A`" and "`a`" represent alphabetic representations of the counter value in upper and lower case, respectively, and "`I`" and "`i`" represent the counter value in Roman numerals, in upper and lower case. Note that the alphabetic and roman transforms require that the counter value be greater than zero.

`flush_softspace()`
: Send any pending whitespace buffered from a previous call to `add_flowing_data()` to the associated writer object. This should be called before any direct manipulation of the writer object.

`push_alignment(`*align*`)`
: Push a new alignment setting onto the alignment stack. This may be `AS_IS` if no change is desired. If the alignment value is

changed from the previous setting, the writer's `new_alignment()` method is called with the `align` value.

`pop_alignment()`
Restore the previous alignment.

`push_font(`*(size, italic, bold, teletype)*`)`
Change some or all font properties of the writer object. Properties which are not set to `AS_IS` are set to the values passed in while others are maintained at their current settings. The writer's `new_font()` method is called with the fully resolved font specification.

`pop_font()`
Restore the previous font.

`push_margin(`*margin*`)`
Increase the number of left margin indentations by one, associating the logical tag `margin` with the new indentation. The initial margin level is `0`. Changed values of the logical tag must be true values; false values other than `AS_IS` are not sufficient to change the margin.

`pop_margin()`
Restore the previous margin.

`push_style(`**styles*`)`
Push any number of arbitrary style specifications. All styles are pushed onto the styles stack in order. A tuple representing the entire stack, including `AS_IS` values, is passed to the writer's `new_styles()` method.

`pop_style(` [*n* `= 1`] `)`
Pop the last `n` style specifications passed to `push_style()`. A tuple representing the revised stack, including `AS_IS` values, is passed to the writer's `new_styles()` method.

`set_spacing(`*spacing*`)`
Set the spacing style for the writer.

`assert_line_data(` [*flag* `= 1`] `)`
Inform the formatter that data has been added to the current paragraph out-of-band. This should be used when the writer has been manipulated directly. The optional `flag` argument can be set to false if the writer manipulations produced a hard line break at the end of the output.

11.11.2 Formatter Implementations

Two implementations of formatter objects are provided by this module. Most applications may use one of these classes without modification or subclassing.

`NullFormatter(` [*writer* `= None`] `)`
A formatter which does nothing. If `writer` is omitted, a `NullWriter` instance is created. No methods of the writer are called by `NullWriter` instances. Implementations should inherit from this class if implementing a writer interface but don't need to inherit any implementation.

`AbstractFormatter(`*writer*`)`
The standard formatter. This implementation has demonstrated wide applicability to many writers, and may be used directly in most circumstances. It has been used to implement a full-featured world-wide web browser.

11.11.3 The Writer Interface

Interfaces to create writers are dependent on the specific writer class being instantiated. The interfaces described below are the required interfaces which all writers must support once initialized. Note that while most applications can use the `AbstractFormatter` class as a formatter, the writer must typically be provided by the application.

`flush()`
Flush any buffered output or device control events.

`new_alignment(`*align*`)`
Set the alignment style. The `align` value can be any object, but by convention is a string or `None`, where `None` indicates

that the writer's "preferred" alignment should be used. Conventional `align` values are `'left'`, `'center'`, `'right'`, and `'justify'`.

`new_font` (*font*)
: Set the font style. The value of `font` will be `None`, indicating that the device's default font should be used, or a tuple of the form (*size*, *italic*, *bold*, *teletype*). Size will be a string indicating the size of font that should be used; specific strings and their interpretation must be defined by the application. The *italic*, *bold*, and *teletype* values are boolean indicators specifying which of those font attributes should be used.

`new_margin` (*margin, level*)
: Set the margin level to the integer `level` and the logical tag to `margin`. Interpretation of the logical tag is at the writer's discretion; the only restriction on the value of the logical tag is that it not be a false value for non-zero values of `level`.

`new_spacing` (*spacing*)
: Set the spacing style to `spacing`.

`new_styles` (*styles*)
: Set additional styles. The `styles` value is a tuple of arbitrary values; the value `AS_IS` should be ignored. The `styles` tuple may be interpreted either as a set or as a stack depending on the requirements of the application and writer implementation.

`send_line_break` ()
: Break the current line.

`send_paragraph` (*blankline*)
: Produce a paragraph separation of at least `blankline` blank lines, or the equivelent. The `blankline` value will be an integer.

`send_hor_rule` (**args, **kw*)
: Display a horizontal rule on the output device. The arguments to this method are entirely application- and writer-specific, and should be interpreted with care. The method implementation may assume that a line break has already been issued via `send_line_break()`.

`send_flowing_data` (*data*)
: Output character data which may be word-wrapped and re-flowed as needed. Within any sequence of calls to this method, the writer may assume that spans of multiple whitespace characters have been collapsed to single space characters.

`send_literal_data` (*data*)
: Output character data which has already been formatted for display. Generally, this should be interpreted to mean that line breaks indicated by newline characters should be preserved and no new line breaks should be introduced. The data may contain embedded newline and tab characters, unlike data provided to the `send_formatted_data()` interface.

`send_label_data` (*data*)
: Set `data` to the left of the current left margin, if possible. The value of `data` is not restricted; treatment of non-string values is entirely application- and writer-dependent. This method will only be called at the beginning of a line.

11.11.4 Writer Implementations

Three implementations of the writer object interface are provided as examples by this module. Most applications will need to derive new writer classes from the `NullWriter` class.

`NullWriter` ()
: A writer which only provides the interface definition; no actions are taken on any methods. This should be the base class for all writers which do not need to inherit any implementation methods.

`AbstractWriter` ()
: A writer which can be used in debugging formatters, but not much else. Each method simply accounces itself by printing its name and arguments on standard output.

`DumbWriter` ([*file* = `None` [, *maxcol* = `72`]])
: Simple writer class which writes output on the file object passed in as `file` or, if `file` is omitted, on standard output. The output is simply word-wrapped to the number of columns specified by `maxcol`. This class is suitable for reflowing a sequence of paragraphs.

11.12 Standard Module `rfc822`

This module defines a class, `Message`, which represents a collection of “email headers” as defined by the Internet standard RFC 822. It is used in various contexts, usually to read such headers from a file.

Note that there’s a separate module to read UNIX, MH, and MMDF style mailbox files: `mailbox`.

A `Message` instance is instantiated with an open file object as parameter. The optional `seekable` parameter indicates if the file object is seekable; the default value is 1 for true. Instantiation reads headers from the file up to a blank line and stores them in the instance; after instantiation, the file is positioned directly after the blank line that terminates the headers.

Input lines as read from the file may either be terminated by CR-LF or by a single linefeed; a terminating CR-LF is replaced by a single linefeed before the line is stored.

All header matching is done independent of upper or lower case; e.g. `m['From']`, `m['from']` and `m['FROM']` all yield the same result.

`parsedate(`*date*`)`
: Attempts to parse a date according to the rules in RFC822. however, some mailers don’t follow that format as specified, so `parsedate()` tries to guess correctly in such cases. *date* is a string containing an RFC822 date, such as `"Mon, 20 Nov 1995 19:12:08 -0500"`. If it succeeds in parsing the date, `parsedate()` returns a 9-tuple that can be passed directly to `time.mktime()`; otherwise `None` will be returned.

`parsedate_tz(`*date*`)`
: Performs the same function as `parsedate`, but returns either `None` or a 10-tuple; the first 9 elements make up a tuple that can be passed directly to `time.mktime()`, and the tenth is the offset of the date’s time zone from UTC (which is the official term for Greenwich Mean Time).

11.12.1 Message Objects

A `Message` instance has the following methods:

`rewindbody()`
: Seek to the start of the message body. This only works if the file object is seekable.

`getallmatchingheaders(`*name*`)`
: Return a list of lines consisting of all headers matching *name*, if any. Each physical line, whether it is a continuation line or not, is a separate list item. Return the empty list if no header matches *name*.

`getfirstmatchingheader(`*name*`)`
: Return a list of lines comprising the first header matching *name*, and its continuation line(s), if any. Return `None` if there is no header matching *name*.

`getrawheader(`*name*`)`
: Return a single string consisting of the text after the colon in the first header matching *name*. This includes leading whitespace, the trailing linefeed, and internal linefeeds and whitespace if there any continuation line(s) were present. Return `None` if there is no header matching *name*.

`getheader(`*name*`)`
: Like `getrawheader(`*name*`)`, but strip leading and trailing whitespace (but not internal whitespace).

`getaddr(`*name*`)`
: Return a pair (full name, email address) parsed from the string returned by `getheader(`*name*`)`. If no header matching *name* exists, return `None, None`; otherwise both the full name and the address are (possibly empty)strings.

: Example: If `m`’s first `From` header contains the string `'jack@cwi.nl (Jack Jansen)'`, then `m.getaddr('From')` will yield the pair `('Jack Jansen', 'jack@cwi.nl')`. If the header contained `'Jack Jansen <jack@cwi.nl>'` instead, it would yield the exact same result.

`getaddrlist(`*name*`)`
: This is similar to `getaddr(`*list*`)`, but parses a header containing a list of email addresses (e.g. a `To` header) and returns a list of (full name, email address) pairs (even if there was only one address in the header). If there is no header matching *name*, return an empty list.

XXX The current version of this function is not really correct. It yields bogus results if a full name contains a comma.

`getdate(`*name*`)`
Retrieve a header using `getheader` and parse it into a 9-tuple compatible with `time.mktime()`. If there is no header matching *name*, or it is unparsable, return `None`.

Date parsing appears to be a black art, and not all mailers adhere to the standard. While it has been tested and found correct on a large collection of email from many sources, it is still possible that this function may occasionally yield an incorrect result.

`getdate_tz(`*name*`)`
Retrieve a header using `getheader` and parse it into a 10-tuple; the first 9 elements will make a tuple compatible with `time.mktime()`, and the 10th is a number giving the offset of the date's time zone from UTC. Similarly to `getdate()`, if there is no header matching *name*, or it is unparsable, return `None`.

`Message` instances also support a read-only mapping interface. In particular: `m[name]` is the same as `m.getheader(name)`; and `len(m)`, `m.has_key(name)`, `m.keys()`, `m.values()` and `m.items()` act as expected (and consistently).

Finally, `Message` instances have two public instance variables:

`headers`
A list containing the entire set of header lines, in the order in which they were read. Each line contains a trailing newline. The blank line terminating the headers is not contained in the list.

`fp`
The file object passed at instantiation time.

11.13 Standard Module `mimetools`

This module defines a subclass of the class `rfc822.Message` and a number of utility functions that are useful for the manipulation for MIME style multipart or encoded message.

It defines the following items:

`Message(`*fp*`)`
Return a new instance of the `mimetools.Message` class. This is a subclass of the `rfc822.Message` class, with some additional methods (see below).

`choose_boundary()`
Return a unique string that has a high likelihood of being usable as a part boundary. The string has the form `"`*hostipaddr*`.`*uid*`.`*pid*`.`*timestamp*`.`*random*`"`.

`decode(`*input, output, encoding*`)`
Read data encoded using the allowed MIME *encoding* from open file object *input* and write the decoded data to open file object *output*. Valid values for *encoding* include `"base64"`, `"quoted-printable"` and `"uuencode"`.

`encode(`*input, output, encoding*`)`
Read data from open file object *input* and write it encoded using the allowed MIME *encoding* to open file object *output*. Valid values for *encoding* are the same as for `decode()`.

`copyliteral(`*input, output*`)`
Read lines until EOF from open file *input* and write them to open file *output*.

`copybinary(`*input, output*`)`
Read blocks until EOF from open file *input* and write them to open file *output*. The block size is currently fixed at 8192.

11.13.1 Additional Methods of Message objects

The `mimetools.Message` class defines the following methods in addition to the `rfc822.Message` class:

`getplist()`
Return the parameter list of the `Content-type` header. This is a list if strings. For parameters of the form '*key*=*value*', *key* is converted to lower case but *value* is not. For example, if the message contains the header

'`Content-type: text/html; spam=1; Spam=2; Spam`' then `getplist()` will return the Python list `['spam=1', 'spam=2', 'Spam']`.

`getparam(`*name*`)`
Return the *value* of the first parameter (as returned by `getplist()` of the form '*name*=*value*' for the given *name*. If *value* is surrounded by quotes of the form ¡...¿ or "...", these are removed.

`getencoding()`
Return the encoding specified in the '`Content-transfer-encoding`' message header. If no such header exists, return `"7bit"`. The encoding is converted to lower case.

`gettype()`
Return the message type (of the form '*type*/*subtype*') as specified in the '`Content-type`' header. If no such header exists, return `"text/plain"`. The type is converted to lower case.

`getmaintype()`
Return the main type as specified in the '`Content-type`' header. If no such header exists, return `"text"`. The main type is converted to lower case.

`getsubtype()`
Return the subtype as specified in the '`Content-type`' header. If no such header exists, return `"plain"`. The subtype is converted to lower case.

11.14 Standard module `binhex`

This module encodes and decodes files in binhex4 format, a format allowing representation of Macintosh files in ASCII. On the macintosh, both forks of a file and the finder information are encoded (or decoded), on other platforms only the data fork is handled.

The `binhex` module defines the following functions:

`binhex(`*input, output*`)`
Convert a binary file with filename *input* to binhex file *output*. The *output* parameter can either be a filename or a file-like object (any object supporting a *write* and *close* method).

`hexbin(`*input* [*, output*]`)`
Decode a binhex file *input*. *input* may be a filename or a file-like object supporting *read* and *close* methods. The resulting file is written to a file named *output*, unless the argument is empty in which case the output filename is read from the binhex file.

11.14.1 notes

There is an alternative, more powerful interface to the coder and decoder, see the source for details.

If you code or decode textfiles on non-Macintosh platforms they will still use the macintosh newline convention (carriage-return as end of line).

As of this writing, *hexbin* appears to not work in all cases.

11.15 Standard module `uu`

This module encodes and decodes files in uuencode format, allowing arbitrary binary data to be transferred over ascii-only connections. Wherever a file argument is expected, the methods accept a file-like object. For backwards compatibility, a string containing a pathname is also accepted, and the corresponding file will be opened for reading and writing; the pathname `'-'` is understood to mean the standard input or output. However, this interface is deprecated; it's better for the caller to open the file itself, and be sure that, when required, the mode is `'rb'` or `'wb'` on Windows or DOS.

This code was contributed by Lance Ellinghouse, and modified by Jack Jansen.

The `uu` module defines the following functions:

encode(*in_file, out_file* [*, name, mode*])
: Uuencode file *in_file* into file *out_file*. The uuencoded file will have the header specifying *name* and *mode* as the defaults for the results of decoding the file. The default defaults are taken from *in_file*, or `'-'` and `0666` respectively.

decode(*in_file* [*, out_file, mode*])
: This call decodes uuencoded file *in_file* placing the result on file *out_file*. If *out_file* is a pathname the *mode* is also set. Defaults for *out_file* and *mode* are taken from the uuencode header.

11.16 Built-in Module `binascii`

The binascii module contains a number of methods to convert between binary and various ascii-encoded binary representations. Normally, you will not use these modules directly but use wrapper modules like *uu* or *hexbin* in stead, this module solely exists because bit-manipuation of large amounts of data is slow in python.

The `binascii` module defines the following functions:

a2b_uu(*string*)
: Convert a single line of uuencoded data back to binary and return the binary data. Lines normally contain 45 (binary) bytes, except for the last line. Line data may be followed by whitespace.

b2a_uu(*data*)
: Convert binary data to a line of ascii characters, the return value is the converted line, including a newline char. The length of *data* should be at most 45.

a2b_base64(*string*)
: Convert a block of base64 data back to binary and return the binary data. More than one line may be passed at a time.

b2a_base64(*data*)
: Convert binary data to a line of ascii characters in base64 coding. The return value is the converted line, including a newline char. The length of *data* should be at most 57 to adhere to the base64 standard.

a2b_hqx(*string*)
: Convert binhex4 formatted ascii data to binary, without doing rle-decompression. The string should contain a complete number of binary bytes, or (in case of the last portion of the binhex4 data) have the remaining bits zero.

rledecode_hqx(*data*)
: Perform RLE-decompression on the data, as per the binhex4 standard. The algorithm uses `0x90` after a byte as a repeat indicator, followed by a count. A count of `0` specifies a byte value of `0x90`. The routine returns the decompressed data, unless data input data ends in an orphaned repeat indicator, in which case the *Incomplete* exception is raised.

rlecode_hqx(*data*)
: Perform binhex4 style RLE-compression on *data* and return the result.

b2a_hqx(*data*)
: Perform hexbin4 binary-to-ascii translation and return the resulting string. The argument should already be rle-coded, and have a length divisible by 3 (except possibly the last fragment).

crc_hqx(*data, crc*)
: Compute the binhex4 crc value of *data*, starting with an initial *crc* and returning the result.

Error
: Exception raised on errors. These are usually programming errors.

Incomplete
: Exception raised on incomplete data. These are usually not programming errors, but handled by reading a little more data and trying again.

11.17 Standard module `xdrlib`

The `xdrlib` module supports the External Data Representation Standard as described in RFC 1014, written by Sun Microsystems, Inc. June 1987. It supports most of the data types described in the RFC.

The `xdrlib` module defines two classes, one for packing variables into XDR representation, and another for unpacking from XDR representation. There are also two exception classes.

11.17.1 Packer Objects

`Packer` is the class for packing data into XDR representation. The `Packer` class is instantiated with no arguments.

`get_buffer()`
Returns the current pack buffer as a string.

`reset()`
Resets the pack buffer to the empty string.

In general, you can pack any of the most common XDR data types by calling the appropriate `pack_`*type* method. Each method takes a single argument, the value to pack. The following simple data type packing methods are supported: `pack_uint`, `pack_int`, `pack_enum`, `pack_bool`, `pack_uhyper`, and `pack_hyper`.

`pack_float(`*value*`)`
Packs the single-precision floating point number *value*.

`pack_double(`*value*`)`
Packs the double-precision floating point number *value*.

The following methods support packing strings, bytes, and opaque data:

`pack_fstring(`*n, s*`)`
Packs a fixed length string, *s*. *n* is the length of the string but it is *not* packed into the data buffer. The string is padded with null bytes if necessary to guaranteed 4 byte alignment.

`pack_fopaque(`*n, data*`)`
Packs a fixed length opaque data stream, similarly to `pack_fstring`.

`pack_string(`*s*`)`
Packs a variable length string, *s*. The length of the string is first packed as an unsigned integer, then the string data is packed with `pack_fstring`.

`pack_opaque(`*data*`)`
Packs a variable length opaque data string, similarly to `pack_string`.

`pack_bytes(`*bytes*`)`
Packs a variable length byte stream, similarly to `pack_string`.

The following methods support packing arrays and lists:

`pack_list(`*list, pack_item*`)`
Packs a *list* of homogeneous items. This method is useful for lists with an indeterminate size; i.e. the size is not available until the entire list has been walked. For each item in the list, an unsigned integer `1` is packed first, followed by the data value from the list. *pack_item* is the function that is called to pack the individual item. At the end of the list, an unsigned integer `0` is packed.

