
The Python Library Reference

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Alors que `reference-index` décrit exactement la syntaxe et la sémantique du langage Python, ce manuel de référence de la Bibliothèque décrit la bibliothèque standard distribuée avec Python. Il décrit aussi certains composants optionnels typiquement inclus dans les distributions de Python.

La bibliothèque standard de Python est très grande, elle offre un large éventail d'outils comme le montre la longueur de la table des matières ci-dessous. La bibliothèque contient des modules natifs (écrits en C) exposant les fonctionnalités du système telles que les interactions avec les fichiers qui autrement ne seraient pas accessibles aux développeurs Python, ainsi que des modules écrits en Python exposant des solutions standardisées à de nombreux problèmes du quotidien du développeur. Certains de ces modules sont définis explicitement pour encourager et améliorer la portabilité des programmes Python en abstrayant des spécificités sous-jacentes en API neutres.

Les installateurs de Python pour Windows incluent généralement la bibliothèque standard en entier, et y ajoutent souvent d'autres composants. Pour les systèmes d'exploitation Unix, Python est typiquement fourni sous forme d'une collection de paquets, il peut donc être nécessaire d'utiliser le gestionnaire de paquets fourni par le système d'exploitation pour obtenir certains composants optionnels.

In addition to the standard library, there is a growing collection of several thousand components (from individual programs and modules to packages and entire application development frameworks), available from the [Python Package Index](#).

CHAPITRE 1

Introduction

La « Bibliothèque Python » contient divers composants dans différentes catégories.

Elle contient des types de données qui seraient normalement considérés comme « fondamentaux » au langage, tel que les nombres et les listes. Pour ces types, le cœur du langage en définit les écritures littérales et impose quelques contraintes sémantiques, sans les définir exhaustivement. (Cependant le cœur du langage impose quelques propriétés comme l'orthographe des attributs ou les caractéristiques des opérateurs.)

La bibliothèque contient aussi des fonctions et des exceptions natives, pouvant être utilisées par tout code Python sans `import`. Certaines sont définies par le noyau de Python, bien qu'elles ne soient pas toutes essentielles.

La grande majorité de la bibliothèque consiste cependant en une collection de modules. Cette collection peut être parcourue de différentes manières. Certains modules sont rédigés en C et inclus dans l'interpréteur Python, d'autres sont écrits en Python et leur source est importée. Certains modules fournissent des interfaces extrêmement spécifiques à Python, tel que l'affichage d'une pile d'appels, d'autres fournissent des interfaces spécifiques à un système d'exploitation, comme l'accès à du matériel spécifique. D'autres fournissent des interfaces spécifiques à un domaine d'application, comme le *World Wide Web*. Certains modules sont disponibles dans toutes les versions et implémentations de Python, d'autres ne sont disponibles que si le système sous-jacent les gère ou en a besoin. Enfin, d'autres ne sont disponibles que si Python a été compilé avec une certaine option.

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.

Ça signifie que si vous commencez à lire cette documentation du début, et sautez au chapitre suivant lorsqu'elle vous ennuie, vous aurez un aperçu global des modules et domaines couverts par cette bibliothèque. Bien sûr vous n'avez pas à la lire comme un roman, vous pouvez simplement survoler la table des matières (au début), ou chercher une fonction, un module, ou un mot dans l'index (à la fin). Et si vous appréciez apprendre sur des sujets au hasard, choisissez une page au hasard (avec le module *random*) et lisez un chapitre ou deux. Peu importe l'ordre que vous adopterez, commencez par le chapitre *Fonctions natives*, car les autres chapitres présument que vous en avez une bonne connaissance.

Que le spectacle commence !

CHAPITRE 2

Fonctions natives

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

Fonctions natives				
<i>abs()</i>	<i>divmod()</i>	<i>input()</i>	<i>open()</i>	<i>staticmethod()</i>
<i>all()</i>	<i>enumerate()</i>	<i>int()</i>	<i>ord()</i>	<i>str()</i>
<i>any()</i>	<i>eval()</i>	<i>isinstance()</i>	<i>pow()</i>	<i>sum()</i>
<i>basestring()</i>	<i>execfile()</i>	<i>issubclass()</i>	<i>print()</i>	<i>super()</i>
<i>bin()</i>	<i>file()</i>	<i>iter()</i>	<i>property()</i>	<i>tuple()</i>
<i>bool()</i>	<i>filter()</i>	<i>len()</i>	<i>range()</i>	<i>type()</i>
<i>bytearray()</i>	<i>float()</i>	<i>list()</i>	<i>raw_input()</i>	<i>unichr()</i>
<i>callable()</i>	<i>format()</i>	<i>locals()</i>	<i>reduce()</i>	<i>unicode()</i>
<i>chr()</i>	<i>frozenset()</i>	<i>long()</i>	<i>reload()</i>	<i>vars()</i>
<i>classmethod()</i>	<i>getattr()</i>	<i>map()</i>	<i>repr()</i>	<i>xrange()</i>
<i>cmp()</i>	<i>globals()</i>	<i>max()</i>	<i>reversed()</i>	<i>zip()</i>
<i>compile()</i>	<i>hasattr()</i>	<i>memoryview()</i>	<i>round()</i>	<i>__import__()</i>
<i>complex()</i>	<i>hash()</i>	<i>min()</i>	<i>set()</i>	
<i>delattr()</i>	<i>help()</i>	<i>next()</i>	<i>setattr()</i>	
<i>dict()</i>	<i>hex()</i>	<i>object()</i>	<i>slice()</i>	
<i>dir()</i>	<i>id()</i>	<i>oct()</i>	<i>sorted()</i>	

In addition, there are other four built-in functions that are no longer considered essential : *apply()*, *buffer()*, *coerce()*, and *intern()*. They are documented in the *Non-essential Built-in Functions* section.

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.

all(*iterable*)

Donne **True** si tous les éléments de *iterable* sont vrais (ou s'il est vide), équivaut à :

```
def all(iterable):
    for element in iterable:
        if not element:
            return False
    return True
```

Nouveau dans la version 2.5.

`any(iterable)`

Donne `True` si au moins un élément de *iterable* est vrai. Faux est aussi donné dans le cas où *iterable* est vide, équivaut à :

```
def any(iterable):
    for element in iterable:
        if element:
            return True
    return False
```

Nouveau dans la version 2.5.

`basestring()`

This abstract type is the superclass for `str` and `unicode`. It cannot be called or instantiated, but it can be used to test whether an object is an instance of `str` or `unicode`. `isinstance(obj, basestring)` is equivalent to `isinstance(obj, (str, unicode))`.

Nouveau dans la version 2.3.

`bin(x)`

Convertit un nombre entier en binaire dans une chaîne. Le résultat est une expression Python valide. Si *x* n'est pas un `int`, il doit définir une méthode `__index__()` donnant un nombre entier.

Nouveau dans la version 2.6.

`class bool([x])`

Return a Boolean value, i.e. one of `True` or `False`. *x* is converted using the standard truth testing procedure. If *x* is false or omitted, this returns `False`; otherwise it returns `True`. `bool` is also a class, which is a subclass of `int`. Class `bool` cannot be subclassed further. Its only instances are `False` and `True`.

Nouveau dans la version 2.2.1.

Modifié dans la version 2.3 : If no argument is given, this function returns `False`.

`class bytearray([source[, encoding[, errors]]])`

Return a new array of bytes. The `bytearray` class is a mutable sequence of integers in the range $0 \leq x < 256$. It has most of the usual methods of mutable sequences, described in *Types de séquences muables*, as well as most methods that the `str` type has, see *Méthodes de chaînes de caractères*.

Le paramètre optionnel *source* peut être utilisé pour initialiser l'*array* de quelques manières différentes :

- If it is *unicode*, you must also give the *encoding* (and optionally, *errors*) parameters; `bytearray()` then converts the unicode to bytes using `unicode.encode()`.
- Si c'est un *entier*, l'*array* aura cette taille et sera initialisé de *null bytes*.
- Si c'est un objet conforme à l'interface *buffer*, un *buffer* en lecture seule de l'objet sera utilisé pour initialiser l'*array*.
- Si c'est un *itérable*, il doit itérer sur des nombres entier dans l'intervalle $0 \leq x < 256$, qui seront utilisés pour initialiser le contenu de l'*array*.

Sans argument, un *array* de taille vide est créé.

Nouveau dans la version 2.6.

`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 a `__call__()` method.

chr(*i*)

Return a string of one character whose ASCII code is the integer *i*. For example, `chr(97)` returns the string `'a'`. This is the inverse of `ord()`. The argument must be in the range `[0..255]`, inclusive; `ValueError` will be raised if *i* is outside that range. See also `unichr()`.

classmethod(*function*)

Donne une méthode de classe pour *fonction*.

Une méthode de classe reçoit implicitement la classe en premier argument, tout comme une méthode d'instance reçoit l'instance. Voici comment déclarer une méthode de classe :

```
class C(object):
    @classmethod
    def f(cls, arg1, arg2, ...):
        ...
```

La forme `@classmethod` est un *decorator* – consultez la documentation sur la définition de fonctions dans *function* pour plus de détails.

Elle peut être appelée soit sur la classe (comme `C.f()`) ou sur une instance (comme `C().f()`). L'instance est ignorée, sauf pour déterminer sa classe. Si la méthode est appelée sur une instance de classe fille, c'est la classe fille qui sera donnée en premier argument implicite.

Les méthodes de classe sont différentes des méthodes statiques du C++ ou du Java. Si c'est elles sont vous avez besoin, regardez du côté de `staticmethod()`.

Pour plus d'informations sur les méthodes de classe, consultez la documentation sur la hiérarchie des types standards dans *types*.

Nouveau dans la version 2.2.

Modifié dans la version 2.4 : Function decorator syntax added.

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`.

compile(*source*, *filename*, *mode*[, *flags*[, *dont_inherit*]])

Compile the *source* into a code or AST object. Code objects can be executed by an `exec` statement or evaluated by a call to `eval()`. *source* can either be a Unicode string, a *Latin-1* encoded string or an AST object. Refer to the *ast* module documentation for information on how to work with AST objects.

L'argument *filename* doit nommer le fichier duquel le code a été lu. Donnez quelque chose de reconnaissable lorsqu'il n'a pas été lu depuis un fichier (typiquement `"<string>"`).

L'argument *mode* indique quel type de code doit être compilé : `'exec'` si *source* est une suite d'instructions, `'eval'` pour une seule expression, ou `'single'` si il ne contient qu'une instruction interactive (dans ce dernier cas, les résultats d'expressions donnant autre chose que `None` seront affichés).

Les arguments optionnels *flags* et *dont_inherit* contrôlent quelle instructions *future* (voir [PEP 236](#)) affecte la compilation de *source*. Si aucun des deux n'est présent (ou que les deux sont à 0) le code est compilé avec les mêmes instructions *future* que le code appelant `compile()`. Si l'argument *flags* est fourni mais que *dont_inherit* ne l'est pas (ou vaut 0), alors les instructions *futures* utilisées seront celles spécifiées par *flags* en plus de celles qui auraient été utilisées. Si *dont_inherit* est un entier différent de zéro, *flags* est utilisé seul – les instructions futures déclarées autour de l'appel à `compile` sont ignorées.

Les instructions futures sont spécifiées par des bits, il est ainsi possible d'en spécifier plusieurs en les combinant avec un *ou* binaire. Les bits requis pour spécifier une certaine fonctionnalité se trouvent dans l'attribut `compiler_flag` de la classe `Feature` du module `__future__`.

Cette fonction lève une `SyntaxError` si la source n'est pas valide, et `TypeError` si la source contient des octets null.

Si vous voulez transformer du code Python en sa représentation AST, voyez `ast.parse()`.

Note : Lors de la compilation d'une chaîne de plusieurs lignes de code avec les modes `'single'` ou `'eval'`, celle-ci doit être terminée d'au moins un retour à la ligne. Cela permet de faciliter la distinction entre les instructions complètes et incomplètes dans le module `code`.

Modifié dans la version 2.3 : The `flags` and `dont_inherit` arguments were added.

Modifié dans la version 2.6 : Support for compiling AST objects.

Modifié dans la version 2.7 : Allowed use of Windows and Mac newlines. Also input in `'exec'` mode does not have to end in a newline anymore.

class `complex`(`[real[, imag]]`)

Return a complex number with the value `real + imag*1j` or convert a string or number to a complex number. If the first parameter is a string, it will be interpreted as a complex number and the function must be called without a second parameter. The second parameter can never be a string. 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()`. If both arguments are omitted, returns `0j`.

Note : Lors de la conversion depuis une chaîne, elle ne doit pas contenir d'espaces autour des opérateurs binaires `+` ou `-`. Par exemple `complex('1+2j')` est bon, mais `complex('1 + 2j')` lève une `ValueError`.

Le type complexe est décrit dans *Numeric Types — int, float, long, complex*.

delattr(`object, name`)

C'est un cousin de `setattr()`. Les arguments sont un objet et une chaîne. La chaîne doit être le nom de l'un des attributs de l'objet. La fonction supprime l'attribut nommé, si l'objet l'y autorise. Par exemple `delattr(x, 'foobar')` est l'équivalent de `del x.foobar`.

class `dict`(`**kwarg`)

class `dict`(`mapping, **kwarg`)

class `dict`(`iterable, **kwarg`)

Crée un nouveau dictionnaire. L'objet `dict` est la classe du dictionnaire. Voir `dict` et *Les types de correspondances — dict* pour vous documenter sur cette classe.

Pour les autres conteneurs, voir les classes natives `list`, `set`, et `tuple`, ainsi que le module `collections`.

dir(`[object]`)

Sans arguments, elle donne la liste des noms dans l'espace de noms local. Avec un argument, elle essaye de donner une liste d'attributs valides pour cet objet.

Si l'objet a une méthode `__dir__()`, elle est appelée et doit donner une liste d'attributs. Cela permet aux objets implémentant `__getattr__()` ou `__getattribute__()` de personnaliser ce que donnera `dir()`.

Si l'objet ne fournit pas de méthode `__dir__()`, la fonction fait de son mieux en rassemblant les informations de l'attribut `__dict__` de l'objet, si défini, et depuis son type. La liste résultante n'est pas nécessairement complète, et peut être inadaptée quand l'objet a un `__getattr__()` personnalisé. Le mécanisme par défaut de `dir()` se comporte différemment avec différents types d'objets, car elle préfère donner une information pertinente plutôt qu'exhaustive :

- Si l'objet est un module, la liste contiendra les noms des attributs du module.
- Si l'objet est un type ou une classe, la liste contiendra les noms de ses attributs, et récursivement, des attributs de ses parents.
- Autrement, la liste contient les noms des attributs de l'objet, le nom des attributs de la classe, et récursivement des attributs des parents de la classe.

La liste donnée est triée par ordre alphabétique, par exemple :

```

>>> import struct
>>> dir()      # show the names in the module namespace
['__builtins__', '__doc__', '__name__', 'struct']
>>> dir(struct) # show the names in the struct module
['Struct', '__builtins__', '__doc__', '__file__', '__name__',
 '__package__', '__clearcache__', 'calcsize', 'error', 'pack', 'pack_into',
 'unpack', 'unpack_from']
>>> class Shape(object):
    def __dir__(self):
        return ['area', 'perimeter', 'location']
>>> s = Shape()
>>> dir(s)
['area', 'perimeter', 'location']

```

Note : Étant donné que *dir()* est d'abord fournie pour son côté pratique en mode interactif, elle a tendance à fournir un jeu intéressant de noms plutôt qu'un ensemble consistant et rigoureusement défini, son comportement peut aussi changer d'une version à l'autre. Par exemple, les attributs de méta-classes ne sont pas données lorsque l'argument est une classe.

divmod(a, b)

Take two (non complex) numbers as arguments and return a pair of numbers consisting of their quotient and remainder when using long division. 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 $(q, a \% b)$, where q is usually `math.floor(a / b)` but may be 1 less than that. In any case $q * b + a \% b$ is very close to a , if $a \% b$ is non-zero it has the same sign as b , and $0 \leq \text{abs}(a \% b) < \text{abs}(b)$.

Modifié dans la version 2.3 : Using *divmod()* with complex numbers is deprecated.

enumerate(sequence, start=0)

Return an enumerate object. *sequence* must be a sequence, an *iterator*, or some other object which supports iteration. The `next()` method of the iterator returned by *enumerate()* returns a tuple containing a count (from *start* which defaults to 0) and the values obtained from iterating over *sequence* :

```

>>> seasons = ['Spring', 'Summer', 'Fall', 'Winter']
>>> list(enumerate(seasons))
[(0, 'Spring'), (1, 'Summer'), (2, 'Fall'), (3, 'Winter')]
>>> list(enumerate(seasons, start=1))
[(1, 'Spring'), (2, 'Summer'), (3, 'Fall'), (4, 'Winter')]

```

Équivalent à :

```

def enumerate(sequence, start=0):
    n = start
    for elem in sequence:
        yield n, elem
        n += 1

```

Nouveau dans la version 2.3.

Modifié dans la version 2.6 : The *start* parameter was added.

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

The arguments are a Unicode or *Latin-1* encoded string and optional globals and locals. If provided, *globals* must be a dictionary. If provided, *locals* can be any mapping object.

Modifié dans la version 2.4 : formerly *locals* was required to be a dictionary.

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 namespace. If the *globals* dictionary is present and lacks “`__builtins__`”, the current globals are copied into *globals* before *expression* is parsed. This means that *expression* normally has full access to the standard `__builtin__` module and restricted environments are propagated. 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
```

Cette fonction peut aussi être utilisée pour exécuter n'importe quel objet code (tel que ceux créés par `compile()`). Dans ce cas, donnez un objet code plutôt qu'une chaîne. Si l'objet code a été compilé avec 'exec' en argument pour *mode*, `eval()` donnera `None`.

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()`.

Utilisez `ast.literal_eval()` si vous avez besoin d'une fonction qui peut évaluer en toute sécurité des chaînes avec des expressions ne contenant que des valeurs littérales.

execfile(*filename*[, *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.¹

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 namespace. If provided, *locals* can be any mapping object. Remember that at module level, globals and locals are the same dictionary. If two separate objects are passed as *globals* and *locals*, the code will be executed as if it were embedded in a class definition.

Modifié dans la version 2.4 : formerly *locals* was required to be a dictionary.

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`.

Note : The default *locals* act as described for function `locals()` below : modifications to the default *locals* dictionary should not be attempted. Pass an explicit *locals* dictionary if you need to see effects of the code on *locals* after function `execfile()` returns. `execfile()` cannot be used reliably to modify a function's locals.

file(*name*[, *mode*[, *buffering*]])

Constructor function for the *file* type, described further in section *Objets fichiers*. The constructor's arguments are the same as those of the `open()` built-in function described below.

When opening a file, it's preferable to use `open()` instead of invoking this constructor directly. *file* is more suited to type testing (for example, writing `isinstance(f, file)`).

Nouveau dans la version 2.2.

filter(*function*, *iterable*)

Construct a list from those elements of *iterable* for which *function* returns true. *iterable* may be either a sequence, a container which supports iteration, or an iterator. If *iterable* 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, that is, all elements of *iterable* that are false are removed.

1. It is used relatively rarely so does not warrant being made into a statement.

Note that `filter(function, iterable)` is equivalent to `[item for item in iterable if function(item)]` if `function` is not `None` and `[item for item in iterable if item]` if `function` is `None`.

See `itertools.ifilter()` and `itertools.ifilterfalse()` for iterator versions of this function, including a variation that filters for elements where the *function* returns false.

class `float`(`[x]`)

Donne un nombre à virgule flottante depuis un nombre ou une chaîne `x`.

If the argument is a string, it must contain a possibly signed decimal or floating point number, possibly embedded in whitespace. The argument may also be `[+|-]nan` or `[+|-]inf`. 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. If no argument is given, returns `0.0`.

Note : When passing in a string, values for NaN and Infinity may be returned, depending on the underlying C library. Float accepts the strings `nan`, `inf` and `-inf` for NaN and positive or negative infinity. The case and a leading `+` are ignored as well as a leading `-` is ignored for NaN. Float always represents NaN and infinity as `nan`, `inf` or `-inf`.

Le type *float* est décrit dans *Numeric Types — int, float, long, complex*.

format(`value``[, format_spec]`)

Convertit une valeur en sa représentation « formatée », tel que décrit par *format_spec*. L'interprétation de *format_spec* dépend du type de la valeur, cependant il existe une syntaxe standard utilisée par la plupart des types natifs : *Mini-langage de spécification de format*.

Note : `format(value, format_spec)` merely calls `value.__format__(format_spec)`.

Nouveau dans la version 2.6.

class `frozenset`(`[iterable]`)

Donne un nouveau *frozenset*, dont les objets sont éventuellement tirés d'*iterable*. *frozenset* est une classe native. Voir *frozenset* et *Types d'ensembles — set, frozenset* pour leurs documentation.

Pour d'autres conteneurs, voyez les classes natives *set*, *list*, *tuple*, et *dict*, ainsi que le module *collections*.

Nouveau dans la version 2.4.

getattr(`object`, `name``[, default]`)

Donne la valeur de l'attribut nommé *name* de l'objet *object*. *name* doit être une chaîne. Si la chaîne est le nom d'un des attributs de l'objet, le résultat est la valeur de cet attribut. Par exemple, `getattr(x, 'foobar')` est équivalent à `x.foobar`. Si l'attribut n'existe pas, et que *default* est fourni, il est renvoyé, sinon l'exception *AttributeError* est levée.

globals()

Donne une représentation de la table de symboles globaux sous forme d'un dictionnaire. C'est toujours le dictionnaire du module courant (dans une fonction ou méthode, c'est le module où elle est définie, et non le module d'où elle est appelée).

hasattr(`object`, `name`)

The arguments are an object and a string. The result is `True` if the string is the name of one of the object's attributes, `False` 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 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, as is the case for 1 and 1.0).

help(*[object]*)

Invoque le système d'aide natif. (Cette fonction est destinée à l'usage en mode interactif.) Si aucun argument n'est fourni, le système d'aide démarre dans l'interpréteur. Si l'argument est une chaîne, un module, une fonction, une classe, une méthode, un mot clef, ou un sujet de documentation pour lequel ce nom est recherché, et une page d'aide est affichée sur la console. Si l'argument est d'un autre type, une page d'aide sur cet objet est générée.

Cette fonction est ajoutée à l'espace de noms natif par le module *site*.

Nouveau dans la version 2.2.

hex(*x*)

Convert an integer number (of any size) to a lowercase hexadecimal string prefixed with « 0x », for example :

```
>>> hex(255)
'0xff'
>>> hex(-42)
'-0x2a'
>>> hex(1L)
'0x1L'
```

If *x* is not a Python *int* or *long* object, it has to define a `__hex__()` method that returns a string. Voir aussi *int()* pour convertir une chaîne hexadécimale en un entier en lui spécifiant 16 comme base.

Note : Pour obtenir une représentation hexadécimale sous forme de chaîne d'un nombre à virgule flottante, utilisez la méthode *float.hex()*.

Modifié dans la version 2.4 : Formerly only returned an unsigned literal.

id(*object*)

Return the « identity » of an object. This is an integer (or long integer) which is guaranteed to be unique and constant for this object during its lifetime. Two objects with non-overlapping lifetimes may have the same *id()* value.

CPython implementation detail : This is the address of the object in memory.

input(*[prompt]*)

Equivalent to `eval(raw_input(prompt))`.

This function does not catch user errors. If the input is not syntactically valid, a *SyntaxError* will be raised. Other exceptions may be raised if there is an error during evaluation.

Si le module *readline* est chargé, *input()* l'utilisera pour fournir des fonctionnalités d'édition et d'historique élaborées.

Consider using the *raw_input()* function for general input from users.

class int(*x=0*)

class int(*x, base=10*)

Return an integer object constructed from a number or string *x*, or return 0 if no arguments are given. If *x* is a number, it can be a plain integer, a long integer, or a floating point number. If *x* is floating point, the conversion truncates towards zero. If the argument is outside the integer range, the function returns a long object instead.

If *x* is not a number or if *base* is given, then *x* must be a string or Unicode object representing an integer literal in radix *base*. Optionally, the literal can be preceded by + or - (with no space in between) and surrounded by whitespace. A base-*n* literal consists of the digits 0 to *n*-1, with a to z (or A to Z) having values 10 to 35. The default *base* is 10. The allowed values are 0 and 2-36. Base-2, -8, and -16 literals can be optionally prefixed with 0b/0B, 0o/0O/0, or 0x/0X, as with integer literals in code. Base 0 means to interpret the string exactly as an integer literal, so that the actual base is 2, 8, 10, or 16.

Le type des entiers est décrit dans *Numeric Types — int, float, long, complex*.

isinstance(object, classinfo)

Return true if the *object* argument is an instance of the *classinfo* argument, or of a (direct, indirect or *virtual*) subclass thereof. Also return true if *classinfo* is a type object (new-style class) and *object* is an object of that type or of a (direct, indirect or *virtual*) subclass thereof. If *object* is not a class instance or an object of the given type, the function always returns false. If *classinfo* is a tuple of class or type objects (or recursively, other such tuples), return true if *object* is an instance of any of the classes or types. If *classinfo* is not a class, type, or tuple of classes, types, and such tuples, a *TypeError* exception is raised.

Modifié dans la version 2.2 : Support for a tuple of type information was added.

issubclass(class, classinfo)

Donne True si *class* est une classe fille (directe, indirecte, ou *virtual*) de *classinfo*. Une classe est considérée sous-classe d'elle même. *classinfo* peut être un tuple de classes, dans ce cas la vérification sera faite pour chaque classe de *classinfo*. Dans tous les autres cas, *TypeError* est levée.

Modifié dans la version 2.3 : Support for a tuple of type information was added.

iter(o[, sentinel])

Return an *iterator* object. The first argument is interpreted very differently depending on the presence of the second argument. Without a second argument, *o* must be a collection object which supports the iteration protocol (the `__iter__()` method), or it must support the sequence protocol (the `__getitem__()` method with integer arguments starting at 0). If it does not support either of those protocols, *TypeError* is raised. If the second argument, *sentinel*, is given, then *o* must be a callable object. The iterator created in this case will call *o* with no arguments for each call to its `next()` method; if the value returned is equal to *sentinel*, *StopIteration* will be raised, otherwise the value will be returned.

Une autre application utile de la deuxième forme de `iter()` est de lire les lignes d'un fichier jusqu'à ce qu'une certaine ligne soit atteinte. L'exemple suivant lis un fichier jusqu'à ce que `readline()` donne une ligne vide :

