

COMP(2041|9044) 26T1 — More on Python

<https://www.cse.unsw.edu.au/~cs2041/26T1/>

Names and Types

- Python associates types with values.
 - languages like C, Perl associate types with variables
- A Python variables can refer to a value of any type.
 - optional type annotations can indicate a variable should refer only to a particular type
- The **type** function allows introspection.

```
>>> a = 42
>>> type(a)
<type 'int'>
>>> a = "String"
>>> type(a)
<type 'str'>
>>> a = [1,2,3]
>>> type(a)
<type 'list'>
>>> a = {'ps':50, 'cr':65, 'dn':75}
>>> type(a)
<type 'dict'>
```

More Types

```
>>> type("Hello")
str
>>> type('Hello')
str
>>> type("""Hello""")
str
>>> type('''Hello''')
str
>>> type(str())
str # same value as "" (empty string)
>>> type(1)
int
>>> type(int())
int # same value as 0
>>> type(4.4)
float
```

```
>>> type(float())
float # same value as 0.0
>>> type(5j)
complex
>>> type(3 + 1j)
complex
>>> type(complex())
complex # same value as 0j (and 0+0j)
```

- Python does not have arrays
 - widely used Python package **numpy** does have arrays
- Python has 3 basic sequence types: lists, tuples, and ranges
 - lists are mutable - they can be changed
 - tuples similar to lists but immutable - they can not be changed
 - some important operations require immutable types, e.g. hashing
 - ranges are immutable sequence of numbers
 - commonly used for loops

Python Sequences - Examples

```
>>> l = [1,2,3,4,5]
```

```
>>> t = (1,2,3,4,5)
```

```
>>> r = range(1, 6)
```

```
>>> l[2]
```

```
3
```

```
>>> t[2]
```

```
3
```

```
>>> r[2]
```

```
3
```

```
>>> l[2] = 42
```

```
>>> l
```

```
[1, 2, 42, 4, 5]
```

```
>>> t[2] = 42
```

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

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

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

Some Useful Python Sequence Operations

These can be applied to lists, tuples and ranges

<code>x in s</code>	True if an item of <code>s</code> is equal to <code>x</code>
<code>x not in s</code>	False if an item of <code>s</code> is equal to <code>x</code>
<code>s + t</code>	the concatenation of <code>s</code> and <code>t</code> , also <code>s += t</code>
<code>s * n</code>	equivalent to adding <code>s</code> to itself <code>n</code> times, also <code>s *= n</code>
<code>s[i]</code>	<code>i</code> th item of <code>s</code>
<code>s[i:j]</code>	slice of <code>s</code> from <code>i</code> to <code>j</code>
<code>s[i:j:k]</code>	slice of <code>s</code> from <code>i</code> to <code>j</code> with step <code>k</code>
<code>len(s)</code>	length of <code>s</code>
<code>min(s)</code>	smallest item of <code>s</code>
<code>max(s)</code>	largest item of <code>s</code>
<code>s.index(x, i[, j])</code>	index of the first occurrence of <code>x</code> in <code>s</code> (at or after index <code>i</code> and before index <code>j</code>)
<code>s.count(x)</code>	total number of occurrences of <code>x</code> in <code>s</code>