`pack_farray(`*n, array, pack_item*`)`
Packs a fixed length list (*array*) of homogeneous items. *n* is the length of the list; it is *not* packed into the buffer, but a `ValueError` exception is raised if `len(array)` is not equal to *n*. As above, *pack_item* is the function used to pack each element.

`pack_array(`*list, pack_item*`)`
Packs a variable length *list* of homogeneous items. First, the length of the list is packed as an unsigned integer, then each element is packed as in `pack_farray` above.

11.17.2 Unpacker Objects

`Unpacker` is the complementary class which unpacks XDR data values from a string buffer, and has the following methods:

`__init__(`*data*`)`

Instantiates an `Unpacker` object with the string buffer *data*.

`reset(`*data*`)`
Resets the string buffer with the given *data*.

`get_position()`
Returns the current unpack position in the data buffer.

`set_position(`*position*`)`
Sets the data buffer unpack position to *position*. You should be careful about using `get_position()` and `set_position()`.

`get_buffer()`
Returns the current unpack data buffer as a string.

`done()`
Indicates unpack completion. Raises an `xdrlib.Error` exception if all of the data has not been unpacked.

In addition, every data type that can be packed with a `Packer`, can be unpacked with an `Unpacker`. Unpacking methods are of the form `unpack_`*type*, and take no arguments. They return the unpacked object.

`unpack_float()`
Unpacks a single-precision floating point number.

`unpack_double()`
Unpacks a double-precision floating point number, similarly to `unpack_float`.

In addition, the following methods unpack strings, bytes, and opaque data:

`unpack_fstring(`*n*`)`
Unpacks and returns a fixed length string. *n* is the number of characters expected. Padding with null bytes to guaranteed 4 byte alignment is assumed.

`unpack_fopaque(`*n*`)`
Unpacks and returns a fixed length opaque data stream, similarly to `unpack_fstring`.

`unpack_string()`
Unpacks and returns a variable length string. The length of the string is first unpacked as an unsigned integer, then the string data is unpacked with `unpack_fstring`.

`unpack_opaque()`
Unpacks and returns a variable length opaque data string, similarly to `unpack_string`.

`unpack_bytes()`
Unpacks and returns a variable length byte stream, similarly to `unpack_string`.

The following methods support unpacking arrays and lists:

`unpack_list(`*unpack_item*`)`
Unpacks and returns a list of homogeneous items. The list is unpacked one element at a time by first unpacking an unsigned integer flag. If the flag is `1`, then the item is unpacked and appended to the list. A flag of `0` indicates the end of the list. *unpack_item* is the function that is called to unpack the items.

`unpack_farray(`*n, unpack_item*`)`
Unpacks and returns (as a list) a fixed length array of homogeneous items. *n* is number of list elements to expect in the buffer. As above, *unpack_item* is the function used to unpack each element.

`unpack_array(`*unpack_item*`)`
Unpacks and returns a variable length *list* of homogeneous items. First, the length of the list is unpacked as an unsigned integer, then each element is unpacked as in `unpack_farray` above.

11.17.3 Exceptions

Exceptions in this module are coded as class instances:

`Error`

The base exception class. `Error` has a single public data member `msg` containing the description of the error.

`ConversionError`
Class derived from `Error`. Contains no additional instance variables.

Here is an example of how you would catch one of these exceptions:

```
import xdrlib
p = xdrlib.Packer()
try:
    p.pack_double(8.01)
except xdrlib.ConversionError, instance:
    print 'packing the double failed:', instance.msg
```

11.18 Standard Module `mailcap`

Mailcap files are used to configure how MIME-aware applications such as mail readers and Web browsers react to files with different MIME types. (The name "mailcap" is derived from the phrase "mail capability".) For example, a mailcap file might contain a line like `video/mpeg; xmpeg %s`. Then, if the user encounters an email message or Web document with the MIME type video/mpeg, `%s` will be replaced by a filename (usually one belonging to a temporary file) and the xmpeg program can be automatically started to view the file.

The mailcap format is documented in RFC 1524, "A User Agent Configuration Mechanism For Multimedia Mail Format Information", but is not an Internet standard. However, mailcap files are supported on most Unix systems.

`findmatch(`*caps, MIMEtype, key, filename, plist*`)`
Return a 2-tuple; the first element is a string containing the command line to be executed (which can be passed to `os.system()`), and the second element is the mailcap entry for a given MIME type. If no matching MIME type can be found, `(None, None)` is returned.

key is the name of the field desired, which represents the type of activity to be performed; the default value is 'view', since in the most common case you simply want to view the body of the MIME-typed data. Other possible values might be 'compose' and 'edit', if you wanted to create a new body of the given MIME type or alter the existing body data. See RFC1524 for a complete list of these fields.

filename is the filename to be substituted for %s in the command line; the default value is '`/dev/null`' which is almost certainly not what you want, so usually you'll override it by specifying a filename.

plist can be a list containing named parameters; the default value is simply an empty list. Each entry in the list must be a string containing the parameter name, an equals sign (=), and the parameter's value. Mailcap entries can contain named parameters like `%{foo}`, which will be replaced by the value of the parameter named 'foo'. For example, if the command line `showpartial %{id} %{number} %{total}` was in a mailcap file, and *plist* was set to `['id=1', 'number=2', 'total=3']`, the resulting command line would be `"showpartial 1 2 3"`.

In a mailcap file, the "test" field can optionally be specified to test some external condition (e.g., the machine architecture, or the window system in use) to determine whether or not the mailcap line applies. `findmatch()` will automatically check such conditions and skip the entry if the check fails.

`getcaps()`
Returns a dictionary mapping MIME types to a list of mailcap file entries. This dictionary must be passed to the `findmatch` function. An entry is stored as a list of dictionaries, but it shouldn't be necessary to know the details of this representation.

The information is derived from all of the mailcap files found on the system. Settings in the user's mailcap file '`$HOME/.mailcap`' will override settings in the system mailcap files '`/etc/mailcap`', '`/usr/etc/mailcap`', and '`/usr/local/etc/mailcap`'.

An example usage:

```
>>> import mailcap
>>> d=mailcap.getcaps()
>>> mailcap.findmatch(d, 'video/mpeg', filename='/tmp/tmp1223')
('xmpeg /tmp/tmp1223', {'view': 'xmpeg %s'})
```

11.19 Standard Module `base64`

This module perform base-64 encoding and decoding of arbitrary binary strings into text strings that can be safely emailed or posted. The encoding scheme is defined in RFC 1421 and is used for MIME email and various other Internet-related applications; it is not the same as the output produced by the '`uuencode`' program. For example, the string `'www.python.org'` is encoded as the string `'d3d3LnB5dGhvbi5vcmc=\n'`.

`decode`(*input, output*)
: Decode the contents of the *input* file and write the resulting binary data to the *output* file. *input* and *output* must either be file objects or objects that mimic the file object interface. *input* will be read until *input*`.read()` returns an empty string.

`decodestring`(*s*)
: Decode the string *s*, which must contain one or more lines of base-64 encoded data, and return a string containing the resulting binary data.

`encode`(*input, output*)
: Encode the contents of the *input* file and write the resulting base-64 encoded data to the *output* file. *input* and *output* must either be file objects or objects that mimic the file object interface. *input* will be read until *input*`.read()` returns an empty string.

`encodestring`(*s*)
: Encode the string *s*, which can contain arbitrary binary data, and return a string containing one or more lines of base-64 encoded data.

11.20 Standard Module `quopri`

This module performs quoted-printable transport encoding and decoding, as defined in RFC 1521: "MIME (Multipurpose Internet Mail Extensions) Part One". The quoted-printable encoding is designed for data where there are relatively few nonprintable characters; the base-64 encoding scheme available via the `base64` module is more compact if there are many such characters, as when sending a graphics file.

`decode`(*input, output*)
: Decode the contents of the *input* file and write the resulting decoded binary data to the *output* file. *input* and *output* must either be file objects or objects that mimic the file object interface. *input* will be read until *input*`.read()` returns an empty string.

`encode`(*input, output, quotetabs*)
: Encode the contents of the *input* file and write the resulting quoted-printable data to the *output* file. *input* and *output* must either be file objects or objects that mimic the file object interface. *input* will be read until *input*`.read()` returns an empty string.

11.21 Standard Module `SocketServer`

The `SocketServer` module simplifies the task of writing network servers.

There are four basic server classes: `TCPServer` uses the Internet TCP protocol, which provides for continuous streams of data between the client and server. `UDPServer` uses datagrams, which are discrete packets of information that may arrive out of order or be lost while in transit. The more infrequently used `UnixStreamServer` and `UnixDatagramServer` classes are similar, but use Unix domain sockets; they're not available on non-Unix platforms. For more details on network programming, consult a book such as W. Richard Steven's *UNIX Network Programming* or Ralph Davis's *Win32 Network Programming*.

These four classes process requests *synchronously*; each request must be completed before the next request can be started. This isn't suitable if each request takes a long time to complete, because it requires a lot of computation, or because it returns a lot of data which the client is slow to process. The solution is to create a separate process or thread to handle each request; the `ForkingMixIn` and `ThreadingMixIn` mix-in classes can be used to support asynchronous behaviour.

Creating a server requires several steps. First, you must create a request handler class by subclassing the `BaseRequestHandler` class and overriding its `handle()` method; this method will process incoming requests. Second, you must instantiate one of the server classes, passing it the server's address and the request handler class. Finally, call the `handle_request()` or `serve_forever()` method of the server object to process one or many requests.

Server classes have the same external methods and attributes, no matter what network protocol they use:

`fileno()`
: Return an integer file descriptor for the socket on which the server is listening. This function is most commonly passed to `select.select()`, to allow monitoring multiple servers in the same process.

`handle_request()`
: Process a single request. This function calls the following methods in order: `get_request()`, `verify_request()`, and `process_request()`. If the user-provided `handle()` method of the handler class raises an exception, the server's `handle_error()` method will be called.

`serve_forever()`
: Handle an infinite number of requests. This simply calls `handle_request()` inside an infinite loop.

`address_family`
: The family of protocols to which the server's socket belongs. `socket.AF_INET` and `socket.AF_UNIX` are two possible values.

`RequestHandlerClass`
: The user-provided request handler class; an instance of this class is created for each request.

`server_address`
: The address on which the server is listening. The format of addresses varies depending on the protocol family; see the documentation for the socket module for details. For Internet protocols, this is a tuple containing a string giving the address, and an integer port number: `('127.0.0.1', 80)`, for example.

`socket`
: The socket object on which the server will listen for incoming requests.

The server classes support the following class variables:

`request_queue_size`
: The size of the request queue. If it takes a long time to process a single request, any requests that arrive while the server is busy are placed into a queue, up to `request_queue_size` requests. Once the queue is full, further requests from clients will get a "Connection denied" error. The default value is usually 5, but this can be overridden by subclasses.

`socket_type`
: The type of socket used by the server; `socket.SOCK_STREAM` and `socket.SOCK_DGRAM` are two possible values.

There are various server methods that can be overridden by subclasses of base server classes like `TCPServer`; these methods aren't useful to external users of the server object.

`finish_request()`
: Actually processes the request by instantiating `RequestHandlerClass` and calling its `handle()` method.

`get_request()`
: Must accept a request from the socket, and return a 2-tuple containing the *new* socket object to be used to communicate with the client, and the client's address.

`handle_error(`*request, client_address*`)`
: This function is called if the `RequestHandlerClass`'s `handle` method raises an exception. The default action is to print the traceback to standard output and continue handling further requests.

`process_request(`*request, client_address*`)`

Calls `finish_request()` to create an instance of the `RequestHandlerClass`. If desired, this function can create a new process or thread to handle the request; the `ForkingMixIn` and `ThreadingMixIn` classes do this.

`server_activate()`
Called by the server's constructor to activate the server. May be overridden.

`server_bind()`
Called by the server's constructor to bind the socket to the desired address. May be overridden.

`verify_request(`*request, client_address*`)`
Must return a Boolean value; if the value is true, the request will be processed, and if it's false, the request will be denied. This function can be overridden to implement access controls for a server. The default implementation always return true.

The request handler class must define a new `handle` method, and can override any of the following methods. A new instance is created for each request.

`finish()`
Called after the `handle` method to perform any clean-up actions required. The default implementation does nothing. If `setup()` or `handle()` raise an exception, this function will not be called.

`handle()`
This function must do all the work required to service a request. Several instance attributes are available to it; the request is available as `self.request`; the client address as `self.client_request`; and the server instance as `self.server`, in case it needs access to per-server information.

The type of `self.request` is different for datagram or stream services. For stream services, `self.request` is a socket object; for datagram services, `self.request` is a string. However, this can be hidden by using the mix-in request handler classes `StreamRequestHandler` or `DatagramRequestHandler`, which override the `setup` and `finish` methods, and provides `self.rfile` and `self.wfile` attributes. `self.rfile` and `self.wfile` can be read or written, respectively, to get the request data or return data to the client.

`setup()`
Called before the `handle` method to perform any initialization actions required. The default implementation does nothing.

11.22 Standard Module `mailbox`

This module defines a number of classes that allow easy and uniform access to mail messages in a (unix) mailbox.

`UnixMailbox(`*fp*`)`
Access a classic unix-style mailbox, where all messages are contained in a single file and separated by "From name time" lines. *Fp* is the file object pointing to the mailbox file.

`MmdfMailbox(`*fp*`)`
Access an MMDF-style mailbox, where all messages are contained in a single file and separated by lines consisting of 4 control-A characters. *Fp* is the file object pointing to the mailbox file.

`MHMailbox(`*dirname*`)`
Access an MH mailbox, a directory with each message in a separate file with a numeric name. *Dirname* is the name of the mailbox directory.

11.22.1 Mailbox Objects

All implementations of Mailbox objects have one externally visible method:

`next()`
Return the next message in the mailbox, as a `rfc822.Message` object. Depending on the mailbox implementation the *fp* attribute of this object may be a true file object or a class instance simulating a file object, taking care of things like message boundaries if multiple mail messages are contained in a single file, etc.

11.23 Standard Module `mimify`

The mimify module defines two functions to convert mail messages to and from MIME format. The mail message can be either a simple message or a so-called multipart message. Each part is treated separately. Mimifying (a part of) a message entails encoding the message as quoted-printable if it contains any characters that cannot be represented using 7-bit ASCII. Unmimifying (a part of) a message entails undoing the quoted-printable encoding. Mimify and unmimify are especially useful when a message has to be edited before being sent. Typical use would be:

```
unmimify message
edit message
mimify message
send message
```

The modules defines the following user-callable functions and user-settable variables:

`mimify` (*infile, outfile*)
: Copy the message in *infile* to *outfile*, converting parts to quoted-printable and adding MIME mail headers when necessary. *infile* and *outfile* can be file objects (actually, any object that has a `readline` method (for *infile*) or a `write` method (for *outfile*)) or strings naming the files. If *infile* and *outfile* are both strings, they may have the same value.

`unmimify` (*infile, outfile, decode_base64 = 0*)
: Copy the message in *infile* to *outfile*, decoding all quoted-printable parts. *infile* and *outfile* can be file objects (actually, any object that has a `readline` method (for *infile*) or a `write` method (for *outfile*)) or strings naming the files. If *infile* and *outfile* are both strings, they may have the same value. If the *decode_base64* argument is provided and tests true, any parts that are coded in the base64 encoding are decoded as well.

`mime_decode_header` (*line*)
: Return a decoded version of the encoded header line in *line*.

`mime_encode_header` (*line*)
: Return a MIME-encoded version of the header line in *line*.

`MAXLEN`
: By default, a part will be encoded as quoted-printable when it contains any non-ASCII characters (i.e., characters with the 8th bit set), or if there are any lines longer than `MAXLEN` characters (default value 200).

`CHARSET`
: When not specified in the mail headers, a character set must be filled in. The string used is stored in `CHARSET`, and the default value is ISO-8859-1 (also known as Latin1 (latin-one)).

This module can also be used from the command line. Usage is as follows:

```
mimify.py -e [-l length] [infile [outfile]]
mimify.py -d [-b] [infile [outfile]]
```

to encode (mimify) and decode (unmimify) respectively. *infile* defaults to standard input, *outfile* defaults to standard output. The same file can be specified for input and output.

If the `-l` option is given when encoding, if there are any lines longer than the specified *length*, the containing part will be encoded.

If the `-b` option is given when decoding, any base64 parts will be decoded as well.

Chapter 12

Restricted Execution

In general, Python programs have complete access to the underlying operating system throug the various functions and classes, For example, a Python program can open any file for reading and writing by using the `open()` built-in function (provided the underlying OS gives you permission!). This is exactly what you want for most applications.

There exists a class of applications for which this "openness" is inappropriate. Take Grail: a web browser that accepts "applets", snippets of Python code, from anywhere on the Internet for execution on the local system. This can be used to improve the user interface of forms, for instance. Since the originator of the code is unknown, it is obvious that it cannot be trusted with the full resources of the local machine.

Restricted execution is the basic framework in Python that allows for the segregation of trusted and untrusted code. It is based on the notion that trusted Python code (a *supervisor*) can create a "padded cell' (or environment) with limited permissions, and run the untrusted code within this cell. The untrusted code cannot break out of its cell, and can only interact with sensitive system resources through interfaces defined and managed by the trusted code. The term "restricted execution" is favored over "safe-Python" since true safety is hard to define, and is determined by the way the restricted environment is created. Note that the restricted environments can be nested, with inner cells creating subcells of lesser, but never greater, privilege.

An interesting aspect of Python's restricted execution model is that the interfaces presented to untrusted code usually have the same names as those presented to trusted code. Therefore no special interfaces need to be learned to write code designed to run in a restricted environment. And because the exact nature of the padded cell is determined by the supervisor, different restrictions can be imposed, depending on the application. For example, it might be deemed "safe" for untrusted code to read any file within a specified directory, but never to write a file. In this case, the supervisor may redefine the built-in `open()` function so that it raises an exception whenever the *mode* parameter is `'w'`. It might also perform a `chroot()`-like operation on the *filename* parameter, such that root is always relative to some safe "sandbox" area of the filesystem. In this case, the untrusted code would still see an built-in `open()` function in its environment, with the same calling interface. The semantics would be identical too, with `IOError`s being raised when the supervisor determined that an unallowable parameter is being used.

The Python run-time determines whether a particular code block is executing in restricted execution mode based on the identity of the `__builtins__` object in its global variables: if this is (the dictionary of) the standard `__builtin__` module, the code is deemed to be unrestricted, else it is deemed to be restricted.

Python code executing in restricted mode faces a number of limitations that are designed to prevent it from escaping from the padded cell. For instance, the function object attribute `func_globals` and the class and instance object attribute `__dict__` are unavailable.

Two modules provide the framework for setting up restricted execution environments:

rexec — Basic restricted execution framework.

Bastion — Providing restricted access to objects.

12.1 Standard Module `rexec`

This module contains the `RExec` class, which supports `r_exec()`, `r_eval()`, `r_execfile()`, and `r_import()` methods, which are restricted versions of the standard Python functions `exec()`, `eval()`, `execfile()`, and the `import` statement. Code executed in this restricted environment will only have access to modules and functions that are deemed safe; you can subclass `RExec` to add or remove capabilities as desired.