```
with open('mydata.txt') as fp:
    for line in iter(fp.readline, ''):
        process_line(line)
```

Nouveau dans la version 2.2.

len(s)

Donne la longueur (nombre d'éléments) d'un objet. L'argument peut être une séquence (tel qu'une chaîne, un objet `bytes`, `tuple`, `list` ou `range`) ou une collection (tel qu'un `dict`, `set` ou `frozenset`).

class list([iterable])

Return a list whose items are the same and in the same order as *iterable*'s items. *iterable* may be either a sequence, a container that supports iteration, or an iterator object. If *iterable* is already a list, a copy is made and returned, similar to `iterable[:]`. For instance, `list('abc')` returns `['a', 'b', 'c']` and `list((1, 2, 3))` returns `[1, 2, 3]`. If no argument is given, returns a new empty list, `[]`.

`list` is a mutable sequence type, as documented in *Sequence Types — str, unicode, list, tuple, bytearray, buffer, xrange*. For other containers see the built in `dict`, `set`, and `tuple` classes, and the *collections* module.

locals()

Met à jour et donne un dictionnaire représentant la table des symboles locaux. Les variables libres sont données par `locals()` lorsqu'elle est appelée dans le corps d'une fonction, mais pas dans le corps d'une classe.

Note : Le contenu de ce dictionnaire ne devrait pas être modifié, les changements peuvent ne pas affecter les valeurs des variables locales ou libres utilisées par l'interpréteur.

class `long(x=0)`

class `long(x, base=10)`

Return a long integer object constructed from a string or number *x*. If the argument is a string, it must contain a possibly signed number of arbitrary size, possibly embedded in whitespace. The *base* argument is interpreted in the same way as for `int()`, and may only be given when *x* is a string. Otherwise, the argument may be a plain or long integer or a floating point number, and a long integer with the same value is returned. Conversion of floating point numbers to integers truncates (towards zero). If no arguments are given, returns 0L.

The long type is described in *Numeric Types — int, float, long, complex*.

map(*function, iterable, ...*)

Apply *function* to every item of *iterable* and return a list of the results. If additional *iterable* arguments are passed, *function* must take that many arguments and is applied to the items from all iterables in parallel. If one iterable 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 arguments, `map()` returns a list consisting of tuples containing the corresponding items from all iterables (a kind of transpose operation). The *iterable* arguments may be a sequence or any iterable object; the result is always a list.

max(*iterable*[, *key*])

max(*arg1, arg2, *args*[, *key*])

Donne l'élément le plus grand dans un itérable, ou l'argument le plus grand parmi au moins deux arguments.

If one positional argument is provided, *iterable* must be a non-empty iterable (such as a non-empty string, tuple or list). The largest item in the iterable is returned. If two or more positional arguments are provided, the largest of the positional arguments is returned.

The optional *key* argument specifies a one-argument ordering function like that used for `list.sort()`. The *key* argument, if supplied, must be in keyword form (for example, `max(a,b,c,key=func)`).

Modifié dans la version 2.5 : Added support for the optional *key* argument.

memoryview(*obj*)

Donne une « vue mémoire » (*memory view*) créée depuis l'argument. Voir *memoryview type* pour plus d'informations.

min(*iterable*[, *key*])

min(*arg1, arg2, *args*[, *key*])

Donne le plus petit élément d'un itérable ou le plus petit d'au moins deux arguments.

If one positional argument is provided, *iterable* must be a non-empty iterable (such as a non-empty string, tuple or list). The smallest item in the iterable is returned. If two or more positional arguments are provided, the smallest of the positional arguments is returned.

The optional *key* argument specifies a one-argument ordering function like that used for `list.sort()`. The *key* argument, if supplied, must be in keyword form (for example, `min(a,b,c,key=func)`).

Modifié dans la version 2.5 : Added support for the optional *key* argument.

next(*iterator*[, *default*])

Retrieve the next item from the *iterator* by calling its `next()` method. If *default* is given, it is returned if the iterator is exhausted, otherwise *StopIteration* is raised.

Nouveau dans la version 2.6.

class `object`

Return a new featureless object. *object* is a base for all new style classes. It has the methods that are common to all instances of new style classes.

Nouveau dans la version 2.2.

Modifié dans la version 2.3 : This function does not accept any arguments. Formerly, it accepted arguments but ignored them.

oct(*x*)

Convert an integer number (of any size) to an octal string. The result is a valid Python expression.

Modifié dans la version 2.4 : Formerly only returned an unsigned literal.

open(*name*[, *mode*[, *buffering*]])

Open a file, returning an object of the *file* type described in section *Objets fichiers*. If the file cannot be opened, *IOError* is raised. When opening a file, it's preferable to use *open()* instead of invoking the *file* constructor directly.

The first two arguments are the same as for *stdio*'s *fopen()* : *name* is the file name to be opened, and *mode* is a string indicating how the file is to be opened.

The most commonly-used values of *mode* are 'r' for reading, 'w' for writing (truncating the file if it already exists), and 'a' for appending (which on *some* Unix systems means that *all* writes append to the end of the file regardless of the current seek position). If *mode* is omitted, it defaults to 'r'. The default is to use text mode, which may convert '\n' characters to a platform-specific representation on writing and back on reading. Thus, when opening a binary file, you should append 'b' to the *mode* value to open the file in binary mode, which will improve portability. (Appending 'b' is useful even on systems that don't treat binary and text files differently, where it serves as documentation.) See below for more possible values of *mode*.

The optional *buffering* 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 (in bytes). A negative *buffering* means to use the system default, which is usually line buffered for tty devices and fully buffered for other files. If omitted, the system default is used.²

Modes 'r+', 'w+' and 'a+' open the file for updating (reading and writing); note that 'w+' truncates the file. Append 'b' to the mode to open the file in binary mode, on systems that differentiate between binary and text files; on systems that don't have this distinction, adding the 'b' has no effect.

In addition to the standard *fopen()* values *mode* may be 'U' or 'rU'. Python is usually built with *universal newlines* support; supplying 'U' opens the file as a text file, but lines may be terminated by any of the following : the Unix end-of-line convention '\n', the Macintosh convention '\r', or the Windows convention '\r\n'. All of these external representations are seen as '\n' by the Python program. If Python is built without universal newlines support a *mode* with 'U' is the same as normal text mode. Note that file objects so opened also have an attribute called *newlines* which has a value of *None* (if no newlines have yet been seen), '\n', '\r', '\r\n', or a tuple containing all the newline types seen.

Python enforces that the mode, after stripping 'U', begins with 'r', 'w' or 'a'.

Python provides many file handling modules including *fileinput*, *os*, *os.path*, *tempfile*, and *shutil*.

Modifié dans la version 2.5 : Restriction on first letter of mode string introduced.

ord(*c*)

Given a string of length one, return an integer representing the Unicode code point of the character when the argument is a unicode object, or the value of the byte when the argument is an 8-bit string. For example, *ord*('a') returns the integer 97, *ord*(u'\u2020') returns 8224. This is the inverse of *chr()* for 8-bit strings and of *unichr()* for unicode objects. If a unicode argument is given and Python was built with UCS2 Unicode, then the character's code point must be in the range [0..65535] inclusive; otherwise the string length is two, and a *TypeError* will be raised.

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

Donne *x* puissance *y*, et si *z* est présent, donne *x* puissance *y* modulo *z* (calculé de manière plus efficiente que *pow(x, y) % z*). La forme à deux arguments est équivalent à *x**y*.

The arguments must have numeric types. With mixed operand types, the coercion rules for binary arithmetic operators apply. For int and long int operands, the result has the same type as the operands (after coercion) unless the second argument is negative; in that case, all arguments are converted to

2. 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.

float and a float result is delivered. For example, `10**2` returns 100, but `10**-2` returns 0.01. (This last feature was added in Python 2.2. In Python 2.1 and before, if both arguments were of integer types and the second argument was negative, an exception was raised.) If the second argument is negative, the third argument must be omitted. If *z* is present, *x* and *y* must be of integer types, and *y* must be non-negative. (This restriction was added in Python 2.2. In Python 2.1 and before, floating 3-argument `pow()` returned platform-dependent results depending on floating-point rounding accidents.)

`print(*objects, sep=' ', end='\n', file=sys.stdout)`

Print *objects* to the stream *file*, separated by *sep* and followed by *end*. *sep*, *end* and *file*, if present, must be given as keyword arguments.

Tous les arguments positionnels sont convertis en chaîne comme le fait `str()`, puis écrits sur le flux, séparés par *sep* et terminés par *end*. *sep* et *end* doivent être des chaînes, ou `None`, indiquant de prendre les valeurs par défaut. Si aucun *objects* n'est donné `print()` écrit seulement *end*.

The *file* argument must be an object with a `write(string)` method; if it is not present or `None`, `sys.stdout` will be used. Output buffering is determined by *file*. Use `file.flush()` to ensure, for instance, immediate appearance on a screen.

Note : This function is not normally available as a built-in since the name `print` is recognized as the `print` statement. To disable the statement and use the `print()` function, use this future statement at the top of your module :

```
from __future__ import print_function
```

Nouveau dans la version 2.6.

`class property([fget[, fset[, fdel[, doc]]]])`

Return a property attribute for *new-style classes* (classes that derive from *object*).

fget est une fonction permettant d'obtenir la valeur d'un attribut. *fset* est une fonction pour en définir la valeur. *fdel* quand à elle permet de supprimer la valeur d'un attribut, et *doc* crée une *docstring* pour l'attribut.

Une utilisation typique : définir un attribut managé *x* :

```
class C(object):
    def __init__(self):
        self._x = None

    def getx(self):
        return self._x

    def setx(self, value):
        self._x = value

    def delx(self):
        del self._x

    x = property(getx, setx, delx, "I'm the 'x' property.")
```

Si *c* est une instance de *C*, *c.x* appellera le *getter*, *c.x = value* invoquera le *setter*, et `del x` le *deleter*. S'il est donné, *doc* sera la *docstring* de l'attribut. Autrement la propriété copiera celle de *fget* (si elle existe). Cela rend possible la création de propriétés en lecture seule en utilisant simplement `property()` comme un *decorator* :

```
class Parrot(object):
    def __init__(self):
```

(suite sur la page suivante)

(suite de la page précédente)

```

self._voltage = 100000

@property
def voltage(self):
    """Get the current voltage."""
    return self._voltage

```

Le décorateur `@property` transforme la méthode `voltage()` en un *getter* d'un attribut du même nom, et donne « *Get the current voltage* » comme *docstring* de `voltage`.

Un objet propriété à les méthodes `getter`, `setter` et `deleter` utilisables comme décorateurs créant une copie de la propriété avec les accesseurs correspondants définis par la fonction de décoration. C'est plus clair avec un exemple :

```

class C(object):
    def __init__(self):
        self._x = None

    @property
    def x(self):
        """I'm the 'x' property."""
        return self._x

    @x.setter
    def x(self, value):
        self._x = value

    @x.deleter
    def x(self):
        del self._x

```

Ce code est l'exact équivalent du premier exemple. Soyez attentifs à bien donner aux fonctions additionnelles le même nom que la propriété (`x` dans ce cas.)

L'objet propriété donné à aussi les attributs `fget`, `fset` et `fdel` correspondant correspondants aux arguments du constructeur.

Nouveau dans la version 2.2.

Modifié dans la version 2.5 : Use *fget*'s *docstring* if no *doc* given.

Modifié dans la version 2.6 : The `getter`, `setter`, and `deleter` attributes were added.

`range(stop)`

`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 smallest `start + i * step` greater than *stop*. *step* must not be zero (or else *ValueError* 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]

```

(suite sur la page suivante)

(suite de la page précédente)

```
>>> 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 *readline* module was loaded, then *raw_input()* will use it to provide elaborate line editing and history features.

reduce(*function, iterable*[, *initializer*])

Apply *function* of two arguments cumulatively to the items of *iterable*, from left to right, so as to reduce the iterable to a single value. For example, *reduce(lambda x, y: x+y, [1, 2, 3, 4, 5])* calculates *((((1+2)+3)+4)+5)*. The left argument, *x*, is the accumulated value and the right argument, *y*, is the update value from the *iterable*. If the optional *initializer* is present, it is placed before the items of the iterable in the calculation, and serves as a default when the iterable is empty. If *initializer* is not given and *iterable* contains only one item, the first item is returned. Roughly equivalent to :

```
def reduce(function, iterable, initializer=None):
    it = iter(iterable)
    if initializer is None:
        try:
            initializer = next(it)
        except StopIteration:
            raise TypeError('reduce() of empty sequence with no initial value')
    accum_value = initializer
    for x in it:
        accum_value = function(accum_value, x)
    return accum_value
```

reload(*module*)

Reload a previously 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 (the same as the *module* argument).

When *reload(module)* is executed :

- Python modules' code is recompiled and the module-level code reexecuted, defining a new set of objects which are bound to names in the module's dictionary. The *init* function of extension modules is not called a second time.
- As with all other objects in Python the old objects are only reclaimed after their reference counts drop to zero.
- The names in the module namespace are updated to point to any new or changed objects.

- Other references to the old objects (such as names external to the module) are not rebound to refer to the new objects and must be updated in each namespace where they occur if that is desired.

There are a number of other caveats :

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 :

```
try:
    cache
except NameError:
    cache = {}
```

It is generally not very useful to reload built-in or dynamically loaded modules. Reloading `sys`, `__main__`, `builtins` and other key modules is not recommended. In many cases 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()`, otherwise the representation is a string enclosed in angle brackets that contains the name of the type of the object together with additional information often including the name and address of the object. A class can control what this function returns for its instances by defining a `__repr__()` method.

`reversed(seq)`

Donne un *iterator* inversé. *seq* doit être un objet ayant une méthode `__reverse__()` ou supportant le protocole séquence (la méthode `__len__()` et la méthode `__getitem__()` avec des arguments entiers commençant à zéro).

Nouveau dans la version 2.4.

Modifié dans la version 2.6 : Added the possibility to write a custom `__reversed__()` method.

`round(number[, ndigits])`

Return the floating point value *number* rounded to *ndigits* digits after the decimal point. If *ndigits* 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 *ndigits*; if two multiples are equally close, rounding is done away from 0 (so, for example, `round(0.5)` is 1.0 and `round(-0.5)` is -1.0).

Note : Le comportement de `round()` avec les nombres à virgule flottante peut être surprenant : par exemple `round(2.675, 2)` donne 2.67 au lieu de 2.68. Ce n'est pas un bug, mais dû au fait que la plupart des fractions de décimaux ne peuvent pas être représentés exactement en nombre à virgule flottante. Voir tut-fp-issues pour plus d'information.

`class set([iterable])`

Donne un nouveau *set*, dont les éléments peuvent être extraits d'*iterable*. *set* est une classe native. Voir *set* et *Types d'ensembles* — *set*, *frozenset* pour la documentation de cette classe.

D'autres conteneurs existent, typiquement : *frozenset*, *list*, *tuple*, et *dict*, ainsi que le module *collections*.

Nouveau dans la version 2.4.

setattr(*object*, *name*, *value*)

C'est le complément de *getattr()*. Les arguments sont : un objet, une chaîne, et une valeur de type arbitraire. La chaîne peut nommer un attribut existant ou un nouvel attribut. La fonction assigne la valeur à l'attribut, si l'objet l'autorise. Par exemple, *setattr*(*x*, 'foobar', 123) équivaut à *x.foobar* = 123.

class slice(*stop*)

class slice(*start*, *stop*[, *step*])

Donne un objet *slice* représentant un ensemble d'indices spécifiés par *range(start, stop, step)*. Les arguments *start* et *step* valent *None* par défaut. Les objets *slice* (tranches) ont les attributs suivants en lecture seule : *start*, *stop*, et *step* qui valent simplement les trois arguments (ou leurs valeur par défaut). Ils n'ont pas d'autres fonctionnalité explicite, cependant ils sont utilisés par *Numerical Python* et d'autres bibliothèques tierces. Les objets *slice* sont aussi générés par la notation par indices étendue. Par exemple *a[start:stop:step]* ou *a[start:stop, i]*. Voir *itertools.islice()* pour une version alternative donnant un itérateur.

sorted(*iterable*[, *cmp*[, *key*[, *reverse*]]])

Donne une nouvelle liste triée depuis les éléments d'*iterable*.

The optional arguments *cmp*, *key*, and *reverse* have the same meaning as those for the *list.sort()* method (described in section *Types de séquences muables*).

cmp specifies a custom comparison function of two arguments (iterable elements) which should return a negative, zero or positive number depending on whether the first argument is considered smaller than, equal to, or larger than the second argument : *cmp*=*lambda x,y: cmp(x.lower(), y.lower())*. The default value is *None*.

key spécifie une fonction d'un argument utilisé pour extraire une clef de comparaison de chaque élément de la liste : *key*=*str.lower*. La valeur par défaut est *None* (compare les éléments directement).

reverse, une valeur booléenne. Si elle est *True*, la liste d'éléments est triée comme si toutes les comparaisons étaient inversées.

In general, the *key* and *reverse* conversion processes are much faster than specifying an equivalent *cmp* function. This is because *cmp* is called multiple times for each list element while *key* and *reverse* touch each element only once. Use *functools.cmp_to_key()* to convert an old-style *cmp* function to a *key* function.

La fonction native *sorted()* est garantie stable. Un tri est stable s'il garantie de ne pas changer l'ordre relatif des éléments égaux entre eux. C'est utile pour trier en plusieurs passes, par exemple par département puis par salaire).

Pour des exemples de tris et un bref tutoriel, consultez *sortinghowto*.

Nouveau dans la version 2.4.

staticmethod(*function*)

Donne une méthode statique pour *function*.

Une méthode statique ne reçoit pas de premier argument implicitement. Voilà comment déclarer une méthode statique :

```
class C(object):
    @staticmethod
    def f(arg1, arg2, ...):
        ...
```

La forme *@staticmethod* est un *decorator* de fonction. Voir la description des définitions de fonction dans *function* pour plus de détails.

Elle peut être appelée soit sur une classe (tel que `C.f()`) ou sur une instance (tel que `C().f()`). L'instance est ignorée, sauf pour sa classe.

Les méthodes statiques en Python sont similaires à celles trouvées en Java ou en C++. Consultez `classmethod()` pour une variante utile pour créer des constructeurs alternatifs.

Pour plus d'informations sur les méthodes statiques, consultez la documentation de la hiérarchie des types standards dans types.

Nouveau dans la version 2.2.

Modifié dans la version 2.4 : Function decorator syntax added.

class `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. If no argument is given, returns the empty string, `''`.

For more information on strings see *Sequence Types — str, unicode, list, tuple, bytearray, buffer, xrange* which describes sequence functionality (strings are sequences), and also the string-specific methods described in the *Méthodes de chaînes de caractères* section. To output formatted strings use template strings or the `%` operator described in the *String Formatting Operations* section. In addition see the *String Services* section. See also `unicode()`.

sum(`iterable`[, `start`])

Additionne `start` et les éléments d'`iterable` de gauche à droite et en donne le total. `start` vaut 0 par défaut. Les éléments d'`iterable` sont normalement des nombres, et la valeur de `start` ne peut pas être une chaîne.

Pour certains cas, il existe de bonnes alternatives à `sum()`. La bonne méthode, et rapide, de concaténer une séquence de chaînes est d'appeler `''.join(séquence)`. Pour additionner des nombres à virgule flottante avec une meilleure précision, voir `math.fsum()`. Pour concaténer une série d'itérables, utilisez plutôt `itertools.chain()`.

Nouveau dans la version 2.3.

super(`type`[, `object-or-type`])

Donne un objet mandataire (*proxy object* en anglais) déléguant les appels de méthode à une classe parente ou sœur de type `type`. C'est utile pour accéder à des méthodes héritées et substituées dans la classe. L'ordre de recherche est le même que celui utilisé par `getattr()` sauf que `type` lui même est sauté.

L'attribut `__mro__` de `type` liste l'ordre de recherche de la méthode de résolution utilisée par `getattr()` et `super()`. L'attribut est dynamique et peut changer lorsque la hiérarchie d'héritage est modifiée.

Si le second argument est omis, l'objet `super` obtenu n'est pas lié. Si le second argument est un objet, `isinstance(obj, type)` doit être vrai. Si le second argument est un type, `issubclass(type2, type)` doit être vrai (c'est utile pour les méthodes de classe).

Note : `super()` only works for *new-style classes*.

Il existe deux autres cas d'usage typiques pour `super`. Dans une hiérarchie de classes à héritage simple, `super` peut être utilisé pour obtenir la classe parente sans avoir à la nommer explicitement, rendant le code plus maintenable. Cet usage se rapproche de l'usage de `super` dans d'autres langages de programmation.

Le second est la gestion d'héritage multiple coopératif dans un environnement d'exécution dynamique. Cet usage est unique à Python, il ne se retrouve ni dans les langages compilés statiquement, ni dans les langages ne gérant que l'héritage simple. Cela rend possible d'implémenter un héritage en diamant dans lequel plusieurs classes parentes implémentent la même méthode. Une bonne conception implique que chaque méthode doit avoir la même signature lors de leur appels dans tous les cas (parce que l'ordre des appels est déterminée à l'exécution, parce que l'ordre s'adapte aux changements dans la hiérarchie, et parce que l'ordre peut inclure des classes sœurs inconnues avant l'exécution).

Dans tous les cas, un appel typique à une classe parente ressemble à :

```
class C(B):
    def method(self, arg):
        super(C, self).method(arg)
```

Notez que `super()` fait partie de l'implémentation du processus de liaison de recherche d'attributs pointés explicitement tel que `super().__getitem__(name)`. Il le fait en implémentant sa propre méthode `__getattr__()` pour rechercher les classes dans un ordre prévisible supportant l'héritage multiple coopératif. En conséquence, `super()` n'est pas défini pour les recherches implicites via des instructions ou des opérateurs tel que `super()[name]`.

Also note that `super()` is not limited to use inside methods. The two argument form specifies the arguments exactly and makes the appropriate references.

Pour des suggestions pratiques sur la conception de classes coopératives utilisant `super()`, consultez [guide to using super\(\)](#).

Nouveau dans la version 2.2.

tuple(*iterable*)

Return a tuple whose items are the same and in the same order as *iterable*'s items. *iterable* may be a sequence, a container that supports iteration, or an iterator object. If *iterable* is already a tuple, it is returned unchanged. For instance, `tuple('abc')` returns ('a', 'b', 'c') and `tuple([1, 2, 3])` returns (1, 2, 3). If no argument is given, returns a new empty tuple, ().

`tuple` is an immutable sequence type, as documented in [Sequence Types — str, unicode, list, tuple, bytearray, buffer, xrange](#). For other containers see the built in `dict`, `list`, and `set` classes, and the `collections` module.

class type(*object*)

class type(*name*, *bases*, *dict*)

With one argument, return the type of an *object*. The return value is a type object. The `isinstance()` built-in function is recommended for testing the type of an object.

With three arguments, return a new type object. This is essentially a dynamic form of the `class` statement. The *name* string is the class name and becomes the `__name__` attribute; the *bases* tuple itemizes the base classes and becomes the `__bases__` attribute; and the *dict* dictionary is the namespace containing definitions for class body and becomes the `__dict__` attribute. For example, the following two statements create identical `type` objects :

```
>>> class X(object):
...     a = 1
...
>>> X = type('X', (object,), dict(a=1))
```

Nouveau dans la version 2.2.

unichr(*i*)

Return the Unicode string of one character whose Unicode code is the integer *i*. For example, `unichr(97)` returns the string `u'a'`. This is the inverse of `ord()` for Unicode strings. The valid range for the argument depends how Python was configured – it may be either UCS2 [0..0xFFFF] or UCS4 [0..0x10FFFF]. `ValueError` is raised otherwise. For ASCII and 8-bit strings see `chr()`.

Nouveau dans la version 2.0.

unicode(*object*=")

unicode(*object*[, *encoding*[, *errors*]])

Return the Unicode string version of *object* using one of the following modes :

If *encoding* and/or *errors* are given, `unicode()` will decode the object which can either be an 8-bit string or a character buffer using the codec for *encoding*. The *encoding* parameter is a string giving the name of an encoding; if the encoding is not known, `LookupError` is raised. Error handling is done according

to *errors*; this specifies the treatment of characters which are invalid in the input encoding. If *errors* is 'strict' (the default), a *ValueError* is raised on errors, while a value of 'ignore' causes errors to be silently ignored, and a value of 'replace' causes the official Unicode replacement character, U+FFFD, to be used to replace input characters which cannot be decoded. See also the *codecs* module.

If no optional parameters are given, `unicode()` will mimic the behaviour of `str()` except that it returns Unicode strings instead of 8-bit strings. More precisely, if *object* is a Unicode string or subclass it will return that Unicode string without any additional decoding applied.

For objects which provide a `__unicode__()` method, it will call this method without arguments to create a Unicode string. For all other objects, the 8-bit string version or representation is requested and then converted to a Unicode string using the codec for the default encoding in 'strict' mode.

For more information on Unicode strings see *Sequence Types — str, unicode, list, tuple, bytearray, buffer, xrange* which describes sequence functionality (Unicode strings are sequences), and also the string-specific methods described in the *Méthodes de chaînes de caractères* section. To output formatted strings use template strings or the % operator described in the *String Formatting Operations* section. In addition see the *String Services* section. See also `str()`.

Nouveau dans la version 2.0.

Modifié dans la version 2.2 : Support for `__unicode__()` added.

`vars([object])`

Renvoie l'attribut `__dict__` d'un module, d'une classe, d'une instance ou de n'importe quel objet avec un attribut `__dict__`.

Objects such as modules and instances have an updateable `__dict__` attribute; however, other objects may have write restrictions on their `__dict__` attributes (for example, new-style classes use a dictproxy to prevent direct dictionary updates).

Sans augment, `vars()` se comporte comme `locals()`. Notez que le dictionnaire des variables locales n'est utile qu'en lecture, car ses écritures sont ignorées.

`xrange(stop)`

`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 or when all of the range's elements are never used (such as when the loop is usually terminated with `break`). For more information on xrange objects, see *XRange Type* and *Sequence Types — str, unicode, list, tuple, bytearray, buffer, xrange*.

CPython implementation detail : `xrange()` is intended to be simple and fast. Implementations may impose restrictions to achieve this. The C implementation of Python restricts all arguments to native C longs (« short » Python integers), and also requires that the number of elements fit in a native C long. If a larger range is needed, an alternate version can be crafted using the *itertools* module: `islice(count(start, step), (stop-start+step-1+2*(step<0))//step)`.

`zip([iterable, ...])`

This function returns a list of tuples, where the *i*-th tuple contains the *i*-th element from each of the argument sequences or iterables. The returned list is truncated in length to the length of the shortest argument sequence. When there are multiple arguments which are all of the same length, `zip()` is similar to `map()` with an initial argument of `None`. With a single sequence argument, it returns a list of 1-tuples. With no arguments, it returns an empty list.

The left-to-right evaluation order of the iterables is guaranteed. This makes possible an idiom for clustering a data series into n-length groups using `zip(*(iter(s))*n)`.

`zip()` peut être utilisée conjointement avec l'opérateur * pour dézipper une liste :

```
>>> x = [1, 2, 3]
>>> y = [4, 5, 6]
>>> zipped = zip(x, y)
>>> zipped
[(1, 4), (2, 5), (3, 6)]
>>> x2, y2 = zip(*zipped)
>>> x == list(x2) and y == list(y2)
True
```

Nouveau dans la version 2.0.

Modifié dans la version 2.4 : Formerly, `zip()` required at least one argument and `zip()` raised a `TypeError` instead of returning an empty list.