Some Useful Python Mutable Sequence Operations

These can be applied to lists, not tuples or ranges

<code>s[i] = x</code>	item <code>i</code> of <code>s</code> is replaced by <code>x</code>
<code>s[i:j] = t</code>	slice of <code>s</code> from <code>i</code> to <code>j</code> is replaced by elements of <code>t</code>
<code>del s[i:j]</code>	same as <code>s[i:j] = []</code>
<code>s[i:j:k] = t</code>	the elements of <code>s[i:j:k]</code> are replaced by those of <code>t</code>
<code>del s[i:j:k]</code>	removes the elements of <code>s[i:j:k]</code> from the list
<code>s.append(x)</code>	appends <code>x</code> to the end of the sequence
<code>s.clear()</code>	removes all items from <code>s</code>
<code>s.copy()</code>	creates a shallow copy of <code>s</code>
<code>s.insert(i, x)</code>	inserts <code>x</code> into <code>s</code> at the index given by <code>i</code>
<code>s.pop()</code> or <code>s.pop(i)</code>	retrieves the item at <code>i</code> and also removes it from <code>s</code>
<code>s.remove(x)</code>	remove the first item from <code>s</code> where <code>s[i]</code> is equal to <code>x</code>
<code>s.reverse()</code>	reverses the items of <code>s</code> in place
<code>s.sort()</code>	sort the items of <code>s</code> in place

Ranges

```
>>> range(10)
range(0, 10)
>>> list(range(10))
[0, 1, 2, 3, 4, 5, 6, 7, 8, 9]
>>> tuple(range(10))
(0, 1, 2, 3, 4, 5, 6, 7, 8, 9)
>>> list(range(5,10))
[5, 6, 7, 8, 9]
>>> list(range(5,10,3))
[5, 8]
>>> list(range(5, -10, -3))
[5, 2, -1, -4, -7]
>>> list(range(5, 3))
[]
```

Even More Types

```
>>> type([])
list
>>> type([1])
list
>>> type([1,])
list
>>> type(['a', 'b', 'c',])
list
>>> type(list())
list # same value as []
>>> type(())
tuple
>>> type((1))
int # bracketed value, not tuple!
>>> type((1,))
tuple
>>> type(('a', 'b', 'c',))
tuple
>>> type(tuple())
```

```
>>> type({})
dict # ??
>>> type({1})
set
>>> type({1,})
set
>>> type({1, 2, 3})
set
>>> type({'a', 'b', 'c',})
set
>>> type(set())
set
>>> type({'a': 1, 'b': 2, 'c': 3,})
dict
>>> type(dict())
dict # same value as {}
```

Example - /bin/echo using while

```
# Python implementation of /bin/echo  
# using indexing & while, not pythonesque  
import sys  
i = 1  
while i < len(sys.argv):  
    if i > 1:  
        print(" ", end="")  
    print(sys.argv[i], end="")  
    i += 1  
print()
```

[source code for echo.0.py](#)

Example - /bin/echo using for/range

```
# Python implementation of /bin/echo  
# using indexing & range, not pythonesque  
import sys  
for i in range(1, len(sys.argv)):  
    if i > 1:  
        print(' ', end='')  
    print(sys.argv[i], end='')  
print()
```

[source code for echo.1.py](#)

Example - /bin/echo using just for

```
# Python implementation of /bin/echo
import sys
if sys.argv[1:]:
    print(sys.argv[1], end='')
for arg in sys.argv[2:]:
    print(' ', arg, end='')
print()
```

[source code for echo.2.py](#)

Example - /bin/echo - two other versions

```
# Python implementation of /bin/echo  
import sys  
print(' '.join(sys.argv[1:]))
```

[source code for echo.3.py](#)

```
# Python implementation of /bin/echo  
import sys  
print(*argv[1:])
```

[source code for echo.4.py](#)

Example - Summing Command-line Arguments

```
# sum integers supplied as command line arguments  
# no check that arguments are integers  
import sys  
total = 0  
for arg in sys.argv[1:]:  
    total += int(arg)  
print("Sum of the numbers is", total)
```

[source code for sum_arguments.0.py](#)

Example - Summing Command-line Arguments with Checking

```
# sum integers supplied as command line arguments
import sys
total = 0
for arg in sys.argv[1:]:
    try:
        total += int(arg)
    except ValueError:
        print(f"error: '{arg}' is not an integer", file=sys.stderr)
        sys.exit(1)
print("Sum of the numbers is", total)
```

[source code for sum_arguments.1.py](#)

Example - Counting Lines on stdin

```
# Count the number of lines on standard input.
import sys
line_count = 0
for line in sys.stdin:
    line_count += 1
print(line_count, "lines")
```