Note: The `RExec` class can prevent code from performing unsafe operations like reading or writing disk files, or using TCP/IP sockets. However, it does not protect against code using extremely large amounts of memory or CPU time.

`RExec(` [*hooks* [, *verbose*]] `)`
: Returns an instance of the `RExec` class.

hooks is an instance of the `RHooks` class or a subclass of it. If it is omitted or `None`, the default `RHooks` class is instantiated. Whenever the RExec module searches for a module (even a built-in one) or reads a module's code, it doesn't actually go out to the file system itself. Rather, it calls methods of an RHooks instance that was passed to or created by its constructor. (Actually, the RExec object doesn't make these calls—they are made by a module loader object that's part of the RExec object. This allows another level of flexibility, e.g. using packages.)

By providing an alternate RHooks object, we can control the file system accesses made to import a module, without changing the actual algorithm that controls the order in which those accesses are made. For instance, we could substitute an RHooks object that passes all filesystem requests to a file server elsewhere, via some RPC mechanism such as ILU. Grail's applet loader uses this to support importing applets from a URL for a directory.

If *verbose* is true, additional debugging output may be sent to standard output.

The RExec class has the following class attributes, which are used by the `__init__` method. Changing them on an existing instance won't have any effect; instead, create a subclass of `RExec` and assign them new values in the class definition. Instances of the new class will then use those new values. All these attributes are tuples of strings.

`nok_builtin_names`
: Contains the names of built-in functions which will *not* be available to programs running in the restricted environment. The value for `RExec` is `('open', 'reload', '__import__')`. (This gives the exceptions, because by far the majority of built-in functions are harmless. A subclass that wants to override this variable should probably start with the value from the base class and concatenate additional forbidden functions — when new dangerous built-in functions are added to Python, they will also be added to this module.)

`ok_builtin_modules`
: Contains the names of built-in modules which can be safely imported. The value for `RExec` is `('audioop', 'array', 'binascii', 'cmath', 'errno', 'imageop', 'marshal', 'math', 'md5', 'operator', 'parser', 'regex', 'rotor', 'select', 'strop', 'struct', 'time')`. A similar remark about overriding this variable applies — use the value from the base class as a starting point.

`ok_path`
: Contains the directories which will be searched when an `import` is performed in the restricted environment. The value for `RExec` is the same as `sys.path` (at the time the module is loaded) for unrestricted code.

`ok_posix_names`
: Contains the names of the functions in the `os` module which will be available to programs running in the restricted environment. The value for `RExec` is `('error', 'fstat', 'listdir', 'lstat', 'readlink', 'stat', 'times', 'uname', 'getpid', 'getppid', 'getcwd', 'getuid', 'getgid', 'geteuid', 'getegid')`.

`ok_sys_names`
: Contains the names of the functions and variables in the `sys` module which will be available to programs running in the restricted environment. The value for `RExec` is `('ps1', 'ps2', 'copyright', 'version', 'platform', 'exit', 'maxint')`.

RExec instances support the following methods:

`r_eval(`*code*`)`
: *code* must either be a string containing a Python expression, or a compiled code object, which will be evaluated in the restricted environment's `__main__` module. The value of the expression or code object will be returned.

`r_exec(`*code*`)`
: *code* must either be a string containing one or more lines of Python code, or a compiled code object, which will be executed

in the restricted environment's `__main__` module.

`r_execfile`(*filename*)
Execute the Python code contained in the file *filename* in the restricted environment's `__main__` module.

Methods whose names begin with `s_` are similar to the functions beginning with `r_`, but the code will be granted access to restricted versions of the standard I/O streans `sys.stdin`, `sys.stderr`, and `sys.stdout`.

`s_eval`(*code*)
code must be a string containing a Python expression, which will be evaluated in the restricted environment.

`s_exec`(*code*)
code must be a string containing one or more lines of Python code, which will be executed in the restricted environment.

`s_execfile`(*code*)
Execute the Python code contained in the file *filename* in the restricted environment.

`RExec` objects must also support various methods which will be implicitly called by code executing in the restricted environment. Overriding these methods in a subclass is used to change the policies enforced by a restricted environment.

`r_import`(*modulename* [, *globals, locals, fromlist*])
Import the module *modulename*, raising an `ImportError` exception if the module is considered unsafe.

`r_open`(*filename* [, *mode* [, *bufsize*]])
Method called when `open()` is called in the restricted environment. The arguments are identical to those of `open()`, and a file object (or a class instance compatible with file objects) should be returned. `RExec`'s default behaviour is allow opening any file for reading, but forbidding any attempt to write a file. See the example below for an implementation of a less restrictive `r_open()`.

`r_reload`(*module*)
Reload the module object *module*, re-parsing and re-initializing it.

`r_unload`(*module*)
Unload the module object *module* (i.e., remove it from the restricted environment's `sys.modules` dictionary).

And their equivalents with access to restricted standard I/O streams:

`s_import`(*modulename* [, *globals, locals, fromlist*])
Import the module *modulename*, raising an `ImportError` exception if the module is considered unsafe.

`s_reload`(*module*)
Reload the module object *module*, re-parsing and re-initializing it.

`s_unload`(*module*)
Unload the module object *module*.

12.1.1 An example

Let us say that we want a slightly more relaxed policy than the standard RExec class. For example, if we're willing to allow files in '`/tmp`' to be written, we can subclass the `RExec` class:

```
class TmpWriterRExec(rexec.RExec):
    def r_open(self, file, mode='r', buf=-1):
        if mode in ('r', 'rb'):
            pass
        elif mode in ('w', 'wb', 'a', 'ab'):
            # check filename : must begin with /tmp/
            if file[:5]!='/tmp/':
                raise IOError, "can't write outside /tmp"
            elif (string.find(file, '/../') >= 0 or
                 file[:3] == '../' or file[-3:] == '/..'):
                raise IOError, "'..' in filename forbidden"
        else: raise IOError, "Illegal open() mode"
        return open(file, mode, buf)
```

Notice that the above code will occasionally forbid a perfectly valid filename; for example, code in the restricted environment won't be able to open a file called '/tmp/foo/../bar'. To fix this, the r_open method would have to simplify the filename to '/tmp/bar', which would require splitting apart the filename and performing various operations on it. In cases where security is at stake, it may be preferable to write simple code which is sometimes overly restrictive, instead of more general code that is also more complex and may harbor a subtle security hole.

12.2 Standard Module Bastion

According to the dictionary, a bastion is "a fortified area or position", or "something that is considered a stronghold." It's a suitable name for this module, which provides a way to forbid access to certain attributes of an object. It must always be used with the rexec module, in order to allow restricted-mode programs access to certain safe attributes of an object, while denying access to other, unsafe attributes.

Bastion(*object* [, *filter, name, class*])

Protect the class instance *object*, returning a bastion for the object. Any attempt to access one of the object's attributes will have to be approved by the *filter* function; if the access is denied an AttributeError exception will be raised.

If present, *filter* must be a function that accepts a string containing an attribute name, and returns true if access to that attribute will be permitted; if *filter* returns false, the access is denied. The default filter denies access to any function beginning with an underscore (_). The bastion's string representation will be <Bastion for *name*> if a value for *name* is provided; otherwise, repr(*object*) will be used.

class, if present, would be a subclass of BastionClass; see the code in 'bastion.py' for the details. Overriding the default BastionClass will rarely be required.

Chapter 13

Multimedia Services

The modules described in this chapter implement various algorithms or interfaces that are mainly useful for multimedia applications. They are available at the discretion of the installation. Here's an overview:

audioop — Manipulate raw audio data.

imageop — Manipulate raw image data.

aifc — Read and write audio files in AIFF or AIFC format.

jpeg — Read and write image files in compressed JPEG format.

rgbimg — Read and write image files in "SGI RGB" format (the module is *not* SGI specific though)!

imghdr — Determine the type of image contained in a file or byte stream.

13.1 Built-in Module `audioop`

The `audioop` module contains some useful operations on sound fragments. It operates on sound fragments consisting of signed integer samples 8, 16 or 32 bits wide, stored in Python strings. This is the same format as used by the `al` and `sunaudiodev` modules. All scalar items are integers, unless specified otherwise.

A few of the more complicated operations only take 16-bit samples, otherwise the sample size (in bytes) is always a parameter of the operation.

The module defines the following variables and functions:

`error`
: This exception is raised on all errors, such as unknown number of bytes per sample, etc.

`add` (*fragment1, fragment2, width*)
: Return a fragment which is the addition of the two samples passed as parameters. *width* is the sample width in bytes, either `1`, `2` or `4`. Both fragments should have the same length.

`adpcm2lin` (*adpcmfragment, width, state*)
: Decode an Intel/DVI ADPCM coded fragment to a linear fragment. See the description of `lin2adpcm` for details on ADPCM coding. Return a tuple `(`*sample*`,` *newstate*`)` where the sample has the width specified in *width*.

`adpcm32lin` (*adpcmfragment, width, state*)
: Decode an alternative 3-bit ADPCM code. See `lin2adpcm3` for details.

`avg` (*fragment, width*)
: Return the average over all samples in the fragment.

`avgpp` (*fragment, width*)
: Return the average peak-peak value over all samples in the fragment. No filtering is done, so the usefulness of this routine is questionable.

`bias` (*fragment, width, bias*)
Return a fragment that is the original fragment with a bias added to each sample.

`cross` (*fragment, width*)
Return the number of zero crossings in the fragment passed as an argument.

`findfactor` (*fragment, reference*)
Return a factor *F* such that `rms(add(fragment, mul(reference, -F)))` is minimal, i.e., return the factor with which you should multiply *reference* to make it match as well as possible to *fragment*. The fragments should both contain 2-byte samples.

The time taken by this routine is proportional to `len(fragment)`.

`findfit` (*fragment, reference*)
This routine (which only accepts 2-byte sample fragments)

Try to match *reference* as well as possible to a portion of *fragment* (which should be the longer fragment). This is (conceptually) done by taking slices out of *fragment*, using `findfactor` to compute the best match, and minimizing the result. The fragments should both contain 2-byte samples. Return a tuple (*offset*, *factor*) where *offset* is the (integer) offset into *fragment* where the optimal match started and *factor* is the (floating-point) factor as per `findfactor`.

`findmax` (*fragment, length*)
Search *fragment* for a slice of length *length* samples (not bytes!) with maximum energy, i.e., return *i* for which `rms(fragment[i*2:(i+length)*2])` is maximal. The fragments should both contain 2-byte samples.

The routine takes time proportional to `len(fragment)`.

`getsample` (*fragment, width, index*)
Return the value of sample *index* from the fragment.

`lin2lin` (*fragment, width, newwidth*)
Convert samples between 1-, 2- and 4-byte formats.

`lin2adpcm` (*fragment, width, state*)
Convert samples to 4 bit Intel/DVI ADPCM encoding. ADPCM coding is an adaptive coding scheme, whereby each 4 bit number is the difference between one sample and the next, divided by a (varying) step. The Intel/DVI ADPCM algorithm has been selected for use by the IMA, so it may well become a standard.

`State` is a tuple containing the state of the coder. The coder returns a tuple (*adpcmfrag*, *newstate*), and the *newstate* should be passed to the next call of lin2adpcm. In the initial call `None` can be passed as the state. *adpcmfrag* is the ADPCM coded fragment packed 2 4-bit values per byte.

`lin2adpcm3` (*fragment, width, state*)
This is an alternative ADPCM coder that uses only 3 bits per sample. It is not compatible with the Intel/DVI ADPCM coder and its output is not packed (due to laziness on the side of the author). Its use is discouraged.

`lin2ulaw` (*fragment, width*)
Convert samples in the audio fragment to U-LAW encoding and return this as a Python string. U-LAW is an audio encoding format whereby you get a dynamic range of about 14 bits using only 8 bit samples. It is used by the Sun audio hardware, among others.

`minmax` (*fragment, width*)
Return a tuple consisting of the minimum and maximum values of all samples in the sound fragment.

`max` (*fragment, width*)
Return the maximum of the *absolute value* of all samples in a fragment.

`maxpp` (*fragment, width*)
Return the maximum peak-peak value in the sound fragment.

`mul` (*fragment, width, factor*)
Return a fragment that has all samples in the original framgent multiplied by the floating-point value *factor*. Overflow is silently ignored.

`ratecv` (*fragment, width, nchannels, inrate, outrate, state* [*, weightA, weightB*])
Convert the frame rate of the input fragment.

`State` is a tuple containing the state of the converter. The converter returns a tupl (*newfragment*, *newstate*), and *newstate* should be passed to the next call of ratecv.

The `weightA` and `weightB` arguments are parameters for a simple digital filter and default to 1 and 0 respectively.

`reverse` (*fragment, width*)
Reverse the samples in a fragment and returns the modified fragment.

`rms` (*fragment, width*)
Return the root-mean-square of the fragment, i.e.

$$\sqrt{\frac{\sum {S_i}^2}{n}}$$

This is a measure of the power in an audio signal.

`tomono` (*fragment, width, lfactor, rfactor*)
Convert a stereo fragment to a mono fragment. The left channel is multiplied by *lfactor* and the right channel by *rfactor* before adding the two channels to give a mono signal.

`tostereo` (*fragment, width, lfactor, rfactor*)
Generate a stereo fragment from a mono fragment. Each pair of samples in the stereo fragment are computed from the mono sample, whereby left channel samples are multiplied by *lfactor* and right channel samples by *rfactor*.

`ulaw2lin` (*fragment, width*)
Convert sound fragments in ULAW encoding to linearly encoded sound fragments. ULAW encoding always uses 8 bits samples, so *width* refers only to the sample width of the output fragment here.

Note that operations such as `mul` or `max` make no distinction between mono and stereo fragments, i.e. all samples are treated equal. If this is a problem the stereo fragment should be split into two mono fragments first and recombined later. Here is an example of how to do that:

```
def mul_stereo(sample, width, lfactor, rfactor):
    lsample = audioop.tomono(sample, width, 1, 0)
    rsample = audioop.tomono(sample, width, 0, 1)
    lsample = audioop.mul(sample, width, lfactor)
    rsample = audioop.mul(sample, width, rfactor)
    lsample = audioop.tostereo(lsample, width, 1, 0)
    rsample = audioop.tostereo(rsample, width, 0, 1)
    return audioop.add(lsample, rsample, width)
```

If you use the ADPCM coder to build network packets and you want your protocol to be stateless (i.e. to be able to tolerate packet loss) you should not only transmit the data but also the state. Note that you should send the *initial* state (the one you passed to `lin2adpcm`) along to the decoder, not the final state (as returned by the coder). If you want to use `struct` to store the state in binary you can code the first element (the predicted value) in 16 bits and the second (the delta index) in 8.

The ADPCM coders have never been tried against other ADPCM coders, only against themselves. It could well be that I misinterpreted the standards in which case they will not be interoperable with the respective standards.

The `find...` routines might look a bit funny at first sight. They are primarily meant to do echo cancellation. A reasonably fast way to do this is to pick the most energetic piece of the output sample, locate that in the input sample and subtract the whole output sample from the input sample:

```
def echocancel(outputdata, inputdata):
    pos = audioop.findmax(outputdata, 800)    # one tenth second
    out_test = outputdata[pos*2:]
    in_test = inputdata[pos*2:]
    ipos, factor = audioop.findfit(in_test, out_test)
    # Optional (for better cancellation):
    # factor = audioop.findfactor(in_test[ipos*2:ipos*2+len(out_test)],
    #               out_test)
    prefill = '\0'*(pos+ipos)*2
    postfill = '\0'*(len(inputdata)-len(prefill)-len(outputdata))
    outputdata = prefill + audioop.mul(outputdata,2,-factor) + postfill
    return audioop.add(inputdata, outputdata, 2)
```

13.2 Built-in Module imageop

The imageop module contains some useful operations on images. It operates on images consisting of 8 or 32 bit pixels stored in Python strings. This is the same format as used by gl.lrectwrite and the imgfile module.

The module defines the following variables and functions:

error
: This exception is raised on all errors, such as unknown number of bits per pixel, etc.

crop(*image, psize, width, height, x0, y0, x1, y1*)
: Return the selected part of *image*, which should by *width* by *height* in size and consist of pixels of *psize* bytes. *x0*, *y0*, *x1* and *y1* are like the lrectread parameters, i.e. the boundary is included in the new image. The new boundaries need not be inside the picture. Pixels that fall outside the old image will have their value set to zero. If *x0* is bigger than *x1* the new image is mirrored. The same holds for the y coordinates.

scale(*image, psize, width, height, newwidth, newheight*)
: Return *image* scaled to size *newwidth* by *newheight*. No interpolation is done, scaling is done by simple-minded pixel duplication or removal. Therefore, computer-generated images or dithered images will not look nice after scaling.

tovideo(*image, psize, width, height*)
: Run a vertical low-pass filter over an image. It does so by computing each destination pixel as the average of two vertically-aligned source pixels. The main use of this routine is to forestall excessive flicker if the image is displayed on a video device that uses interlacing, hence the name.

grey2mono(*image, width, height, threshold*)
: Convert a 8-bit deep greyscale image to a 1-bit deep image by tresholding all the pixels. The resulting image is tightly packed and is probably only useful as an argument to mono2grey.

dither2mono(*image, width, height*)
: Convert an 8-bit greyscale image to a 1-bit monochrome image using a (simple-minded) dithering algorithm.

mono2grey(*image, width, height, p0, p1*)
: Convert a 1-bit monochrome image to an 8 bit greyscale or color image. All pixels that are zero-valued on input get value *p0* on output and all one-value input pixels get value *p1* on output. To convert a monochrome black-and-white image to greyscale pass the values 0 and 255 respectively.

grey2grey4(*image, width, height*)
: Convert an 8-bit greyscale image to a 4-bit greyscale image without dithering.

grey2grey2(*image, width, height*)
: Convert an 8-bit greyscale image to a 2-bit greyscale image without dithering.

dither2grey2(*image, width, height*)
: Convert an 8-bit greyscale image to a 2-bit greyscale image with dithering. As for dither2mono, the dithering algorithm is currently very simple.

grey42grey(*image, width, height*)
: Convert a 4-bit greyscale image to an 8-bit greyscale image.

grey22grey(*image, width, height*)
: Convert a 2-bit greyscale image to an 8-bit greyscale image.

13.3 Standard Module aifc

This module provides support for reading and writing AIFF and AIFF-C files. AIFF is Audio Interchange File Format, a format for storing digital audio samples in a file. AIFF-C is a newer version of the format that includes the ability to compress the audio data.

Audio files have a number of parameters that describe the audio data. The sampling rate or frame rate is the number of times per second the sound is sampled. The number of channels indicate if the audio is mono, stereo, or quadro. Each frame consists of one sample per channel. The sample size is the size in bytes of each sample. Thus a frame consists of *nchannels**samplesize* bytes, and a second's worth of audio consists of *nchannels**samplesize*framerate* bytes.

For example, CD quality audio has a sample size of two bytes (16 bits), uses two channels (stereo) and has a frame rate of 44,100 frames/second. This gives a frame size of 4 bytes (2*2), and a second's worth occupies 2*2*44100 bytes, i.e. 176,400 bytes.