```
__import__(name[, globals[, locals[, fromlist[, level]]]])
```

Note : C'est une fonction avancée qui n'est pas fréquemment nécessaire, contrairement à `importlib.import_module()`.

This function is invoked by the `import` statement. It can be replaced (by importing the `__builtin__` module and assigning to `__builtin__.__import__`) in order to change semantics of the `import` statement, but nowadays it is usually simpler to use import hooks (see [PEP 302](#)). Direct use of `__import__()` is rare, except in cases where you want to import a module whose name is only known at runtime.

La fonction importe le module *name*, utilisant potentiellement *globals* et *locals* pour déterminer comment interpréter le nom dans le contexte d'un paquet. *fromlist* donne le nom des objets ou sous-modules qui devraient être importés du module *name*. L'implémentation standard n'utilise pas l'argument *locals* et n'utilise *globals* que pour déterminer le contexte du paquet de l'instruction `import`.

level specifies whether to use absolute or relative imports. The default is `-1` which indicates both absolute and relative imports will be attempted. `0` means only perform absolute imports. Positive values for *level* indicate the number of parent directories to search relative to the directory of the module calling `__import__()`.

Lorsque la variable *name* est de la forme `package.module`, normalement, le paquet le plus haut (le nom jusqu'au premier point) est donné, et *pas* le module nommé par *name*. Cependant, lorsqu'un argument *fromlist* est fourni, le module nommé par *name* est donné.

Par exemple, l'instruction `import spam` donne un code intermédiaire (*bytecode* en anglais) ressemblant au code suivant :

```
spam = __import__('spam', globals(), locals(), [], -1)
```

L'instruction `import ham.ham` appelle :

```
spam = __import__('spam.ham', globals(), locals(), [], -1)
```

Notez comment `__import__()` donne le module le plus haut ici parce que c'est l'objet lié à un nom par l'instruction `import`.

En revanche, l'instruction `from spam.ham import eggs, sausage as saus` donne :

```
_temp = __import__('spam.ham', globals(), locals(), ['eggs', 'sausage'], -1)
eggs = _temp.eggs
saus = _temp.sausage
```

Ici le module `spam.ham` est donné par `__import__()`. De cet objet, les noms à importer sont récupérés et assignés à leurs noms respectifs.

Si vous voulez simplement importer un module (potentiellement dans un paquet) par son nom, utilisez *importlib.import_module()*.

Modifié dans la version 2.5 : The level parameter was added.

Modifié dans la version 2.5 : Keyword support for parameters was added.

Non-essential Built-in Functions

There are several built-in functions that are no longer essential to learn, know or use in modern Python programming. They have been kept here to maintain backwards compatibility with programs written for older versions of Python.

Python programmers, trainers, students and book writers should feel free to bypass these functions without concerns about missing something important.

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 sequence. The *function* is called with *args* as the argument list; the number of arguments is the length of the tuple. 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 argument list. Calling *apply()* is different from just calling *function(args)*, since in that case there is always exactly one argument. The use of *apply()* is equivalent to *function(*args, **keywords)*.

Obsolète depuis la version 2.3 : Use *function(*args, **keywords)* instead of *apply(function, args, keywords)* (see *tut-unpacking-arguments*).

buffer(*object*[, *offset*[, *size*]])

The *object* argument must be an object that supports the buffer call interface (such as strings, arrays, and buffers). A new buffer object will be created which references the *object* argument. The buffer object will be a slice from the beginning of *object* (or from the specified *offset*). The slice will extend to the end of *object* (or will have a length given by the *size* argument).

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. If coercion is not possible, raise *TypeError*.

intern(*string*)

Ajoute *string* dans le tableau des chaînes « internées » et renvoie la chaîne internée – qui peut être *string* elle-même ou une copie. Interner une chaîne de caractères permet de gagner un peu de performance lors de l'accès aux dictionnaires – si les clés du dictionnaire et la clé recherchée sont internées, les comparaisons de clés (après le hachage) pourront se faire en comparant les pointeurs plutôt que

caractère par caractère. Normalement, les noms utilisés dans les programmes Python sont automatiquement internés, et les dictionnaires utilisés pour stocker les attributs de modules, de classes, ou d'instances ont aussi leurs clés internées.

Modifié dans la version 2.3 : Interned strings are not immortal (like they used to be in Python 2.2 and before) ; you must keep a reference to the return value of *intern()* around to benefit from it.

Notes

CHAPITRE 4

Constantes natives

Un petit nombre de constantes existent dans le *namespace* natif. Elles sont :

False

The false value of the *bool* type.
Nouveau dans la version 2.3.

True

The true value of the *bool* type.
Nouveau dans la version 2.3.

None

The sole value of *types.NoneType*. **None** is frequently used to represent the absence of a value, as when default arguments are not passed to a function.
Modifié dans la version 2.4 : Assignments to **None** are illegal and raise a *SyntaxError*.

NotImplemented

Special value which can be returned by the « rich comparison » special methods (*__eq__()*, *__lt__()*, and friends), to indicate that the comparison is not implemented with respect to the other type.

Ellipsis

Special value used in conjunction with extended slicing syntax.

__debug__

Cette constante est vraie si Python n'a pas été démarré avec une option *-O*. Voir aussi l'expression *assert*.

Note : The names *None* and *__debug__* cannot be reassigned (assignments to them, even as an attribute name, raise *SyntaxError*), so they can be considered « true » constants.

Modifié dans la version 2.7 : Assignments to *__debug__* as an attribute became illegal.

4.1 Constantes ajoutées par le module `site`

Le module `site` (qui est importé automatiquement au démarrage, sauf si l'option de ligne de commande `-S` est donnée ajoute un certain nombre de constantes au *namespace* natif. Elles sont utiles pour l'interpréteur interactif et ne devraient pas être utilisées par des programmes.

`quit([code=None])`

`exit([code=None])`

Objets qui, lorsqu'ils sont représentés, affichent un message comme « *Use quit() or Ctrl-D (i.e. EOF) to exit* », et lorsqu'ils sont appelés, lèvent un `SystemExit` avec le code de retour spécifié.

`copyright`

`credits`

Objects that when printed or called, print the text of copyright or credits, respectively.

`license`

Object that when printed, prints the message « Type `license()` to see the full license text », and when called, displays the full license text in a pager-like fashion (one screen at a time).

Les sections suivantes décrivent les types standards intégrés à l'interpréteur.

Note : Historically (until release 2.2), Python's built-in types have differed from user-defined types because it was not possible to use the built-in types as the basis for object-oriented inheritance. This limitation no longer exists.

The principal built-in types are numerics, sequences, mappings, files, classes, instances and exceptions.

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

5.1 Valeurs booléennes

Tout objet peut être testé typiquement dans une condition `if` ou `while` ou comme opérande des opérations booléennes ci-dessous. Les valeurs suivantes sont considérées comme fausses :

- `None`
- `False`
- zero of any numeric type, for example, `0`, `0L`, `0.0`, `0j`.
- toute séquence vide, par exemple, `''`, `()`, `[]`.
- toute dictionnaire vide, par exemple, `{}`.
- instances of user-defined classes, if the class defines a `__nonzero__()` or `__len__()` method, when that method returns the integer zero or `bool` value `False`.¹

Toutes les autres valeurs sont considérées comme vraies — donc des objets de beaucoup de types sont toujours vrais.

1. Plus d'informations sur ces méthodes spéciales peuvent être trouvées dans le *Python Reference Manual* (customization).

Les opérations et fonctions natives dont le résultat est booléen donnent toujours 0 ou `False` pour faux et 1 ou `True` pour vrai, sauf indication contraire. (Exception importante : les opérations booléennes `or` et `and` renvoient toujours l'une de leurs opérandes.)

5.2 Opérations booléennes — `and`, `or`, `not`

Ce sont les opérations booléennes, classées par priorité ascendante :

Opération	Résultat	Notes
<code>x or y</code>	si <i>x</i> est faux, alors <i>y</i> , sinon <i>x</i>	(1)
<code>x and y</code>	si <i>x</i> est faux, alors <i>x</i> , sinon <i>y</i>	(2)
<code>not x</code>	si <i>x</i> est faux, alors <code>True</code> , sinon <code>False</code>	(3)

Notes :

- (1) This is a short-circuit operator, so it only evaluates the second argument if the first one is false.
- (2) This is a short-circuit operator, so it only evaluates the second argument if the first one is true.
- (3) `not a` a une priorité inférieure à celle des opérateurs non-booléens, donc `not a == b` est interprété comme `not (a == b)` et `a == not b` est une erreur de syntaxe.

5.3 Comparaisons

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 ; for example, `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).

Ce tableau résume les opérations de comparaison :

Opération	Signification	Notes
<code><</code>	strictement inférieur	
<code><=</code>	inférieur ou égal	
<code>></code>	strictement supérieur	
<code>>=</code>	supérieur ou égal	
<code>==</code>	égal	
<code>!=</code>	différent	(1)
<code>is</code>	identité d'objet	
<code>is not</code>	contraire de l'identité d'objet	

Notes :

- (1) `!=` can also be written `<>`, but this is an obsolete usage kept for backwards compatibility only. New code should always use `!=`.

Objects of different types, except different numeric types and different string types, never compare equal ; such objects are ordered consistently but arbitrarily (so that sorting a heterogeneous array yields a consistent result). Furthermore, some types (for example, file objects) support only a degenerate notion of comparison where any two objects of that type are unequal. Again, such objects are ordered arbitrarily but consistently. The `<`, `<=`, `>` and `>=` operators will raise a *[TypeError](#)* exception when any operand is a complex number.

Non-identical instances of a class normally compare as non-equal unless the class defines the `__eq__()` method or the `__cmp__()` method.

Instances of a class cannot be ordered with respect to other instances of the same class, or other types of object, unless the class defines either enough of the rich comparison methods (`__lt__()`, `__le__()`, `__gt__()`, and `__ge__()`) or the `__cmp__()` method.

CPython implementation detail : 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).

5.4 Numeric Types — `int`, `float`, `long`, `complex`

There are four distinct numeric types : *plain integers*, *long integers*, *floating point numbers*, and *complex numbers*. In addition, Booleans are a subtype of plain integers. Plain integers (also just called *integers*) are implemented using `long` in C, which gives them at least 32 bits of precision (`sys.maxint` is always set to the maximum plain integer value for the current platform, the minimum value is `-sys.maxint - 1`). Long integers have unlimited precision. Floating point numbers are usually implemented using `double` in C; information about the precision and internal representation of floating point numbers for the machine on which your program is running is available in `sys.float_info`. Complex numbers have a real and imaginary part, which are each a floating point number. To extract these parts from a complex number `z`, use `z.real` and `z.imag`. (The standard library includes additional numeric types, *fractions* that hold rationals, and *decimal* that hold floating-point numbers with user-definable precision.)

Numbers are created by numeric literals or as the result of built-in functions and operators. Unadorned integer literals (including binary, hex, and octal numbers) yield plain integers unless the value they denote is too large to be represented as a plain integer, in which case they yield a long integer. Integer literals with an 'L' or 'l' suffix yield long integers ('L' is preferred because 11 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 an imaginary number (a complex number with a zero real part) which you can add to an integer or float to get a complex number with real and imaginary parts.

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

All built-in numeric types support the following operations. See power and later sections for the operators' priorities.

2. Par conséquent, la liste `[1, 2]` est considérée égale à `[1.0, 2.0]`. Idem avec des tuples.

Opération	Résultat	Notes
<code>x + y</code>	somme de x et y	
<code>x - y</code>	différence de x et y	
<code>x * y</code>	produit de x et y	
<code>x / y</code>	quotient de x et y	(1)
<code>x // y</code>	(floored) quotient of x and y	(4)(5)
<code>x % y</code>	reste de x / y	(4)
<code>-x</code>	négatif de x	
<code>+x</code>	x inchangé	
<code>abs(x)</code>	valeur absolue de x	(3)
<code>int(x)</code>	x converti en nombre entier	(2)
<code>long(x)</code>	x converted to long integer	(2)
<code>float(x)</code>	x converti en nombre à virgule flottante	(6)
<code>complex(re, im)</code>	un nombre complexe avec re pour partie réelle et im pour partie imaginaire. im vaut zéro par défaut.	
<code>c.conjugate()</code>	conjugate of the complex number c . (Identity on real numbers)	
<code>divmod(x, y)</code>	la paire ($x // y$, $x % y$)	(3)(4)
<code>pow(x, y)</code>	x à la puissance y	(3)(7)
<code>x ** y</code>	x à la puissance y	(7)

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. Note that the result is a long integer if either operand is a long integer, regardless of the numeric value.
- (2) Conversion from floats using `int()` or `long()` truncates toward zero like the related function, `math.trunc()`. Use the function `math.floor()` to round downward and `math.ceil()` to round upward.
- (3) See *Fonctions natives* for a full description.
- (4) Obsolète depuis la version 2.3 : The floor division operator, the modulo operator, and the `divmod()` function are no longer defined for complex numbers. Instead, convert to a floating point number using the `abs()` function if appropriate.
- (5) Also referred to as integer division. The resultant value is a whole integer, though the result's type is not necessarily int.
- (6) `float` accepte aussi les chaînes `nan` et `inf` avec un préfixe optionnel `+` ou `-` pour *Not a Number* (NaN) et les infinis positif ou négatif.
Nouveau dans la version 2.6.
- (7) Python définit `pow(0, 0)` et `0 ** 0` valant 1, puisque c'est courant pour les langages de programmation, et logique.

All *numbers.Real* types (`int`, `long`, and `float`) also include the following operations :

Opération	Résultat
<code>math.trunc(x)</code>	x tronqué à l'Integral
<code>round(x[, n])</code>	x rounded to n digits, rounding ties away from zero. If n is omitted, it defaults to 0.
<code>math.floor(x)</code>	the greatest integer as a float $\leq x$
<code>math.ceil(x)</code>	the least integer as a float $\geq x$

5.4.1 Opérations sur les bits des nombres entiers

Les opérations sur les bits n'ont de sens que pour les entiers. Les nombres négatifs sont traités comme leur complément à 2 (ce qui suppose un assez grand nombre de bits afin qu'aucun débordement ne se produise

pendant l'opération).

Les priorités de toutes les opération à deux opérandes sur des bits sont inférieures aux opérations numériques et plus élevées que les comparaisons ; l'opération unaire `~` a la même priorité que les autres opérations numériques unaires (`+` et `-`).

Ce tableau répertorie les opérations binaires triées par priorité ascendante :

Opération	Résultat	Notes
<code>x y</code>	<i>ou <or> binaire de x et y</i>	
<code>x ^ y</code>	<i>ou <or> exclusive binaire de x et y</i>	
<code>x & y</code>	<i>et binaire <and> de x et y</i>	
<code>x << n</code>	<i>x décalé vers la gauche de n bits</i>	(1)(2)
<code>x >> n</code>	<i>x décalé vers la droite de n bits</i>	(1)(3)
<code>~x</code>	les bits de x , inversés	

Notes :

- (1) Des valeurs de décalage négatives sont illégales et provoquent une exception `ValueError`.
- (2) A left shift by n bits is equivalent to multiplication by `pow(2, n)`. A long integer is returned if the result exceeds the range of plain integers.
- (3) A right shift by n bits is equivalent to division by `pow(2, n)`.

5.4.2 Méthodes supplémentaires sur les entiers

The integer types implement the `numbers.Integral abstract base class`. In addition, they provide one more method :

`int.bit_length()`

`long.bit_length()`

Renvoie le nombre de bits nécessaires pour représenter un nombre entier en binaire, à l'exclusion du signe et des zéros non significatifs :

```
>>> n = -37
>>> bin(n)
'-0b100101'
>>> n.bit_length()
6
```

Plus précisément, si x est différent de zéro, `x.bit_length()` est le nombre entier positif unique, k tel que $2^{k-1} \leq \text{abs}(x) < 2^k$. Équivalentement, quand `abs(x)` est assez petit pour avoir un logarithme correctement arrondi, $k = 1 + \text{int}(\log(\text{abs}(x), 2))$. Si x est nul, alors `x.bit_length()` donne 0.

Équivalent à :

```
def bit_length(self):
    s = bin(self)          # binary representation: bin(-37) --> '-0b100101'
    s = s.lstrip('-0b')    # remove leading zeros and minus sign
    return len(s)          # len('100101') --> 6
```

Nouveau dans la version 2.7.

5.4.3 Méthodes supplémentaires sur les nombres à virgule flottante

Le type `float` implémente la *classe de base abstraite* `numbers.Real` et a également les méthodes suivantes.

`float.as_integer_ratio()`

Renvoie une paire de nombres entiers dont le rapport est exactement égal au nombre d'origine et avec un dénominateur positif. Lève *OverflowError* avec un infini et *ValueError* avec un NaN.

Nouveau dans la version 2.6.

`float.is_integer()`

Donne *True* si l'instance de *float* est finie avec une valeur entière, et *False* autrement :

```
>>> (-2.0).is_integer()
True
>>> (3.2).is_integer()
False
```

Nouveau dans la version 2.6.

Deux méthodes prennent en charge la conversion vers et à partir de chaînes hexadécimales. Étant donné que les *float* de Python sont stockés en interne sous forme de nombres binaires, la conversion d'un *float* depuis ou vers une chaîne décimale implique généralement une petite erreur d'arrondi. En revanche, les chaînes hexadécimales permettent de représenter exactement les nombres à virgule flottante. Cela peut être utile lors du débogage, et dans un travail numérique.

`float.hex()`

Donne une représentation d'un nombre à virgule flottante sous forme de chaîne hexadécimale. Pour les nombres à virgule flottante finis, cette représentation comprendra toujours un préfixe *0x*, un suffixe *p*, et un exposant.

Nouveau dans la version 2.6.

`float.fromhex(s)`

Méthode de classe pour obtenir le *float* représenté par une chaîne de caractères hexadécimale *s*. La chaîne *s* peut contenir des espaces avant et après le chiffre.

Nouveau dans la version 2.6.

Notez que *float.hex()* est une méthode d'instance, alors que *float.fromhex()* est une méthode de classe.

Une chaîne hexadécimale prend la forme :

```
[sign] ['0x'] integer ['.' fraction] ['p' exponent]
```

où *sign* peut être soit *+* soit *-*, *integer* et *fraction* sont des chaînes de chiffres hexadécimales, et *exponent* est un entier décimal facultativement signé. La casse n'est pas significative, et il doit y avoir au moins un chiffre hexadécimal soit dans le nombre entier soit dans la fraction. Cette syntaxe est similaire à la syntaxe spécifiée dans la section 6.4.4.2 de la norme C99, et est aussi la syntaxe utilisée à partir de Java 1.5. En particulier, la sortie de *float.hex()* est utilisable comme valeur hexadécimale à virgule flottante littérale en C ou Java, et des chaînes hexadécimales produites en C via un format *%a* ou Java via *Double.toHexString* sont acceptées par *float.fromhex()*.

Notez que l'exposant est écrit en décimal plutôt qu'en hexadécimal, et qu'il donne la puissance de 2 par lequel multiplier le coefficient. Par exemple, la chaîne hexadécimale *0x3.a7p10* représente le nombre à virgule flottante $(3 + 10./16 + 7./16**2) * 2.0**10$, ou 3740.0 :

```
>>> float.fromhex('0x3.a7p10')
3740.0
```

L'application de la conversion inverse à 3740.0 donne une chaîne hexadécimale différente représentant le même nombre :

```
>>> float.hex(3740.0)
'0x1.d380000000000p+11'
```

5.5 Les types itérateurs

Nouveau dans la version 2.2.

Python supporte un concept d'itération sur les conteneurs. C'est implémenté en utilisant deux méthodes distinctes qui permettent aux classes définies par l'utilisateur de devenir itérables. Les séquences, décrites plus bas en détail, supportent toujours les méthodes d'itération.

Une méthode doit être définie afin que les objets conteneurs supportent l'itération :

`container.__iter__()`

Donne un objet itérateur. L'objet doit implémenter le protocole d'itération décrit ci-dessous. Si un conteneur prend en charge différents types d'itération, d'autres méthodes peuvent être fournies pour obtenir spécifiquement les itérateurs pour ces types d'itération. (Exemple d'un objet supportant plusieurs formes d'itération : une structure d'arbre pouvant être parcourue en largeur ou en profondeur.) Cette méthode correspond à l'attribut `tp_iter` de la structure du type des objets Python dans l'API Python/C.

Les itérateurs eux-mêmes doivent implémenter les deux méthodes suivantes, qui forment ensemble le *protocole d'itérateur* `<iterator protocol>` :

`iterator.__iter__()`

Donne l'objet itérateur lui-même. Cela est nécessaire pour permettre à la fois à des conteneurs et des itérateurs d'être utilisés avec les instructions `for` et `in`. Cette méthode correspond à l'attribut `tp_iter` de la structure des types des objets Python dans l'API Python/C.

`iterator.next()`

Donne l'élément suivant du conteneur. S'il n'y a pas d'autres éléments, une exception `StopIteration` est levée. Cette méthode correspond à l'attribut `PyTypeObject.tp_iternext` de la structure du type des objets Python dans l'API Python/C.

Python définit plusieurs objets itérateurs pour itérer sur les types standards ou spécifiques de séquence, de dictionnaires et d'autres formes plus spécialisées. Les types spécifiques ne sont pas importants au-delà de leur implémentation du protocole d'itération.

The intention of the protocol is that once an iterator's `next()` method raises `StopIteration`, it will continue to do so on subsequent calls. Implementations that do not obey this property are deemed broken. (This constraint was added in Python 2.3; in Python 2.2, various iterators are broken according to this rule.)

5.5.1 Types générateurs

Python's *generators* provide a convenient way to implement the iterator protocol. If a container object's `__iter__()` method is implemented as a generator, it will automatically return an iterator object (technically, a generator object) supplying the `__iter__()` and `next()` methods. More information about generators can be found in the documentation for the `yield` expression.

5.6 Sequence Types — str, unicode, list, tuple, bytearray, buffer, xrange

There are seven sequence types : strings, Unicode strings, lists, tuples, bytearrays, buffers, and xrange objects.

For other containers see the built in `dict` and `set` classes, and the `collections` module.

String literals are written in single or double quotes : `'xyzyzy'`, `"frobozz"`. See strings for more about string literals. Unicode strings are much like strings, but are specified in the syntax using a preceding `'u'` character : `u'abc'`, `u"def"`. In addition to the functionality described here, there are also string-specific methods described in the *Méthodes de chaînes de caractères* section. 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, such as `a`, `b`, `c` or `()`. A single item tuple must have a trailing comma, such as `(d,)`.

Bytearray objects are created with the built-in function `bytearray()`.

Buffer objects are not directly supported by Python syntax, but can be created by calling the built-in function `buffer()`. They don't support concatenation or repetition.

Objects of type `xrange` are similar to buffers in that there is no specific syntax to create them, but they are created using the `xrange()` function. They don't support slicing, concatenation or repetition, and using `in`, `not in`, `min()` or `max()` on them is inefficient.

Most 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 Additional methods are provided for *Types de séquences muables*.

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

Opération	Résultat	Notes
<code>x in s</code>	True si un élément de <i>s</i> est égal à <i>x</i> , sinon False	(1)
<code>x not in s</code>	False si un élément de <i>s</i> est égal à <i>x</i> , sinon True	(1)
<code>s + t</code>	la concaténation de <i>s</i> et <i>t</i>	(6)
<code>s * n</code> , <code>n * s</code>	équivalent à ajouter <i>s</i> <i>n</i> fois à lui même	(2)
<code>s[i]</code>	<i>i</i> ^e élément de <i>s</i> en commençant par 0	(3)
<code>s[i:j]</code>	tranche (<i>slice</i>) de <i>s</i> de <i>i</i> à <i>j</i>	(3)(4)
<code>s[i:j:k]</code>	tranche (<i>slice</i>) de <i>s</i> de <i>i</i> à <i>j</i> avec un pas de <i>k</i>	(3)(5)
<code>len(s)</code>	longueur de <i>s</i>	
<code>min(s)</code>	plus petit élément de <i>s</i>	
<code>max(s)</code>	plus grand élément de <i>s</i>	
<code>s.index(x)</code>	index of the first occurrence of <i>x</i> in <i>s</i>	
<code>s.count(x)</code>	nombre total d'occurrences de <i>x</i> dans <i>s</i>	

Sequence types also support comparisons. In particular, tuples and lists are compared lexicographically by comparing corresponding elements. This means that to compare equal, every element must compare equal and the two sequences must be of the same type and have the same length. (For full details see comparisons in the language reference.)

Notes :

- (1) When *s* is a string or Unicode string object the `in` and `not in` operations act like a substring test. In Python versions before 2.3, *x* had to be a string of length 1. In Python 2.3 and beyond, *x* may be a string of any length.
- (2) Values of *n* less than 0 are treated as 0 (which yields an empty sequence of the same type as *s*). Note that items in the sequence *s* are not copied; they are referenced multiple times. This often haunts new Python programmers; consider :

```
>>> lists = [[]] * 3
>>> lists
[[], [], []]
>>> lists[0].append(3)
>>> lists
[[3], [3], [3]]
```

3. Nécessairement, puisque l'analyseur ne peut pas discerner le type des opérandes.

What has happened is that `[]` is a one-element list containing an empty list, so all three elements of `[] * 3` are references to this single empty list. Modifying any of the elements of `lists` modifies this single list. You can create a list of different lists this way :

```
>>> lists = [[] for i in range(3)]
>>> lists[0].append(3)
>>> lists[1].append(5)
>>> lists[2].append(7)
>>> lists
[[3], [5], [7]]
```

De plus amples explications sont disponibles dans la FAQ à la question [faq-multidimensional-list](#).

- (3) If i or j is negative, the index is relative to the end of sequence s : `len(s) + i` or `len(s) + j` is substituted. But note that `-0` is still `0`.
- (4) La tranche de s de i à j est définie comme la séquence d'éléments d'indice k tels que $i \leq k < j$. Si i ou j est supérieur à `len(s)`, `len(s)` est utilisé. Si i est omis ou `None`, `0` est utilisé. Si j est omis ou `None`, `len(s)` est utilisé. Si i est supérieure ou égale à j , la tranche est vide.
- (5) The slice of s from i to j with step k is defined as the sequence of items with index $x = i + n*k$ such that $0 \leq n < (j-i)/k$. In other words, the indices are i , $i+k$, $i+2*k$, $i+3*k$ and so on, stopping when j is reached (but never including j). When k is positive, i and j are reduced to `len(s)` if they are greater. When k is negative, i and j are reduced to `len(s) - 1` if they are greater. If i or j are omitted or `None`, they become « end » values (which end depends on the sign of k). Note, k cannot be zero. If k is `None`, it is treated like `1`.
- (6) **CPython implementation detail** : If s and t are both strings, some Python implementations such as CPython can usually perform an in-place optimization for assignments of the form $s = s + t$ or $s += t$. When applicable, this optimization makes quadratic run-time much less likely. This optimization is both version and implementation dependent. For performance sensitive code, it is preferable to use the `str.join()` method which assures consistent linear concatenation performance across versions and implementations.

Modifié dans la version 2.4 : Formerly, string concatenation never occurred in-place.

5.6.1 Méthodes de chaînes de caractères

Below are listed the string methods which both 8-bit strings and Unicode objects support. Some of them are also available on `bytearray` objects.

In addition, Python's strings support the sequence type methods described in the *Sequence Types — str, unicode, list, tuple, bytearray, buffer, xrange* section. To output formatted strings use template strings or the `%` operator described in the *String Formatting Operations* section. Also, see the `re` module for string functions based on regular expressions.

str.capitalize()

Renvoie une copie de la chaîne avec son premier caractère en majuscule et le reste en minuscule.

For 8-bit strings, this method is locale-dependent.

str.center(*width*[, *fillchar*])

Return centered in a string of length *width*. Padding is done using the specified *fillchar* (default is a space).

Modifié dans la version 2.4 : Support for the *fillchar* argument.

str.count(*sub*[, *start*[, *end*]])

Donne le nombre d'occurrences de *sub* ne se chevauchant pas dans le *range* [*start*, *end*]. Les arguments facultatifs *start* et *end* sont interprétés comme pour des *slices*.

str.decode([*encoding*[, *errors*]])

Decodes the string using the codec registered for *encoding*. *encoding* defaults to the default string

encoding. *errors* may be given to set a different error handling scheme. The default is 'strict', meaning that encoding errors raise *UnicodeError*. Other possible values are 'ignore', 'replace' and any other name registered via *codecs.register_error()*, see section *Codec Base Classes*.

Nouveau dans la version 2.2.

Modifié dans la version 2.3 : Support for other error handling schemes added.

Modifié dans la version 2.7 : Gestion des arguments par mot clef.

str.encode(*[encoding[, errors]]*)

Return an encoded version of the string. Default encoding is the current default string encoding. *errors* may be given to set a different error handling scheme. The default for *errors* is 'strict', meaning that encoding errors raise a *UnicodeError*. Other possible values are 'ignore', 'replace', 'xmlcharrefreplace', 'backslashreplace' and any other name registered via *codecs.register_error()*, see section *Codec Base Classes*. For a list of possible encodings, see section *Standard Encodings*.

Nouveau dans la version 2.0.

Modifié dans la version 2.3 : Support for 'xmlcharrefreplace' and 'backslashreplace' and other error handling schemes added.

Modifié dans la version 2.7 : Gestion des arguments par mot clef.

str.endswith(*suffix[, start[, end]]*)

Donne **True** si la chaîne se termine par *suffix*, sinon **False**. *suffix* peut aussi être un tuple de suffixes à rechercher. Si l'argument optionnel *start* est donné, le test se fait à partir de cette position. Si l'argument optionnel *end* est fourni, la comparaison s'arrête à cette position.

Modifié dans la version 2.5 : Accept tuples as *suffix*.

str.expandtabs(*[tabsize]*)

Donne une copie de la chaîne où toutes les tabulations sont remplacées par un ou plusieurs espaces, en fonction de la colonne courante et de la taille de tabulation donnée. Les positions des tabulations se trouvent tous les *tabsize* caractères (8 par défaut, ce qui donne les positions de tabulations aux colonnes 0, 8, 16 et ainsi de suite). Pour travailler sur la chaîne, la colonne en cours est mise à zéro et la chaîne est examinée caractère par caractère. Si le caractère est une tabulation (*\t*), un ou plusieurs caractères d'espacement sont insérés dans le résultat jusqu'à ce que la colonne courante soit égale à la position de tabulation suivante. (Le caractère tabulation lui-même n'est pas copié.) Si le caractère est un saut de ligne (*\n*) ou un retour chariot (*\r*), il est copié et la colonne en cours est remise à zéro. Tout autre caractère est copié inchangé et la colonne en cours est incrémentée de un indépendamment de la façon dont le caractère est représenté lors de l'affichage.