[source code for line_count.0.py](#)

Example - Counting Lines on stdin - two more versions

```
import sys
lines = sys.stdin.readlines()
line_count = len(lines)
print(line_count, "lines")
```

[source code for line_count.1.py](#)

```
import sys
lines = list(sys.stdin)
line_count = len(lines)
print(line_count, "lines")
```

[source code for line_count.2.py](#)

Opening Files

Similar to C, file objects can be created via the **open** function:

```
# read from file 'data'  
file = open('data')  
  
# read from file 'data'  
file = open('data', 'r')  
  
# write to file 'results'  
file = open("results", "w")  
  
# append binary data to file 'stuff'  
file = open('stuff', 'ab')
```

File objects can be explicitly closed with **file.close()**

- All file objects closed on exit.
- Original file objects **are not** closed if opened again, can cause issues in long running programs.
- Data on output streams may be not written (buffered) until close - hence close ASAP.

Reading and Writing a File: Example

```
file = open("a.txt", "r")  
data = file.read()  
file.close()
```

```
file = open("a.txt", "w")  
file.write(data)  
file.close()
```

Exceptions

Opening a file may fail - always check for exceptions:

```
try:
    file = open('data')
except OSError as e:
    print(e)
```

OSError is a group of errors that can be caused by `syscalls`, similar to `errno` in C

Specific errors can be caught

```
try:
    file = open('data')
except PermissionError:
    # handle first error type
    ...
except FileNotFoundError:
    # handle second error type
```

Context Managers

Closing files is annoying and error-prone. Python can do it for us with a context manager. The file will be closed when execution leaves the code block.

```
sum = 0
with open("data", "r") as input_file:
    for line in input_file:
        try:
            sum += int(line.strip())
        except ValueError:
            pass
print(sum)
```

Example - cp

```
# Simple cp implementation for text files using line-based I/O  
# explicit close is used below, a with statement would be better  
# no error handling  
import sys  
if len(sys.argv) != 3:  
    print("Usage:", sys.argv[0], "<infile> <outfile>", file=sys.stderr)  
    sys.exit(1)  
infile = open(sys.argv[1], "r", encoding="utf-8")  
outfile = open(sys.argv[2], "w", encoding="utf-8")  
for line in infile:  
    print(line, end='', file=outfile)  
infile.close()  
outfile.close()
```

[source code for cp.0.py](#)

Example - cp

```
# Simple cp implementation for text files using line-based I/O  
# and with statement, but no error handling  
import sys  
if len(sys.argv) != 3:  
    print("Usage:", sys.argv[0], "<infile> <outfile>", file=sys.stderr)  
    sys.exit(1)  
with open(sys.argv[1]) as infile:  
    with open(sys.argv[2], "w") as outfile:  
        for line in infile:  
            outfile.write(line)
```

[source code for cp.1.py](#)

Example - cp

```
# Simple cp implementation for text files using line-based I/O  
# and with statement and error handling  
import sys  
if len(sys.argv) != 3:  
    print("Usage:", sys.argv[0], "<infile> <outfile>", file=sys.stderr)  
    sys.exit(1)  
try:  
    with open(sys.argv[1]) as infile:  
        with open(sys.argv[2], "w") as outfile:  
            for line in infile:  
                outfile.write(line)  
except OSError as e:  
    print(sys.argv[0], "error:", e, file=sys.stderr)  
    sys.exit(1)
```

[source code for cp.2.py](#)

Example - cp

```
# Simple cp implementation for text files using line-based I/O  
# reading all lines into array (not advisable for large files)  
import sys  
if len(sys.argv) != 3:  
    print("Usage:", sys.argv[0], "<infile> <outfile>", file=sys.stderr)  
    sys.exit(1)  
try:  
    with open(sys.argv[1]) as infile:  
        with open(sys.argv[2], "w") as outfile:  
            lines = infile.readlines()  
            outfile.writelines(lines)  
except OSError as e:  
    print(sys.argv[0], "error:", e, file=sys.stderr)  
    sys.exit(1)
```