Module `aifc` defines the following function:

`open`(*file, mode*)
: Open an AIFF or AIFF-C file and return an object instance with methods that are described below. The argument file is either a string naming a file or a file object. The mode is either the string `'r'` when the file must be opened for reading, or `'w'` when the file must be opened for writing. When used for writing, the file object should be seekable, unless you know ahead of time how many samples you are going to write in total and use `writeframesraw()` and `setnframes()`.

Objects returned by `aifc.open()` when a file is opened for reading have the following methods:

`getnchannels()`
: Return the number of audio channels (1 for mono, 2 for stereo).

`getsampwidth()`
: Return the size in bytes of individual samples.

`getframerate()`
: Return the sampling rate (number of audio frames per second).

`getnframes()`
: Return the number of audio frames in the file.

`getcomptype()`
: Return a four-character string describing the type of compression used in the audio file. For AIFF files, the returned value is `'NONE'`.

`getcompname()`
: Return a human-readable description of the type of compression used in the audio file. For AIFF files, the returned value is `'not compressed'`.

`getparams()`
: Return a tuple consisting of all of the above values in the above order.

`getmarkers()`
: Return a list of markers in the audio file. A marker consists of a tuple of three elements. The first is the mark ID (an integer), the second is the mark position in frames from the beginning of the data (an integer), the third is the name of the mark (a string).

`getmark`(*id*)
: Return the tuple as described in `getmarkers` for the mark with the given id.

`readframes`(*nframes*)
: Read and return the next *nframes* frames from the audio file. The returned data is a string containing for each frame the uncompressed samples of all channels.

`rewind()`
: Rewind the read pointer. The next `readframes` will start from the beginning.

`setpos`(*pos*)
: Seek to the specified frame number.

`tell()`
: Return the current frame number.

`close()`
: Close the AIFF file. After calling this method, the object can no longer be used.

Objects returned by `aifc.open()` when a file is opened for writing have all the above methods, except for `readframes` and `setpos`. In addition the following methods exist. The `get` methods can only be called after the corresponding `set` methods have been called. Before the first `writeframes` or `writeframesraw`, all parameters except for the number of frames must be filled in.

`aiff()`
: Create an AIFF file. The default is that an AIFF-C file is created, unless the name of the file ends in '.aiff' in which case the default is an AIFF file.

`aifc()`
: Create an AIFF-C file. The default is that an AIFF-C file is created, unless the name of the file ends in '.aiff' in which case the default is an AIFF file.

`setnchannels(`*nchannels*`)`
: Specify the number of channels in the audio file.

`setsampwidth(`*width*`)`
: Specify the size in bytes of audio samples.

`setframerate(`*rate*`)`
: Specify the sampling frequency in frames per second.

`setnframes(`*nframes*`)`
: Specify the number of frames that are to be written to the audio file. If this parameter is not set, or not set correctly, the file needs to support seeking.

`setcomptype(`*type, name*`)`
: Specify the compression type. If not specified, the audio data will not be compressed. In AIFF files, compression is not possible. The name parameter should be a human-readable description of the compression type, the type parameter should be a four-character string. Currently the following compression types are supported: NONE, ULAW, ALAW, G722.

`setparams(`*nchannels, sampwidth, framerate, comptype, compname*`)`
: Set all the above parameters at once. The argument is a tuple consisting of the various parameters. This means that it is possible to use the result of a `getparams` call as argument to `setparams`.

`setmark(`*id, pos, name*`)`
: Add a mark with the given id (larger than 0), and the given name at the given position. This method can be called at any time before `close`.

`tell()`
: Return the current write position in the output file. Useful in combination with `setmark`.

`writeframes(`*data*`)`
: Write data to the output file. This method can only be called after the audio file parameters have been set.

`writeframesraw(`*data*`)`
: Like `writeframes`, except that the header of the audio file is not updated.

`close()`
: Close the AIFF file. The header of the file is updated to reflect the actual size of the audio data. After calling this method, the object can no longer be used.

13.4 Built-in Module `jpeg`

The module `jpeg` provides access to the jpeg compressor and decompressor written by the Independent JPEG Group. JPEG is a (draft?) standard for compressing pictures. For details on jpeg or the Independent JPEG Group software refer to the JPEG standard or the documentation provided with the software.

The `jpeg` module defines these functions:

`compress(`*data, w, h, b*`)`
: Treat data as a pixmap of width *w* and height *h*, with *b* bytes per pixel. The data is in SGI GL order, so the first pixel is in the lower-left corner. This means that `lrectread` return data can immediately be passed to compress. Currently only 1 byte and 4 byte pixels are allowed, the former being treated as greyscale and the latter as RGB color. Compress returns a string that contains the compressed picture, in JFIF format.

`decompress(`*data*`)`

Data is a string containing a picture in JFIF format. It returns a tuple `(`*data*`,` *width*`,` *height*`,` *bytesperpixel*`)`. Again, the data is suitable to pass to `lrectwrite`.

`setoption`(*name, value*)
Set various options. Subsequent compress and decompress calls will use these options. The following options are available:

`'forcegray'` Force output to be grayscale, even if input is RGB.

`'quality'` Set the quality of the compressed image to a value between `0` and `100` (default is `75`). Compress only.

`'optimize'` Perform Huffman table optimization. Takes longer, but results in smaller compressed image. Compress only.

`'smooth'` Perform inter-block smoothing on uncompressed image. Only useful for low-quality images. Decompress only.

Compress and uncompress raise the error `jpeg.error` in case of errors.

13.5 Built-in Module `rgbimg`

The rgbimg module allows python programs to access SGI imglib image files (also known as '`.rgb`' files). The module is far from complete, but is provided anyway since the functionality that there is is enough in some cases. Currently, colormap files are not supported.

The module defines the following variables and functions:

`error`
This exception is raised on all errors, such as unsupported file type, etc.

`sizeofimage`(*file*)
This function returns a tuple `(`*x*`,` *y*`)` where *x* and *y* are the size of the image in pixels. Only 4 byte RGBA pixels, 3 byte RGB pixels, and 1 byte greyscale pixels are currently supported.

`longimagedata`(*file*)
This function reads and decodes the image on the specified file, and returns it as a Python string. The string has 4 byte RGBA pixels. The bottom left pixel is the first in the string. This format is suitable to pass to `gl.lrectwrite`, for instance.

`longstoimage`(*data, x, y, z, file*)
This function writes the RGBA data in *data* to image file *file*. *x* and *y* give the size of the image. *z* is 1 if the saved image should be 1 byte greyscale, 3 if the saved image should be 3 byte RGB data, or 4 if the saved images should be 4 byte RGBA data. The input data always contains 4 bytes per pixel. These are the formats returned by `gl.lrectread`.

`ttob`(*flag*)
This function sets a global flag which defines whether the scan lines of the image are read or written from bottom to top (flag is zero, compatible with SGI GL) or from top to bottom(flag is one, compatible with X). The default is zero.

13.6 Standard module `imghdr`

The `imghdr` module determines the type of image contained in a file or byte stream.

The `imghdr` module defines the following function:

`what`(*filename* [, *h*])
Tests the image data contained in the file named by *filename*, and returns a string describing the image type. If optional *h* is provided, the *filename* is ignored and *h* is assumed to contain the byte stream to test.

The following image types are recognized, as listed below with the return value from `what`:

"rgb" SGI ImgLib Files

"gif" GIF 87a and 89a Files

"pbm" Portable Bitmap Files

"pgm" Portable Graymap Files

"ppm" Portable Pixmap Files

"tiff"	TIFF Files
"rast"	Sun Raster Files
"xbm"	X Bitmap Files
"jpeg"	JPEG data in JIFF format

You can extend the list of file types `imghdr` can recognize by appending to this variable:

`tests`

A list of functions performing the individual tests. Each function takes two arguments: the byte-stream and an open file-like object. When `what()` is called with a byte-stream, the file-like object will be `None`.

The test function should return a string describing the image type if the test succeeded, or `None` if it failed.

Example:

```
>>> import imghdr
>>> imghdr.what('/tmp/bass.gif')
'gif'
```

Chapter 14

Cryptographic Services

The modules described in this chapter implement various algorithms of a cryptographic nature. They are available at the discretion of the installation. Here's an overview:

md5 — RSA's MD5 message digest algorithm.

mpz — Interface to the GNU MP library for arbitrary precision arithmetic.

rotor — Enigma-like encryption and decryption.

Hardcore cypherpunks will probably find the cryptographic modules written by Andrew Kuchling of further interest; the package adds built-in modules for DES and IDEA encryption, provides a Python module for reading and decrypting PGP files, and then some. These modules are not distributed with Python but available separately. See the URL '`http://www.magnet.com/ amk/python/pct.html`' or send email to '`amk@magnet.com`' for more information.

14.1 Built-in Module `md5`

This module implements the interface to RSA's MD5 message digest algorithm (see also Internet RFC 1321). Its use is quite straightforward: use the `md5.new()` to create an md5 object. You can now feed this object with arbitrary strings using the `update()` method, and at any point you can ask it for the *digest* (a strong kind of 128-bit checksum, a.k.a. "fingerprint") of the contatenation of the strings fed to it so far using the `digest()` method.

For example, to obtain the digest of the string `"Nobody inspects the spammish repetition"`:

```
>>> import md5
>>> m = md5.new()
>>> m.update("Nobody inspects")
>>> m.update(" the spammish repetition")
>>> m.digest()
'\273d\234\203\335\036\245\311\331\336\311\241\215\360\377\351'
```

More condensed:

```
>>> md5.new("Nobody inspects the spammish repetition").digest()
'\273d\234\203\335\036\245\311\331\336\311\241\215\360\377\351'
```

`new(` [*arg*] `)`
: Return a new md5 object. If *arg* is present, the method call `update(`*arg*`)` is made.

md5([arg])
: For backward compatibility reasons, this is an alternative name for the new() function.

An md5 object has the following methods:

update(*arg*)
: Update the md5 object with the string *arg*. Repeated calls are equivalent to a single call with the concatenation of all the arguments, i.e. m.update(a); m.update(b) is equivalent to m.update(a+b).

digest()
: Return the digest of the strings passed to the update() method so far. This is an 16-byte string which may contain non-ASCII characters, including null bytes.

copy()
: Return a copy ("clone") of the md5 object. This can be used to efficiently compute the digests of strings that share a common initial substring.

14.2 Built-in Module mpz

This is an optional module. It is only available when Python is configured to include it, which requires that the GNU MP software is installed.

This module implements the interface to part of the GNU MP library, which defines arbitrary precision integer and rational number arithmetic routines. Only the interfaces to the *integer* ('mpz_...') routines are provided. If not stated otherwise, the description in the GNU MP documentation can be applied.

In general, *mpz*-numbers can be used just like other standard Python numbers, e.g. you can use the built-in operators like +, *, etc., as well as the standard built-in functions like abs, int, ..., divmod, pow. **Please note:** the *bitwise-xor* operation has been implemented as a bunch of *and*s, *invert*s and *or*s, because the library lacks an mpz_xor function, and I didn't need one.

You create an mpz-number by calling the function called mpz (see below for an exact description). An mpz-number is printed like this: mpz(*value*).

mpz(*value*)
: Create a new mpz-number. *value* can be an integer, a long, another mpz-number, or even a string. If it is a string, it is interpreted as an array of radix-256 digits, least significant digit first, resulting in a positive number. See also the binary method, described below.

A number of *extra* functions are defined in this module. Non mpz-arguments are converted to mpz-values first, and the functions return mpz-numbers.

powm(*base, exponent, modulus*)
: Return pow(*base*, *exponent*) % *modulus*. If *exponent* == 0, return mpz(1). In contrast to the C-library function, this version can handle negative exponents.

gcd(*op1, op2*)
: Return the greatest common divisor of *op1* and *op2*.

gcdext(*a, b*)
: Return a tuple (*g*, *s*, *t*), such that *a***s* + *b***t* == *g* == gcd(*a*, *b*).

sqrt(*op*)
: Return the square root of *op*. The result is rounded towards zero.

sqrtrem(*op*)
: Return a tuple (*root*, *remainder*), such that *root***root* + *remainder* == *op*.

divm(*numerator, denominator, modulus*)
: Returns a number *q*. such that *q* * *denominator* % *modulus* == *numerator*. One could also implement this function in Python, using gcdext.

An mpz-number has one method:

binary()
: Convert this mpz-number to a binary string, where the number has been stored as an array of radix-256 digits, least significant

digit first.

The mpz-number must have a value greater than or equal to zero, otherwise a `ValueError`-exception will be raised.

14.3 Built-in Module `rotor`

This module implements a rotor-based encryption algorithm, contributed by Lance Ellinghouse. The design is derived from the Enigma device, a machine used during World War II to encipher messages. A rotor is simply a permutation. For example, if the character 'A' is the origin of the rotor, then a given rotor might map 'A' to 'L', 'B' to 'Z', 'C' to 'G', and so on. To encrypt, we choose several different rotors, and set the origins of the rotors to known positions; their initial position is the ciphering key. To encipher a character, we permute the original character by the first rotor, and then apply the second rotor's permutation to the result. We continue until we've applied all the rotors; the resulting character is our ciphertext. We then change the origin of the final rotor by one position, from 'A' to 'B'; if the final rotor has made a complete revolution, then we rotate the next-to-last rotor by one position, and apply the same procedure recursively. In other words, after enciphering one character, we advance the rotors in the same fashion as a car's odometer. Decoding works in the same way, except we reverse the permutations and apply them in the opposite order.

The available functions in this module are:

`newrotor`(*key* [, *numrotors*])
: Return a rotor object. *key* is a string containing the encryption key for the object; it can contain arbitrary binary data. The key will be used to randomly generate the rotor permutations and their initial positions. *numrotors* is the number of rotor permutations in the returned object; if it is omitted, a default value of 6 will be used.

Rotor objects have the following methods:

`setkey`(*key*)
: Sets the rotor's key to *key*.

`encrypt`(*plaintext*)
: Reset the rotor object to its initial state and encrypt *plaintext*, returning a string containing the ciphertext. The ciphertext is always the same length as the original plaintext.

`encryptmore`(*plaintext*)
: Encrypt *plaintext* without resetting the rotor object, and return a string containing the ciphertext.

`decrypt`(*ciphertext*)
: Reset the rotor object to its initial state and decrypt *ciphertext*, returning a string containing the ciphertext. The plaintext string will always be the same length as the ciphertext.

`decryptmore`(*ciphertext*)
: Decrypt *ciphertext* without resetting the rotor object, and return a string containing the ciphertext.

An example usage:

```
>>> import rotor
>>> rt = rotor.newrotor('key', 12)
>>> rt.encrypt('bar')
'\2534\363'
>>> rt.encryptmore('bar')
'\357\375$'
>>> rt.encrypt('bar')
'\2534\363'
>>> rt.decrypt('\2534\363')
'bar'
>>> rt.decryptmore('\357\375$')
'bar'
>>> rt.decrypt('\357\375$')
'l(\315'
>>> del rt
```

The module's code is not an exact simulation of the original Enigma device; it implements the rotor encryption scheme differently from the original. The most important difference is that in the original Enigma, there were only 5 or 6 different rotors in existence, and they were applied twice to each character; the cipher key was the order in which they were placed in the machine. The Python rotor module uses the supplied key to initialize a random number generator; the rotor permutations and their initial positions are then randomly generated. The original device only enciphered the letters of the alphabet, while this module can handle any 8-bit binary data; it also produces binary output. This module can also operate with an arbitrary number of rotors.

The original Enigma cipher was broken in 1944. The version implemented here is probably a good deal more difficult to crack (especially if you use many rotors), but it won't be impossible for a truly skilful and determined attacker to break the cipher. So if you want to keep the NSA out of your files, this rotor cipher may well be unsafe, but for discouraging casual snooping through your files, it will probably be just fine, and may be somewhat safer than using the Unix '`crypt`' command.

Chapter 15

Macintosh Specific Services

The modules in this chapter are available on the Apple Macintosh only.

Aside from the modules described here there are also interfaces to various MacOS toolboxes, which are currently not extensively described. The toolboxes for which modules exist are: `AE` (Apple Events), `Cm` (Component Manager), `Ctl` (Control Manager), `Dlg` (Dialog Manager), `Evt` (Event Manager), `Fm` (Font Manager), `List` (List Manager), `Menu` (Moenu Manager), `Qd` (QuickDraw), `Qt` (QuickTime), `Res` (Resource Manager and Handles), `Scrap` (Scrap Manager), `Snd` (Sound Manager), `TE` (TextEdit), `Waste` (non-Apple TextEdit replacement) and `Win` (Window Manager).

If applicable the module will define a number of Python objects for the various structures declared by the toolbox, and operations will be implemented as methods of the object. Other operations will be implemented as functions in the module. Not all operations possible in C will also be possible in Python (callbacks are often a problem), and parameters will occasionally be different in Python (input and output buffers, especially). All methods and functions have a `__doc__` string describing their arguments and return values, and for additional description you are referred to Inside Mac or similar works.

15.1 Built-in Module `mac`

This module provides a subset of the operating system dependent functionality provided by the optional built-in module `posix`. It is best accessed through the more portable standard module `os`.

The following functions are available in this module: `chdir`, `close`, `dup`, `fdopen`, `getcwd`, `lseek`, `listdir`, `mkdir`, `open`, `read`, `rename`, `rmdir`, `stat`, `sync`, `unlink`, `write`, as well as the exception `error`. Note that the times returned by `stat()` are floating-point values, like all time values in MacPython.

One additional function is available: `xstat()`. This function returns the same information as `stat()`, but with three extra values appended: the size of the resource fork of the file and its 4-char creator and type.

15.2 Standard Module `macpath`

This module provides a subset of the pathname manipulation functions available from the optional standard module `posixpath`. It is best accessed through the more portable standard module `os`, as `os.path`.

The following functions are available in this module: `normcase`, `normpath`, `isabs`, `join`, `split`, `isdir`, `isfile`, `walk`, `exists`. For other functions available in `posixpath` dummy counterparts are available.

15.3 Built-in Module `ctb`

This module provides a partial interface to the Macintosh Communications Toolbox. Currently, only Connection Manager tools are supported. It may not be available in all Mac Python versions.

`error`
: The exception raised on errors.

`cmData`
`cmCntl`
`cmAttn`
: Flags for the *channel* argument of the *Read* and *Write* methods.

`cmFlagsEOM`
: End-of-message flag for *Read* and *Write*.

`choose*`
: Values returned by *Choose*.

`cmStatus*`
: Bits in the status as returned by *Status*.

`available()`
: Return 1 if the communication toolbox is available, zero otherwise.

`CMNew(`*name, sizes*`)`
: Create a connection object using the connection tool named *name*. *sizes* is a 6-tuple given buffer sizes for data in, data out, control in, control out, attention in and attention out. Alternatively, passing `None` will result in default buffer sizes.

15.3.1 connection object

For all connection methods that take a *timeout* argument, a value of `-1` is indefinite, meaning that the command runs to completion.

`callback`
: If this member is set to a value other than `None` it should point to a function accepting a single argument (the connection object). This will make all connection object methods work asynchronously, with the callback routine being called upon completion.