```
>>> '01\t012\t0123\t01234'.expandtabs()
'01      012      0123      01234'
>>> '01\t012\t0123\t01234'.expandtabs(4)
'01  012 0123   01234'
```

str.find(*sub[, start[, end]]*)

Donne la première la position dans la chaîne où *sub* est trouvé dans le *slice* *s[start:end]*. Les arguments facultatifs *start* et *end* sont interprétés comme dans la notation des *slice*. Donne -1 si *sub* n'est pas trouvé.

Note : La méthode *find()* ne doit être utilisée que si vous avez besoin de connaître la position de *sub*. Pour vérifier si *sub* est une sous chaîne ou non, utilisez l'opérateur *in* :

```
>>> 'Py' in 'Python'
True
```

str.format(*args, **kwargs)

Formate une chaîne. La chaîne sur laquelle cette méthode est appelée peut contenir du texte littéral ou des emplacements de remplacement délimités par des accolades {}. Chaque champ de remplacement contient soit l'indice numérique d'un argument positionnel, ou le nom d'un argument donné par mot-clé. Renvoie une copie de la chaîne où chaque champ de remplacement est remplacé par la valeur de chaîne de l'argument correspondant.

```
>>> "The sum of 1 + 2 is {}".format(1+2)
'The sum of 1 + 2 is 3'
```

Voir *Syntaxe de formatage de chaîne* pour une description des options de formatage qui peuvent être spécifiées dans les chaînes de format.

This method of string formatting is the new standard in Python 3, and should be preferred to the % formatting described in *String Formatting Operations* in new code.

Nouveau dans la version 2.6.

str.index(sub[, start[, end]])

Like *find()*, but raise *ValueError* when the substring is not found.

str.isalnum()

Return true if all characters in the string are alphanumeric and there is at least one character, false otherwise.

For 8-bit strings, this method is locale-dependent.

str.isalpha()

Return true if all characters in the string are alphabetic and there is at least one character, false otherwise.

For 8-bit strings, this method is locale-dependent.

str.isdigit()

Return true if all characters in the string are digits and there is at least one character, false otherwise.

For 8-bit strings, this method is locale-dependent.

str.islower()

Donne **True** si tous les caractères capitalisables⁴ de la chaîne sont en minuscules et qu'elle contient au moins un caractère capitalisable. Donne **False** dans le cas contraire.

For 8-bit strings, this method is locale-dependent.

str.isspace()

Return true if there are only whitespace characters in the string and there is at least one character, false otherwise.

For 8-bit strings, this method is locale-dependent.

str.istitle()

Donne **True** si la chaîne est une chaîne *titlecased* et qu'elle contient au moins un caractère, par exemple les caractères majuscules ne peuvent suivre les caractères non capitalisables et les caractères minuscules ne peuvent suivre que des caractères capitalisables. Donne **False** dans le cas contraire.

For 8-bit strings, this method is locale-dependent.

str.isupper()

Donne **True** si tous les caractères différenciables sur la casse⁴ de la chaîne sont en majuscules et il y a au moins un caractère différenciable sur la casse, sinon **False**.

For 8-bit strings, this method is locale-dependent.

str.join(iterable)

Return a string which is the concatenation of the strings in *iterable*. If there is any Unicode object

4. Les caractères capitalisables sont ceux dont la propriété Unicode *general category* est soit « Lu » (pour *Letter, uppercase*), soit « Ll » (pour *Letter, lowercase*), soit « Lt » (pour *Letter, titlecase*).

in *iterable*, return a Unicode instead. A *TypeError* will be raised if there are any non-string or non-Unicode object values in *iterable*. The separator between elements is the string providing this method.

str.ljust(*width*[, *fillchar*])

Return the string left justified in a string of length *width*. Padding is done using the specified *fillchar* (default is a space). The original string is returned if *width* is less than or equal to `len(s)`.

Modifié dans la version 2.4 : Support for the *fillchar* argument.

str.lower()

Renvoie une copie de la chaîne avec tous les caractères capitalisables⁴ convertis en minuscules.

For 8-bit strings, this method is locale-dependent.

str.lstrip([*chars*])

Return a copy of the string with leading characters removed. The *chars* argument is a string specifying the set of characters to be removed. If omitted or `None`, the *chars* argument defaults to removing whitespace. The *chars* argument is not a prefix; rather, all combinations of its values are stripped :

```
>>> '   spacious   '.lstrip()
'spacious   '
>>> 'www.example.com'.lstrip('cmowz.')
'example.com'
```

Modifié dans la version 2.2.2 : Support for the *chars* argument.

str.partition(*sep*)

Divise la chaîne à la première occurrence de *sep*, et donne un *tuple* de trois éléments contenant la partie avant le séparateur, le séparateur lui-même, et la partie après le séparateur. Si le séparateur n'est pas trouvé, le *tuple* contiendra la chaîne elle-même, suivie de deux chaînes vides.

Nouveau dans la version 2.5.

str.replace(*old*, *new*[, *count*])

Renvoie une copie de la chaîne dont toutes les occurrences de la sous-chaîne *old* sont remplacés par *new*. Si l'argument optionnel *count* est donné, seules les *count* premières occurrences sont remplacées.

str.rfind(*sub*[, *start*[, *end*]])

Donne l'indice le plus élevé dans la chaîne où la sous-chaîne *sub* se trouve, de telle sorte que *sub* soit contenue dans `s[start:end]`. Les arguments facultatifs *start* et *end* sont interprétés comme dans la notation des *slices*. Donne -1 en cas d'échec.

str.rindex(*sub*[, *start*[, *end*]])

Comme *rfind()* mais lève une exception *ValueError* lorsque la sous-chaîne *sub* est introuvable.

str.rjust(*width*[, *fillchar*])

Return the string right justified in a string of length *width*. Padding is done using the specified *fillchar* (default is a space). The original string is returned if *width* is less than or equal to `len(s)`.

Modifié dans la version 2.4 : Support for the *fillchar* argument.

str.rpartition(*sep*)

Divise la chaîne à la dernière occurrence de *sep*, et donne un *tuple* de trois éléments contenant la partie avant le séparateur, le séparateur lui-même, et la partie après le séparateur. Si le séparateur n'est pas trouvé, le *tuple* contiendra deux chaînes vides, puis par la chaîne elle-même.

Nouveau dans la version 2.5.

str.split([*sep*[, *maxsplit*]])

Renvoie une liste des mots de la chaîne, en utilisant *sep* comme séparateur. Si *maxsplit* est donné, c'est le nombre maximum de divisions qui pourront être faites, celles « à droite ». Si *sep* est pas spécifié ou est `None`, tout espace est un séparateur. En dehors du fait qu'il découpe par la droite, *rsplit()* se comporte comme *split()* qui est décrit en détail ci-dessous.

Nouveau dans la version 2.4.

`str.rstrip([chars])`

Return a copy of the string with trailing characters removed. The *chars* argument is a string specifying the set of characters to be removed. If omitted or `None`, the *chars* argument defaults to removing whitespace. The *chars* argument is not a suffix; rather, all combinations of its values are stripped :

```
>>> '   spacious   '.rstrip()
'   spacious'
>>> 'mississippi'.rstrip('ipz')
'mississ'
```

Modifié dans la version 2.2.2 : Support for the *chars* argument.

`str.split([sep[, maxsplit]])`

Renvoie une liste des mots de la chaîne, en utilisant *sep* comme séparateur de mots. Si *maxsplit* est donné, c'est le nombre maximum de divisions qui pourront être effectuées, (donnant ainsi une liste de longueur `maxsplit+1`). Si *maxsplit* n'est pas fourni, ou vaut `-1`, le nombre de découpes n'est pas limité (Toutes les découpes possibles sont faites).

Si *sep* est donné, les délimiteurs consécutifs ne sont pas regroupés et ainsi délimitent des chaînes vides (par exemple, `'1,,2'.split(',')` donne `['1', '', '2']`). L'argument *sep* peut contenir plusieurs caractères (par exemple, `'1<>2<>3'.split('<>')` renvoie `['1', '2', '3']`). Découper une chaîne vide en spécifiant *sep* donne `['']`.

Si *sep* n'est pas spécifié ou est `None`, un autre algorithme de découpage est appliqué : les espaces consécutifs sont considérés comme un seul séparateur, et le résultat ne contiendra pas les chaînes vides de début ou de la fin si la chaîne est préfixée ou suffixée d'espaces. Par conséquent, diviser une chaîne vide ou une chaîne composée d'espaces avec un séparateur `None` renvoie `[]`.

For example, `' 1 2 3 '.split()` returns `['1', '2', '3']`, and `' 1 2 3 '.split(None, 1)` returns `['1', '2 3 ']`.

`str.splitlines([keepends])`

Return a list of the lines in the string, breaking at line boundaries. This method uses the *universal newlines* approach to splitting lines. Line breaks are not included in the resulting list unless *keepends* is given and true.

Python recognizes `"\r"`, `"\n"`, and `"\r\n"` as line boundaries for 8-bit strings.

Par exemple :

```
>>> 'ab c\nnde fg\rkl\r\n'.splitlines()
['ab c', '', 'de fg', 'kl']
>>> 'ab c\nnde fg\rkl\r\n'.splitlines(True)
['ab c\n', '\n', 'de fg\r', 'kl\r\n']
```

Contrairement à `split()` lorsque *sep* est fourni, cette méthode renvoie une liste vide pour la chaîne vide, et un saut de ligne à la fin ne se traduit pas par une ligne supplémentaire :

```
>>> "".splitlines()
[]
>>> "One line\n".splitlines()
['One line']
```

À titre de comparaison, `split('\n')` donne :

```
>>> ''.split('\n')
['']
>>> 'Two lines\n'.split('\n')
['Two lines', '']
```

`unicode.splitlines([keepends])`

Return a list of the lines in the string, like `str.splitlines()`. However, the Unicode method splits on the following line boundaries, which are a superset of the *universal newlines* recognized for 8-bit strings.

Représentation	Description
<code>\n</code>	Saut de ligne
<code>\r</code>	Retour chariot
<code>\r\n</code>	Retour chariot + saut de ligne
<code>\v</code> or <code>\x0b</code>	Tabulation verticale
<code>\f</code> or <code>\x0c</code>	Saut de page
<code>\x1c</code>	Séparateur de fichiers
<code>\x1d</code>	Séparateur de groupes
<code>\x1e</code>	Séparateur d'enregistrements
<code>\x85</code>	Ligne suivante (code de contrôle <i>C1</i>)
<code>\u2028</code>	Séparateur de ligne
<code>\u2029</code>	Séparateur de paragraphe

Modifié dans la version 2.7 : `\v` et `\f` ajoutés à la liste des limites de lignes.

`str.startswith(prefix[, start[, end]])`

Donne `True` si la chaîne commence par *prefix*, sinon `False`. *prefix* peut aussi être un tuple de préfixes à rechercher. Lorsque *start* est donné, la comparaison commence à cette position, et lorsque *end* est donné, la comparaison s'arrête à celle ci.

Modifié dans la version 2.5 : Accept tuples as *prefix*.

`str.strip([chars])`

Return a copy of the string with the leading and trailing characters removed. The *chars* argument is a string specifying the set of characters to be removed. If omitted or `None`, the *chars* argument defaults to removing whitespace. The *chars* argument is not a prefix or suffix; rather, all combinations of its values are stripped :

```
>>> '   spacious   '.strip()
'spacious'
>>> 'www.example.com'.strip('cmowz.')
'example'
```

Modifié dans la version 2.2.2 : Support for the *chars* argument.

`str.swapcase()`

Return a copy of the string with uppercase characters converted to lowercase and vice versa.

For 8-bit strings, this method is locale-dependent.

`str.title()`

Renvoie une version en initiales majuscules de la chaîne où les mots commencent par une capitale et les caractères restants sont en minuscules.

Pour l'algorithme, la notion de mot est définie simplement et indépendamment de la langue comme un groupe de lettres consécutives. La définition fonctionne dans de nombreux contextes, mais cela signifie que les apostrophes (typiquement de la forme possessive en Anglais) forment les limites de mot, ce qui n'est pas toujours le résultat souhaité :

```
>>> "they're bill's friends from the UK".title()
'They'Re Bill'S Friends From The Uk'
```

Une solution pour contourner le problème des apostrophes peut être obtenue en utilisant des expressions rationnelles :

```
>>> import re
>>> def titlecase(s):
...     return re.sub(r"[A-Za-z]+(' [A-Za-z]+)?",
...                   lambda mo: mo.group(0)[0].upper() +
...                               mo.group(0)[1:].lower(),
...                   s)
...
>>> titlecase("they're bill's friends.")
'They're Bill's Friends.'
```

For 8-bit strings, this method is locale-dependent.

str.translate(table[, deletechars])

Return a copy of the string where all characters occurring in the optional argument *deletechars* are removed, and the remaining characters have been mapped through the given translation table, which must be a string of length 256.

You can use the *maketrans()* helper function in the *string* module to create a translation table. For string objects, set the *table* argument to *None* for translations that only delete characters :

```
>>> 'read this short text'.translate(None, 'aeiou')
'rd ths shrt txt'
```

Nouveau dans la version 2.6 : Support for a *None table* argument.

For Unicode objects, the *translate()* method does not accept the optional *deletechars* argument. Instead, it returns a copy of the *s* where all characters have been mapped through the given translation table which must be a mapping of Unicode ordinals to Unicode ordinals, Unicode strings or *None*. Unmapped characters are left untouched. Characters mapped to *None* are deleted. Note, a more flexible approach is to create a custom character mapping codec using the *codecs* module (see *encodings.cp1251* for an example).

str.upper()

Return a copy of the string with all the cased characters⁴ converted to uppercase. Note that *s.upper().isupper()* might be *False* if *s* contains uncased characters or if the Unicode category of the resulting character(s) is not « Lu » (Letter, uppercase), but e.g. « Lt » (Letter, titlecase).

For 8-bit strings, this method is locale-dependent.

str.zfill(width)

Return the numeric string left filled with zeros in a string of length *width*. A sign prefix is handled correctly. The original string is returned if *width* is less than or equal to *len(s)*.

Nouveau dans la version 2.2.2.

The following methods are present only on unicode objects :

unicode.isnumeric()

Return *True* if there are only numeric characters in *S*, *False* otherwise. Numeric characters include digit characters, and all characters that have the Unicode numeric value property, e.g. U+2155, VULGAR FRACTION ONE FIFTH.

unicode.isdecimal()

Return *True* if there are only decimal characters in *S*, *False* otherwise. Decimal characters include digit characters, and all characters that can be used to form decimal-radix numbers, e.g. U+0660, ARABIC-INDIC DIGIT ZERO.

5.6.2 String Formatting Operations

String and Unicode objects have one unique built-in operation : the *%* operator (modulo). This is also known as the string *formatting* or *interpolation* operator. Given *format % values* (where *format* is a string or

Unicode object), % conversion specifications in *format* are replaced with zero or more elements of *values*. The effect is similar to the using `sprintf()` in the C language. If *format* is a Unicode object, or if any of the objects being converted using the %s conversion are Unicode objects, the result will also be a Unicode object.

Si *format* ne nécessite qu'un seul argument, *values* peut être un objet unique.⁵ Si *values* est un tuple, il doit contenir exactement le nombre d'éléments spécifiés par la chaîne de format, ou un seul objet de correspondances (*mapping object*, par exemple, un dictionnaire).

Un indicateur de conversion contient deux ou plusieurs caractères et comporte les éléments suivants, qui doivent apparaître dans cet ordre :

1. Le caractère '%', qui marque le début du marqueur.
2. La clé de correspondance (facultative), composée d'une suite de caractères entre parenthèse (par exemple, (somename)).
3. Des options de conversion, facultatives, qui affectent le résultat de certains types de conversion.
4. Largeur minimum (facultative). Si elle vaut '*' (astérisque), la largeur est lue de l'élément suivant du tuple *values*, et l'objet à convertir vient après la largeur de champ minimale et la précision facultative.
5. Precision (optional), given as a '.' (dot) followed by the precision. If specified as '*' (an asterisk), the actual width is read from the next element of the tuple in *values*, and the value to convert comes after the precision.
6. Modificateur de longueur (facultatif).
7. Type de conversion.

Lorsque l'argument de droite est un dictionnaire (ou un autre type de *mapping*), les marqueurs dans la chaîne *doivent* inclure une clé présente dans le dictionnaire, écrite entre parenthèses, immédiatement après le caractère '%'. La clé indique quelle valeur du dictionnaire doit être formatée. Par exemple :

```
>>> print '%(language)s has %(number)03d quote types.' % \
...     {"language": "Python", "number": 2}
Python has 002 quote types.
```

Dans ce cas, aucune * ne peuvent se trouver dans le format (car ces * nécessitent une liste (accès séquentiel) de paramètres).

Les caractères indicateurs de conversion sont :

Op-tion	Signification
'#'	La conversion utilisera la « forme alternative » (définie ci-dessous).
'0'	Les valeurs numériques converties seront complétée de zéros.
'-'	La valeur convertie est ajustée à gauche (remplace la conversion '0' si les deux sont données).
' '	(un espace) Un espace doit être laissé avant un nombre positif (ou chaîne vide) produite par la conversion d'une valeur signée.
'+'	Un caractère de signe ('+' ou '-') précède la valeur convertie (remplace le marqueur « espace »).

Un modificateur de longueur (h, l ou L) peut être présent, mais est ignoré car il est pas nécessaire pour Python, donc par exemple %ld est identique à %d.

Les types utilisables dans les conversion sont :

-
5. Pour insérer un *tuple*, vous devez donc donner un *tuple* d'un seul élément, contenant le *tuple* à insérer.

Conversion	Signification	Notes
'd'	Entier décimal signé.	
'i'	Entier décimal signé.	
'o'	Valeur octale signée.	(1)
'u'	Type obsolète — identique à 'd'.	(7)
'x'	Hexadécimal signé (en minuscules).	(2)
'X'	Hexadécimal signé (capitales).	(2)
'e'	Format exponentiel pour un <i>float</i> (minuscule).	(3)
'E'	Format exponentiel pour un <i>float</i> (en capitales).	(3)
'f'	Format décimal pour un <i>float</i> .	(3)
'F'	Format décimal pour un <i>float</i> .	(3)
'g'	Format <i>float</i> . Utilise le format exponentiel minuscules si l'exposant est inférieur à -4 ou pas plus petit que la précision, sinon le format décimal.	(4)
'G'	Format <i>float</i> . Utilise le format exponentiel en capitales si l'exposant est inférieur à -4 ou pas plus petit que la précision, sinon le format décimal.	(4)
'c'	Un seul caractère (accepte des entiers ou une chaîne d'un seul caractère).	
'r'	String (converts any Python object using <i>repr()</i>).	(5)
's'	String (convertit n'importe quel objet Python avec <i>str()</i>).	(6)
'%'	Aucun argument n'est converti, donne un caractère de '%' dans le résultat.	

Notes :

- (1) La forme alternative insère un zéro ('0') entre le rembourrage gauche et le formatage du nombre si son premier caractère n'est pas déjà un zéro.
- (2) The alternate form causes a leading '0x' or '0X' (depending on whether the 'x' or 'X' format was used) to be inserted before the first digit.
- (3) La forme alternative implique la présence d'un point décimal, même si aucun chiffre ne le suit.
La précision détermine le nombre de chiffres après la virgule, 6 par défaut.
- (4) La forme alternative implique la présence d'un point décimal et les zéros non significatifs sont conservés (ils ne le seraient pas autrement).
La précision détermine le nombre de chiffres significatifs avant et après la virgule. 6 par défaut.
- (5) The `%r` conversion was added in Python 2.0.
The precision determines the maximal number of characters used.
- (6) If the object or format provided is a *unicode* string, the resulting string will also be *unicode*.
The precision determines the maximal number of characters used.
- (7) Voir la [PEP 237](#).

Puisque les chaînes Python ont une longueur explicite, les conversions `%s` ne considèrent pas `'\0'` comme la fin de la chaîne.

Modifié dans la version 2.7 : Les conversions `%f` pour nombres dont la valeur absolue est supérieure à `1e50` ne sont plus remplacés par des conversions `%g`.

Additional string operations are defined in standard modules *string* and *re*.

5.6.3 xrange Type

The *xrange* type is an immutable sequence which is commonly used for looping. The advantage of the *xrange* type is that an *xrange* object will always take the same amount of memory, no matter the size of the range it represents. There are no consistent performance advantages.

Xrange objects have very little behavior : they only support indexing, iteration, and the *len()* function.

5.6.4 Types de séquences muables

List and `bytearray` objects support additional operations that allow in-place modification of the object. Other mutable sequence types (when added to the language) should also support these operations. Strings and tuples are immutable sequence types : such objects cannot be modified once created. The following operations are defined on mutable sequence types (where x is an arbitrary object) :

Opération	Résultat	Notes
<code>s[i] = x</code>	élément i de s est remplacé par x	
<code>s[i:j] = t</code>	tranche de s de i à j est remplacée par le contenu de l'itérable t	
<code>del s[i:j]</code>	identique à <code>s[i:j] = []</code>	
<code>s[i:j:k] = t</code>	les éléments de <code>s[i:j:k]</code> sont remplacés par ceux de t	(1)
<code>del s[i:j:k]</code>	supprime les éléments de <code>s[i:j:k]</code> de la liste	
<code>s.append(x)</code>	same as <code>s[len(s):len(s)] = [x]</code>	(2)
<code>s.extend(t)</code> or <code>s += t</code>	for the most part the same as <code>s[len(s):len(s)] = t</code>	(3)
<code>s *= n</code>	met à jour s avec son contenu répété n fois	(11)
<code>s.count(x)</code>	return number of i 's for which <code>s[i] == x</code>	
<code>s.index(x[, i[, j]])</code>	return smallest k such that <code>s[k] == x</code> and $i \leq k < j$	(4)
<code>s.insert(i, x)</code>	same as <code>s[i:i] = [x]</code>	(5)
<code>s.pop([i])</code>	same as <code>x = s[i]; del s[i]; return x</code>	(6)
<code>s.remove(x)</code>	same as <code>del s[s.index(x)]</code>	(4)
<code>s.reverse()</code>	inverse sur place les éléments de s	(7)
<code>s.sort([cmp[, key[, reverse]])</code>	sort the items of s in place	(7)(8)(9)(10)

Notes :

- (1) t must have the same length as the slice it is replacing.
- (2) The C implementation of Python has historically accepted multiple parameters and implicitly joined them into a tuple; this no longer works in Python 2.0. Use of this misfeature has been deprecated since Python 1.4.
- (3) t can be any iterable object.
- (4) Raises `ValueError` when x is not found in s . When a negative index is passed as the second or third parameter to the `index()` method, the list length is added, as for slice indices. If it is still negative, it is truncated to zero, as for slice indices.
Modifié dans la version 2.3 : Previously, `index()` didn't have arguments for specifying start and stop positions.
- (5) When a negative index is passed as the first parameter to the `insert()` method, the list length is added, as for slice indices. If it is still negative, it is truncated to zero, as for slice indices.
Modifié dans la version 2.3 : Previously, all negative indices were truncated to zero.
- (6) The `pop()` method's optional argument i defaults to `-1`, so that by default the last item is removed and returned.
- (7) The `sort()` and `reverse()` methods modify the list in place for economy of space when sorting or reversing a large list. To remind you that they operate by side effect, they don't return the sorted or reversed list.
- (8) The `sort()` method takes optional arguments for controlling the comparisons.
 cmp specifies a custom comparison function of two arguments (list items) which should return a negative, zero or positive number depending on whether the first argument is considered smaller than, equal to, or larger than the second argument : `cmp=lambda x,y: cmp(x.lower(), y.lower())`. The default value is `None`.

key specifies a function of one argument that is used to extract a comparison key from each list element : `key=str.lower`. The default value is `None`.

reverse, une valeur booléenne. Si elle est `True`, la liste d'éléments est triée comme si toutes les comparaisons étaient inversées.

In general, the *key* and *reverse* conversion processes are much faster than specifying an equivalent *cmp* function. This is because *cmp* is called multiple times for each list element while *key* and *reverse* touch each element only once. Use `functools.cmp_to_key()` to convert an old-style *cmp* function to a *key* function.

Modifié dans la version 2.3 : Support for `None` as an equivalent to omitting *cmp* was added.

Modifié dans la version 2.4 : Support for *key* and *reverse* was added.

- (9) Starting with Python 2.3, the `sort()` method is guaranteed to be stable. A sort is stable if it guarantees not to change the relative order of elements that compare equal — this is helpful for sorting in multiple passes (for example, sort by department, then by salary grade).
- (10) **CPython implementation detail** : While a list is being sorted, the effect of attempting to mutate, or even inspect, the list is undefined. The C implementation of Python 2.3 and newer makes the list appear empty for the duration, and raises `ValueError` if it can detect that the list has been mutated during a sort.
- (11) The value *n* is an integer, or an object implementing `__index__()`. Zero and negative values of *n* clear the sequence. Items in the sequence are not copied; they are referenced multiple times, as explained for `s * n` under *Sequence Types — str, unicode, list, tuple, bytearray, buffer, xrange*.

5.7 Types d'ensembles — set, frozenset

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

Nouveau dans la version 2.4.

Comme pour les autres collections, les ensembles supportent `x in set`, `len(set)`, et `for x in set`. En tant que collection non-triée, les ensembles n'enregistrent pas la position des éléments ou leur ordre d'insertion. En conséquence, les *sets* n'autorisent ni l'indexation, ni le découpage, ou tout autre comportement de séquence.

Il existe actuellement deux types natifs pour les ensembles, *set* et *frozenset*. Le type *set* est muable — son contenu peut changer en utilisant des méthodes comme `add()` et `remove()`. Puisqu'il est muable, il n'a pas de valeur de hachage et ne peut donc pas être utilisé ni comme clef de dictionnaire ni comme élément d'un autre ensemble. Le type *frozenset* est immuable et *hashable* — son contenu ne peut être modifié après sa création, il peut ainsi être utilisé comme clef de dictionnaire ou élément d'un autre *set*.

As of Python 2.7, non-empty sets (not frozensets) can be created by placing a comma-separated list of elements within braces, for example : `{'jack', 'sjoerd'}`, in addition to the *set* constructor.

Les constructeurs des deux classes fonctionnent pareil :