[source code for cp.3.py](#)

Example - cp

```
# Simple cp implementation using shutil.copyfile
import sys
from shutil import copyfile
if len(sys.argv) != 3:
    print("Usage:", sys.argv[0], "<infile> <outfile>", file=sys.stderr)
    sys.exit(1)
try:
    copyfile(sys.argv[1], sys.argv[2])
except OSError as e:
    print(sys.argv[0], "error:", e, file=sys.stderr)
    sys.exit(1)
```

[source code for cp.4.py](#)

Example - cp

```
# Simple cp implementation by running /bin/cp
import subprocess
import sys
if len(sys.argv) != 3:
    print("Usage:", sys.argv[0], "<infile> <outfile>", file=sys.stderr)
    sys.exit(1)
p = subprocess.run(['cp', sys.argv[1], sys.argv[2]])
sys.exit(p.returncode)
```

[source code for cp.5.py](#)

UNIX-filter Behavior

fileinput can be used to get UNIX-filter behavior.

- treats all command-line arguments as file names
- opens and reads from each of them in turn
- no command line arguments, then **fileinput** == **stdin**
- accepts - as **stdin**
- so this is cat in Python:

```
#!/usr/bin/env python3
```

```
import fileinput
```

```
for line in fileinput.input():  
    print(line)
```

- many languages have arrays accessed with small integer indexes.
 - can be thought of as a mapping integer -> value
 - Python has lists (see widely used package numpy for arrays)
 - easy to implement indexing
- some languages have associative arrays - index doesn't have to be integer
 - very useful, e.g. being able to use string as index
 - harder to implement indexing
- Python has dicts - index can be almost any value
 - index value can not be mutable, e.g. can not be list or dict
 - can be thought of as a mapping integer -> value

Example - Remembering Snap - Dict

```
# Check if we've seen a line read from stdin,  
# using a dict.  
# Print snap! if a line has been seen previously  
# Exit if an empty line is entered  
line_count = {}  
while True:  
    try:  
        line = input("Enter line: ")  
    except EOFError:  
        break  
    if line in line_count:  
        print("Snap!")  
    else:  
        line_count[line] = 1
```

[source code for snap_memory.0.py](#)

Example - Remembering Snap - Set

```
# Check if we've seen lines read from stdin,  
# using a set.  
# Print snap! if a line has been seen previously.  
# Exit if an empty line is entered  
lines_seen = set()  
while True:  
    try:  
        line = input("Enter line: ")  
    except EOFError:  
        break  
    if line in lines_seen:  
        print("Snap!")  
    else:  
        lines_seen.add(line)
```

[source code for snap_memory.1.py](#)

Some Useful Python Dict Operations

These can be applied to dicts.

<code>d[key]</code>	Return the item of <code>d</code> with key <code>key</code>
<code>del d[key]</code>	Remove <code>d[key]</code> from <code>d</code> . Raises a <code>KeyError</code> if <code>key</code> is not in the map.
<code>key in d</code>	Return <code>True</code> if <code>d</code> has a key <code>key</code> , else <code>False</code> .
<code>key not in d</code>	Equivalent to <code>not key in d</code> .
<code>keys()</code>	Return a new view of the dictionary's keys
<code>items()</code>	Return a new view of the dictionary's items
<code>get(key[, default])</code>	Return the value for <code>key</code> if <code>key</code> is in the dictionary, else <code>default</code>
<code>values()</code>	Return a new view of the dictionary's values.
<code>update([other])</code>	Update the dictionary with the key/value pairs from <code>other</code>
<code>setdefault(key[, default])</code>	If <code>key</code> is in the dictionary, return its value. If not, insert and return <code>default</code> .
<code>clear()</code>	Remove all items from the dictionary.
<code>copy()</code>	Return a shallow copy of the dictionary.