Note: for reasons beyond my understanding the callback routine is currently never called. You are advised against using asynchronous calls for the time being.

`Open(`*timeout*`)`
: Open an outgoing connection, waiting at most *timeout* seconds for the connection to be established.

`Listen(`*timeout*`)`
: Wait for an incoming connection. Stop waiting after *timeout* seconds. This call is only meaningful to some tools.

`accept(`*yesno*`)`
: Accept (when *yesno* is non-zero) or reject an incoming call after *Listen* returned.

`Close(`*timeout, now*`)`
: Close a connection. When *now* is zero, the close is orderly (i.e. outstanding output is flushed, etc.) with a timeout of *timeout* seconds. When *now* is non-zero the close is immediate, discarding output.

`Read(`*len, chan, timeout*`)`
: Read *len* bytes, or until *timeout* seconds have passed, from the channel *chan* (which is one of *cmData*, *cmCntl* or *cmAttn*). Return a 2-tuple: the data read and the end-of-message flag.

`Write(`*buf, chan, timeout, eom*`)`
: Write *buf* to channel *chan*, aborting after *timeout* seconds. When *eom* has the value *cmFlagsEOM* an end-of-message indicator will be written after the data (if this concept has a meaning for this communication tool). The method returns the number of bytes written.

`Status()`
: Return connection status as the 2-tuple `(`*sizes*`,` *flags*`)`. *sizes* is a 6-tuple giving the actual buffer sizes used (see *CMNew*), *flags* is a set of bits describing the state of the connection.

`GetConfig()`
: Return the configuration string of the communication tool. These configuration strings are tool-dependent, but usually easily parsed and modified.

`SetConfig(str)`
: Set the configuration string for the tool. The strings are parsed left-to-right, with later values taking precedence. This means individual configuration parameters can be modified by simply appending something like `'baud 4800'` to the end of the string returned by *GetConfig* and passing that to this method. The method returns the number of characters actually parsed by the tool before it encountered an error (or completed successfully).

`Choose()`
: Present the user with a dialog to choose a communication tool and configure it. If there is an outstanding connection some choices (like selecting a different tool) may cause the connection to be aborted. The return value (one of the *choose** constants) will indicate this.

`Idle()`
: Give the tool a chance to use the processor. You should call this method regularly.

`Abort()`
: Abort an outstanding asynchronous *Open* or *Listen*.

`Reset()`
: Reset a connection. Exact meaning depends on the tool.

`Break(length)`
: Send a break. Whether this means anything, what it means and interpretation of the *length* parameter depend on the tool in use.

15.4 Built-in Module `macconsole`

This module is available on the Macintosh, provided Python has been built using the Think C compiler. It provides an interface to the Think console package, with which basic text windows can be created.

`options`
: An object allowing you to set various options when creating windows, see below.

`C_ECHO`
`C_NOECHO`
`C_CBREAK`
`C_RAW`
: Options for the `setmode` method. *C_ECHO* and *C_CBREAK* enable character echo, the other two disable it, *C_ECHO* and *C_NOECHO* enable line-oriented input (erase/kill processing, etc).

`copen()`
: Open a new console window. Return a console window object.

`fopen(fp)`
: Return the console window object corresponding with the given file object. *fp* should be one of `sys.stdin`, `sys.stdout` or `sys.stderr`.

15.4.1 macconsole options object

These options are examined when a window is created:

`top`
`left`
: The origin of the window.

`nrows`
`ncols`
: The size of the window.

`txFont`
`txSize`
`txStyle`

The font, fontsize and fontstyle to be used in the window.

`title`
: The title of the window.

`pause_atexit`
: If set non-zero, the window will wait for user action before closing.

15.4.2 console window object

`file`
: The file object corresponding to this console window. If the file is buffered, you should call `file.flush()` between `write()` and `read()` calls.

`setmode(`*mode*`)`
: Set the input mode of the console to *C_ECHO*, etc.

`settabs(`*n*`)`
: Set the tabsize to *n* spaces.

`cleos()`
: Clear to end-of-screen.

`cleol()`
: Clear to end-of-line.

`inverse(`*onoff*`)`
: Enable inverse-video mode: characters with the high bit set are displayed in inverse video (this disables the upper half of a non-ASCII character set).

`gotoxy(`*x, y*`)`
: Set the cursor to position `(`*x*`, `*y*`)`.

`hide()`
: Hide the window, remembering the contents.

`show()`
: Show the window again.

`echo2printer()`
: Copy everything written to the window to the printer as well.

15.5 Built-in Module `macdnr`

This module provides an interface to the Macintosh Domain Name Resolver. It is usually used in conjunction with the *mactcp* module, to map hostnames to IP-addresses. It may not be available in all Mac Python versions.

The `macdnr` module defines the following functions:

`Open(` [*filename*] `)`
: Open the domain name resolver extension. If *filename* is given it should be the pathname of the extension, otherwise a default is used. Normally, this call is not needed since the other calls will open the extension automatically.

`Close()`
: Close the resolver extension. Again, not needed for normal use.

`StrToAddr(`*hostname*`)`
: Look up the IP address for *hostname*. This call returns a dnr result object of the "address" variation.

`AddrToName(`*addr*`)`
: Do a reverse lookup on the 32-bit integer IP-address *addr*. Returns a dnr result object of the "address" variation.

`AddrToStr(`*addr*`)`
: Convert the 32-bit integer IP-address *addr* to a dotted-decimal string. Returns the string.

`HInfo(`*hostname*`)`
: Query the nameservers for a `HInfo` record for host *hostname*. These records contain hardware and software information about the machine in question (if they are available in the first place). Returns a dnr result object of the "hinfo" variety.

`MXInfo(`*domain*`)`
: Query the nameservers for a mail exchanger for *domain*. This is the hostname of a host willing to accept SMTP mail for the given domain. Returns a dnr result object of the "mx" variety.

15.5.1 dnr result object

Since the DNR calls all execute asynchronously you do not get the results back immediately. Instead, you get a dnr result object. You can check this object to see whether the query is complete, and access its attributes to obtain the information when it is.

Alternatively, you can also reference the result attributes directly, this will result in an implicit wait for the query to complete.

The *rtnCode* and *cname* attributes are always available, the others depend on the type of query (address, hinfo or mx).

`wait()`
: Wait for the query to complete.

`isdone()`
: Return 1 if the query is complete.

`rtnCode`
: The error code returned by the query.

`cname`
: The canonical name of the host that was queried.

`ip0`
`ip1`
`ip2`
`ip3`
: At most four integer IP addresses for this host. Unused entries are zero. Valid only for address queries.

`cpuType`
`osType`
: Textual strings giving the machine type an OS name. Valid for hinfo queries.

`exchange`
: The name of a mail-exchanger host. Valid for mx queries.

`preference`
: The preference of this mx record. Not too useful, since the Macintosh will only return a single mx record. Mx queries only.

The simplest way to use the module to convert names to dotted-decimal strings, without worrying about idle time, etc:

```
>>> def gethostname(name):
...     import macdnr
...     dnrr = macdnr.StrToAddr(name)
...     return macdnr.AddrToStr(dnrr.ip0)
```

15.6 Built-in Module `macfs`

This module provides access to macintosh FSSpec handling, the Alias Manager, finder aliases and the Standard File package.

Whenever a function or method expects a *file* argument, this argument can be one of three things: (1) a full or partial Macintosh pathname, (2) an FSSpec object or (3) a 3-tuple `(wdRefNum, parID, name)` as described in Inside Mac VI. A description of aliases and the standard file package can also be found there.

`FSSpec`(*file*)
: Create an FSSpec object for the specified file.

`RawFSSpec`(*data*)
: Create an FSSpec object given the raw data for the C structure for the FSSpec as a string. This is mainly useful if you have obtained an FSSpec structure over a network.

`RawAlias`(*data*)
: Create an Alias object given the raw data for the C structure for the alias as a string. This is mainly useful if you have obtained an FSSpec structure over a network.

`FInfo()`
: Create a zero-filled FInfo object.

`ResolveAliasFile`(*file*)
: Resolve an alias file. Returns a 3-tuple (*fsspec*, *isfolder*, *aliased*) where *fsspec* is the resulting FSSpec object, *isfolder* is true if *fsspec* points to a folder and *aliased* is true if the file was an alias in the first place (otherwise the FSSpec object for the file itself is returned).

`StandardGetFile`([*type, ...*])
: Present the user with a standard "open input file" dialog. Optionally, you can pass up to four 4-char file types to limit the files the user can choose from. The function returns an FSSpec object and a flag indicating that the user completed the dialog without cancelling.

`PromptGetFile`(*prompt* [*, type, ...*])
: Similar to *StandardGetFile* but allows you to specify a prompt.

`StandardPutFile`(*prompt,* [*default*])
: Present the user with a standard "open output file" dialog. *prompt* is the prompt string, and the optional *default* argument initializes the output file name. The function returns an FSSpec object and a flag indicating that the user completed the dialog without cancelling.

`GetDirectory`([*prompt*])
: Present the user with a non-standard "select a directory" dialog. *prompt* is the prompt string, and the optional. Return an FSSpec object and a success-indicator.

`SetFolder`([*fsspec*])
: Set the folder that is initially presented to the user when one of the file selection dialogs is presented. *Fsspec* should point to a file in the folder, not the folder itself (the file need not exist, though). If no argument is passed the folder will be set to the current directory, i.e. what `os.getcwd()` returns.

  Note that starting with system 7.5 the user can change Standard File behaviour with the "general controls" controlpanel, thereby making this call inoperative.

`FindFolder`(*where, which, create*)
: Locates one of the "special" folders that MacOS knows about, such as the trash or the Preferences folder. *Where* is the disk to search, *which* is the 4-char string specifying which folder to locate. Setting *create* causes the folder to be created if it does not exist. Returns a `(vrefnum, dirid)` tuple.

`NewAliasMinimalFromFullPath`(*pathname*)
: Return a minimal alias record object that points to the given file, which must be specified as a full pathname. This is the only way to create an alias record pointing to a non-existing file.

  The constants for *where* and *which* can be obtained from the standard module *MACFS*.

`FindApplication`(*creator*)
: Locate the application with 4-char creator code *creator*. The function returns an FSSpec object pointing to the application.

15.6.1 FSSpec objects

`data`
: The raw data from the FSSpec object, suitable for passing to other applications, for instance.

`as_pathname()`
: Return the full pathname of the file described by the FSSpec object.

`as_tuple()`
: Return the `(`*wdRefNum*`,` *parID*`,` *name*`)` tuple of the file described by the FSSpec object.

`NewAlias(`[*file*]`)`
: Create an Alias object pointing to the file described by this FSSpec. If the optional *file* parameter is present the alias will be relative to that file, otherwise it will be absolute.

`NewAliasMinimal()`
: Create a minimal alias pointing to this file.

`GetCreatorType()`
: Return the 4-char creator and type of the file.

`SetCreatorType(`*creator, type*`)`
: Set the 4-char creator and type of the file.

`GetFInfo()`
: Return a FInfo object describing the finder info for the file.

`SetFInfo(`*finfo*`)`
: Set the finder info for the file to the values specified in the *finfo* object.

`GetDates()`
: Return a tuple with three floating point values representing the creation date, modification date and backup date of the file.

`SetDates(`*crdate, moddate, backupdate*`)`
: Set the creation, modification and backup date of the file. The values are in the standard floating point format used for times throughout Python.

15.6.2 alias objects

`data`
: The raw data for the Alias record, suitable for storing in a resource or transmitting to other programs.

`Resolve(`[*file*]`)`
: Resolve the alias. If the alias was created as a relative alias you should pass the file relative to which it is. Return the FSSpec for the file pointed to and a flag indicating whether the alias object itself was modified during the search process. If the file does not exist but the path leading up to it does exist a valid fsspec is returned.

`GetInfo(`*num*`)`
: An interface to the C routine `GetAliasInfo()`.

`Update(`*file,* [*file2*]`)`
: Update the alias to point to the *file* given. If *file2* is present a relative alias will be created.

Note that it is currently not possible to directly manipulate a resource as an alias object. Hence, after calling *Update* or after *Resolve* indicates that the alias has changed the Python program is responsible for getting the *data* from the alias object and modifying the resource.

15.6.3 FInfo objects

See Inside Mac for a complete description of what the various fields mean.

`Creator`
: The 4-char creator code of the file.

`Type`
: The 4-char type code of the file.

`Flags`
: The finder flags for the file as 16-bit integer. The bit values in *Flags* are defined in standard module *MACFS*.

`Location`
: A Point giving the position of the file's icon in its folder.

`Fldr`
: The folder the file is in (as an integer).

15.7 Standard Module `ic`

This module provides access to macintosh Internet Config package, which stores preferences for Internet programs such as mail address, default homepage, etc. Also, Internet Config contains an elaborate set of mappings from Macintosh creator/type codes to foreign filename extensions plus information on how to transfer files (binary, ascii, etc).

There is a low-level companion module `icglue` which provides the basic ic access functionality. This low-level module is not documented, but the docstrings of the routines document the parameters and the routine names are the same as for the Pascal or C API to Internet Config, so the standard IC programmers documentation can be used if this module is needed.

The `ic` module defines the `error` exception and symbolic names for all error codes IC can produce, see the source for details.

The `ic` module defines the following functions:

`IC(`[*signature, ic*]`)`
: Create an internet config object. The signature is a 4-char creator code of the current application (default `'Pyth'`) which may influence some of ICs settings. The optional *ic* argument is a low-level `icinstance` created beforehand, this may be useful if you want to get preferences from a different config file, etc.

`launchurl(`*url* [*, hint*]`)`

`parseurl(`*data* [*, start, end, hint*]`)`

`mapfile(`*file*`)`

`maptypecreator(`*type, creator* [*, filename*]`)`

`settypecreator(`*file*`)`
: These functions are "shortcuts" to the methods of the same name, described below.

15.7.1 IC objects

IC objects have a mapping interface, hence to obtain the mail address you simply get `ic['MailAddress']`. Assignment also works, and changes the option in the configuration file.

The module knows about various datatypes, and converts the internal IC representation to a "logical" python datastructure. Running the `ic` module standalone will run a test program that lists all keys and values in your IC database, this will have to server as documentation.

If the module does not know how to represent the data it returns an instance of the *ICOpaqueData* type, with the raw data in its *data* attribute. Objects of this type are also acceptable values for assignment.

Besides the dictionary interface IC objects have the following methods:

`launchurl(`*url* [*, hint*]`)`
: Parse the given URL, lauch the correct application and pass it the URL. The optional *hint* can be a scheme name such as `mailto:`, in which case incomplete URLs are completed with this scheme (otherwise incomplete URLs are invalid).

`parseurl(`*data* [*, start, end, hint*]`)`
: Find an URL somewhere in *data* and return start position, end position and the URL. The optional *start* and *end* can be used to limit the search, so for instance if a user clicks in a long textfield you can pass the whole textfield and the click-position in *start* and this routine will return the whole URL in which the user clicked. *Hint* is again an optional scheme used to complete incomplete URLs.

`mapfile(`*file*`)`
: Return the mapping entry for the given *file*, which can be passed as either a filename or an *FSSpec* object, and which need not exist.

  The mapping entry is returned as a tuple `(version type creator postcreator flags extension appname postappname mimetype entryname)`, where *version* is the entry version number, *type* is the 4-char filetype, *creator* is the 4-char creator type, *postcreator* is the 4-char creator code of an optional application to post-process the file after downloading, *flags* are various bits specifying whether to transfer in binary or ascii and such, *extension* is the filename extension for this file type, *appname* is the printable name of the application to which this file belongs, *postappname* is the name of the postprocessing application, *mimetype* is the MIME type of this file and *entryname* is the name of this entry.

`maptypecreator`(*type, creator* [*, filename*])
: Return the mapping entry for files with given 4-char *type* and *creator* codes. The optional *filename* may be specified to further help finding the correct entry (if the creator code is `'????'`, for instance).

  The mapping entry is returned in the same format as for *mapfile*.

`settypecreator`(*file*)
: Given an existing *file*, specified either as a filename or as an *FSSpec* record, set its creator and type correctly based on its extension. The finder is told about the change, so the finder icon will be updated quickly.

15.8 Built-in Module `MacOS`

This module provides access to MacOS specific functionality in the python interpreter, such as how the interpreter eventloop functions and the like. Use with care.

Note the capitalisation of the module name, this is a historical artefact.

`Error`
: This exception is raised on MacOS generated errors, either from functions in this module or from other mac-specific modules like the toolbox interfaces. The arguments are the integer error code (the *OSErr* value) and a textual description of the error code. Symbolic names for all known error codes are defined in the standard module *macerrors*.

`SetEventHandler`(*handler*)
: In the inner interpreter loop Python will occasionally check for events, unless disabled with *ScheduleParams*. With this function you can pass a Python event-handler function that will be called if an event is available. The event is passed as parameter and the function should return non-zero if the event has been fully processed, otherwise event processing continues (by passing the event to the console window package, for instance).

  Call SetEventHandler without parameter to clear the event handler. Setting an eventhandler while one is already set is an error.

`SchedParams`([*doint, evtmask, besocial, interval, bgyield*])
: Influence the interpreter inner loop event handling. *Interval* specifies how often (in seconds, floating point) the interpreter should enter the event processing code. When true, *doint* causes interrupt (command-dot) checking to be done. *Evtmask* tells the interpreter to do event processing for events in the mask (redraws, mouseclicks to switch to other applications, etc). The *besocial* flag gives other processes a chance to run. They are granted minimal runtime when Python is in the foreground and *bgyield* seconds per *interval* when Python runs in the background.

  All parameters are optional, and default to the current value. The return value of this function is a tuple with the old values of these options. Initial defaults are that all processing is enabled, checking is done every quarter second and the CPU is given up for a quarter second when in the background.

`HandleEvent`(*ev*)
: Pass the event record `ev` back to the python event loop, or possibly to the handler for the `sys.stdout` window (based on the compiler used to build python). This allows python programs that do their own event handling to still have some command-period and window-switching capability.

  If you attempt to call this function from an event handler set through `SetEventHandler` you will get an exception.

`GetErrorString`(*errno*)
: Return the textual description of MacOS error code *errno*.

`splash`(*resid*)
: This function will put a splash window on-screen, with the contents of the DLOG resource specified by `resid`. Calling with a zero argument will remove the splash screen. This function is useful if you want an applet to post a splash screen early in initialization without first having to load numerous extension modules.

`DebugStr`(*message* [*, object*])

Drop to the low-level debugger with message *message*. The optional *object* argument is not used, but can easily be inspected from the debugger.

Note that you should use this function with extreme care: if no low-level debugger like MacsBug is installed this call will crash your system. It is intended mainly for developers of Python extension modules.

`openrf`(*name* [, *mode*])
: Open the resource fork of a file. Arguments are the same as for the builtin function `open`. The object returned has file-like semantics, but it is not a python file object, so there may be subtle differences.

15.9 Standard module `macostools`

This module contains some convenience routines for file-manipulation on the Macintosh.