```
class set([iterable])
```

```
class frozenset([iterable])
```

Renvoie un nouveau *set* ou *frozenset* dont les éléments viennent d'*iterable*. Les éléments d'un *set* doivent être *hashable*. Pour représenter des *sets* de *sets* les *sets* intérieurs doivent être des *frozenset*. Si *iterable* n'est pas spécifié, un nouveau *set* vide est renvoyé.

Les instances de *set* et *frozenset* fournissent les opérations suivantes :

```
len(s)
```

Donne le nombre d'éléments dans le *set* *s* (cardinalité de *s*).

`x in s`
Test d'appartenance de *x* dans *s*.

`x not in s`
Test de non-appartenance de *x* dans *s*.

`isdisjoint(other)`
Renvoie `True` si l'ensemble n'a aucun élément en commun avec *other*. Les ensembles sont disjoints si et seulement si leur intersection est un ensemble vide.
Nouveau dans la version 2.6.

`issubset(other)`

`set <= other`
Teste si tous les éléments du `set` sont dans *other*.

`set < other`
Teste si l'ensemble est un sous-ensemble de *other*, c'est-à-dire, `set <= other and set != other`.

`issuperset(other)`

`set >= other`
Teste si tous les éléments de *other* sont dans l'ensemble.

`set > other`
Teste si l'ensemble est un sur-ensemble de *other*, c'est-à-dire, `set >= other and set != other`.

`union(*others)`
`set | other | ...`
Renvoie un nouvel ensemble dont les éléments viennent de l'ensemble et de tous les autres.
Modifié dans la version 2.6 : Accepts multiple input iterables.

`intersection(*others)`
`set & other & ...`
Renvoie un nouvel ensemble dont les éléments sont communs à l'ensemble et à tous les autres.
Modifié dans la version 2.6 : Accepts multiple input iterables.

`difference(*others)`
`set - other - ...`
Renvoie un nouvel ensemble dont les éléments sont dans l'ensemble mais ne sont dans aucun des autres.
Modifié dans la version 2.6 : Accepts multiple input iterables.

`symmetric_difference(other)`
`set ^ other`
Renvoie un nouvel ensemble dont les éléments sont soit dans l'ensemble, soit dans les autres, mais pas dans les deux.

`copy()`
Renvoie un nouvel ensemble, copie de surface de *s*.

Remarque : Les méthodes `union()`, `intersection()`, `difference()`, et `symmetric_difference()`, `issubset()`, et `issuperset` acceptent n'importe quel itérable comme argument, contrairement aux opérateurs équivalents qui n'acceptent que des `*sets*`. Il est donc préférable d'éviter les constructions comme `set('abc') & 'cbs'()`, sources typiques d'erreurs, en faveur d'une construction plus lisible : `set('abc').intersection('cbs')`.

Les classes `set` et `frozenset` supportent les comparaisons d'ensemble à ensemble. Deux ensembles sont égaux si et seulement si chaque élément de chaque ensemble est contenu dans l'autre (autrement dit que chaque ensemble est un sous-ensemble de l'autre). Un ensemble est plus petit qu'un autre ensemble si et seulement si le premier est un sous-ensemble du second (un sous-ensemble, mais pas égal). Un ensemble est plus grand qu'un autre ensemble si et seulement si le premier est un sur-ensemble du second (est un sur-ensemble mais n'est pas égal).

Les instances de `set` se comparent aux instances de `frozenset` en fonction de leurs membres. Par exemple, `set('abc') == frozenset('abc')` envoie `True`, ainsi que `set('abc') in set([frozenset('abc')])`.

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

Puisque les *sets* ne définissent qu'un ordre partiel (par leurs relations de sous-ensembles), la sortie de la méthode `list.sort()` n'est pas définie pour des listes d'ensembles.

Les éléments des *sets*, comme les clefs de dictionnaires, doivent être *hashable*.

Les opérations binaires mélangeant des instances de *set* et *frozenset* renvoient le type de la première opérande. Par exemple : `frozenset('ab') | set('bc')` renvoie une instance de *frozenset*.

La table suivante liste les opérations disponibles pour les *set* mais qui ne s'appliquent pas aux instances de *frozenset* :

update(*others)

`set |= other | ...`

Met à jour l'ensemble, ajoutant les éléments de tous les autres.

Modifié dans la version 2.6 : Accepts multiple input iterables.

intersection_update(*others)

`set &= other & ...`

Met à jour l'ensemble, ne gardant que les éléments trouvés dans tous les autres.

Modifié dans la version 2.6 : Accepts multiple input iterables.

difference_update(*others)

`set -= other | ...`

Met à jour l'ensemble, retirant les éléments trouvés dans les autres.

Modifié dans la version 2.6 : Accepts multiple input iterables.

symmetric_difference_update(other)

`set ^= other`

Met à jour le set, ne gardant que les éléments trouvés dans un des ensembles mais pas dans les deux.

add(elem)

Ajoute l'élément *elem* au set.

remove(elem)

Retire l'élément *elem* de l'ensemble. Lève une exception *KeyError* si *elem* n'est pas dans l'ensemble.

discard(elem)

Retire l'élément *elem* de l'ensemble s'il y est.

pop()

Retire et renvoie un élément arbitraire de l'ensemble. Lève une exception *KeyError* si l'ensemble est vide.

clear()

Supprime tous les éléments du *set*.

Notez que les versions non-opérateurs des méthodes *update()*, *intersection_update()*, *difference_update()*, et *symmetric_difference_update()* acceptent n'importe quel itérable comme argument.

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

Voir aussi :

Comparison to the built-in set types Differences between the *sets* module and the built-in set types.

5.8 Les types de correspondances — dict

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

classes, and the *collections* module.)

Les clefs d'un dictionnaire sont *presque* des données arbitraires. Les valeurs qui ne sont pas *hashable*, c'est-à-dire qui contiennent les listes, des dictionnaires ou autre type muable (qui sont comparés par valeur plutôt que par leur identité) ne peuvent pas être utilisées comme clef de dictionnaire. Les types numériques utilisés comme clef obéissent aux règles classiques en ce qui concerne les comparaisons : si deux nombres sont égaux (comme 1 et 1.0) ils peuvent tous les deux être utilisés pour obtenir la même entrée d'un dictionnaire. (Notez cependant que puisque les ordinateurs stockent les nombres à virgule flottante sous forme d'approximations, il est généralement imprudent de les utiliser comme clefs de dictionnaires.)

Il est possible de créer des dictionnaires en plaçant entre accolades une liste de paires de **key: value** séparés par des virgules, par exemple : {'jack': 4098, 'sjoerd': 4127} ou {4098: 'jack', 4127: 'sjoerd'}, ou en utilisant le constructeur de *dict*.

```
class dict(**kwarg)
class dict(mapping, **kwarg)
class dict(iterable, **kwarg)
```

Renvoie un nouveau dictionnaire initialisé depuis un argument positionnel optionnel, et un ensemble (vide ou non) d'arguments par mot clef.

Si aucun argument positionnel n'est donné, un dictionnaire vide est créé. Si un argument positionnel est donné et est un *mapping object*, un dictionnaire est créé avec les mêmes paires de clef-valeurs que le *mapping* donné. Autrement, l'argument positionnel doit être un objet *iterable*. Chaque élément de cet itérable doit lui-même être un itérable contenant exactement deux objets. Le premier objet de chaque élément devient la clef du nouveau dictionnaire, et le second devient sa valeur correspondante. Si une clef apparaît plus d'une fois, la dernière valeur pour cette clef devient la valeur correspondante à cette clef dans le nouveau dictionnaire.

Si des arguments nommés sont donnés, ils sont ajoutés au dictionnaire créé depuis l'argument positionnel. Si une clef est déjà présente, la valeur de l'argument nommé remplace la valeur reçue par l'argument positionnel.

Typiquement, les exemples suivants renvoient tous un dictionnaire valant {"one": 1, "two": 2, "three": 3} :

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

Fournir les arguments nommés comme dans le premier exemple en fonctionne que pour des clefs qui sont des identifiants valide en Python. Dans les autres cas, toutes les clefs valides sont utilisables.

Nouveau dans la version 2.2.

Modifié dans la version 2.3 : Support for building a dictionary from keyword arguments added.

Voici les opérations gérées par les dictionnaires, (par conséquent, d'autres types de *mapping* peuvent les gérer aussi) :

len(d)

Renvoie le nombre d'éléments dans le dictionnaire *d*.

d[key]

Donne l'élément de *d* dont la clef est *key*. Lève une exception *KeyError* si *key* n'est pas dans le dictionnaire.

Si une sous-classe de *dict* définit une méthode *__missing__()* et que *key* manque, l'opération *d[key]* appelle cette méthode avec la clef *key* en argument. L'opération *d[key]* renverra la valeur, ou lèvera l'exception renvoyée ou levée par l'appel à *__missing__(key)*. Aucune autre opération ni

méthode n'appellent `__missing__()`. If `__missing__()` n'est pas définie, une exception `KeyError` est levée. `__missing__()` doit être une méthode; ça ne peut être une variable d'instance :

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

L'exemple ci-dessus montre une partie de l'implémentation de `collections.Counter`. `collections.defaultdict` implémente aussi `__missing__`.

Nouveau dans la version 2.5 : Recognition of `__missing__` methods of dict subclasses.

d[key] = value

Assigne `d[key]` à *value*.

del d[key]

Supprime `d[key]` de *d*. Lève une exception `KeyError` si *key* n'est pas dans le dictionnaire.

key in d

Renvoie `True` si *d* a la clef *key*, sinon `False`.

Nouveau dans la version 2.2.

key not in d

Équivalent à `not key in d`.

Nouveau dans la version 2.2.

iter(d)

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

clear()

Supprime tous les éléments du dictionnaire.

copy()

Renvoie une copie de surface du dictionnaire.

fromkeys(seq[, value])

Crée un nouveau dictionnaire avec les clefs de *seq* et les valeurs à *value*.

`fromkeys()` is a class method that returns a new dictionary. *value* defaults to `None`.

Nouveau dans la version 2.3.

get(key[, default])

Renvoie la valeur de *key* si *key* est dans le dictionnaire, sinon *default*. Si *default* n'est pas donné, il vaut `None` par défaut, de manière à ce que cette méthode ne lève jamais `KeyError`.

has_key(key)

Test for the presence of *key* in the dictionary. `has_key()` is deprecated in favor of `key in d`.

items()

Return a copy of the dictionary's list of (*key*, *value*) pairs.

CPython implementation detail : Keys and values are listed in an arbitrary order which is non-random, varies across Python implementations, and depends on the dictionary's history of insertions and deletions.

If `items()`, `keys()`, `values()`, `iteritems()`, `iterkeys()`, and `itervalues()` are called with no intervening modifications to the dictionary, the lists will directly correspond. This allows the creation of (*value*, *key*) pairs using `zip()`: `pairs = zip(d.values(), d.keys())`. The same relationship holds for the `iterkeys()` and `itervalues()` methods: `pairs = zip(d.itervalues(), d.iterkeys())` provides the same value for `pairs`. Another way to create the same list is `pairs = [(v, k) for (k, v) in d.iteritems()]`.

iteritems()

Return an iterator over the dictionary's (key, value) pairs. See the note for *dict.items()*.

Using *iteritems()* while adding or deleting entries in the dictionary may raise a *RuntimeError* or fail to iterate over all entries.

Nouveau dans la version 2.2.

iterkeys()

Return an iterator over the dictionary's keys. See the note for *dict.items()*.

Using *iterkeys()* while adding or deleting entries in the dictionary may raise a *RuntimeError* or fail to iterate over all entries.

Nouveau dans la version 2.2.

itervalues()

Return an iterator over the dictionary's values. See the note for *dict.items()*.

Using *itervalues()* while adding or deleting entries in the dictionary may raise a *RuntimeError* or fail to iterate over all entries.

Nouveau dans la version 2.2.

keys()

Return a copy of the dictionary's list of keys. See the note for *dict.items()*.

pop(key[, default])

Si *key* est dans le dictionnaire elle est supprimée et sa valeur est renvoyée, sinon renvoie *default*. Si *default* n'est pas donné et que *key* n'est pas dans le dictionnaire, une *KeyError* est levée.

Nouveau dans la version 2.3.

popitem()

Supprime et renvoie une (key, value) arbitraire du dictionnaire.

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

setdefault(key[, default])

Si *key* est dans le dictionnaire, sa valeur est renvoyée. Sinon, insère *key* avec comme valeur *default* et renvoie *default*. *default* vaut *None* par défaut.

update([other])

Met à jour le dictionnaire avec les paires de clef/valeur d'*other*, écrasant les clefs existantes. Renvoie *None*.

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

Modifié dans la version 2.4 : Allowed the argument to be an iterable of key/value pairs and allowed keyword arguments.

values()

Return a copy of the dictionary's list of values. See the note for *dict.items()*.

viewitems()

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

Nouveau dans la version 2.7.

viewkeys()

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

Nouveau dans la version 2.7.

viewvalues()

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

Nouveau dans la version 2.7.

Dictionaries compare equal if and only if they have the same (key, value) pairs.

5.8.1 Les vues de dictionnaires

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

Les vues de dictionnaires peuvent être itérées et ainsi renvoyer les données du dictionnaire, elle gèrent aussi les tests de présence :

len(dictview)

Renvoie le nombre d'entrées du dictionnaire.

iter(dictview)

Renvoie un itérateur sur les clefs, les valeurs, ou les éléments (représentés par des *tuples* de (`key`, `value`) du dictionnaire.

Les clefs et les valeurs sont itérées dans un ordre arbitraire qui n'est pas aléatoire, qui peut varier d'une implémentation de Python à l'autre, et qui dépend de l'historique d'insertion et de suppressions d'éléments. Si les vues de clefs, de valeurs, et d'éléments sont parcourues sans que le dictionnaire ne soit modifié, l'ordre des éléments correspondra directement. Ceci permet la création de paires de (`key`, `value`) en utilisant `zip()` : `pairs = zip(d.values(), d.keys())`. Un autre moyen de construire la même liste est `pairs = [(v, k) for (k, v) in d.items()]`.

Parcourir des vues tout en ajoutant ou supprimant des entrées dans un dictionnaire peut lever une *RuntimeError* ou ne pas fournir toutes les entrées.

x in dictview

Renvoie `True` si `x` est dans les clefs, les valeurs, ou les éléments du dictionnaire sous-jacent (dans le dernier cas, `x` doit être un *tuple* (`key`, `value`)).

Keys views are set-like since their entries are unique and hashable. If all values are hashable, so that (`key`, `value`) pairs are unique and hashable, then the items view is also set-like. (Values views are not treated as set-like since the entries are generally not unique.) Then these set operations are available (« *other* » refers either to another view or a set) :

dictview & other

Return the intersection of the dictview and the other object as a new set.

dictview | other

Return the union of the dictview and the other object as a new set.

dictview - other

Return the difference between the dictview and the other object (all elements in *dictview* that aren't in *other*) as a new set.

dictview ^ other

Return the symmetric difference (all elements either in *dictview* or *other*, but not in both) of the dictview and the other object as a new set.

Exemple d'utilisation de vue de dictionnaire :

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

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

(suite sur la page suivante)

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```

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

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

>>> # set operations
>>> keys & {'eggs', 'bacon', 'salad'}
{'bacon'}

```

5.9 Objets fichiers

File objects are implemented using C's `stdio` package and can be created with the built-in `open()` function. File objects are also returned by some other built-in functions and methods, such as `os.popen()` and `os.fdopen()` and the `makefile()` method of socket objects. Temporary files can be created using the `tempfile` module, and high-level file operations such as copying, moving, and deleting files and directories can be achieved with the `shutil` module.

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 :

`file.close()`

Close the file. A closed file cannot be read or written any more. Any operation which requires that the file be open will raise a `ValueError` after the file has been closed. Calling `close()` more than once is allowed.

As of Python 2.5, you can avoid having to call this method explicitly if you use the `with` statement. For example, the following code will automatically close `f` when the `with` block is exited :

```

from __future__ import with_statement # This isn't required in Python 2.6

with open("hello.txt") as f:
    for line in f:
        print line,

```

In older versions of Python, you would have needed to do this to get the same effect :

```

f = open("hello.txt")
try:
    for line in f:
        print line,
finally:
    f.close()

```

Note : Not all « file-like » types in Python support use as a context manager for the `with` statement. If your code is intended to work with any file-like object, you can use the function `contextlib.closing()` instead of using the object directly.

`file.flush()`

Flush the internal buffer, like `stdio`'s `fflush()`. This may be a no-op on some file-like objects.

Note : `flush()` does not necessarily write the file's data to disk. Use `flush()` followed by `os.fsync()` to ensure this behavior.

`file.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, such as the `fcntl` module or `os.read()` and friends.

Note : File-like objects which do not have a real file descriptor should *not* provide this method!

`file.isatty()`

Return `True` if the file is connected to a tty(-like) device, else `False`.

Note : If a file-like object is not associated with a real file, this method should *not* be implemented.

`file.next()`

A file object is its own iterator, for example `iter(f)` returns `f` (unless `f` is closed). When a file is used as an iterator, typically in a `for` loop (for example, `for line in f: print line.strip()`), the `next()` method is called repeatedly. This method returns the next input line, or raises `StopIteration` when EOF is hit when the file is open for reading (behavior is undefined when the file is open for writing). In order to make a `for` loop the most efficient way of looping over the lines of a file (a very common operation), the `next()` method uses a hidden read-ahead buffer. As a consequence of using a read-ahead buffer, combining `next()` with other file methods (like `readline()`) does not work right. However, using `seek()` to reposition the file to an absolute position will flush the read-ahead buffer.

Nouveau dans la version 2.3.

`file.read([size])`

Read at most `size` bytes from the file (less if the read hits EOF before obtaining `size` bytes). 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.) Note that this method may call the underlying C function `fread()` more than once in an effort to acquire as close to `size` bytes as possible. Also note that when in non-blocking mode, less data than was requested may be returned, even if no `size` parameter was given.

Note : This function is simply a wrapper for the underlying `fread()` C function, and will behave the same in corner cases, such as whether the EOF value is cached.

`file.readline([size])`

Read one entire line from the file. A trailing newline character is kept in the string (but may be absent when a file ends with an incomplete line).⁶ If the `size` argument is present and non-negative, it is a

6. The advantage of leaving the newline on is that returning an empty string is then an unambiguous EOF indication. It is also possible (in cases where it might matter, for example, if you want to make an exact copy of a file while scanning its lines)

maximum byte count (including the trailing newline) and an incomplete line may be returned. When *size* is not 0, an empty string is returned *only* when EOF is encountered immediately.

Note : Unlike `stdio`'s `fgets()`, the returned string contains null characters (`'\0'`) if they occurred in the input.

`file.readlines([sizehint])`

Read until EOF using `readline()` and return a list containing the lines thus read. If the optional *sizehint* argument is present, instead of reading up to EOF, whole lines totalling approximately *sizehint* bytes (possibly after rounding up to an internal buffer size) are read. Objects implementing a file-like interface may choose to ignore *sizehint* if it cannot be implemented, or cannot be implemented efficiently.

`file.xreadlines()`

This method returns the same thing as `iter(f)`.

Nouveau dans la version 2.1.

Obsolète depuis la version 2.3 : Use `for line in file` instead.

`file.seek(offset, whence)`

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

For example, `f.seek(2, os.SEEK_CUR)` advances the position by two and `f.seek(-3, os.SEEK_END)` sets the position to the third to last.

Note that if the file is opened for appending (mode `'a'` or `'a+'`), any `seek()` operations will be undone at the next write. If the file is only opened for writing in append mode (mode `'a'`), this method is essentially a no-op, but it remains useful for files opened in append mode with reading enabled (mode `'a+'`). If the file is opened in text mode (without `'b'`), only offsets returned by `tell()` are legal. Use of other offsets causes undefined behavior.

Note that not all file objects are seekable.

Modifié dans la version 2.6 : Passing float values as offset has been deprecated.

`file.tell()`

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

Note : On Windows, `tell()` can return illegal values (after an `fgets()`) when reading files with Unix-style line-endings. Use binary mode (`'rb'`) to circumvent this problem.

`file.truncate([size])`

Truncate the file's size. If the optional *size* argument is present, the file is truncated to (at most) that size. The size defaults to the current position. The current file position is not changed. Note that if a specified size exceeds the file's current size, the result is platform-dependent : possibilities include that the file may remain unchanged, increase to the specified size as if zero-filled, or increase to the specified size with undefined new content. Availability : Windows, many Unix variants.

`file.write(str)`

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

`file.writelines(sequence)`

Write a sequence of strings to the file. The sequence can be any iterable object producing strings, typically a list of strings. There is no return value. (The name is intended to match `readlines()`; `writelines()` does not add line separators.)

to tell whether the last line of a file ended in a newline or not (yes this happens!).

Files support the iterator protocol. Each iteration returns the same result as `readline()`, and iteration ends when the `readline()` method returns an empty string.

File objects also offer a number of other interesting attributes. These are not required for file-like objects, but should be implemented if they make sense for the particular object.

file.closed

bool indicating the current state of the file object. This is a read-only attribute; the `close()` method changes the value. It may not be available on all file-like objects.

file.encoding

The encoding that this file uses. When Unicode strings are written to a file, they will be converted to byte strings using this encoding. In addition, when the file is connected to a terminal, the attribute gives the encoding that the terminal is likely to use (that information might be incorrect if the user has misconfigured the terminal). The attribute is read-only and may not be present on all file-like objects. It may also be `None`, in which case the file uses the system default encoding for converting Unicode strings.

Nouveau dans la version 2.3.

file.errors

The Unicode error handler used along with the encoding.

Nouveau dans la version 2.6.

file.mode

The I/O mode for the file. If the file was created using the `open()` built-in function, this will be the value of the `mode` parameter. This is a read-only attribute and may not be present on all file-like objects.

file.name

If the file object was created using `open()`, the name of the file. Otherwise, some string that indicates the source of the file object, of the form `<...>`. This is a read-only attribute and may not be present on all file-like objects.

file.newlines

If Python was built with *universal newlines* enabled (the default) this read-only attribute exists, and for files opened in universal newline read mode it keeps track of the types of newlines encountered while reading the file. The values it can take are `'\r'`, `'\n'`, `'\r\n'`, `None` (unknown, no newlines read yet) or a tuple containing all the newline types seen, to indicate that multiple newline conventions were encountered. For files not opened in universal newlines read mode the value of this attribute will be `None`.

file.softspace

Boolean that indicates whether a space character needs to be printed before another value when using the `print` statement. Classes that are trying to simulate a file object should also have a writable *softspace* attribute, which should be initialized to zero. This will be automatic for most classes implemented in Python (care may be needed for objects that override attribute access); types implemented in C will have to provide a writable *softspace* attribute.

Note : This attribute is not used to control the `print` statement, but to allow the implementation of `print` to keep track of its internal state.

5.10 memoryview type

Nouveau dans la version 2.7.

memoryview objects allow Python code to access the internal data of an object that supports the buffer protocol without copying. Memory is generally interpreted as simple bytes.

`class memoryview(obj)`

Create a *memoryview* that references *obj*. *obj* must support the buffer protocol. Built-in objects that support the buffer protocol include *str* and *bytearray* (but not *unicode*).

A *memoryview* has the notion of an *element*, which is the atomic memory unit handled by the originating object *obj*. For many simple types such as *str* and *bytearray*, an element is a single byte, but other third-party types may expose larger elements.

`len(view)` returns the total number of elements in the memoryview, *view*. The *itemsize* attribute will give you the number of bytes in a single element.

A *memoryview* supports slicing to expose its data. Taking a single index will return a single element as a *str* object. Full slicing will result in a subview :

```
>>> v = memoryview('abcefg')
>>> v[1]
'b'
>>> v[-1]
'g'
>>> v[1:4]
<memory at 0x77ab28>
>>> v[1:4].tobytes()
'bce'
```

If the object the memoryview is over supports changing its data, the memoryview supports slice assignment :

```
>>> data = bytearray('abcefg')
>>> v = memoryview(data)
>>> v.readonly
False
>>> v[0] = 'z'
>>> data
bytearray(b'zbcefg')
>>> v[1:4] = '123'
>>> data
bytearray(b'z123fg')
>>> v[2] = 'spam'
Traceback (most recent call last):
  File "<stdin>", line 1, in <module>
ValueError: cannot modify size of memoryview object
```

Notice how the size of the memoryview object cannot be changed.

memoryview has two methods :

tobytes()

Return the data in the buffer as a bytestring (an object of class *str*).

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

tolist()

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

```
>>> memoryview("abc").tolist()
[97, 98, 99]
```

Plusieurs attributs en lecture seule sont également disponibles :

format

A string containing the format (in *struct* module style) for each element in the view. This defaults to 'B', a simple bytestring.

itemsizes

The size in bytes of each element of the memoryview.

shape

Un *tuple* d'entiers de longueur *ndim* donnant la forme de la *memoryview* sous forme d'un tableau à N dimensions.

ndim

Un nombre entier indiquant le nombre de dimensions d'un tableau multi-dimensionnel représenté par la *memoryview*.

strides

Un *tuple* d'entiers de longueur *ndim* donnant la taille en octets permettant d'accéder à chaque dimensions du tableau.

readonly

Un booléen indiquant si la mémoire est en lecture seule.

5.11 Le type gestionnaire de contexte

Nouveau dans la version 2.5.

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

The *context management protocol* consists of a pair of methods that need to be provided for a context manager object to define a runtime context :

contextmanager.__enter__()

Entre dans le contexte à l'exécution, soit se renvoyant lui-même, soit en renvoyant un autre objet en lien avec ce contexte. La valeur renvoyée par cette méthode est liée à l'identifiant donné au **as** de l'instruction **with** utilisant ce gestionnaire de contexte.

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

Un exemple de gestionnaire de contexte renvoyant un objet connexe est celui renvoyé par `decimal.localcontext()`. Ces gestionnaires remplacent le contexte décimal courant par une copie de l'original, copie qui est renvoyée. Ça permet de changer le contexte courant dans le corps du **with** sans affecter le code en dehors de l'instruction **with**.

contextmanager.__exit__(exc_type, exc_val, exc_tb)

Sort du contexte et renvoie un booléen indiquant si une exception survenue doit être supprimée. Si une exception est survenue lors de l'exécution du corps de l'instruction **with**, les arguments contiennent le type de l'exception, sa valeur, et la trace de la pile (*traceback*). Sinon les trois arguments valent `None`. L'instruction **with** inhibera l'exception si cette méthode renvoie une valeur vraie, l'exécution continuera ainsi à l'instruction suivant immédiatement l'instruction **with**. Sinon, l'exception continuera de se propager après la fin de cette méthode. Les exceptions se produisant pendant l'exécution de cette méthode remplaceront toute exception qui s'est produite dans le corps du **with**.

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

Python définit plusieurs gestionnaires de contexte pour faciliter la synchronisation des fils d'exécution, la fermeture des fichiers ou d'autres objets, et la configuration du contexte arithmétique décimal. Ces types

spécifiques ne sont pas traités différemment, ils respectent simplement le protocole de gestion du contexte. Voir les exemples dans la documentation du module `contextlib`.