Running External Programs with subprocess

Python requires you to import the subprocess module to run external programs.

- `subprocess.run()` is usually the function used to run external programs.
- `subprocess.Popen()` can be used if lower level control is necessary.

```
>>> subprocess.run(['date', '--utc'])
Tue 05 Aug 1997 01:11:01 UTC
CompletedProcess(args=['date', '--utc'], returncode=0)
>>>
```

By default `stdout/stderr` from the program goes directly to Python's `stdout/stderr`.

By default `stdin` from the program comes directly From Python's `stdin`.

Capturing the output from an External Programs with subprocess

To capture the output from commands:

```
>>> p = subprocess.run(["date"], capture_output=True, text=True)
>>> p.stdout
'Mon 18 Jul 2022 10:27:28 AEST\n'
>>> p.returncode
0
>>> q = subprocess.run(["ls", "no-existent-file"], capture_output=True,
↳ text=True)
>>> q.stderr
'ls: cannot access 'no-existent-file': No such file or directory\n'
>>> q.returncode
2
```

- captured output is a byte sequence (binary) by default.
- the option `text=True` converts it to a string
 - we want this 90+% of time
 - assumes the binary is utf-8 (if that is the local encoding)

Passing input to an External Programs with subprocess

To send input to a program:

```
>>> message = "I love COMP(2041|9044)\n"
>>> p = subprocess.run(["tr", "a-z", "A-Z"], input=message,
↳ capture_output=True, text=True)
>>> p.stdout
'I LOVE COMP(2041|9044)\n'
>>> # note, you don't need an external program for this
>>> message.upper()
'I LOVE COMP(2041|9044)\n'
```

Example - Using Subprocess to Capture

```
import subprocess
p = subprocess.run(["date"], capture_output=True, text=True)
if p.returncode != 0:
    print(p.stderr)
    exit(1)
weekday, day, month, year, time, timezone = p.stdout.split()
print(f"{year} {month} {day}")
```

[source code for parse_date.py](#)

Optionally subprocess can pass the command to a shell to evaluate, e.g.:

```
>>> subprocess.run("sort *.csv | cut -d, -f1,7 >output.txt", shell=True)
```

This conveniently allows use of shell features including pipes, I/O re-direction, globbing ...

Beware, this can also produce unexpected behaviour, e.g. if a Shell metacharacter appears in a filename.

Beware, this a common source of security vulnerabilities. It should be avoided when security is important.

Serving Web Pages with Python

Python includes a http server - easy to use for development/testing.

```
>>> server_address = ('', 2041)
>>> handler = http.server.SimpleHTTPRequestHandler
>>> with http.server.HTTPServer(server_address, handler) as h:
...     h.serve_forever()
```

And there is a convenient command-line short cut:

```
$ echo hello from httpd >hello.txt
$ python3 -m http.server 2041
Serving HTTP on 0.0.0.0 port 2041 (http://0.0.0.0:2041/) ...
127.0.0.1 - - [17/Jul/2023 10:19:00] "GET /hello.txt HTTP/1.1" 200 -
```

in another terminal

```
$ curl -s http://0.0.0.0:2041/hello.txt
hello from httpd
```

Example - Using Subprocess to Capture Curl Output

```
# Repeatedly download a specified web page
# until a specified regexp matches its source
# then notify the specified email address.
# implemented using subprocess
import re
import subprocess
import sys
import time
REPEAT_SECONDS = 300 # check every 5 minutes
if len(sys.argv) == 4:
    url = sys.argv[1]
    regexp = sys.argv[2]
    email_address = sys.argv[3]
else:
    print(f"Usage: {sys.argv[0]} <url> <regex> <email-address>",
          ↪ file=sys.stderr)
    sys.exit(1)
```

[source code for watch_website.0.py](#)