The `macostools` module defines the following functions:

`copy`(*src, dst* [, *createpath, copytimes*])
: Copy file *src* to *dst*. The files can be specified as pathnames or `FSSpec` objects. If *createpath* is non-zero *dst* must be a pathname and the folders leading to the destination are created if necessary. The method copies data and resource fork and some finder information (creator, type, flags) and optionally the creation, modification and backup times (default is to copy them). Custom icons, comments and icon position are not copied.

If the source is an alias the original to which the alias points is copied, not the aliasfile.

`copytree`(*src, dst*)
: Recursively copy a file tree from *src* to *dst*, creating folders as needed. *Src* and *dst* should be specified as pathnames.

`mkalias`(*src, dst*)
: Create a finder alias *dst* pointing to *src*. Both may be specified as pathnames or *FSSpec* objects.

`touched`(*dst*)
: Tell the finder that some bits of finder-information such as creator or type for file *dst* has changed. The file can be specified by pathname or fsspec. This call should prod the finder into redrawing the files icon.

`BUFSIZ`
: The buffer size for `copy`, default 1 megabyte.

Note that the process of creating finder aliases is not specified in the Apple documentation. Hence, aliases created with `mkalias` could conceivably have incompatible behaviour in some cases.

15.10 Standard module `findertools`

This module contains routines that give Python programs access to some functionality provided by the finder. They are implemented as wrappers around the AppleEvent interface to the finder.

All file and folder parameters can be specified either as full pathnames or as `FSSpec` objects.

The `findertools` module defines the following functions:

`launch`(*file*)
: Tell the finder to launch *file*. What launching means depends on the file: applications are started, folders are opened and documents are opened in the correct application.

`Print`(*file*)
: Tell the finder to print a file (again specified by full pathname or FSSpec). The behaviour is identical to selecting the file and using the print command in the finder.

`copy`(*file, destdir*)
: Tell the finder to copy a file or folder *file* to folder *destdir*. The function returns an `Alias` object pointing to the new file.

`move`(*file, destdir*)
: Tell the finder to move a file or folder *file* to folder *destdir*. The function returns an `Alias` object pointing to the new file.

`sleep()`
: Tell the finder to put the mac to sleep, if your machine supports it.

`restart()`
: Tell the finder to perform an orderly restart of the machine.

`shutdown()`
: Tell the finder to perform an orderly shutdown of the machine.

15.11 Built-in Module `mactcp`

This module provides an interface to the Macintosh TCP/IP driver MacTCP. There is an accompanying module `macdnr` which provides an interface to the name-server (allowing you to translate hostnames to ip-addresses), a module `MACTCPconst` which has symbolic names for constants constants used by MacTCP. Since the builtin module `socket` is also available on the mac it is usually easier to use sockets in stead of the mac-specific MacTCP API.

A complete description of the MacTCP interface can be found in the Apple MacTCP API documentation.

`MTU()`
: Return the Maximum Transmit Unit (the packet size) of the network interface.

`IPAddr()`
: Return the 32-bit integer IP address of the network interface.

`NetMask()`
: Return the 32-bit integer network mask of the interface.

`TCPCreate(`*size*`)`
: Create a TCP Stream object. *size* is the size of the receive buffer, `4096` is suggested by various sources.

`UDPCreate(`*size, port*`)`
: Create a UDP stream object. *size* is the size of the receive buffer (and, hence, the size of the biggest datagram you can receive on this port). *port* is the UDP port number you want to receive datagrams on, a value of zero will make MacTCP select a free port.

15.11.1 TCP Stream Objects

`asr`
: When set to a value different than `None` this should point to a function with two integer parameters: an event code and a detail. This function will be called upon network-generated events such as urgent data arrival. In addition, it is called with eventcode `MACTCP.PassiveOpenDone` when a `PassiveOpen` completes. This is a Python addition to the MacTCP semantics. It is safe to do further calls from the `asr`.

`PassiveOpen(`*port*`)`
: Wait for an incoming connection on TCP port *port* (zero makes the system pick a free port). The call returns immediately, and you should use *wait* to wait for completion. You should not issue any method calls other than `wait`, `isdone` or `GetSockName` before the call completes.

`wait()`
: Wait for `PassiveOpen` to complete.

`isdone()`
: Return 1 if a `PassiveOpen` has completed.

`GetSockName()`
: Return the TCP address of this side of a connection as a 2-tuple `(host, port)`, both integers.

`ActiveOpen(`*lport, host, rport*`)`
: Open an outgoing connection to TCP address `(`*host*`, `*rport*`)`. Use local port *lport* (zero makes the system pick a free port). This call blocks until the connection has been established.

`Send(`*buf, push, urgent*`)`
: Send data *buf* over the connection. *Push* and *urgent* are flags as specified by the TCP standard.

`Rcv(`*timeout*`)`
: Receive data. The call returns when *timeout* seconds have passed or when (according to the MacTCP documentation) "a reasonable amount of data has been received". The return value is a 3-tuple `(`*data*`, `*urgent*`, `*mark*`)`. If urgent data is outstanding `Rcv` will always return that before looking at any normal data. The first call returning urgent data will have the *urgent* flag set, the last will have the *mark* flag set.

`Close()`
: Tell MacTCP that no more data will be transmitted on this connection. The call returns when all data has been acknowledged by the receiving side.

`Abort()`
: Forcibly close both sides of a connection, ignoring outstanding data.

`Status()`
: Return a TCP status object for this stream giving the current status (see below).

15.11.2 TCP Status Objects

This object has no methods, only some members holding information on the connection. A complete description of all fields in this objects can be found in the Apple documentation. The most interesting ones are:

`localHost`
`localPort`
`remoteHost`
`remotePort`
: The integer IP-addresses and port numbers of both endpoints of the connection.

`sendWindow`
: The current window size.

`amtUnackedData`
: The number of bytes sent but not yet acknowledged. `sendWindow - amtUnackedData` is what you can pass to `Send` without blocking.

`amtUnreadData`
: The number of bytes received but not yet read (what you can `Recv` without blocking).

15.11.3 UDP Stream Objects

Note that, unlike the name suggests, there is nothing stream-like about UDP.

`asr`
: The asynchronous service routine to be called on events such as datagram arrival without outstanding `Read` call. The `asr` has a single argument, the event code.

`port`
: A read-only member giving the port number of this UDP stream.

`Read(`*timeout*`)`
: Read a datagram, waiting at most *timeout* seconds (-1 is infinite). Return the data.

`Write(`*host, port, buf*`)`
: Send *buf* as a datagram to IP-address *host*, port *port*.

15.12 Built-in Module `macspeech`

This module provides an interface to the Macintosh Speech Manager, allowing you to let the Macintosh utter phrases. You need a version of the speech manager extension (version 1 and 2 have been tested) in your `Extensions` folder for this to work. The module does not provide full access to all features of the Speech Manager yet. It may not be available in all Mac Python versions.

`Available()`
Test availability of the Speech Manager extension (and, on the PowerPC, the Speech Manager shared library). Return 0 or 1.

`Version()`
Return the (integer) version number of the Speech Manager.

`SpeakString(`*str*`)`
Utter the string *str* using the default voice, asynchronously. This aborts any speech that may still be active from prior `SpeakString` invocations.

`Busy()`
Return the number of speech channels busy, system-wide.

`CountVoices()`
Return the number of different voices available.

`GetIndVoice(`*num*`)`
Return a voice object for voice number *num*.

15.12.1 voice objects

Voice objects contain the description of a voice. It is currently not yet possible to access the parameters of a voice.

`GetGender()`
Return the gender of the voice: 0 for male, 1 for female and -1 for neuter.

`NewChannel()`
Return a new speech channel object using this voice.

15.12.2 speech channel objects

A speech channel object allows you to speak strings with slightly more control than `SpeakString()`, and allows you to use multiple speakers at the same time. Please note that channel pitch and rate are interrelated in some way, so that to make your Macintosh sing you will have to adjust both.

`SpeakText(`*str*`)`
Start uttering the given string.

`Stop()`
Stop babbling.

`GetPitch()`
Return the current pitch of the channel, as a floating-point number.

`SetPitch(`*pitch*`)`
Set the pitch of the channel.

`GetRate()`
Get the speech rate (utterances per minute) of the channel as a floating point number.

`SetRate(`*rate*`)`
Set the speech rate of the channel.

15.13 Standard module `EasyDialogs`

The `EasyDialogs` module contains some simple dialogs for the Macintosh, modelled after the `stdwin` dialogs with similar names. All routines have an optional parameter *id* with which you can override the DLOG resource used for the dialog, as long as the item numbers correspond. See the source for details.

The `EasyDialogs` module defines the following functions:

`Message(str)`
: A modal dialog with the message text *str*, which should be at most 255 characters long, is displayed. Control is returned when the user clicks "OK".

`AskString(prompt[, default])`
: Ask the user to input a string value, in a modal dialog. *Prompt* is the promt message, the optional *default* arg is the initial value for the string. All strings can be at most 255 bytes long. *AskString* returns the string entered or `None` in case the user cancelled.

`AskYesNoCancel(question[, default])`
: Present a dialog with text *question* and three buttons labelled "yes", "no" and "cancel". Return `1` for yes, `0` for no and `-1` for cancel. The default return value chosen by hitting return is `0`. This can be changed with the optional *default* argument.

`ProgressBar([label, maxval])`
: Display a modeless progress dialog with a thermometer bar. *Label* is the textstring displayed (default "Working..."), *maxval* is the value at which progress is complete (default 100). The returned object has one method, `set(value)`, which sets the value of the progress bar. The bar remains visible until the object returned is discarded.

  The progress bar has a "cancel" button, but it is currently non-functional.

Note that `EasyDialogs` does not currently use the notification manager. This means that displaying dialogs while the program is in the background will lead to unexpected results and possibly crashes. Also, all dialogs are modeless and hence expect to be at the top of the stacking order. This is true when the dialogs are created, but windows that pop-up later (like a console window) may also result in crashes.

15.14 Standard module `FrameWork`

The `FrameWork` module contains classes that together provide a framework for an interactive Macintosh application. The programmer builds an application by creating subclasses that override various methods of the bases classes, thereby implementing the functionality wanted. Overriding functionality can often be done on various different levels, i.e. to handle clicks in a single dialog window in a non-standard way it is not necessary to override the complete event handling.

The `FrameWork` is still very much work-in-progress, and the documentation describes only the most important functionality, and not in the most logical manner at that. Examine the source or the examples for more details.

The `FrameWork` module defines the following functions:

`Application()`
: An object representing the complete application. See below for a description of the methods. The default `__init__` routine creates an empty window dictionary and a menu bar with an apple menu.

`MenuBar()`
: An object representing the menubar. This object is usually not created by the user.

`Menu(bar, title[, after])`
: An object representing a menu. Upon creation you pass the `MenuBar` the menu appears in, the *title* string and a position (1-based) *after* where the menu should appear (default: at the end).

`MenuItem(menu, title[, shortcut, callback])`
: Create a menu item object. The arguments are the menu to crate the item it, the item title string and optionally the keyboard shortcut and a callback routine. The callback is called with the arguments menu-id, item number within menu (1-based), current front window and the event record.

  In stead of a callable object the callback can also be a string. In this case menu selection causes the lookup of a method in the topmost window and the application. The method name is the callback string with `'domenu_'` prepended.

  Calling the `MenuBar` `fixmenudimstate` method sets the correct dimming for all menu items based on the current front window.

`Separator(menu)`
: Add a separator to the end of a menu.

`SubMenu(menu, label)`
: Create a submenu named *label* under menu *menu*. The menu object is returned.

`Window(parent)`
: Creates a (modeless) window. *Parent* is the application object to which the window belongs. The window is not displayed until later.

`DialogWindow(parent)`
: Creates a modeless dialog window.

`windowbounds(width, height)`
: Return a `(left, top, right, bottom)` tuple suitable for creation of a window of given width and height. The window will be staggered with respect to previous windows, and an attempt is made to keep the whole window on-screen. The window will however always be exact the size given, so parts may be offscreen.

`setwatchcursor()`
: Set the mouse cursor to a watch.

`setarrowcursor()`
: Set the mouse cursor to an arrow.

15.14.1 Application objects

Application objects have the following methods, among others:

`makeusermenus()`
: Override this method if you need menus in your application. Append the menus to `self.menubar`.

`getabouttext()`
: Override this method to return a text string describing your application. Alternatively, override the `do_about` method for more elaborate about messages.

`mainloop([mask, wait])`
: This routine is the main event loop, call it to set your application rolling. *Mask* is the mask of events you want to handle, *wait* is the number of ticks you want to leave to other concurrent application (default 0, which is probably not a good idea). While raising `self` to exit the mainloop is still supported it is not recommended, call `self._quit` instead.

The event loop is split into many small parts, each of which can be overridden. The default methods take care of dispatching events to windows and dialogs, handling drags and resizes, Apple Events, events for non-FrameWork windows, etc.

In general, all event handlers should return 1 if the event is fully handled and 0 otherwise (because the front window was not a FrameWork window, for instance). This is needed so that update events and such can be passed on to other windows like the Sioux console window. Calling `MacOS.HandleEvent` is not allowed within *our_dispatch* or its callees, since this may result in an infinite loop if the code is called through the python inner-loop event handler.

`asyncevents(onoff)`
: Call this method with a nonzero parameter to enable asynchronous event handling. This will tell the inner interpreter loop to call the application event handler *async_dispatch* whenever events are available. This will cause FrameWork window updates and the user interface to remain working during long computations, but will slow the interpreter down and may cause surprising results in non-reentrant code (such as FrameWork itself). By default *async_dispatch* will immedeately call *our_dispatch* but you may override this to handle only certain events asynchronously. Events you do not handle will be passed to Sioux and such.

The old on/off value is returned.

`_quit()`
: Terminate the event `mainloop` at the next convenient moment.

`do_char(c, event)`
: The user typed character *c*. The complete details of the event can be found in the *event* structure. This method can also be provided in a `Window` object, which overrides the application-wide handler if the window is frontmost.

`do_dialogevent(event)`
: Called early in the event loop to handle modeless dialog events. The default method simply dispatches the event to the relevant dialog (not through the the `DialogWindow` object involved). Override if you need special handling of dialog events (keyboard shortcuts, etc).

`idle(event)`

Called by the main event loop when no events are available. The null-event is passed (so you can look at mouse position, etc).

15.14.2 Window Objects

Window objects have the following methods, among others:

`open()`
: Override this method to open a window. Store the MacOS window-id in `self.wid` and call `self.do_postopen` to register the window with the parent application.

`close()`
: Override this method to do any special processing on window close. Call `self.do_postclose` to cleanup the parent state.

`do_postresize(`*width, height, macoswindowid*`)`
: Called after the window is resized. Override if more needs to be done than calling `InvalRect`.

`do_contentclick(`*local, modifiers, event*`)`
: The user clicked in the content part of a window. The arguments are the coordinates (window-relative), the key modifiers and the raw event.

`do_update(`*macoswindowid, event*`)`
: An update event for the window was received. Redraw the window.

`do_activate(`*activate, event*`)`
: The window was activated (`activate==1`) or deactivated (`activate==0`). Handle things like focus highlighting, etc.

15.14.3 ControlsWindow Object

ControlsWindow objects have the following methods besides those of `Window` objects:

`do_controlhit(`*window, control, pcode, event*`)`
: Part `pcode` of control `control` was hit by the user. Tracking and such has already been taken care of.

15.14.4 ScrolledWindow Object

ScrolledWindow objects are ControlsWindow objects with the following extra methods:

`scrollbars(` [*wantx, wanty*] `)`
: Create (or destroy) horizontal and vertical scrollbars. The arguments specify which you want (default: both). The scrollbars always have minimum `0` and maximum `32767`.

`getscrollbarvalues()`
: You must supply this method. It should return a tuple `x, y` giving the current position of the scrollbars (between `0` and `32767`). You can return `None` for either to indicate the whole document is visible in that direction.

`updatescrollbars()`
: Call this method when the document has changed. It will call `getscrollbarvalues` and update the scrollbars.

`scrollbar_callback(`*which, what, value*`)`
: Supplied by you and called after user interaction. `Which` will be `'x'` or `'y'`, `what` will be `'-'`, `'--'`, `'set'`, `'++'` or `'+'`. For `'set'`, `value` will contain the new scrollbar position.

`scalebarvalues(`*absmin, absmax, curmin, curmax*`)`
: Auxiliary method to help you calculate values to return from `getscrollbarvalues`. You pass document minimum and maximum value and topmost (leftmost) and bottommost (rightmost) visible values and it returns the correct number or `None`.

`do_activate(`*onoff, event*`)`
: Takes care of dimming/highlighting scrollbars when a window becomes frontmost vv. If you override this method call this one at the end of your method.

do_postresize(*width, height, window*)
: Moves scrollbars to the correct position. Call this method initially if you override it.

do_controlhit(*window, control, pcode, event*)
: Handles scrollbar interaction. If you override it call this method first, a nonzero return value indicates the hit was in the scrollbars and has been handled.

15.14.5 DialogWindow Objects

DialogWindow objects have the following methods besides those of `Window` objects:

open(*resid*)
: Create the dialog window, from the DLOG resource with id *resid*. The dialog object is stored in `self.wid`.

do_itemhit(*item, event*)
: Item number *item* was hit. You are responsible for redrawing toggle buttons, etc.

15.15 Standard module `MiniAEFrame`

The module *MiniAEFrame* provides a framework for an application that can function as an OSA server, i.e. receive and process AppleEvents. It can be used in conjunction with *FrameWork* or standalone.

This module is temporary, it will eventually be replaced by a module that handles argument names better and possibly automates making your application scriptable.

The *MiniAEFrame* module defines the following classes:

AEServer()
: A class that handles AppleEvent dispatch. Your application should subclass this class together with either `MiniAEFrame.MiniApplication` or `FrameWork.Application`. Your `__init__` method should call the `__init__` method for both classes.

MiniApplication()
: A class that is more or less compatible with `FrameWork.Application` but with less functionality. Its eventloop supports the apple menu, command-dot and AppleEvents, other events are passed on to the Python interpreter and/or Sioux. Useful if your application wants to use `AEServer` but does not provide its own windows, etc.

15.15.1 AEServer Objects

installaehandler(*classe, type, callback*)
: Installs an AppleEvent handler. `Classe` and `type` are the four-char OSA Class and Type designators, `'****'` wildcards are allowed. When a matching AppleEvent is received the parameters are decoded and your callback is invoked.

callback(*_object, **kwargs*)
: Your callback is called with the OSA Direct Object as first positional parameter. The other parameters are passed as keyword arguments, with the 4-char designator as name. Three extra keyword parameters are passed: `_class` and `_type` are the Class and Type designators and `_attributes` is a dictionary with the AppleEvent attributes.

: The return value of your method is packed with `aetools.packevent` and sent as reply.

Note that there are some serious problems with the current design. AppleEvents which have non-identifier 4-char designators for arguments are not implementable, and it is not possible to return an error to the originator. This will be addressed in a future release.

Chapter 16

SGI IRIX Specific Services

The modules described in this chapter provide interfaces to features that are unique to SGI's IRIX operating system (versions 4 and 5).

16.1 Built-in Module `al`

This module provides access to the audio facilities of the SGI Indy and Indigo workstations. See section 3A of the IRIX man pages for details. You'll need to read those man pages to understand what these functions do! Some of the functions are not available in IRIX releases before 4.0.5. Again, see the manual to check whether a specific function is available on your platform.