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

Notez qu'il n'y a pas d'emplacement spécifique pour ces méthodes dans la structure de type pour les objets Python dans l'API Python/C. Les types souhaitant définir ces méthodes doivent les fournir comme une méthode accessible en Python. Comparé au coût de la mise en place du contexte d'exécution, le coût d'un accès au dictionnaire d'une classe unique est négligeable.

5.12 Autres types natifs

L'interpréteur gère aussi d'autres types d'objets, la plupart ne supportant cependant qu'une ou deux opérations.

5.12.1 Modules

La seule opération spéciale sur un module est l'accès à ses attributs : `m.name`, où *m* est un module et *name* donne accès un nom défini dans la table des symboles de *m*. Il est possible d'assigner un attribut de module. (Notez que l'instruction `import` n'est pas strictement une opération sur un objet module. `import foo` ne nécessite pas qu'un objet module nommé *foo* existe, il nécessite cependant une *définition* (externe) d'un module nommé *foo* quelque part.)

Un attribut spécial à chaque module est `__dict__`. C'est le dictionnaire contenant la table des symboles du module. Modifier ce dictionnaire changera la table des symboles du module, mais assigner directement `__dict__` n'est pas possible (vous pouvez écrire `m.__dict__['a'] = 1`, qui donne 1 comme valeur pour `m.a`, mais vous ne pouvez pas écrire `m.__dict__ = {}`). Modifier `__dict__` directement n'est pas recommandé.

Les modules natifs à l'interpréteur sont représentés `<module 'sys' (built-in)>`. S'ils sont chargés depuis un fichier, ils sont représentés `<module 'os' from '/usr/local/lib/pythonX.Y/os.pyc'>`.

5.12.2 Les classes et instances de classes

Voir `objects` et `class`.

5.12.3 Fonctions

Les objets fonctions sont créés par les définitions de fonctions. La seule opération applicable à un objet fonction est de l'appeler : `func(argument-list)`.

Il existe en fait deux catégories d'objets fonctions : Les fonctions natives et les fonctions définies par l'utilisateur. Les deux gèrent les mêmes opérations (l'appel à la fonction), mais leur implémentation est différente, d'où les deux types distincts.

Voir `function` pour plus d'information.

5.12.4 Méthodes

Les méthodes sont des fonctions appelées via la notation d'attribut. Il en existe deux variantes : Les méthodes natives (tel que `append()` sur les listes), et les méthodes d'instances de classes. Les méthodes natives sont représentées avec le type qui les supporte.

The implementation adds two special read-only attributes to class instance methods : `m.im_self` is the object on which the method operates, 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)`.

Class instance methods are either *bound* or *unbound*, referring to whether the method was accessed through an instance or a class, respectively. When a method is unbound, its `im_self` attribute will be `None` and if called, an explicit `self` object must be passed as the first argument. In this case, `self` must be an instance of the unbound method's class (or a subclass of that class), otherwise a *`TypeError`* is raised.

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

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

Voir types pour plus d'information.

5.12.5 Objets code

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. See also the *`code`* module.

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.

Voir types pour plus d'information.

5.12.6 Objets type

Les objets types représentent les différents types d'objets. Le type d'un objet est obtenu via la fonction native *`type()`*. Il n'existe aucune opération spéciale sur les types. Le module standard *`types`* définit les noms de tous les types natifs.

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

5.12.7 L'objet Null

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).

C'est écrit `None`.

5.12.8 L'objet points de suspension

This object is used by extended slice notation (see slicings). It supports no special operations. There is exactly one ellipsis object, named *Ellipsis* (a built-in name).

It is written as `Ellipsis`. When in a subscript, it can also be written as `...`, for example `seq[...]`.

5.12.9 L'objet *NotImplemented*

This object is returned from comparisons and binary operations when they are asked to operate on types they don't support. See comparisons for more information.

C'est écrit `NotImplemented`.

5.12.10 Valeurs Booléennes

Les valeurs booléennes sont les deux objet constants `False` et `True`. Ils son utilisés pour représenter les valeurs de vérité (bien que d'autres valeurs peuvent être considérées vraies ou fausses). Dans des contextes numériques (par exemple en argument d'un opérateur arithmétique), ils se comportent comme les nombres entiers 0 et 1, respectivement. La fonction native `bool()` peut être utilisée pour convertir n'importe quelle valeur en booléen tant que la valeur peut être interprétée en une valeur de vérité (voir *Valeurs booléennes* au dessus).

Ils s'écrivent `False` et `True`, respectivement.

5.12.11 Objets Internes

Voir types. Ils décrivent les objets *stack frame*, *traceback*, et *slice*.

5.13 Attributs Spéciaux

L'implémentation ajoute quelques attributs spéciaux et en lecture seule, à certains types, lorsque ça a du sens. Certains ne sont *pas* listés par la fonction native `dir()`.

`object.__dict__`

Un dictionnaire ou un autre *mapping object* utilisé pour stocker les attributs (modifiables) de l'objet.

`object.__methods__`

Obsolète depuis la version 2.2 : Use the built-in function `dir()` to get a list of an object's attributes. This attribute is no longer available.

`object.__members__`

Obsolète depuis la version 2.2 : Use the built-in function `dir()` to get a list of an object's attributes. This attribute is no longer available.

`instance.__class__`

La classe de l'instance de classe.

`class.__bases__`

Le *tuple* des classes parentes d'un objet classe.

`definition.__name__`

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

The following attributes are only supported by *new-style classes*.

`class.__mro__`

Cet attribut est un *tuple* contenant les classes parents prises en compte lors de la résolution de méthode.

`class.mro()`

Cette méthode peut être surchargée par une méta-classe pour personnaliser l'ordre de la recherche de méthode pour ses instances. Elle est appelée à la l'initialisation de la classe, et son résultat est stocké dans l'attribut `__mro__`.

`class.__subclasses__()`

Each new-style class keeps a list of weak references to its immediate subclasses. This method returns a list of all those references still alive. Example :

```
>>> int.__subclasses__()
[<type 'bool'>]
```

Notes

Exceptions natives

Exceptions should be class objects. The exceptions are defined in the module `exceptions`. This module never needs to be imported explicitly : the exceptions are provided in the built-in namespace as well as the `exceptions` module.

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. If the exception class is derived from the standard root class `BaseException`, the associated value is present as the exception instance's `args` attribute.

Du code utilisateur peut lever des exceptions natives. Cela peut être utilisé pour tester un gestionnaire d'exception ou pour rapporter une condition d'erreur « comme si » c'était l'interpréteur qui levait cette exception ; mais attention car rien n'empêche du code utilisateur de lever une erreur inappropriée.

Les classes d'exception natives peuvent être héritées pour définir de nouvelles exceptions ; les programmeurs sont encouragés à faire dériver les nouvelles exceptions de la classe `Exception` ou d'une de ses sous-classes, et non de `BaseException`. Plus d'informations sur la définition des exceptions sont disponibles dans le Tutoriel Python sous `tut-userexceptions`.

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

exception BaseException

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

Nouveau dans la version 2.5.

args

The tuple of arguments given to the exception constructor. Some built-in exceptions (like `IOError`)

expect a certain number of arguments and assign a special meaning to the elements of this tuple, while others are usually called only with a single string giving an error message.

exception Exception

Toutes les exceptions natives, qui n'entraînent pas une sortie du système dérivent de cette classe. Toutes les exceptions définies par l'utilisateur devraient également être dérivées de cette classe.

Modifié dans la version 2.5 : Changed to inherit from *BaseException*.

exception StandardError

The base class for all built-in exceptions except *StopIteration*, *GeneratorExit*, *KeyboardInterrupt* and *SystemExit*. *StandardError* itself is derived from *Exception*.

exception ArithmeticError

La classe de base pour les exceptions natives qui sont levées pour diverses erreurs arithmétiques : *OverflowError*, *ZeroDivisionError*, *FloatingPointError*.

exception BufferError

Levée lorsqu'une opération liée à un tampon ne peut pas être exécutée.

exception LookupError

La classe de base pour les exceptions qui sont levées lorsqu'une clé ou un index utilisé sur un tableau de correspondances ou une séquence est invalide : *IndexError*, *KeyError*. Peut être levée directement par *codecs.lookup()*.

exception EnvironmentError

The base class for exceptions that can occur outside the Python system : *IOError*, *OSError*. When exceptions of this type are created with a 2-tuple, the first item is available on the instance's *errno* attribute (it is assumed to be an error number), and the second item is available on the *strerror* attribute (it is usually the associated error message). The tuple itself is also available on the *args* attribute.

Nouveau dans la version 1.5.2.

When an *EnvironmentError* exception is instantiated with a 3-tuple, the first two items are available as above, while the third item is available on the *filename* attribute. However, for backwards compatibility, the *args* attribute contains only a 2-tuple of the first two constructor arguments.

The *filename* attribute is *None* when this exception is created with other than 3 arguments. The *errno* and *strerror* attributes are also *None* when the instance was created with other than 2 or 3 arguments. In this last case, *args* contains the verbatim constructor arguments as a tuple.

The following exceptions are the exceptions that are actually raised.

exception AssertionError

Levée lorsqu'une instruction *assert* échoue.

exception AttributeError

Levée lorsqu'une référence ou une assignation d'attribut (voir attribute-references) échoue. (Lorsqu'un objet ne supporte pas du tout la référence ou l'assignation d'attribut, *TypeError* est levé.)

exception 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 *file.read()* and *file.readline()* methods return an empty string when they hit EOF.)

exception FloatingPointError

Levée lorsqu'une opération en virgule flottante échoue. Cette exception est toujours définie, mais ne peut être levée que lorsque Python est configuré avec l'option *--with-fpectl*, ou que le symbole *WANT_SIGFPE_HANDLER* est défini dans le fichier *pyconfig.h*.

exception GeneratorExit

Raised when a *generator*'s *close()* method is called. It directly inherits from *BaseException* instead of *StandardError* since it is technically not an error.

Nouveau dans la version 2.5.

Modifié dans la version 2.6 : Changed to inherit from *BaseException*.

exception 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 ».

This class is derived from *EnvironmentError*. See the discussion above for more information on exception instance attributes.

Modifié dans la version 2.6 : Changed *socket.error* to use this as a base class.

exception 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.

exception IndexError

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

exception KeyError

Levée lorsqu'une clef (de dictionnaire) n'est pas trouvée dans l'ensemble des clefs existantes.

exception KeyboardInterrupt

Raised when the user hits the interrupt key (normally **Control-C** or **Delete**). 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. The exception inherits from *BaseException* so as to not be accidentally caught by code that catches *Exception* and thus prevent the interpreter from exiting.

Modifié dans la version 2.5 : Changed to inherit from *BaseException*.

exception MemoryError

Levée lorsqu'une opération est à court de mémoire mais que la situation peut encore être rattrapée (en supprimant certains objets). La valeur associée est une chaîne de caractères indiquant quel type d'opération (interne) est à court de mémoire. À noter qu'en raison de l'architecture interne de gestion de la mémoire (la fonction `malloc()` du C), l'interpréteur peut ne pas toujours être capable de rattraper cette situation; il lève néanmoins une exception pour qu'une pile d'appels puisse être affichée, dans le cas où un programme en cours d'exécution en était la cause.

exception NameError

Levée lorsqu'un nom local ou global n'est pas trouvé. Ceci ne s'applique qu'aux noms non qualifiés. La valeur associée est un message d'erreur qui inclut le nom qui n'a pas pu être trouvé.

exception NotImplementedError

This exception is derived from *RuntimeError*. In user defined base classes, abstract methods should raise this exception when they require derived classes to override the method.

Nouveau dans la version 1.5.2.

exception OSError

This exception is derived from *EnvironmentError*. It is raised when a function returns a system-related error (not for illegal argument types or other incidental errors). The *errno* attribute is a numeric error code from *errno*, and the *strerror* attribute is the corresponding string, as would be printed by the C function `perror()`. See the module *errno*, which contains names for the error codes defined by the underlying operating system.

For exceptions that involve a file system path (such as `chdir()` or `unlink()`), the exception instance will contain a third attribute, *filename*, which is the file name passed to the function.

Nouveau dans la version 1.5.2.

exception 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) and for most operations with plain

integers, which return a long integer instead. Because of the lack of standardization of floating point exception handling in C, most floating point operations also aren't checked.

exception `ReferenceError`

Cette exception est levée lorsqu'un pointeur faible d'un objet proxy, créé par la fonction `weakref.proxy()`, est utilisé pour accéder à un attribut du référent après qu'il ait été récupéré par le ramasse-miettes. Pour plus d'informations sur les pointeurs faibles, voir le module `weakref`.

Nouveau dans la version 2.2 : Previously known as the `weakref.ReferenceError` exception.

exception `RuntimeError`

Levée lorsqu'une erreur qui n'appartient à aucune des autres catégories est détectée. La valeur associée est une chaîne de caractères indiquant précisément ce qui s'est mal passé.

exception `StopIteration`

Raised by an `iterator`'s `next()` method to signal that there are no further values. This is derived from `Exception` rather than `StandardError`, since this is not considered an error in its normal application.

Nouveau dans la version 2.2.

exception `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).

Les instances de cette classe ont des attributs `filename`, `lineno`, `offset` et `text` pour accéder plus facilement aux détails. La représentation `str()` de l'instance de l'exception retourne seulement le message.

exception `IndentationError`

Classe de base pour les erreurs de syntaxe liées à une indentation incorrecte. C'est une sous-classe de `SyntaxError`.

exception `TabError`

Levée lorsqu'une indentation contient une utilisation incohérente des tabulations et des espaces. C'est une sous-classe de `IndentationError`.

exception `SystemError`

Levée lorsque l'interpréteur trouve une erreur interne, mais que la situation ne semble pas si grave au point de lui faire abandonner tout espoir. La valeur associée est une chaîne de caractères indiquant l'erreur qui est survenue (en termes bas niveau).

Vous devriez le signaler à l'auteur ou au responsable de votre interpréteur Python. Assurez-vous de signaler la version de l'interpréteur (`sys.version`; elle est également affichée au lancement d'une session interactive), le message d'erreur exact (la valeur associée à l'exception) et si possible le code source du programme qui a déclenché l'erreur.

exception `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.

Instances have an attribute `code` which is set to the proposed exit status or error message (defaulting to `None`). Also, this exception derives directly from `BaseException` and not `StandardError`, since it is not technically an error.

Un appel à `sys.exit()` est traduit en une exception pour que les gestionnaires de nettoyage (les clauses `finally` des instructions `try`) puissent être exécutés, et pour qu'un débogueur puisse exécuter un script sans courir le risque de perdre le contrôle. La fonction `os._exit()` peut être utilisée s'il est absolument nécessaire de sortir immédiatement (par exemple, dans le processus enfant après un appel à `os.fork()`).

The exception inherits from *BaseException* instead of *StandardError* or *Exception* so that it is not accidentally caught by code that catches *Exception*. This allows the exception to properly propagate up and cause the interpreter to exit.

Modifié dans la version 2.5 : Changed to inherit from *BaseException*.

exception *TypeError*

Levée lorsqu'une opération ou fonction est appliquée à un objet d'un type inapproprié. La valeur associée est une chaîne de caractères donnant des détails sur le type d'inadéquation.

exception *UnboundLocalError*

Levée lorsqu'une référence est faite à une variable locale dans une fonction ou une méthode, mais qu'aucune valeur n'a été liée à cette variable. C'est une sous-classe de *NameError*.

Nouveau dans la version 2.0.

exception *UnicodeError*

Levée lorsqu'une erreur d'encodage ou de décodage liée à Unicode se produit. C'est une sous-classe de *ValueError*.

UnicodeError a des attributs qui décrivent l'erreur d'encodage ou de décodage. Par exemple, `err.object[err.start:err.end]` donne l'entrée particulière invalide sur laquelle le codec a échoué.

encoding

Le nom de l'encodage qui a provoqué l'erreur.

reason

Une chaîne de caractères décrivant l'erreur de codec spécifique.

object

L'objet que le codec essayait d'encoder ou de décoder.

start

Le premier index des données invalides dans *object*.

end

L'index après la dernière donnée invalide dans *object*.

Nouveau dans la version 2.0.

exception *UnicodeEncodeError*

Levée lorsqu'une erreur liée à Unicode se produit durant l'encodage. C'est une sous-classe d'*UnicodeError*.

Nouveau dans la version 2.3.

exception *UnicodeDecodeError*

Levée lorsqu'une erreur liée à Unicode se produit durant le décodage. C'est une sous-classe d'*UnicodeError*.

Nouveau dans la version 2.3.

exception *UnicodeTranslateError*

Levée lorsqu'une erreur liée à Unicode se produit durant la traduction. C'est une sous-classe d'*UnicodeError*.

Nouveau dans la version 2.3.

exception *ValueError*

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

exception *VMSError*

Only available on VMS. Raised when a VMS-specific error occurs.

exception *WindowsError*

Raised when a Windows-specific error occurs or when the error number does not correspond to an `errno` value. The `winerror` and `strerror` values are created from the return values of the `GetLastError()`

and `FormatMessage()` functions from the Windows Platform API. The `errno` value maps the `winerror` value to corresponding `errno.h` values. This is a subclass of `OSError`.

Nouveau dans la version 2.0.

Modifié dans la version 2.5 : Previous versions put the `GetLastError()` codes into `errno`.

exception `ZeroDivisionError`

Levée lorsque le second argument d'une opération de division ou d'un modulo est zéro. La valeur associée est une chaîne indiquant le type des opérandes et de l'opération.

Les exceptions suivantes sont utilisées comme catégories d'avertissement ; voir le module `warnings` pour plus d'informations.

exception `Warning`

Classe de base pour les catégories d'avertissement.

exception `UserWarning`

Classe de base pour les avertissements générés par du code utilisateur.

exception `DeprecationWarning`

Classe de base pour les avertissements sur les fonctionnalités obsolètes.

exception `PendingDeprecationWarning`

Classe de base pour les avertissements sur les fonctionnalités qui seront obsolètes dans le futur.

exception `SyntaxWarning`

Classe de base pour les avertissements sur de la syntaxe douteuse.

exception `RuntimeWarning`

Classe de base pour les avertissements sur les comportements d'exécution douteux.

exception `FutureWarning`

Classe de base pour les avertissements sur les constructions qui changeront sémantiquement dans le futur.

exception `ImportWarning`

Classe de base pour les avertissements sur des erreurs probables dans les imports de modules.

Nouveau dans la version 2.5.

exception `UnicodeWarning`

Classe de base pour les avertissements liés à l'Unicode.

Nouveau dans la version 2.5.

6.1 Hiérarchie des exceptions

La hiérarchie de classes pour les exceptions natives est la suivante :

```
BaseException
+-- SystemExit
+-- KeyboardInterrupt
+-- GeneratorExit
+-- Exception
    +-- StopIteration
    +-- StandardError
        | +-- BufferError
        | +-- ArithmeticError
        | | +-- FloatingPointError
        | | +-- OverflowError
        | | +-- ZeroDivisionError
```

(suite sur la page suivante)

(suite de la page précédente)

```

|   +-- AssertionError
|   +-- AttributeError
|   +-- EnvironmentError
|       |   +-- IOError
|       |   +-- OSError
|       |       +-- WindowsError (Windows)
|       |       +-- VMSError (VMS)
|   +-- EOFError
|   +-- ImportError
|   +-- LookupError
|       |   +-- IndexError
|       |   +-- KeyError
|   +-- MemoryError
|   +-- NameError
|       |   +-- UnboundLocalError
|   +-- ReferenceError
|   +-- RuntimeError
|       |   +-- NotImplementedError
|   +-- SyntaxError
|       |   +-- IndentationError
|       |   +-- TabError
|   +-- SystemError
|   +-- TypeError
|   +-- ValueError
|       |   +-- UnicodeError
|       |       +-- UnicodeDecodeError
|       |       +-- UnicodeEncodeError
|       |       +-- UnicodeTranslateError
+-- Warning
    +-- DeprecationWarning
    +-- PendingDeprecationWarning
    +-- RuntimeWarning
    +-- SyntaxWarning
    +-- UserWarning
    +-- FutureWarning
    +-- ImportWarning
    +-- UnicodeWarning
    +-- BytesWarning

```


The modules described in this chapter provide a wide range of string manipulation operations.

In addition, Python's built-in string classes support the sequence type methods described in the *Sequence Types* — *str*, *unicode*, *list*, *tuple*, *bytearray*, *buffer*, *xrange* section, and also the string-specific methods described in the *Méthodes de chaînes de caractères* section. To output formatted strings use template strings or the % operator described in the *String Formatting Operations* section. Also, see the *re* module for string functions based on regular expressions.

7.1 string — Opérations usuelles sur des chaînes

Code source : [Lib/string.py](#)

The *string* module contains a number of useful constants and classes, as well as some deprecated legacy functions that are also available as methods on strings. In addition, Python's built-in string classes support the sequence type methods described in the *Sequence Types* — *str*, *unicode*, *list*, *tuple*, *bytearray*, *buffer*, *xrange* section, and also the string-specific methods described in the *Méthodes de chaînes de caractères* section. To output formatted strings use template strings or the % operator described in the *String Formatting Operations* section. Also, see the *re* module for string functions based on regular expressions.

7.1.1 Chaînes constantes

Les constantes définies dans ce module sont :

`string.ascii_letters`

La concaténation des constantes *ascii_lowercase* et *ascii_uppercase* décrites ci-dessous. Cette valeur n'est pas dépendante de l'environnement linguistique.

`string.ascii_lowercase`

Les lettres minuscules 'abcdefghijklmnopqrstuvwxyz'. Cette valeur ne dépend pas de l'environnement linguistique et ne changera pas.

string.ascii_uppercase

Les lettres majuscules 'ABCDEFGHIJKLMNOPQRSTUVWXYZ'. Cette valeur de dépend pas de l'environnement linguistique et ne changera pas.

string.digits

La chaîne '0123456789'.

string.hexdigits

La chaîne '0123456789abcdefABCDEF'.

string.letters

The concatenation of the strings *lowercase* and *uppercase* described below. The specific value is locale-dependent, and will be updated when *locale.setlocale()* is called.

string.lowercase

A string containing all the characters that are considered lowercase letters. On most systems this is the string 'abcdefghijklmnopqrstuvwxyz'. The specific value is locale-dependent, and will be updated when *locale.setlocale()* is called.

string.octdigits

La chaîne '01234567'.

string.punctuation

Chaîne de caractères ASCII considérés comme ponctuation dans l'environnement linguistique C.

string.printable

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

string.uppercase

A string containing all the characters that are considered uppercase letters. On most systems this is the string 'ABCDEFGHIJKLMNOPQRSTUVWXYZ'. The specific value is locale-dependent, and will be updated when *locale.setlocale()* is called.

string.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.

7.1.2 Formatage personnalisé de chaîne

Nouveau dans la version 2.6.

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

class string.Formatter

La classe *Formatter* a les méthodes publiques suivantes :

format(format_string, *args, **kwargs)

La méthode principale de l'API. Elle prend une chaîne de format et un ensemble arbitraire d'arguments positions et mot-clefs. C'est uniquement un conteneur qui appelle *vformat()*.

vformat(format_string, args, kwargs)

Cette fonction fait le travail effectif du formatage. Elle existe comme méthode séparée au cas où vous voudriez passer un dictionnaire d'arguments prédéfini plutôt que décompresser et recompresser le dictionnaire en arguments individuels en utilisant la syntaxe **args* et ***kwargs*. *vformat()* s'occupe de découper la chaîne de format en données de caractères et champs de remplacement. Elle appelle les différentes méthodes décrites ci-dessous.

De plus, la classe `Formatter` définit un certain nombre de méthodes qui ont pour vocation d'être remplacées par des sous-classes :

parse(*format_string*)

Boucle sur la chaîne de format et renvoie un itérable de *tuples* (*literal_text*, *field_name*, *format_spec*, *conversion*). Ceci est utilisé par `vformat()` pour découper la chaîne de format en littéraux ou en champs de remplacement.

Les valeurs dans le *tuple* représentent conceptuellement un ensemble de littéraux suivis d'un unique champ de remplacement. S'il n'y a pas de littéral, (ce qui peut arriver si deux champs de remplacement sont placés côte à côte), alors *literal_text* est une chaîne vide. S'il n'y a pas de champ de remplacement, les valeurs *field_name*, *format_spec* et *conversion* sont mises à `None`.

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

Récupère le champ *field_name* du *tuple* renvoyé par `parse()` (voir ci-dessus), le convertit en un objet à formater. Renvoie un *tuple* (*obj*, *used_key*). La version par défaut prend une chaîne de la forme définie par **PEP 3101**, telle que « *0[name]* » ou « *label.title* ». *args* et *kwargs* sont tels que ceux passés à `vformat()`. La valeur renvoyée *used_key* a le même sens que le paramètre *key* de `get_value()`.

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

récupère la valeur d'un champ donné. L'argument *key* est soit un entier, soit une chaîne. Si c'est un entier, il représente l'indice de la l'argument dans *args*. Si c'est une chaîne de caractères, elle représente le nom de l'argument dans *kwargs*.

Le paramètre *args* est défini par la liste des arguments positionnels de `vformat()`, et le paramètre *kwargs* est défini par le dictionnaire des arguments mot-clefs.

Pour les noms de champs composés, ces fonctions sont uniquement appelées sur la première composante du nom. Les composantes suivantes sont manipulées au travers des attributs normaux et des opérations sur les indices.

Donc par exemple, le champ-expression `0.name` amènerait `get_value()` à être appelée avec un argument *key* valant `0`. L'attribut `name` sera recherché après l'appel `get_value()` en faisant appel à la primitive `getattr()`.

Si l'indice ou le mot-clef fait référence à un objet qui n'existe pas, alors une exception `IndexError` ou `KeyError` doit être levée.

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

Implémente une vérification pour les arguments non utilisés si désiré. L'argument de cette fonction est l'ensemble des clefs qui ont été effectivement référencées dans la chaîne de format (des entiers pour les indices et des chaînes de caractères pour les arguments nommés), et une référence vers les arguments *args* et *kwargs* qui ont été passés à `vformat`. L'ensemble des arguments non utilisés peut être calculé sur base de ces paramètres. `check_unused_args()` est censée lever une exception si la vérification échoue.

format_field(*value*, *format_spec*)

La méthode `format_field()` fait simplement appel à la primitive globale `format()`. Cette méthode est fournie afin que les sous-classes puisse la redéfinir.

convert_field(*value*, *conversion*)

Convertit la valeur (renvoyée par `get_field()`) selon un type de conversion donné (comme dans le *tuple* renvoyé par la méthode `parse()`). La version par défaut comprend "s" (*str*), "r" (*repr*) et "a" (ASCII) comme types de conversion.

7.1.3 Syntaxe de formatage de chaîne

La méthode `str.format()` et la classe `Formatter` utilisent la même syntaxe pour le formatage de chaînes (même si pour `Formatter`, les sous-classes peuvent définir leur propre syntaxe de chaînes de format).

Les chaînes de formatage contiennent des « champs de remplacement » entourés d'accolades `{}`. Tout ce qui n'est pas placé entre deux accolades est considéré comme littéral, qui est copié tel quel dans le résultat. Si vous avez besoin d'inclure une accolade en littéral, elles peuvent être échappées en les doublant : `{{` et `}}`.

La grammaire pour un champ de remplacement est défini comme suit :

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

En termes moins formels, un champ de remplacement peut débuter par un *field_name* qui spécifie l'objet dont la valeur va être formatée et insérée dans le résultat à l'endroit du champ de remplacement. Le *field_name* peut éventuellement être suivi d'un champ *conversion* qui est précédé d'un point d'exclamation '!', et d'un *format_spec* qui est précédé par deux-points ':'. Cela définit un format personnalisé pour le remplacement d'une valeur.