Example - Using Subprocess to Capture Curl Output

```
while True:
    p = subprocess.run(
        ["curl", "--silent", url], text=True, capture_output=True
    )
    webpage = p.stdout
    if not re.search(regex, webpage):
        time.sleep(REPEAT_SECONDS)
        continue
    mail_body = f"Generated by {sys.argv[0]}"
    subject = f"website '{url}' now matches regex '{regex}'"
    # the echo is for testing, remove to really send email
    subprocess.run(["echo", "mail", "-s", subject], text=True,
        ↪ input=mail_body)
    sys.exit(0)
```

[source code for watch_website.0.py](#)

Example - Using Urllib

```
while True:
    response = urllib.request.urlopen(url)
    webpage = response.read().decode()
    if not re.search(regex, webpage):
        time.sleep(REPEAT_SECONDS)
        continue
    mail_body = f"Generated by {sys.argv[0]}"
    subject = f"website '{url}' now matches regex '{regex}'"
    # the echo is for testing, remove to really send email
    subprocess.run(["echo", "mail", "-s", subject], text=True,
        ↪ input=mail_body)
    sys.exit(0)
```

[source code for watch_website.1.py](#)

Example - Using BeautifulSoup

```
import bs4 as BeautifulSoup
IGNORE_WEBPAGE_ELEMENTS = set("[document] head meta style script
↪ title".split())
for url in sys.argv[1:]:
    response = urllib.request.urlopen(url)
    webpage = response.read().decode()
    soup = BeautifulSoup.BeautifulSoup(webpage, "html5lib")
    for element in soup.findAll(text=True):
        parent = element.parent.name.lower()
        if parent in IGNORE_WEBPAGE_ELEMENTS:
            continue
        text = element.getText()
        # remove empty lines and leading whitespace
        text = re.sub(r"\n\s+", "\n", element)
        text = text.strip()
        if text:
            print(text)
```

[source code for fetch_website_text.py](#)

Example - File Operations

```
# Change the names of the specified files to lower case.  
# (simple version of the Perl utility rename)  
import os  
import sys  
for old_pathname in sys.argv[1:]:  
    new_pathname = old_pathname.lower()  
    if new_pathname == old_pathname:  
        continue  
    if os.path.exists(new_pathname):  
        print(f"{sys.argv[0]}: '{new_pathname}' exists", file=sys.stderr)  
        continue  
    try:  
        os.rename(old_pathname, new_pathname)  
    except OSError as e:  
        print(f"{sys.argv[0]}: '{new_pathname}' {e}", file=sys.stderr)
```

[source code for rename_lower_case.py](#)

Type hints

- Python doesn't enforce types even when they are given, thus they are hints
- Static type checkers are common that do enforce types as much as possible
- For best results type enforcement should be including in your code
- Type hints help you and others read your code and are highly recommended

```
from typing import Optional, Union
```

```
a = 5
b = "Hello World"
# a type hint
c: int = 6
# but not enforced
d: int = "this isn't an int"
# composition of types
e: list[int] = [1, 2, 3, 4, 5]
# more composition of types
f: dict[int, list[tuple[str, str]]] = {1: [('a', 'b'), ('a', 'c')], 3: [('c',
↪ 's'), ('c', 'g')]}
```

Type hints

```
from typing import Optional, Union

# `Optional` allows for None values
g: Optional[float] = None
# `Union` allows for two or more types
h: Union[int, float] = 4
# type hints can also be used on function arguments and return values
def func(a: int, b: str = 'Hi\n') -> int:
    return len(b * a)
# for variables used in loops, tuple unpacking, or assignment can be
  ↳ pre-hinted
# pre-hinting does not define the variable as it has not assigned a value and
  ↳ python variables must always be initialised
j: int
for j in range(0, 100):
    pass

k: bool
if k := validate(data):
    pass

l: bool
m: int
n: str
l, m, n = (True, 99, "Apple")

# a variables type can be changed by first deleting it then redefining it
o: int = 0
del o
o: str = ""
```