All functions and methods defined in this module are equivalent to the C functions with '`AL`' prefixed to their name.

Symbolic constants from the C header file '`<audio.h>`' are defined in the standard module `AL`, see below.

Warning: the current version of the audio library may dump core when bad argument values are passed rather than returning an error status. Unfortunately, since the precise circumstances under which this may happen are undocumented and hard to check, the Python interface can provide no protection against this kind of problems. (One example is specifying an excessive queue size — there is no documented upper limit.)

The module defines the following functions:

`openport` (*name, direction* [*, config*])
: The name and direction arguments are strings. The optional config argument is a configuration object as returned by `al.newconfig()`. The return value is an *port object*; methods of port objects are described below.

`newconfig()`
: The return value is a new *configuration object*; methods of configuration objects are described below.

`queryparams` (*device*)
: The device argument is an integer. The return value is a list of integers containing the data returned by ALqueryparams().

`getparams` (*device, list*)
: The device argument is an integer. The list argument is a list such as returned by `queryparams`; it is modified in place (!).

`setparams` (*device, list*)
: The device argument is an integer. The list argument is a list such as returned by `al.queryparams`.

16.1.1 Configuration Objects

Configuration objects (returned by `al.newconfig()` have the following methods:

`getqueuesize()`
: Return the queue size.

`setqueuesize(`*size*`)`
: Set the queue size.

`getwidth()`
: Get the sample width.

`setwidth(`*width*`)`
: Set the sample width.

`getchannels()`
: Get the channel count.

`setchannels(`*nchannels*`)`
: Set the channel count.

`getsampfmt()`
: Get the sample format.

`setsampfmt(`*sampfmt*`)`
: Set the sample format.

`getfloatmax()`
: Get the maximum value for floating sample formats.

`setfloatmax(`*floatmax*`)`
: Set the maximum value for floating sample formats.

16.1.2 Port Objects

Port objects (returned by `al.openport()` have the following methods:

`closeport()`
: Close the port.

`getfd()`
: Return the file descriptor as an int.

`getfilled()`
: Return the number of filled samples.

`getfillable()`
: Return the number of fillable samples.

`readsamps(`*nsamples*`)`
: Read a number of samples from the queue, blocking if necessary. Return the data as a string containing the raw data, (e.g., 2 bytes per sample in big-endian byte order (high byte, low byte) if you have set the sample width to 2 bytes).

`writesamps(`*samples*`)`
: Write samples into the queue, blocking if necessary. The samples are encoded as described for the `readsamps` return value.

`getfillpoint()`
: Return the 'fill point'.

`setfillpoint(`*fillpoint*`)`
: Set the 'fill point'.

`getconfig()`
: Return a configuration object containing the current configuration of the port.

`setconfig(`*config*`)`
: Set the configuration from the argument, a configuration object.

`getstatus(`*list*`)`
: Get status information on last error.

16.2 Standard Module AL

This module defines symbolic constants needed to use the built-in module `al` (see above); they are equivalent to those defined in the C header file '`<audio.h>`' except that the name prefix '`AL_`' is omitted. Read the module source for a complete list of the defined names. Suggested use:

```
import al
from AL import *
```

16.3 Built-in Module cd

This module provides an interface to the Silicon Graphics CD library. It is available only on Silicon Graphics systems.

The way the library works is as follows. A program opens the CD-ROM device with `cd.open()` and creates a parser to parse the data from the CD with `cd.createparser()`. The object returned by `cd.open()` can be used to read data from the CD, but also to get status information for the CD-ROM device, and to get information about the CD, such as the table of contents. Data from the CD is passed to the parser, which parses the frames, and calls any callback functions that have previously been added.

An audio CD is divided into *tracks* or *programs* (the terms are used interchangeably). Tracks can be subdivided into *indices*. An audio CD contains a *table of contents* which gives the starts of the tracks on the CD. Index 0 is usually the pause before the start of a track. The start of the track as given by the table of contents is normally the start of index 1.

Positions on a CD can be represented in two ways. Either a frame number or a tuple of three values, minutes, seconds and frames. Most functions use the latter representation. Positions can be both relative to the beginning of the CD, and to the beginning of the track.

Module `cd` defines the following functions and constants:

`createparser()`
: Create and return an opaque parser object. The methods of the parser object are described below.

`msftoframe(`*min, sec, frame*`)`
: Converts a `(minutes, seconds, frames)` triple representing time in absolute time code into the corresponding CD frame number.

`open(`[*device* [*, mode*]]`)`
: Open the CD-ROM device. The return value is an opaque player object; methods of the player object are described below. The device is the name of the SCSI device file, e.g. /dev/scsi/sc0d4l0, or `None`. If omited or `None`, the hardware inventory is consulted to locate a CD-ROM drive. The `mode`, if not omited, should be the string 'r'.

The module defines the following variables:

`error`
: Exception raised on various errors.

`DATASIZE`
: The size of one frame's worth of audio data. This is the size of the audio data as passed to the callback of type `audio`.

`BLOCKSIZE`
: The size of one uninterpreted frame of audio data.

The following variables are states as returned by `getstatus`:

`READY`
: The drive is ready for operation loaded with an audio CD.

`NODISC`
: The drive does not have a CD loaded.

`CDROM`

The drive is loaded with a CD-ROM. Subsequent play or read operations will return I/O errors.

`ERROR`
An error aoocurred while trying to read the disc or its table of contents.

`PLAYING`
The drive is in CD player mode playing an audio CD through its audio jacks.

`PAUSED`
The drive is in CD layer mode with play paused.

`STILL`
The equivalent of `PAUSED` on older (non 3301) model Toshiba CD-ROM drives. Such drives have never been shipped by SGI.

`audio`
`pnum`
`index`
`ptime`
`atime`
`catalog`
`ident`
`control`
Integer constants describing the various types of parser callbacks that can be set by the `addcallback()` method of CD parser objects (see below).

Player objects (returned by `cd.open()`) have the following methods:

`allowremoval()`
Unlocks the eject button on the CD-ROM drive permitting the user to eject the caddy if desired.

`bestreadsize()`
Returns the best value to use for the `num_frames` parameter of the `readda` method. Best is defined as the value that permits a continuous flow of data from the CD-ROM drive.

`close()`
Frees the resources associated with the player object. After calling `close`, the methods of the object should no longer be used.

`eject()`
Ejects the caddy from the CD-ROM drive.

`getstatus()`
Returns information pertaining to the current state of the CD-ROM drive. The returned information is a tuple with the following values: `state`, `track`, `rtime`, `atime`, `ttime`, `first`, `last`, `scsi_audio`, `cur_block`. `rtime` is the time relative to the start of the current track; `atime` is the time relative to the beginning of the disc; `ttime` is the total time on the disc. For more information on the meaning of the values, see the manual for CDgetstatus. The value of `state` is one of the following: `cd.ERROR`, `cd.NODISC`, `cd.READY`, `cd.PLAYING`, `cd.PAUSED`, `cd.STILL`, or `cd.CDROM`.

`gettrackinfo(`*track*`)`
Returns information about the specified track. The returned information is a tuple consisting of two elements, the start time of the track and the duration of the track.

`msftoblock(`*min, sec, frame*`)`
Converts a minutes, seconds, frames triple representing a time in absolute time code into the corresponding logical block number for the given CD-ROM drive. You should use `cd.msftoframe()` rather than `msftoblock()` for comparing times. The logical block number differs from the frame number by an offset required by certain CD-ROM drives.

`play(`*start, play*`)`
Starts playback of an audio CD in the CD-ROM drive at the specified track. The audio output appears on the CD-ROM drive's headphone and audio jacks (if fitted). Play stops at the end of the disc. `start` is the number of the track at which to start playing the CD; if `play` is 0, the CD will be set to an initial paused state. The method `togglepause()` can then be used to commence play.

`playabs(`*min, sec, frame, play*`)`

Like `play()`, except that the start is given in minutes, seconds, frames instead of a track number.

`playtrack(`*start, play*`)`
Like `play()`, except that playing stops at the end of the track.

`playtrackabs(`*track, min, sec, frame, play*`)`
Like `play()`, except that playing begins at the spcified absolute time and ends at the end of the specified track.

`preventremoval()`
Locks the eject button on the CD-ROM drive thus preventing the user from arbitrarily ejecting the caddy.

`readda(`*num_frames*`)`
Reads the specified number of frames from an audio CD mounted in the CD-ROM drive. The return value is a string representing the audio frames. This string can be passed unaltered to the `parseframe` method of the parser object.

`seek(`*min, sec, frame*`)`
Sets the pointer that indicates the starting point of the next read of digital audio data from a CD-ROM. The pointer is set to an absolute time code location specified in minutes, seconds, and frames. The return value is the logical block number to which the pointer has been set.

`seekblock(`*block*`)`
Sets the pointer that indicates the starting point of the next read of digital audio data from a CD-ROM. The pointer is set to the specified logical block number. The return value is the logical block number to which the pointer has been set.

`seektrack(`*track*`)`
Sets the pointer that indicates the starting point of the next read of digital audio data from a CD-ROM. The pointer is set to the specified track. The return value is the logical block number to which the pointer has been set.

`stop()`
Stops the current playing operation.

`togglepause()`
Pauses the CD if it is playing, and makes it play if it is paused.

Parser objects (returned by `cd.createparser()`) have the following methods:

`addcallback(`*type, func, arg*`)`
Adds a callback for the parser. The parser has callbacks for eight different types of data in the digital audio data stream. Constants for these types are defined at the `cd` module level (see above). The callback is called as follows: `func(arg, type, data)`, where `arg` is the user supplied argument, `type` is the particular type of callback, and `data` is the data returned for this `type` of callback. The type of the data depends on the `type` of callback as follows:

`cd.audio`**:** The argument is a string which can be passed unmodified to `al.writesamps()`.

`cd.pnum`**:** The argument is an integer giving the program (track) number.

`cd.index`**:** The argument is an integer giving the index number.

`cd.ptime`**:** The argument is a tuple consisting of the program time in minutes, seconds, and frames.

`cd.atime`**:** The argument is a tuple consisting of the absolute time in minutes, seconds, and frames.

`cd.catalog`**:** The argument is a string of 13 characters, giving the catalog number of the CD.

`cd.ident`**:** The argument is a string of 12 characters, giving the ISRC identification number of the recording. The string consists of two characters country code, three characters owner code, two characters giving the year, and five characters giving a serial number.

`cd.control`**:** The argument is an integer giving the control bits from the CD subcode data.

`deleteparser()`
Deletes the parser and frees the memory it was using. The object should not be used after this call. This call is done automatically when the last reference to the object is removed.

`parseframe(`*frame*`)`
Parses one or more frames of digital audio data from a CD such as returned by `readda`. It determines which subcodes are present in the data. If these subcodes have changed since the last frame, then `parseframe` executes a callback of the appropriate type passing to it the subcode data found in the frame. Unlike the C function, more than one frame of digital audio data can be passed to this method.

`removecallback(`*type*`)`
Removes the callback for the given `type`.

resetparser()
: Resets the fields of the parser used for tracking subcodes to an initial state. `resetparser` should be called after the disc has been changed.

16.4 Built-in Module `fl`

This module provides an interface to the FORMS Library by Mark Overmars. The source for the library can be retrieved by anonymous ftp from host '`ftp.cs.ruu.nl`', directory '`SGI/FORMS`'. It was last tested with version 2.0b.

Most functions are literal translations of their C equivalents, dropping the initial '`fl_`' from their name. Constants used by the library are defined in module `FL` described below.

The creation of objects is a little different in Python than in C: instead of the 'current form' maintained by the library to which new FORMS objects are added, all functions that add a FORMS object to a form are methods of the Python object representing the form. Consequently, there are no Python equivalents for the C functions `fl_addto_form` and `fl_end_form`, and the equivalent of `fl_bgn_form` is called `fl.make_form`.

Watch out for the somewhat confusing terminology: FORMS uses the word *object* for the buttons, sliders etc. that you can place in a form. In Python, 'object' means any value. The Python interface to FORMS introduces two new Python object types: form objects (representing an entire form) and FORMS objects (representing one button, slider etc.). Hopefully this isn't too confusing...

There are no 'free objects' in the Python interface to FORMS, nor is there an easy way to add object classes written in Python. The FORMS interface to GL event handling is available, though, so you can mix FORMS with pure GL windows.

Please note: importing `fl` implies a call to the GL function `foreground()` and to the FORMS routine `fl_init()`.

16.4.1 Functions Defined in Module `fl`

Module `fl` defines the following functions. For more information about what they do, see the description of the equivalent C function in the FORMS documentation:

`make_form(`*type, width, height*`)`
: Create a form with given type, width and height. This returns a *form* object, whose methods are described below.

`do_forms()`
: The standard FORMS main loop. Returns a Python object representing the FORMS object needing interaction, or the special value `FL.EVENT`.

`check_forms()`
: Check for FORMS events. Returns what `do_forms` above returns, or `None` if there is no event that immediately needs interaction.

`set_event_call_back(`*function*`)`
: Set the event callback function.

`set_graphics_mode(`*rgbmode, doublebuffering*`)`
: Set the graphics modes.

`get_rgbmode()`
: Return the current rgb mode. This is the value of the C global variable `fl_rgbmode`.

`show_message(`*str1, str2, str3*`)`
: Show a dialog box with a three-line message and an OK button.

`show_question(`*str1, str2, str3*`)`
: Show a dialog box with a three-line message and YES and NO buttons. It returns `1` if the user pressed YES, `0` if NO.

`show_choice(`*str1, str2, str3, but1* [*, but2, but3*]`)`
: Show a dialog box with a three-line message and up to three buttons. It returns the number of the button clicked by the user (`1`, `2` or `3`).

`show_input(`*prompt, default*`)`

Show a dialog box with a one-line prompt message and text field in which the user can enter a string. The second argument is the default input string. It returns the string value as edited by the user.

`show_file_selector` (*message, directory, pattern, default*)
Show a dialog box in which the user can select a file. It returns the absolute filename selected by the user, or `None` if the user presses Cancel.

`get_directory()`
`get_pattern()`
`get_filename()`
These functions return the directory, pattern and filename (the tail part only) selected by the user in the last `show_file_selector` call.

`qdevice` (*dev*)
`unqdevice` (*dev*)
`isqueued` (*dev*)
`qtest()`
`qread()`
`qreset()`
`qenter` (*dev, val*)
`get_mouse()`
`tie` (*button, valuator1, valuator2*)
These functions are the FORMS interfaces to the corresponding GL functions. Use these if you want to handle some GL events yourself when using `fl.do_events`. When a GL event is detected that FORMS cannot handle, `fl.do_forms()` returns the special value `FL.EVENT` and you should call `fl.qread()` to read the event from the queue. Don't use the equivalent GL functions!

`color()`
`mapcolor()`
`getmcolor()`
See the description in the FORMS documentation of `fl_color`, `fl_mapcolor` and `fl_getmcolor`.

16.4.2 Form Objects

Form objects (returned by `fl.make_form()` above) have the following methods. Each method corresponds to a C function whose name is prefixed with '`fl_`'; and whose first argument is a form pointer; please refer to the official FORMS documentation for descriptions.

All the '`add_...`' functions return a Python object representing the FORMS object. Methods of FORMS objects are described below. Most kinds of FORMS object also have some methods specific to that kind; these methods are listed here.

`show_form` (*placement, bordertype, name*)
Show the form.

`hide_form()`
Hide the form.

`redraw_form()`
Redraw the form.

`set_form_position` (*x, y*)
Set the form's position.

`freeze_form()`
Freeze the form.

`unfreeze_form()`
Unfreeze the form.

`activate_form()`
Activate the form.

`deactivate_form()`

Deactivate the form.

`bgn_group()`
Begin a new group of objects; return a group object.

`end_group()`
End the current group of objects.

`find_first()`
Find the first object in the form.

`find_last()`
Find the last object in the form.

`add_box(`*type, x, y, w, h, name*`)`
Add a box object to the form. No extra methods.

`add_text(`*type, x, y, w, h, name*`)`
Add a text object to the form. No extra methods.

`add_clock(`*type, x, y, w, h, name*`)`
Add a clock object to the form.
Method: `get_clock`.

`add_button(`*type, x, y, w, h, name*`)`
Add a button object to the form.
Methods: `get_button`, `set_button`.

`add_lightbutton(`*type, x, y, w, h, name*`)`
Add a lightbutton object to the form.
Methods: `get_button`, `set_button`.

`add_roundbutton(`*type, x, y, w, h, name*`)`
Add a roundbutton object to the form.
Methods: `get_button`, `set_button`.

`add_slider(`*type, x, y, w, h, name*`)`
Add a slider object to the form.
Methods: `set_slider_value`, `get_slider_value`, `set_slider_bounds`, `get_slider_bounds`, `set_slider_return`, `set_slider_size`, `set_slider_precision`, `set_slider_step`.

`add_valslider(`*type, x, y, w, h, name*`)`
Add a valslider object to the form.
Methods: `set_slider_value`, `get_slider_value`, `set_slider_bounds`, `get_slider_bounds`, `set_slider_return`, `set_slider_size`, `set_slider_precision`, `set_slider_step`.

`add_dial(`*type, x, y, w, h, name*`)`
Add a dial object to the form.
Methods: `set_dial_value`, `get_dial_value`, `set_dial_bounds`, `get_dial_bounds`.

`add_positioner(`*type, x, y, w, h, name*`)`
Add a positioner object to the form.
Methods: `set_positioner_xvalue`, `set_positioner_yvalue`, `set_positioner_xbounds`, `set_positioner_ybounds`, `get_positioner_xvalue`, `get_positioner_yvalue`, `get_positioner_xbounds`, `get_positioner_ybounds`.

`add_counter(`*type, x, y, w, h, name*`)`
Add a counter object to the form.
Methods: `set_counter_value`, `get_counter_value`, `set_counter_bounds`, `set_counter_step`, `set_counter_precision`, `set_counter_return`.

`add_input(`*type, x, y, w, h, name*`)`
Add a input object to the form.
Methods: `set_input`, `get_input`, `set_input_color`, `set_input_return`.

`add_menu(`*type, x, y, w, h, name*`)`

Add a menu object to the form.
Methods: `set_menu`, `get_menu`, `addto_menu`.

`add_choice` (*type, x, y, w, h, name*)
Add a choice object to the form.
Methods: `set_choice`, `get_choice`, `clear_choice`, `addto_choice`, `replace_choice`, `delete_choice`, `get_choice_text`, `set_choice_fontsize`, `set_choice_fontstyle`.

`add_browser` (*type, x, y, w, h, name*)
Add a browser object to the form.
Methods: `set_browser_topline`, `clear_browser`, `add_browser_line`, `addto_browser`, `insert_browser_line`, `delete_browser_line`, `replace_browser_line`, `get_browser_line`, `load_browser`, `get_browser_maxline`, `select_browser_line`, `deselect_browser_line`, `deselect_browser`, `isselected_browser_line`, `get_browser`, `set_browser_fontsize`, `set_browser_fontstyle`, `set_browser_specialkey`.