Voir également la section *Mini-langage de spécification de format*.

Le champ *field_name* débute par un *arg_name* qui est soit un nombre, soit un mot-clef. Si c'est un nombre, il fait référence à un des arguments positionnels et si c'est un mot-clef, il fait référence à un des arguments nommés. Si les valeurs numériques de *arg_name* dans une chaîne de format sont 0, 1, 2, ... dans l'ordre, elles peuvent être omises (toutes ou aucune), et les nombres 0, 1, 2, ... seront automatiquement insérés dans cet ordre. Puisque *arg_name* n'est pas délimité par des guillemets, il n'est pas possible de spécifier des clefs de dictionnaire arbitraires (par exemple les chaînes '10' ou ':-]') dans une chaîne de format. La valeur *arg_name* peut être suivie par un nombre d'indices ou d'expressions quelconque. Une expression de la forme '.name' sélectionne l'attribut nommé en utilisant *getattr()* alors qu'une expression de la forme '[index]' recherche l'indice en utilisant *__getitem__()*.

Modifié dans la version 2.7 : The positional argument specifiers can be omitted for *str.format()* and *unicode.format()*, so '{ }' is equivalent to '{0} {1}', u'{ }' is equivalent to u'{0} {1}'.

Quelques exemples simples de formatage de chaînes :

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

Le champ *conversion* crée une contrainte de type avant de formater. Normalement, le travail de formatage d'une valeur est fait par la méthode *__format__()* de la valeur elle-même. Cependant, dans certains cas, il est désirable de forcer un type à être formaté en une chaîne, en ré-définissant sa propre définition de formatage. En convertissant une valeur en chaîne de caractère avant d'appeler la méthode *__format__()*, on outrepassa la logique usuelle de formatage.

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

Quelques exemples :

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

Le champ *format_spec* contient une spécification sur la manière selon laquelle la valeur devrait être représentée : des informations telles que la longueur du champ, l'alignement, le remplissage, la précision décimale,

etc. Chaque type peut définir son propre « mini-langage de formatage » ou sa propre interprétation de *format_spec*.

La plupart des types natifs supportent un mini-langage de formatage usuel qui est décrit dans la section suivante.

Un champ *format_spec* peut contenir un champ de remplacement imbriqué. Ces champs de remplacement imbriqués peuvent contenir un nom de champ, un indicateur de conversion, mais une imbrication récursive plus profonde n'est pas permise. Les champs de remplacement au sein de *format_spec* sont substitués avant que la chaîne *format_spec* ne soit interprétée. Cela permet que le formatage d'une valeur soit dynamiquement spécifié.

Voir la section *Exemples de formats* pour des exemples.

Mini-langage de spécification de format

Les « spécifications de format » sont utilisées pour les champs de remplacement contenus dans une chaîne de format pour définir comment la valeur doit être représentée (voir *Syntaxe de formatage de chaîne*). Elles peuvent également être passées directement à la primitive *format()*. Chaque type formattable peut définir comment interpréter la spécification de format.

La plupart des primitives implémentent les options suivantes, même si certaines options de formatage ne sont supportées que pour les types numériques.

Une convention généralement admise est qu'une chaîne vide ("") produit le même résultat que si vous aviez appelé *str()* sur la valeur. Une chaîne de format non vide modifie typiquement le résultat.

La forme générale d'un *spécificateur de format standard* est :

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

Si une valeur *align* valide est spécifiée, la valeur peut être représentée par un caractère *fill* de remplissage qui peut être n'importe quel caractère et qui vaut espace par défaut si il est omis. Il est impossible d'utiliser un littéral « accolade » (« { » ou « } ») en tant que caractère *fill* quand la méthode *str.format()* est utilisée. Cependant, il est possible d'insérer une accolade avec un champ de remplacement imbriqué. Cette limite n'affecte pas la fonction *format()*.

Le sens des différentes options d'alignement est donné comme suit :

Op-tion	Signification
'<'	Force le champ à être aligné à gauche dans l'espace disponible (c'est le spécificateur par défaut pour la plupart des objets).
'>'	Force le champ à être aligné à droite dans l'espace disponible (c'est le spécificateur par défaut pour les nombres).
'='	Force le remplissage (<i>padding</i>) à être placé après le signe (si signe il y a) mais avant les chiffres. L'option est utilisée pour afficher les champs sous la forme « +000000120 ». Cette option d'alignement est valide uniquement pour les types numériques. Elle devient activée par défaut quand « 0 » précède directement la largeur de champ.
'^'	Force le champ à être centré dans l'espace disponible.

Notons que la longueur du champ est toujours égale à la la taille nécessaire pour remplir le champ avec l'objet à moins que la valeur minimum ne soit précisée. Ainsi, si aucune valeur n'est précisée, l'option d'alignement n'a aucun sens.

L'option *sign* est uniquement valide pour les type numériques, et peut valoir :

Op-tion	Signification
'+'	Indique que le signe doit être affiché pour les nombres tant positifs que négatifs.
'-'	Indique que le signe doit être affiché uniquement pour les nombres négatifs (c'est le comportement par défaut).
es-space	Indique qu'un espace doit précéder les nombres positifs et qu'un signe moins doit précéder les nombres négatifs.

The '#' option is only valid for integers, and only for binary, octal, or hexadecimal output. If present, it specifies that the output will be prefixed by '0b', '0o', or '0x', respectively.

L'option ',' signale l'utilisation d'une virgule comme séparateur des milliers. Pour un séparateur conscient de l'environnement linguistique, utilisez plutôt le type de présentation entière 'n'.

Modifié dans la version 2.7 : Ajout de l'option ',' (voir [PEP 378](#)).

width est un entier en base 10 qui définit la longueur minimale du champ. Si elle n'est pas spécifiée, alors le champ *width* est déterminé par le contenu.

Quand aucun alignement explicite n'est donné, précéder le champs *width* d'un caractère zéro ('0') active le remplissage par zéro des types numériques selon leur signe. Cela est équivalent à un caractère de remplissage *fill* valant '0' avec le type d'alignement *alignment* valant '='.

La valeur *precision* est un nombre en base 10 indiquant combien de chiffres doivent être affichés après la virgule pour une valeur à virgule flottante formatée avec 'f' ou 'F', ou avant et après le point-décimal pour une valeur à virgule flottante formatée avec 'g' ou 'G'. Pour les types non numériques, ce champ indique la taille maximale du champ, autrement dit, combien de caractères du champ sont utilisés. Le spécificateur *precision* n'est pas autorisé sur les entiers.

Finalement, le spécificateur *type* détermine comment la donnée doit être représentée.

Les types disponibles de représentation de chaîne sont :

Type	Signification
's'	Format de chaîne. C'est le type par défaut pour les chaînes de caractères et peut être omis.
<i>None</i>	Pareil que 's'.

Les types disponibles de représentation d'entier sont :

Type	Signification
'b'	Format binaire. Affiche le nombre en base 2.
'c'	Caractère. Convertit l'entier en le caractère Unicode associé avant de l'afficher.
'd'	Entier décimal. Affiche le nombre en base 10.
'o'	Format octal. Affiche le nombre en base 8.
'x'	Format hexadécimal. Affiche le nombre en base 16 en utilisant les lettres minuscules pour les chiffres au-dessus de 9.
'X'	Format hexadécimal. Affiche le nombre en base 16 en utilisant les lettres majuscules pour les chiffres au-dessus de 9.
'n'	Nombre. Pareil que 'd' si ce n'est que l'environnement linguistique est utilisé afin de déterminer le séparateur de nombres approprié.
<i>None</i>	Pareil que 'd'.

En plus des types de représentation ci-dessus, les entiers peuvent aussi être formatés avec les types de représentation des flottants listés ci-dessous (à l'exception de 'n' et None). Dans ce cas, la fonction `float()` est utilisée pour convertir l'entier en flottant avant le formatage.

les types de représentation pour les nombres flottants et les valeurs décimales sont :

Type	Signification
'e'	Notation par exposant. Affiche le nombre dans sa notation scientifique en utilisant la lettre "e" pour indiquer l'exposant. La précision par défaut est 6.
'E'	Notation par exposant. Pareil que 'e' sauf l'utilisation de la lettre majuscule "E" comme séparateur.
'f'	Fixed-point notation. Displays the number as a fixed-point number. The default precision is 6.
'F'	Fixed point notation. Same as 'f'.
'g'	Format général. Pour une précision donnée $p \geq 1$, ceci arrondit le nombre à p chiffres significatifs et puis formate le résultat soit en virgule fixe soit en notation scientifique, en fonction de la magnitude. Les règles précises sont les suivantes : supposons que le résultat formaté avec le type de représentation 'e' et une précision 1 ait un exposant exp . Alors, si $-4 \leq \text{exp} \leq p$, le nombre est formaté avec le type de représentation 'f' et une précision $p-1-\text{exp}$. Sinon, le nombre est formaté avec le type de représentation 'e' et une précision $p-1$. Dans les deux cas, les zéros finaux et non significatifs sont retirés, et la virgule est également retirée s'il n'y a aucun chiffre la suivant. Les valeurs suivantes : infini négatif, infini positif, zéro positif, zéro négatif, <i>not a number</i> sont formatées respectivement par <code>inf</code> , <code>-inf</code> , <code>0</code> , <code>-0</code> et <code>nan</code> , peu importe la précision. Une précision de 0 est interprétée comme une précision de 1. La précision par défaut est 6.
'G'	Format général. Pareil que 'G' si ce n'est que 'E' est utilisé si le nombre est trop grand. Également, la représentation des infinis et de Nan sont en majuscules également.
'n'	Nombre. Pareil que 'g', si ce n'est que l'environnement linguistique est pris en compte pour insérer le séparateur approprié.
'%'	Pourcentage. Multiplie le nombre par 100 et l'affiche en virgule fixe ('f'), suivi d'un symbole pourcent '%'. <i>None</i> The same as 'g'.

Exemples de formats

Cette section contient des exemples de la syntaxe de `str.format()` et des comparaisons avec l'ancien formatage par %.

Dans la plupart des cases, la syntaxe est similaire à l'ancien formatage par %, avec l'ajout de {} et avec : au lieu de %. Par exemple : '%03.2f' peut être changé en '{03.2f}'.

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

Accéder à un argument par sa position :

```
>>> '{0}, {1}, {2}'.format('a', 'b', 'c')
'a, b, c'
>>> '{}, {}, {}'.format('a', 'b', 'c') # 2.7+ only
'a, b, c'
>>> '{2}, {1}, {0}'.format('a', 'b', 'c')
'c, b, a'
>>> '{2}, {1}, {0}'.format(*'abc')      # unpacking argument sequence
'c, b, a'
```

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```
>>> '{0}{1}{0}'.format('abra', 'cad')  # arguments' indices can be repeated
'abracadabra'
```

Accéder à un argument par son nom :

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

Accéder aux attributs d'un argument :

```
>>> c = 3-5j
>>> ('The complex number {0} is formed from the real part {0.real} '
... 'and the imaginary part {0.imag}.').format(c)
'The complex number (3-5j) is formed from the real part 3.0 and the imaginary part -5.0.'
>>> class Point(object):
...     def __init__(self, x, y):
...         self.x, self.y = x, y
...     def __str__(self):
...         return 'Point({self.x}, {self.y})'.format(self=self)
...
>>> str(Point(4, 2))
'Point(4, 2)'
```

Accéder aux éléments d'un argument :

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

Remplacer %s et %r :

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

Aligner le texte et spécifier une longueur minimale :

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

Remplacer %+f, %-f, et %f et spécifier un signe :

```
>>> '{:+f}; {:+f}'.format(3.14, -3.14)  # show it always
'+3.140000; -3.140000'
```

(suite sur la page suivante)

(suite de la page précédente)

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

Remplacer %x et %o et convertir la valeur dans différentes bases :

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

Utiliser une virgule comme séparateur des milliers :

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

Exprimer un pourcentage :

```
>>> points = 19.5
>>> total = 22
>>> 'Correct answers: {:.2%}'.format(points/total)
'Correct answers: 88.64%'
```

Utiliser un formatage propre au type :

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

Arguments imbriqués et des exemples plus complexes :

```
>>> for align, text in zip('<^>', ['left', 'center', 'right']):
...     '{0:{fill}{align}16}'.format(text, fill=align, align=align)
...
'left<<<<<<<<<<<<'
'~~~~~center~~~~~'
'>>>>>>>>>>>>right'
>>>
>>> octets = [192, 168, 0, 1]
>>> '{:02X}{:02X}{:02X}{:02X}'.format(*octets)
'COA80001'
>>> int(_, 16)
3232235521
>>>
>>> width = 5
>>> for num in range(5,12):
...     for base in 'dXob':
...         print '{0:{width}{base}}'.format(num, base=base, width=width),
...     print
```

(suite sur la page suivante)

(suite de la page précédente)

```

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

```

7.1.4 Chaînes modèles

Nouveau dans la version 2.4.

Les modèles (*templates*) fournissent des substitutions de chaînes plus simples comme décrit dans [PEP 292](#). À la place des substitutions habituelles basées sur %, les *Templates* supportent les substitutions basées sur \$ en utilisant les règles suivantes :

- \$\$ est un échappement ; il est remplacé par un simple \$.
- \$identifiant names a substitution placeholder matching a mapping key of "identifiant". By default, "identifiant" must spell a Python identifier. The first non-identifier character after the \$ character terminates this placeholder specification.
- \${identifiant} est équivalent à \$identifiant. Cette notation est requise quand un caractère valide pour une clef de substituant suit directement le substituant mais ne fait pas partie du substituant, comme "\${noun}ification".

Tout autre présence du symbole \$ dans une chaîne résultera en la levée d'une *ValueError*.

Le module *string* fournit une classe *Template* qui implémente ces règles. Les méthodes de *Template* sont :

class *string.Template*(*template*)

Le constructeur prend un seul argument qui est la chaîne du *template*.

substitute(*mapping*[, ***kws*])

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

safe_substitute(*mapping*[, ***kws*])

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

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

Les instances de la classe *Template* fournissent également un attribut public :

template

C'est l'objet *template* passé comme argument au constructeur. En général, vous ne devriez pas le changer, mais un accès en lecture-seule n'est pas possible à fournir.

Voici un exemple de comment utiliser un *Template* :