`add_timer` (*type, x, y, w, h, name*)
Add a timer object to the form.
Methods: `set_timer`, `get_timer`.

Form objects have the following data attributes; see the FORMS documentation:

Name	Type	Meaning
`window`	int (read-only)	GL window id
`w`	float	form width
`h`	float	form height
`x`	float	form x origin
`y`	float	form y origin
`deactivated`	int	nonzero if form is deactivated
`visible`	int	nonzero if form is visible
`frozen`	int	nonzero if form is frozen
`doublebuf`	int	nonzero if double buffering on

16.4.3 FORMS Objects

Besides methods specific to particular kinds of FORMS objects, all FORMS objects also have the following methods:

`set_call_back` (*function, argument*)
Set the object's callback function and argument. When the object needs interaction, the callback function will be called with two arguments: the object, and the callback argument. (FORMS objects without a callback function are returned by `fl.do_forms()` or `fl.check_forms()` when they need interaction.) Call this method without arguments to remove the callback function.

`delete_object()`
Delete the object.

`show_object()`
Show the object.

`hide_object()`
Hide the object.

`redraw_object()`
Redraw the object.

`freeze_object()`
Freeze the object.

`unfreeze_object()`
Unfreeze the object.

FORMS objects have these data attributes; see the FORMS documentation:

Name	Type	Meaning
objclass	int (read-only)	object class
type	int (read-only)	object type
boxtype	int	box type
x	float	x origin
y	float	y origin
w	float	width
h	float	height
col1	int	primary color
col2	int	secondary color
align	int	alignment
lcol	int	label color
lsize	float	label font size
label	string	label string
lstyle	int	label style
pushed	int (read-only)	(see FORMS docs)
focus	int (read-only)	(see FORMS docs)
belowmouse	int (read-only)	(see FORMS docs)
frozen	int (read-only)	(see FORMS docs)
active	int (read-only)	(see FORMS docs)
input	int (read-only)	(see FORMS docs)
visible	int (read-only)	(see FORMS docs)
radio	int (read-only)	(see FORMS docs)
automatic	int (read-only)	(see FORMS docs)

16.5 Standard Module `FL`

This module defines symbolic constants needed to use the built-in module `fl` (see above); they are equivalent to those defined in the C header file '`<forms.h>`' except that the name prefix '`FL_`' is omitted. Read the module source for a complete list of the defined names. Suggested use:

```
import fl
from FL import *
```

16.6 Standard Module `flp`

This module defines functions that can read form definitions created by the 'form designer' (`fdesign`) program that comes with the FORMS library (see module `fl` above).

For now, see the file '`flp.doc`' in the Python library source directory for a description.

XXX A complete description should be inserted here!

16.7 Built-in Module `fm`

This module provides access to the IRIS *Font Manager* library. It is available only on Silicon Graphics machines. See also: 4Sight User's Guide, Section 1, Chapter 5: Using the IRIS Font Manager.

This is not yet a full interface to the IRIS Font Manager. Among the unsupported features are: matrix operations; cache operations; character operations (use string operations instead); some details of font info; individual glyph metrics; and printer matching.

It supports the following operations:

`init()`

Initialization function. Calls `fminit()`. It is normally not necessary to call this function, since it is called automatically the first time the `fm` module is imported.

`findfont(`*fontname*`)`
Return a font handle object. Calls `fmfindfont(`*fontname*`)`.

`enumerate()`
Returns a list of available font names. This is an interface to `fmenumerate()`.

`prstr(`*string*`)`
Render a string using the current font (see the `setfont()` font handle method below). Calls `fmprstr(`*string*`)`.

`setpath(`*string*`)`
Sets the font search path. Calls `fmsetpath(string)`. (XXX Does not work!?!)

`fontpath()`
Returns the current font search path.

Font handle objects support the following operations:

`scalefont(`*factor*`)`
Returns a handle for a scaled version of this font. Calls `fmscalefont(`*fh*`,` *factor*`)`.

`setfont()`
Makes this font the current font. Note: the effect is undone silently when the font handle object is deleted. Calls `fmsetfont(`*fh*`)`.

`getfontname()`
Returns this font's name. Calls `fmgetfontname(`*fh*`)`.

`getcomment()`
Returns the comment string associated with this font. Raises an exception if there is none. Calls `fmgetcomment(`*fh*`)`.

`getfontinfo()`
Returns a tuple giving some pertinent data about this font. This is an interface to `fmgetfontinfo()`. The returned tuple contains the following numbers: `(`*printermatched*`,` *fixed_width*`,` *xorig*`,` *yorig*`,` *xsize*`,` *ysize*`,` *height*`,` *nglyphs*`)`.

`getstrwidth(`*string*`)`
Returns the width, in pixels, of the string when drawn in this font. Calls `fmgetstrwidth(`*fh*`,` *string*`)`.

16.8 Built-in Module `gl`

This module provides access to the Silicon Graphics *Graphics Library*. It is available only on Silicon Graphics machines.

Warning: Some illegal calls to the GL library cause the Python interpreter to dump core. In particular, the use of most GL calls is unsafe before the first window is opened.

The module is too large to document here in its entirety, but the following should help you to get started. The parameter conventions for the C functions are translated to Python as follows:

- All (short, long, unsigned) int values are represented by Python integers.
- All float and double values are represented by Python floating point numbers. In most cases, Python integers are also allowed.
- All arrays are represented by one-dimensional Python lists. In most cases, tuples are also allowed.
- All string and character arguments are represented by Python strings, for instance, `winopen('Hi There!')` and `rotate(900, 'z')`.
- All (short, long, unsigned) integer arguments or return values that are only used to specify the length of an array argument are omitted. For example, the C call

  ```
  lmdef(deftype, index, np, props)
  ```

  is translated to Python as

```
lmdef(deftype, index, props)
```

- Output arguments are omitted from the argument list; they are transmitted as function return values instead. If more than one value must be returned, the return value is a tuple. If the C function has both a regular return value (that is not omitted because of the previous rule) and an output argument, the return value comes first in the tuple. Examples: the C call

  ```
  getmcolor(i, &red, &green, &blue)
  ```

  is translated to Python as

  ```
  red, green, blue = getmcolor(i)
  ```

The following functions are non-standard or have special argument conventions:

`varray`(*argument*)
: Equivalent to but faster than a number of `v3d()` calls. The *argument* is a list (or tuple) of points. Each point must be a tuple of coordinates `(`*x*`, `*y*`, `*z*`)` or `(`*x*`, `*y*`)`. The points may be 2- or 3-dimensional but must all have the same dimension. Float and int values may be mixed however. The points are always converted to 3D double precision points by assuming *z* `= 0.0` if necessary (as indicated in the man page), and for each point `v3d()` is called.

`nvarray()`
: Equivalent to but faster than a number of `n3f` and `v3f` calls. The argument is an array (list or tuple) of pairs of normals and points. Each pair is a tuple of a point and a normal for that point. Each point or normal must be a tuple of coordinates `(`*x*`, `*y*`, `*z*`)`. Three coordinates must be given. Float and int values may be mixed. For each pair, `n3f()` is called for the normal, and then `v3f()` is called for the point.

`vnarray()`
: Similar to `nvarray()` but the pairs have the point first and the normal second.

`nurbssurface`(*s_k, t_k, ctl, s_ord, t_ord, type*)
: Defines a nurbs surface. The dimensions of *ctl*`[][]` are computed as follows: `[len(`*s_k*`) - `*s_ord*`]`, `[len(`*t_k*`) - `*t_ord*`]`.

`nurbscurve`(*knots, ctlpoints, order, type*)
: Defines a nurbs curve. The length of ctlpoints is `len(`*knots*`) - `*order*.

`pwlcurve`(*points, type*)
: Defines a piecewise-linear curve. *points* is a list of points. *type* must be `N_ST`.

`pick(`*n*`)`
`select(`*n*`)`
: The only argument to these functions specifies the desired size of the pick or select buffer.

`endpick()`
`endselect()`
: These functions have no arguments. They return a list of integers representing the used part of the pick/select buffer. No method is provided to detect buffer overrun.

Here is a tiny but complete example GL program in Python:

```
import gl, GL, time

def main():
    gl.foreground()
    gl.prefposition(500, 900, 500, 900)
    w = gl.winopen('CrissCross')
    gl.ortho2(0.0, 400.0, 0.0, 400.0)
    gl.color(GL.WHITE)
    gl.clear()
    gl.color(GL.RED)
    gl.bgnline()
    gl.v2f(0.0, 0.0)
    gl.v2f(400.0, 400.0)
    gl.endline()
    gl.bgnline()
    gl.v2f(400.0, 0.0)
    gl.v2f(0.0, 400.0)
    gl.endline()
    time.sleep(5)

main()
```

16.9 Standard Modules `GL` and `DEVICE`

These modules define the constants used by the Silicon Graphics *Graphics Library* that C programmers find in the header files '`<gl/gl.h>`' and '`<gl/device.h>`'. Read the module source files for details.

16.10 Built-in Module `imgfile`

The imgfile module allows python programs to access SGI imglib image files (also known as '`.rgb`' files). The module is far from complete, but is provided anyway since the functionality that there is is enough in some cases. Currently, colormap files are not supported.

The module defines the following variables and functions:

`error`
: This exception is raised on all errors, such as unsupported file type, etc.

`getsizes` (*file*)
: This function returns a tuple `(`*x*`, `*y*`, `*z*`)` where *x* and *y* are the size of the image in pixels and *z* is the number of bytes per pixel. Only 3 byte RGB pixels and 1 byte greyscale pixels are currently supported.

`read` (*file*)
: This function reads and decodes the image on the specified file, and returns it as a python string. The string has either 1 byte greyscale pixels or 4 byte RGBA pixels. The bottom left pixel is the first in the string. This format is suitable to pass to `gl.lrectwrite`, for instance.

`readscaled` (*file, x, y, filter* [*, blur*])
: This function is identical to read but it returns an image that is scaled to the given *x* and *y* sizes. If the *filter* and *blur* parameters are omitted scaling is done by simply dropping or duplicating pixels, so the result will be less than perfect, especially for computer-generated images.

  Alternatively, you can specify a filter to use to smoothen the image after scaling. The filter forms supported are `'impulse'`, `'box'`, `'triangle'`, `'quadratic'` and `'gaussian'`. If a filter is specified *blur* is an optional parameter specifying the blurriness of the filter. It defaults to `1.0`.

  `readscaled` makes no attempt to keep the aspect ratio correct, so that is the users' responsibility.

`ttob` (*flag*)

This function sets a global flag which defines whether the scan lines of the image are read or written from bottom to top (flag is zero, compatible with SGI GL) or from top to bottom(flag is one, compatible with X). The default is zero.

`write` (*file, data, x, y, z*)

This function writes the RGB or greyscale data in *data* to image file *file*. *x* and *y* give the size of the image, *z* is 1 for 1 byte greyscale images or 3 for RGB images (which are stored as 4 byte values of which only the lower three bytes are used). These are the formats returned by `gl.lrectread`.

Chapter 17

SunOS Specific Services

The modules described in this chapter provide interfaces to features that are unique to the SunOS operating system (versions 4 and 5; the latter is also known as Solaris version 2).

17.1 Built-in Module `sunaudiodev`

This module allows you to access the sun audio interface. The sun audio hardware is capable of recording and playing back audio data in U-LAW format with a sample rate of 8K per second. A full description can be gotten with '`man audio`'.

The module defines the following variables and functions:

`error`
: This exception is raised on all errors. The argument is a string describing what went wrong.

`open(`*mode*`)`
: This function opens the audio device and returns a sun audio device object. This object can then be used to do I/O on. The *mode* parameter is one of `'r'` for record-only access, `'w'` for play-only access, `'rw'` for both and `'control'` for access to the control device. Since only one process is allowed to have the recorder or player open at the same time it is a good idea to open the device only for the activity needed. See the audio manpage for details.

17.1.1 Audio Device Objects

The audio device objects are returned by `open` define the following methods (except `control` objects which only provide getinfo, setinfo and drain):

`close()`
: This method explicitly closes the device. It is useful in situations where deleting the object does not immediately close it since there are other references to it. A closed device should not be used again.

`drain()`
: This method waits until all pending output is processed and then returns. Calling this method is often not necessary: destroying the object will automatically close the audio device and this will do an implicit drain.

`flush()`
: This method discards all pending output. It can be used avoid the slow response to a user's stop request (due to buffering of up to one second of sound).

`getinfo()`
: This method retrieves status information like input and output volume, etc. and returns it in the form of an audio status object. This object has no methods but it contains a number of attributes describing the current device status. The names and meanings of the attributes are described in '`/usr/include/sun/audioio.h`' and in the audio man page. Member names are slightly different from their C counterparts: a status object is only a single structure. Members of the `play` substructure have

'o_' prepended to their name and members of the `record` structure have 'i_'. So, the C member `play.sample_rate` is accessed as `o_sample_rate`, `record.gain` as `i_gain` and `monitor_gain` plainly as `monitor_gain`.

`ibufcount()`
: This method returns the number of samples that are buffered on the recording side, i.e. the program will not block on a `read` call of so many samples.

`obufcount()`
: This method returns the number of samples buffered on the playback side. Unfortunately, this number cannot be used to determine a number of samples that can be written without blocking since the kernel output queue length seems to be variable.

`read(`*size*`)`
: This method reads *size* samples from the audio input and returns them as a python string. The function blocks until enough data is available.

`setinfo(`*status*`)`
: This method sets the audio device status parameters. The *status* parameter is an device status object as returned by `getinfo` and possibly modified by the program.

`write(`*samples*`)`
: Write is passed a python string containing audio samples to be played. If there is enough buffer space free it will immediately return, otherwise it will block.

There is a companion module, `SUNAUDIODEV`, which defines useful symbolic constants like `MIN_GAIN`, `MAX_GAIN`, `SPEAKER`, etc. The names of the constants are the same names as used in the C include file '`<sun/audioio.h>`', with the leading string '`AUDIO_`' stripped.

Useability of the control device is limited at the moment, since there is no way to use the "wait for something to happen" feature the device provides.

Chapter 18

Undocumented Modules

Here's a quick listing of modules that are currently undocumented, but that should be documented. Feel free to contribute documentation for them! (The idea and most contents for this chapter were taken from a posting by Fredrik Lundh; I have revised some modules' status.)

18.1 Fundamental, and pretty straightforward to document

cPickle.c – mostly the same as pickle but no subclassing

cStringIO.c – mostly the same as StringIO but no subclassing

18.2 Frameworks; somewhat harder to document, but well worth the effort

Tkinter.py – Interface to Tcl/Tk for graphical user interfaces; Fredrik Lundh is working on this one!

BaseHTTPServer.py – HTTP server base class

CGIHTTPServer.py – CGI-savvy HTTP Server

SimpleHTTPServer.py – Simple HTTP Server

18.3 Stuff useful to a lot of people, including the CGI crowd

MimeWriter.py – Generic MIME writer

multifile.py – make each part of a multipart message "feel" like

fileinput.py – convenient loop over the lines in a list of input files.

18.4 Miscellaneous useful utilities

Some of these are very old and/or not very robust; marked with "hmm".

calendar.py – Calendar printing functions

ConfigParser.py – Parse a file of sectioned configuration parameters

cmp.py – Efficiently compare files

cmpcache.py – Efficiently compare files (uses statcache)

dircache.py – like os.listdir, but caches results

dircmp.py – class to build directory diff tools on

linecache.py – Cache lines from files (used by pdb)

pipes.py – Conversion pipeline templates (hmm)

popen2.py – improved popen, can read AND write simultaneously

statcache.py – Maintain a cache of file stats

colorsys.py – Conversion between RGB and other color systems

dbhash.py – (g)dbm-like wrapper for bsdhash.hashopen

mhlib.py – MH interface

pty.py – Pseudo terminal utilities

tty.py – Terminal utilities

cmd.py – build line-oriented command interpreters (used by pdb)

bdb.py – A generic Python debugger base class (used by pdb)

ihooks.py – Import hook support (for ni and rexec)

18.5 Parsing Python

(One could argue that these should all be documented together with the parser module.)

tokenize.py – regular expression that recognizes Python tokens; also contains helper code for colorizing Python source code.

pyclbr.py – Parse a Python file and retrieve classes and methods

18.6 Platform specific modules

ntpath.py – equivalent of posixpath on 32-bit Windows

dospath.py – equivalent of posixpath on MS-DOS

18.7 Code objects and files, debugger etc.

compileall.py – force "compilation" of all .py files in a directory

py_compile.py – "compile" a .py file to a .pyc file

repr.py – Redo the '...' (representation) but with limits on most sizes (used by pdb)

copy_reg.py – helper to provide extensibility for pickle/cPickle

18.8 Multimedia

audiodev.py – Plays audio files

sunau.py – parse Sun and NeXT audio files

sunaudio.py – interpret sun audio headers toaiff.py – Convert ”arbitrary” sound files to AIFF files

sndhdr.py – recognizing sound files

wave.py – parse WAVE files

whatsound.py – recognizing sound files

18.9 Oddities

These modules are probably also obsolete, or just not very useful.

bisect.py – Bisection algorithms (this is actually useful at times)

dump.py – Print python code that reconstructs a variable

find.py – find files matching pattern in directory tree

fpformat.py – General floating point formatting functions – obsolete

grep.py – grep

mutex.py – Mutual exclusion – for use with module sched

packmail.py – create a self-unpacking UNIX shell archive

poly.py – Polynomials

sched.py – event scheduler class

shutil.py – utility functions usable in a shell-like program

util.py – useful functions that don't fit elsewhere

zmod.py – Compute properties of mathematical ”fields”

tzparse.py – Parse a timezone specification (unfinished)

18.10 Obsolete

newdir.py – New dir() function (the standard dir() is now just as good)

addpack.py – standard support for ”packages” (use ni instead)

fmt.py – text formatting abstractions (too slow)

Para.py – helper for fmt.py

lockfile.py – wrapper around FCNTL file locking (use fcntl.lockf/flock intead)

tb.py – Print tracebacks, with a dump of local variables (use pdb.pm() or traceback.py instead)

codehack.py – extract function name or line number from a function code object (these are now accessible as attributes: co.co_name, func.func_name, co.co_firstlineno)

18.11 Extension modules

bsddbmodule.c – Interface to the Berkeley DB interface (yet another dbm clone).

cursesmodule.c – Curses interface.

dbhashmodule.c – Obsolete; this functionality is now provided by bsddbmodule.c.

dlmodule.c – A highly experimental and dangerous device for calling arbitrary C functions in arbitrary shared libraries.

newmodule.c – Tommy Burnette's 'new' module (creates new empty objects of certain kinds) – dangerous.

nismodule.c – NIS (a.k.a. Sun's Yellow Pages) interface.

timingmodule.c – Measure time intervals to high resolution (obsolete – use time.clock() instead).

resource.c – Interface to getrusage() and friends.

stdwinmodule.c – Interface to STDWIN (an old, unsupported platform-independent GUI package). Obsolete; use Tkinter for a platform-independent GUI instead.

The following are SGI specific:

clmodule.c – Interface to the SGI compression library.

svmodule.c – Interface to the "simple video" board on SGI Indigo (obsolete hardware).

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