```

>>> from string import Template
>>> s = Template('$who likes $what')
>>> s.substitute(who='tim', what='kung pao')

```

(suite sur la page suivante)

(suite de la page précédente)

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

Usage avancé : vous pouvez faire dériver vos sous-classes de *Template* pour personnaliser la syntaxe des substituants, les caractères délimiteurs, ou l'entière de l'expression rationnelle utilisée pour analyser les chaînes *templates*. Pour faire cela, vous pouvez redéfinir les attributs suivants :

- *delimiter* – La chaîne littérale décrivant le délimiteur pour introduire un substituant. Sa valeur par défaut est `$`. Notez qu'il ne doit *pas* être une expression rationnelle, puisque l'implémentation appellera *re.escape()* sur cette chaîne si nécessaire.
- *idpattern* – L'expression rationnelle décrivant le motif pour les substituants non entourés d'accolades (les accolades sont ajoutées automatiquement si c'est approprié). La valeur par défaut de cette expression rationnelle est `[_a-z][_a-z0-9]*`.

Également, vous pouvez fournir le motif d'expression rationnelle en entier en redéfinissant l'attribut *pattern*. Si vous faites cela, la valeur doit être un objet "expression rationnelle" avec quatre groupes de capture de noms. Les groupes de capture correspondent aux règles données au-dessus, ainsi qu'à la règle du substituant invalide :

- *escaped* – Ce groupe lie les séquences échappées (par exemple `$$`) dans le motif par défaut.
- *named* – Ce groupe lie les substituants non entourés d'accolades ; il ne devrait pas inclure le délimiteur dans le groupe de capture.
- *braced* – Ce groupe lie le nom entouré d'accolades ; il ne devrait inclure ni le délimiteur, ni les accolades dans le groupe de capture.
- *invalid* – Ce groupe lie tout autre motif de délimitation (habituellement, un seul délimiteur) et il devrait apparaître en dernier dans l'expression rationnelle.

7.1.5 String functions

The following functions are available to operate on string and Unicode objects. They are not available as string methods.

string.capwords(*s* [, *sep*])

Divise l'argument en mots en utilisant *str.split()*, capitalise chaque mot en utilisant *str.capitalize()* et assemble les mots capitalisés en utilisant *str.join()*. Si le second argument optionnel *sep* est absent ou vaut `None`, les séquences de caractères blancs sont remplacées par un seul espace et les espaces débutant et finissant la chaîne sont retirés. Sinon, *sep* est utilisé pour séparer et ré-assembler les mots.

string.maketrans(*from*, *to*)

Return a translation table suitable for passing to *translate()*, that will map each character in *from* into the character at the same position in *to*; *from* and *to* must have the same length.

Note : Don't use strings derived from *lowercase* and *uppercase* as arguments; in some locales, these don't have the same length. For case conversions, always use *str.lower()* and *str.upper()*.

7.1.6 Deprecated string functions

The following list of functions are also defined as methods of string and Unicode objects ; see section *Méthodes de chaînes de caractères* for more information on those. You should consider these functions as deprecated, although they will not be removed until Python 3. The functions defined in this module are :

string.atof(*s*)

Obsolète depuis la version 2.0 : Use the *float()* built-in function.

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.

Note : When passing in a string, values for NaN and Infinity may be returned, depending on the underlying C library. The specific set of strings accepted which cause these values to be returned depends entirely on the C library and is known to vary.

string.atoi(*s*[, *base*])

Obsolète depuis la version 2.0 : Use the *int()* built-in function.

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, though not required. This behaves identically 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()*.)

string.atol(*s*[, *base*])

Obsolète depuis la version 2.0 : Use the *long()* built-in function.

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.

string.capitalize(*word*)

Return a copy of *word* with only its first character capitalized.

string.expandtabs(*s*[, *tabsize*])

Expand tabs in a string replacing 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. The tab size defaults to 8.

string.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.

string.rfind(*s*, *sub*[, *start*[, *end*]])

Like *find()* but find the highest index.

string.index(*s*, *sub*[, *start*[, *end*]])

Like *find()* but raise *ValueError* when the substring is not found.

string.rindex(*s*, *sub*[, *start*[, *end*]])

Like *rfind()* but raise *ValueError* when the substring is not found.

string.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 are the same as for slices.

`string.lower(s)`

Return a copy of *s*, but with upper case letters converted to lower case.

`string.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 item than the number of non-overlapping occurrences of the separator in the string. If *maxsplit* is given, 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). If *maxsplit* is not specified or `-1`, then there is no limit on the number of splits (all possible splits are made).

The behavior of `split` on an empty string depends on the value of *sep*. If *sep* is not specified, or specified as `None`, the result will be an empty list. If *sep* is specified as any string, the result will be a list containing one element which is an empty string.

`string.rsplit(s[, sep[, maxsplit]])`

Return a list of the words of the string *s*, scanning *s* from the end. To all intents and purposes, the resulting list of words is the same as returned by `split()`, except when the optional third argument *maxsplit* is explicitly specified and nonzero. If *maxsplit* is given, at most *maxsplit* number of splits – the *rightmost* ones – occur, and the remainder of the string is returned as the first element of the list (thus, the list will have at most *maxsplit*+1 elements).

Nouveau dans la version 2.4.

`string.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.)

`string.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*.

`string.joinfields(words[, sep])`

This function behaves identically to `join()`. (In the past, `join()` was only used with one argument, while `joinfields()` was only used with two arguments.) Note that there is no `joinfields()` method on string objects; use the `join()` method instead.

`string.lstrip(s[, chars])`

Return a copy of the string with leading characters removed. If *chars* is omitted or `None`, whitespace characters are removed. If given and not `None`, *chars* must be a string; the characters in the string will be stripped from the beginning of the string this method is called on.

Modifié dans la version 2.2.3 : The *chars* parameter was added. The *chars* parameter cannot be passed in earlier 2.2 versions.

`string.rstrip(s[, chars])`

Return a copy of the string with trailing characters removed. If *chars* is omitted or `None`, whitespace characters are removed. If given and not `None`, *chars* must be a string; the characters in the string will be stripped from the end of the string this method is called on.

Modifié dans la version 2.2.3 : The *chars* parameter was added. The *chars* parameter cannot be passed in earlier 2.2 versions.

`string.strip(s[, chars])`

Return a copy of the string with leading and trailing characters removed. If *chars* is omitted or `None`, whitespace characters are removed. If given and not `None`, *chars* must be a string; the characters in the string will be stripped from the both ends of the string this method is called on.

Modifié dans la version 2.2.3 : The *chars* parameter was added. The *chars* parameter cannot be passed in earlier 2.2 versions.

`string.swapcase(s)`

Return a copy of *s*, but with lower case letters converted to upper case and vice versa.

`string.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. If *table* is `None`, then only the character deletion step is performed.

`string.upper(s)`

Return a copy of *s*, but with lower case letters converted to upper case.

`string.ljust(s, width[, fillchar])`

`string.rjust(s, width[, fillchar])`

`string.center(s, width[, fillchar])`

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 the character *fillchar* (default is a space) until the given width on the right, left or both sides. The string is never truncated.

`string.zfill(s, width)`

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

`string.replace(s, old, new[, maxreplace])`

Return a copy of string *s* with all occurrences of substring *old* replaced by *new*. If the optional argument *maxreplace* is given, the first *maxreplace* occurrences are replaced.

7.2 re — Opérations à base d'expressions rationnelles

This module provides regular expression matching operations similar to those found in Perl. Both patterns and strings to be searched can be Unicode strings as well as 8-bit strings.

Les expressions rationnelles utilisent le caractère *backslash* (`'\'`) pour indiquer des formes spéciales ou permettre d'utiliser des caractères spéciaux sans en invoquer le sens. Cela entre en conflit avec l'utilisation en Python du même caractère pour la même raison dans les chaînes littérales ; par exemple, pour rechercher un *backslash* littéral il faudrait écrire `'\\\\'` comme motif, parce que l'expression rationnelle devrait être `\\` et chaque *backslash* doit être représenté par `\\` au sein des chaînes littérales Python.

La solution est d'utiliser la notation des chaînes brutes en Python pour les expressions rationnelles ; Les *backslashes* ne provoquent aucun traitement spécifique dans les chaînes littérales préfixées par `'r'`. Ainsi, `r"\n"` est une chaîne de deux caractères contenant `'\'` et `'n'`, tandis que `"\n"` est une chaîne contenant un unique caractère : un saut de ligne. Généralement, les motifs seront exprimés en Python à l'aide de chaînes brutes.

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

Voir aussi :

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

7.2.1 Syntaxe des expressions rationnelles

Une expression rationnelle (*regular expression* ou *RE*) spécifie un ensemble de chaînes de caractères qui lui correspondent ; les fonctions de ce module vous permettent de vérifier si une chaîne particulière corres-

pond à une expression rationnelle donnée (ou si une expression rationnelle donnée correspond à une chaîne particulière, ce qui revient à la même chose).

Les expressions rationnelles peuvent être concaténées pour former de nouvelles expressions : si A et B sont deux expressions rationnelles, alors AB est aussi une expression rationnelle. En général, si une chaîne p valide A et qu'une autre chaîne q valide B , la chaîne pq validera AB . Cela est vrai tant que A et B ne contiennent pas d'opérations de précédence ; de conditions liées entre A et B ; ou de références vers des groupes numérotés. Ainsi, des expressions complexes peuvent facilement être construites depuis de plus simples expressions primitives comme celles décrites ici. Pour plus de détails sur la théorie et l'implémentation des expressions rationnelles, consultez le livre de Frieid référencé plus tôt, ou à peu près n'importe quel livre dédié à la construction de compilateurs.

Une brève explication sur le format des expressions rationnelles suit. Pour de plus amples informations et une présentation plus simple, référez-vous au `regex-howto`.

Les expressions rationnelles peuvent contenir à la fois des caractères spéciaux et ordinaires. Les plus ordinaires, comme `'A'`, `'a'` ou `'0'` sont les expressions rationnelles les plus simples : elles correspondent simplement à elles-mêmes. Vous pouvez concaténer des caractères ordinaires, ainsi `last` correspond à la chaîne `'last'`. (Dans la suite de cette section, nous écrirons les expressions rationnelles dans **ce style spécifique**, généralement sans guillemets, et les chaînes à tester **'entourées de simples guillemets'**.)

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. Regular expression pattern strings may not contain null bytes, but can specify the null byte using the `\number` notation, e.g., `'\x00'`.

Les caractères de répétition (`*`, `+`, `?`, `{m,n}`, etc.) ne peuvent être directement imbriqués. Cela empêche l'ambiguïté avec le suffixe modificateur non gourmand `?` et avec les autres modificateurs dans d'autres implémentations. Pour appliquer une seconde répétition à une première, des parenthèses peuvent être utilisées. Par exemple, l'expression `(?:a{6})*` valide toutes les chaînes composées d'un nombre de caractères `'a'` multiple de six.

Les caractères spéciaux sont :

- `'.'` (Point.) Dans le mode par défaut, il valide tout caractère à l'exception du saut de ligne. Si l'option `DOTALL` a été spécifiée, il valide tout caractère, saut de ligne compris.
- `'^'` (Accent circonflexe.) Valide le début d'une chaîne de caractères, ainsi que ce qui suit chaque saut de ligne en mode `MULTILINE`.
- `'$'` Valide la fin d'une chaîne de caractères, ou juste avant le saut de ligne à la fin de la chaîne, ainsi qu'avant chaque saut de ligne en mode `MULTILINE`. `foo` valide à la fois `foo` et `foobar`, tandis que l'expression rationnelle `foo$` ne correspond qu'à `'foo'`. Plus intéressant, chercher `foo.$` dans `'foo1\nfoo2\n'` trouve normalement `'foo2'`, mais `'foo1'` en mode `MULTILINE` ; chercher un simple `$` dans `'foo\n'` trouvera deux correspondances (vides) : une juste avant le saut de ligne, et une à la fin de la chaîne.
- `'*'` Fait valider par l'expression rationnelle résultante 0 répétition ou plus de l'expression qui précède, avec autant de répétitions que possible. `ab*` validera `"a"`, `"ab"` ou `"a"` suivi de n'importe quel nombre de `"b"`.
- `'+'` Fait valider par l'expression rationnelle résultante 1 répétition ou plus de l'expression qui précède. `ab+` validera `"a"` suivi de n'importe quel nombre non nul de `"b"` ; cela ne validera pas la chaîne `"a"`.
- `'?'` Fait valider par l'expression rationnelle résultante 0 ou 1 répétition de l'expression qui précède. `ab?` correspondra à `"a"` ou `"ab"`.
- `*?`, `+?`, `??` Les qualificateurs `'*'`, `'+'` et `'?'` sont tous *greedy* (gourmands) ; ils valident autant de texte que possible. Parfois ce comportement n'est pas désiré ; si l'expression rationnelle `<.*>` est testée avec la chaîne `<a> b <c>`, cela correspondra à la chaîne entière, et non juste à `<a>`. Ajouter `?` derrière le qualificateur lui fait réaliser l'opération de façon *non-greedy* (ou *minimal*) ; le *moins* de caractères possibles seront validés. Utiliser l'expression rationnelle `<.*?>` validera uniquement `<a>`.

- `{m}` Spécifie qu'exactly m copies de l'expression rationnelle qui précède devront être validées ; un nombre plus faible de correspondances empêche l'expression entière de correspondre. Par exemple, `a{6}` correspondra exactement à six caractères 'a', mais pas à cinq.
- `{m,n}` Implique à l'expression rationnelle résultante de valider entre m et n répétitions de l'expression qui précède, cherchant à en valider le plus possible. Par exemple, `a{3,5}` validera entre 3 et 5 caractères 'a'. Omettre m revient à spécifier 0 comme borne inférieure, et omettre n à avoir une borne supérieure infinie. Par exemple, `a{4,}b` correspondra à `aaaab` ou à un millier de caractères 'a' suivis d'un `b`, mais pas à `aaab`. La virgule ne doit pas être omise, auquel cas le modificateur serait confondu avec la forme décrite précédemment.
- `{m,n}?` Fait valider par l'expression rationnelle résultante entre m et n répétitions de l'expression qui précède, cherchant à en valider le moins possible. Il s'agit de la version non gourmande du précédent qualificateur. Par exemple, dans la chaîne de 6 caractères 'aaaaaa', `a{3,5}` trouvera 5 caractères 'a', alors que `a{3,5}?` n'en trouvera que 3.
- `'\'` Échappe les caractères spéciaux (permettant d'identifier des caractères comme '*', '?' et autres) ou signale une séquence spéciale ; les séquences spéciales sont décrites ci-dessous.
Si vous n'utilisez pas de chaînes brutes pour exprimer le motif, souvenez-vous que Python utilise aussi le *backslash* comme une séquence d'échappement dans les chaînes littérales ; si la séquence d'échappement n'est pas reconnue par l'interpréteur Python, le *backslash* et les caractères qui le suivent sont inclus dans la chaîne renvoyée. Cependant, si Python reconnaît la séquence, le *backslash* doit être doublé (pour ne plus être reconnu). C'est assez compliqué et difficile à comprendre, c'est pourquoi il est hautement recommandé d'utiliser des chaînes brutes pour tout sauf les expressions les plus simples.
- `[]` Utilisé pour indiquer un ensemble de caractères. Dans un ensemble :
 - Les caractères peuvent être listés individuellement, e.g. `[amk]` correspondra à 'a', 'm' ou 'k'.
 - Des intervalles de caractères peuvent être indiqués en donnant deux caractères et les séparant par un '-', par exemple `[a-z]` correspondra à toute lettre minuscule *ASCII*, `[0-5]` `[0-9]` à tous nombres de deux chiffres entre 00 et 59, et `[0-9A-Fa-f]` correspondra à n'importe quel chiffre hexadécimal. Si '-' est échappé (`[a\ -z]`) ou s'il est placé comme premier ou dernier caractère (e.g. `[a-]`), il correspondra à un '-' littéral.
 - Les caractères spéciaux perdent leur sens à l'intérieur des ensembles. Par exemple, `[(+*)]` validera chacun des caractères littéraux '(', '+', '*' ou ')'
 - Character classes such as `\w` or `\S` (defined below) are also accepted inside a set, although the characters they match depends on whether *LOCALE* or *UNICODE* mode is in force.
 - Les caractères qui ne sont pas dans un intervalle peuvent être trouvés avec l'ensemble complémentaire (*complementing*). Si le premier caractère de l'ensemble est '^', tous les caractères qui *ne sont pas* dans l'ensemble seront validés. Par exemple, `[^5]` correspondra à tout caractère autre que '5' et `[^^]` validera n'importe quel caractère excepté '^'. ^ n'a pas de sens particulier s'il n'est pas le premier caractère de l'ensemble.
 - Pour insérer un ')' littéral dans un ensemble, il faut le précéder d'un *backslash* ou le placer au début de l'ensemble. Par exemple, `[(\)]{}` et `[](\){}` vont tous deux correspondre à une parenthèse, un crochet ou une accolade.
- `'|'` `A|B`, où A et B peuvent être deux expressions rationnelles arbitraires, crée une expression rationnelle qui validera à la fois A et B. Un nombre arbitraire d'expressions peuvent être séparées de cette façon par des '|'. Cela peut aussi être utilisé au sein de groupes (voir ci-dessous). Quand une chaîne cible est analysée, les expressions séparées par '|' sont essayées de la gauche vers la droite. Quand un motif correspond complètement, cette branche est acceptée. Cela signifie qu'une fois que A correspond, B ne sera pas testée plus loin, même si elle pourrait provoquer une plus ample correspondance. En d'autres termes, l'opérateur '|' n'est jamais gourmand. Pour valider un '|' littéral, utilisez `\|`, ou enveloppez-le dans une classe de caractères, comme `[|]`.
- `(...)` Valide n'importe quelle expression rationnelle comprise entre les parenthèses, et indique le début et la fin d'un groupe ; le contenu d'un groupe peut être récupéré après qu'une analyse a été effectuée, et peut être réutilisé plus loin dans la chaîne avec une séquence spéciale `\number`, décrite ci-dessous. Pour

écrire des '(' ou ')' littéraux, utilisez \ (ou \), ou enveloppez-les dans une classe de caractères : `[([]]`.

(?...) Il s'agit d'une notation pour les extensions (un '?' suivant une '(' n'a pas de sens autrement). Le premier caractère après le '?' détermine quel sens donner à l'expression. Les extensions ne créent généralement pas de nouveaux groupes ; (?P<name>...) est la seule exception à la règle. Retrouvez ci-dessous la liste des extensions actuellement supportées.

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

Note that the (?x) flag changes how the expression is parsed. It should be used first in the expression string, or after one or more whitespace characters. If there are non-whitespace characters before the flag, the results are undefined.

(?:...) Une version sans capture des parenthèses habituelles. Valide n'importe quelle expression rationnelle à l'intérieur des parenthèses, mais la sous-chaîne correspondant au groupe *ne peut pas* être récupérée après l'analyse ou être référencée plus loin dans le motif.

(?P<name>...) Similaires aux parenthèses habituelles, mais la sous-chaîne validée par le groupe est accessible via le nom *name* du groupe symbolique. Les noms de groupes doivent être des identifiants Python valides, et chaque nom de groupe ne doit être défini qu'une seule fois dans une expression rationnelle. Un groupe symbolique est aussi un groupe numéroté, de la même manière que si le groupe n'était pas nommé.

Les groupes nommés peuvent être référencés dans trois contextes. Si le motif est (?P<quote>["']). *?(?P=quote) (i.e. correspondant à une chaîne entourée de guillemets simples ou doubles) :

Contexte de référence au groupe <i>quote</i>	Manières de le référencer
lui-même dans le même motif	— (?P=quote) (comme vu) — \1
en analysant l'objet résultat <i>m</i>	— <i>m.group('quote')</i> — <i>m.end('quote')</i> (etc.)
dans une chaîne passée à l'argument <i>repl</i> de <i>re.sub()</i>	— \g<quote> — \g<1> — \1

(?P=name) Une référence arrière à un groupe nommé ; elle correspond à n'importe quel texte validé plus tôt par le groupe nommé *name*.

(?#...) Un commentaire ; le contenu des parenthèses est simplement ignoré.

(?=...) Valide si ... valide la suite, mais ne consomme rien de la chaîne. On appelle cela une *assertion lookahead*. Par exemple, *Isaac* (?=Asimov) correspondra à la chaîne '*Isaac*' seulement si elle est suivie par '*Asimov*'.

(?!...) Valide si ... ne valide pas la suite. C'est une *assertion lookahead* négative. Par exemple, *Isaac* (?!Asimov) correspondra à la chaîne '*Isaac*' seulement si elle *n'est pas* suivie par '*Asimov*'.

(?<=...) Matches if the current position in the string is preceded by a match for ... that ends at the current position. This is called a *positive lookbehind assertion*. (?<=abc)def will find a match in abcdef, since the lookbehind will back up 3 characters and check if the contained pattern matches. The contained pattern must only match strings of some fixed length, meaning that abc or a|b are

allowed, but `a*` and `a{3,4}` are not. Group references are not supported even if they match strings of some fixed length. Note that patterns which start with positive lookbehind assertions will not match at the beginning of the string being searched; you will most likely want to use the `search()` function rather than the `match()` function :

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

Cet exemple recherche un mot suivi d'un trait d'union :

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

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

(?(id/name)yes-pattern|no-pattern) Will try to match with **yes-pattern** if the group with given *id* or *name* exists, and with **no-pattern** if it doesn't. **no-pattern** is optional and can be omitted. For example, `(<)?(\w+@(\w+)?(\.|\w+)+)(?(1)>)` is a poor email matching pattern, which will match with `<user@host.com>` as well as `user@host.com`, but not with `<user@host.com`.

Nouveau dans la version 2.4.

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 Correspond au contenu du groupe du même nombre. Les groupes sont numérotés à partir de 1. Par exemple, `(.+)\1` correspond à `'the the'` ou `'55 55'`, mais pas à `'thethe'` (notez l'espace après le groupe). Cette séquence spéciale ne peut être utilisée que pour faire référence aux 99 premiers groupes. Si le premier chiffre de *number* est 0, ou si *number* est un nombre octal de 3 chiffres, il ne sera pas interprété comme une référence à un groupe, mais comme le caractère à la valeur octale *number*. À l'intérieur des `'['` et `']'` d'une classe de caractères, tous les échappements numériques sont traités comme des caractères.

\A Correspond uniquement au début d'une chaîne de caractères.

\b Matches the empty string, but only at the beginning or end of a word. A word is defined as a sequence of alphanumeric or underscore characters, so the end of a word is indicated by whitespace or a non-alphanumeric, non-underscore character. Note that formally, `\b` is defined as the boundary between a `\w` and a `\W` character (or vice versa), or between `\w` and the beginning/end of the string, so the precise set of characters deemed to be alphanumeric depends on the values of the `UNICODE` and `LOCALE` flags. For example, `r'\bfoo\b'` matches `'foo'`, `'foo.'`, `'(foo)'`, `'bar foo baz'` but not `'foobar'` or `'foo3'`. Inside a character range, `\b` represents the backspace character, for compatibility with Python's string literals.

\B Matches the empty string, but only when it is *not* at the beginning or end of a word. This means that `r'py\B'` matches `'python'`, `'py3'`, `'py2'`, but not `'py'`, `'py.'`, or `'py!'`. `\B` is just the opposite of `\b`, so is also subject to the settings of `LOCALE` and `UNICODE`.

\d When the `UNICODE` flag is not specified, matches any decimal digit; this is equivalent to the set `[0-9]`. With `UNICODE`, it will match whatever is classified as a decimal digit in the Unicode character properties database.

\D When the `UNICODE` flag is not specified, matches any non-digit character; this is equivalent to the set `[^0-9]`. With `UNICODE`, it will match anything other than character marked as digits in the Unicode character properties database.

- `\s` When the [UNICODE](#) flag is not specified, it matches any whitespace character, this is equivalent to the set `[\t\n\r\f\v]`. The [LOCALE](#) flag has no extra effect on matching of the space. If [UNICODE](#) is set, this will match the characters `[\t\n\r\f\v]` plus whatever is classified as space in the Unicode character properties database.
- `\S` When the [UNICODE](#) flag is not specified, matches any non-whitespace character; this is equivalent to the set `[^\t\n\r\f\v]`. The [LOCALE](#) flag has no extra effect on non-whitespace match. If [UNICODE](#) is set, then any character not marked as space in the Unicode character properties database is matched.
- `\w` When the [LOCALE](#) and [UNICODE](#) flags are not specified, matches any alphanumeric character and the underscore; 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 alphanumeric for the current locale. If [UNICODE](#) is set, this will match the characters `[0-9_]` plus whatever is classified as alphanumeric in the Unicode character properties database.
- `\W` When the [LOCALE](#) and [UNICODE](#) flags are 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 alphanumeric for the current locale. If [UNICODE](#) is set, this will match anything other than `[0-9_]` plus characters classified as not alphanumeric in the Unicode character properties database.
- `\Z` Correspond uniquement à la fin d'une chaîne de caractères.

If both [LOCALE](#) and [UNICODE](#) flags are included for a particular sequence, then [LOCALE](#) flag takes effect first followed by the [UNICODE](#).

La plupart des échappements standards supportés par les chaînes littérales sont aussi acceptés par l'analyseur d'expressions rationnelles :

<code>\a</code>	<code>\b</code>	<code>\f</code>	<code>\n</code>
<code>\r</code>	<code>\t</code>	<code>\v</code>	<code>\x</code>
<code>\\</code>			

(Notez que `\b` est utilisé pour représenter les bornes d'un mot, et signifie « *backspace* » uniquement à l'intérieur d'une classe de caractères.)

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

Voir aussi :

Maîtriser les expression rationnelles Livre sur les expressions rationnelles par Jeffrey Friedl, publié chez O'Reilly. La seconde édition de ce livre ne couvre plus du tout Python, mais la première version explique en détails comment écrire de bonnes expressions rationnelles.

7.2.2 Contenu du module

Le module définit plusieurs fonctions, constantes, et une exception. Certaines fonctions sont des versions simplifiées des méthodes plus complètes des expressions rationnelles compilées. La plupart des applications non triviales utilisent toujours la version compilée.

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

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

Le comportement des expressions peut être modifié en spécifiant une valeur `flags`. Les valeurs sont comprises dans les variables suivantes, et peuvent être combinées avec un *ou* bit-à-bit (opérateur `|`).

La séquence :

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

est équivalente à :

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

mais utiliser `re.compile()` et sauvegarder l'expression rationnelle renvoyée pour la réutiliser est plus efficace quand l'expression est amenée à être utilisée plusieurs fois dans un même programme.

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

`re.DEBUG`

Affiche des informations de debug à propos de l'expression compilée.

`re.I`

`re.IGNORECASE`

Perform case-insensitive matching ; expressions like `[A-Z]` will match lowercase letters, too. This is not affected by the current locale. To get this effect on non-ASCII Unicode characters such as `ü` and `Û`, add the `UNICODE` flag.

`re.L`

`re.LOCALE`

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

`re.M`

`re.MULTILINE`

Quand spécifiée, le caractère `^` correspond au début d'une chaîne et au début d'une ligne (caractère suivant directement le saut de ligne) ; et le caractère `$` correspond à la fin d'une chaîne et à la fin d'une ligne (juste avant le saut de ligne). Par défaut, `^` correspond uniquement au début de la chaîne, et `$` uniquement à la fin de la chaîne, ou immédiatement avant le saut de ligne (s'il y a) à la fin de la chaîne.

`re.S`

`re.DOTALL`

Fait correspondre tous les caractères possibles à `.`, incluant le saut de ligne ; sans cette option, `.` correspondrait à tout caractère à l'exception du saut de ligne.

`re.U`

`re.UNICODE`

Make the `\w`, `\W`, `\b`, `\B`, `\d`, `\D`, `\s` and `\S` sequences dependent on the Unicode character properties database. Also enables non-ASCII matching for `IGNORECASE`.

Nouveau dans la version 2.0.

`re.X`

`re.VERBOSE`

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

Cela signifie que les deux expressions rationnelles suivantes qui valident un nombre décimal sont fonctionnellement égales :


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

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

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

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

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

Notez que même en mode *MULTILINE*, *re.match()* ne validera qu'au début de la chaîne et non au début de chaque ligne.

Si vous voulez trouver une correspondance n'importe où dans *string*, utilisez plutôt *search()* (voir aussi *search()* vs. *match()*).

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

Split *string* by the occurrences of *pattern*. If capturing parentheses are used in *pattern*, then the text of all groups in the pattern are also returned as part of the resulting list. If *maxsplit* is nonzero, at most *maxsplit* splits occur, and the remainder of the string is returned as the final element of the list. (Incompatibility note : in the original Python 1.5 release, *maxsplit* was ignored. This has been fixed in later releases.)

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

S'il y a des groupes capturants dans le séparateur et qu'ils trouvent une correspondance au début de la chaîne, le résultat commencera par une chaîne vide. La même chose se produit pour la fin de la chaîne :

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

That way, separator components are always found at the same relative indices within the result list (e.g., if there's one capturing group in the separator, the 0th, the 2nd and so forth).

Note that *split* will never split a string on an empty pattern match. For example :

```
>>> re.split('x*', 'foo')
['foo']
>>> re.split("(?m)~$", "foo\n\nbar\n")
['foo\n\nbar\n']
```

Modifié dans la version 2.7 : Ajout de l'argument optionnel *flags*.

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

Return all non-overlapping matches of *pattern* in *string*, as a list of strings. The *string* is scanned

left-to-right, and matches are returned in the order found. If one or more groups are present in the pattern, return a list of groups; this will be a list of tuples if the pattern has more than one group. Empty matches are included in the result.

Note : Due to the limitation of the current implementation the character following an empty match is not included in a next match, so `findall(r'^|\w+', 'two words')` returns `['', 'wo', 'words']` (note missed « t »). This is changed in Python 3.7.

Nouveau dans la version 1.5.2.

Modifié dans la version 2.4 : Ajout de l'argument optionnel *flags*.

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

Return an *iterator* yielding *MatchObject* instances over all non-overlapping matches for the RE *pattern* in *string*. The *string* is scanned left-to-right, and matches are returned in the order found. Empty matches are included in the result. See also the note about *findall()*.

Nouveau dans la version 2.2.

Modifié dans la version 2.4 : Ajout de l'argument optionnel *flags*.

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

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

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

Si *repl* est une fonction, elle est appelée pour chaque occurrence non chevauchante de *pattern*. La fonction prend comme argument un objet de correspondance, et renvoie la chaîne de remplacement. Par exemple :

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

Le motif peut être une chaîne de caractères ou un objet expression rationnelle.

L'argument optionnel *count* est le nombre maximum d'occurrences du motif à remplacer : *count* ne doit pas être un nombre négatif. Si omis ou nul, toutes les occurrences seront remplacées. Les correspondances vides avec le motif sont remplacées uniquement quand elles ne sont pas adjacentes à une précédente correspondance, ainsi `sub('x*', '-', 'abc')` renvoie `'-a-b-c-'`.

Dans les arguments *repl* de type *string*, en plus des séquences d'échappement et références arrières décrites au-dessus, `\g<name>` utilisera la sous-chaîne correspondant au groupe nommé *name*, comme défini par la syntaxe `(?P<name>...)`. `\g<number>` utilise le groupe numéroté associé ; `\g<2>` est ainsi équivalent à `\2`, mais n'est pas ambigu dans un remplacement tel que `\g<2>0`, `\20` serait interprété comme une référence au groupe 20, et non une référence au groupe 2 suivie par un caractère littéral '0'. La référence arrière `\g<0>` est remplacée par la sous-chaîne entière validée par l'expression rationnelle.

Modifié dans la version 2.7 : Ajout de l'argument optionnel *flags*.

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

Réalise la même opération que `sub()`, mais renvoie un *tuple* (nouvelle_chaine, nombre_de_substitutions_réalisées).

Modifié dans la version 2.7 : Ajout de l'argument optionnel *flags*.

`re.escape(pattern)`

Escape all the characters in *pattern* except ASCII letters and numbers. This is useful if you want to match an arbitrary literal string that may have regular expression metacharacters in it. For example :

```
>>> print re.escape('python.exe')
python\.exe

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

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

`re.purge()`

Vide le cache d'expressions rationnelles.

`exception re.error`

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

7.2.3 Objets d'expressions rationnelles

`class re.RegexObject`

The *RegexObject* class supports the following methods and attributes :

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

Scan through *string* looking for a location where this regular expression produces a match, and return a corresponding *MatchObject* instance. 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.

Le second paramètre *pos* (optionnel) donne l'index dans la chaîne où la recherche doit débuter ; il vaut 0 par défaut. Cela n'est pas complètement équivalent à un *slicing* sur la chaîne ; le caractère de motif '^' correspond au début réel de la chaîne et aux positions juste après un saut de ligne, mais pas nécessairement à l'index où la recherche commence.

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

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

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

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

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

split(*string*, *maxsplit*=0)

Identique à la fonction *split()*, en utilisant le motif compilé.

findall(*string*[, *pos*[, *endpos*]])

Similaire à la fonction *findall()*, en utilisant le motif compilé, mais accepte aussi des paramètres *pos* et *endpos* optionnels qui limitent la région de recherche comme pour *match()*.

finditer(*string*[, *pos*[, *endpos*]])

Similaire à la fonction *finditer()*, en utilisant le motif compilé, mais accepte aussi des paramètres *pos* et *endpos* optionnels qui limitent la région de recherche comme pour *match()*.

sub(*repl*, *string*, *count*=0)

Identique à la fonction *sub()*, en utilisant le motif compilé.

subn(*repl*, *string*, *count*=0)

Identique à la fonction *subn()*, en utilisant le motif compilé.

flags

The regex matching flags. This is a combination of the flags given to *compile()* and any (?...) inline flags in the pattern.

groups

Le nombre de groupes de capture dans le motif.

groupindex

Un dictionnaire associant les noms de groupes symboliques définis par (?P<id>) aux groupes numérotés. Le dictionnaire est vide si aucun groupe symbolique n'est utilisé dans le motif.

pattern

La chaîne de motif depuis laquelle l'objet expression rationnelle a été compilé.

7.2.4 Objets de correspondance

class re.MatchObject

Les objets de correspondance ont toujours une valeur booléenne **True**. Puisque *match()* et *search()* renvoient **None** quand il n'y a pas de correspondance, vous pouvez tester s'il y a eu correspondance avec une simple instruction **if** :

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

Les objets de correspondance supportent les méthodes et attributs suivants :

expand(*template*)

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

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

Renvoie un ou plus sous-groupes de la correspondance. Si un seul argument est donné, le résultat est une chaîne simple ; s'il y a plusieurs arguments, le résultat est un *tuple* comprenant un élément par argument. Sans arguments, *group1* vaut par défaut zéro (la correspondance entière est

renvoyée). Si un argument *groupN* vaut zéro, l'élément associé sera la chaîne de correspondance entière ; s'il est dans l'intervalle fermé [1..99], c'est la correspondance avec le groupe de parenthèses associé. Si un numéro de groupe est négatif ou supérieur au nombre de groupes définis dans le motif, une exception `IndexError` est levée. Si un groupe est contenu dans une partie du motif qui n'a aucune correspondance, l'élément associé sera `None`. Si un groupe est contenu dans une partie du motif qui a plusieurs correspondances, seule la dernière correspondance est renvoyée.

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

Si l'expression rationnelle utilise la syntaxe `(?P<name>...)`, les arguments *groupN* peuvent alors aussi être des chaînes identifiant les groupes par leurs noms. Si une chaîne donnée en argument n'est pas utilisée comme nom de groupe dans le motif, une exception `IndexError` est levée.

Un exemple modérément compliqué :

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

Les groupes nommés peuvent aussi être référencés par leur index :

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

Si un groupe a plusieurs correspondances, seule la dernière est accessible :

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

groups([default])

Return a tuple containing all the subgroups of the match, from 1 up to however many groups are in the pattern. The *default* argument is used for groups that did not participate in the match ; it defaults to `None`. (Incompatibility note : in the original Python 1.5 release, if the tuple was one element long, a string would be returned instead. In later versions (from 1.5.1 on), a singleton tuple is returned in such cases.)

Par exemple :

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

Si on rend la partie décimale et tout ce qui la suit optionnels, tous les groupes ne figureront pas dans la correspondance. Ces groupes sans correspondance vaudront `None` sauf si une autre valeur est donnée à l'argument *default* :

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

groupdict([default])

Renvoie un dictionnaire contenant tous les sous-groupes *nommés* de la correspondance, accessibles par leurs noms. L'argument *default* est utilisé pour les groupes qui ne figurent pas dans la correspondance ; il vaut *None* par défaut. Par exemple :

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

start([group])

end([group])

Renvoie les indices de début et de fin de la sous-chaîne correspondant au groupe *group* ; *group* vaut par défaut zéro (pour récupérer les indices de la correspondance complète). Renvoie -1 si *group* existe mais ne figure pas dans la correspondance. Pour un objet de correspondance *m*, et un groupe *g* qui y figure, la sous-chaîne correspondant au groupe *g* (équivalente à *m.group(g)*) est :

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

Notez que *m.start(group)* sera égal à *m.end(group)* si *group* correspond à une chaîne vide. Par exemple, après *m = re.search('b(c?)', 'cba')*, *m.start(0)* vaut 1, *m.end(0)* vaut 2, *m.start(1)* et *m.end(1)* valent tous deux 2, et *m.start(2)* lève une exception *IndexError*.

Un exemple qui supprimera *remove_this* d'une adresse email :

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

span([group])

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

pos

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

endpos

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

lastindex

L'index entier du dernier groupe de capture validé, ou *None* si aucun groupe ne correspondait. Par exemple, les expressions (a)b, ((a)(b)) et ((ab)) auront un *lastindex* == 1 si appliquées à la chaîne 'ab', alors que l'expression (a)(b) aura un *lastindex* == 2 si appliquée à la même chaîne.

lastgroup

Le nom du dernier groupe capturant validé, ou *None* si le groupe n'a pas de nom, ou si aucun groupe ne correspondait.

re

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

string

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

7.2.5 Exemples

Checking For a Pair

Dans cet exemple, nous utiliserons cette fonction de facilité pour afficher les objets de correspondance sous une meilleure forme :

```
def displaymatch(match):
    if match is None:
        return None
    return '<Match: %r, groups=%r>' % (match.group(), match.groups())
```

Supposez que vous écriviez un jeu de poker où la main d'un joueur est représentée par une chaîne de 5 caractères avec chaque caractère représentant une carte, « a » pour l'as, « k » pour le roi (*king*), « q » pour la reine (*queen*), « j » pour le valet (*jack*), « t » pour 10 (*ten*), et les caractères de « 2 » à « 9 » représentant les cartes avec ces valeurs.

Pour vérifier qu'une chaîne donnée est une main valide, on pourrait faire comme suit :

```
>>> valid = re.compile(r"[a2-9tjqk]{5}$")
>>> displaymatch(valid.match("akt5q")) # Valid.
"<Match: 'akt5q', groups=()>"
>>> displaymatch(valid.match("akt5e")) # Invalid.
>>> displaymatch(valid.match("akt"))   # Invalid.
>>> displaymatch(valid.match("727ak")) # Valid.
"<Match: '727ak', groups=()>"
```

La dernière main, "727ak", contenait une paire, deux cartes de la même valeur. Pour valider cela avec une expression rationnelle, on pourrait utiliser des références arrière comme :

```
>>> pair = re.compile(r".*(.)*\1")
>>> displaymatch(pair.match("717ak")) # Pair of 7s.
"<Match: '717', groups=('7',)>"
>>> displaymatch(pair.match("718ak")) # No pairs.
>>> displaymatch(pair.match("354aa")) # Pair of aces.
"<Match: '354aa', groups=('a',)>"
```

To find out what card the pair consists of, one could use the `group()` method of *MatchObject* in the following manner :

```
>>> pair.match("717ak").group(1)
'7'

# Error because re.match() returns None, which doesn't have a group() method:
>>> pair.match("718ak").group(1)
Traceback (most recent call last):
  File "<pyshell#23>", line 1, in <module>
    re.match(r".*(.)*\1", "718ak").group(1)
AttributeError: 'NoneType' object has no attribute 'group'

>>> pair.match("354aa").group(1)
'a'
```


Simuler `scanf()`

Python n'a actuellement pas d'équivalent à la fonction C `scanf()`. Les expressions rationnelles sont généralement plus puissantes, mais aussi plus verbeuses, que les chaînes de format `scanf()`. Le tableau suivant présente des expressions rationnelles plus ou moins équivalentes aux éléments de formats de `scanf()`.

Élément de <code>scanf()</code>	Expression rationnelle
<code>%c</code>	<code>.</code>
<code>%5c</code>	<code>.{5}</code>
<code>%d</code>	<code>[-+]? \d+</code>
<code>%e, %E, %f, %g</code>	<code>[-+]? (\d+(\.\d*)? \.\d+) ([eE] [-+]? \d+)?</code>
<code>%i</code>	<code>[-+]? (0[xX] [\dA-Fa-f]+ 0[0-7]* \d+)</code>
<code>%o</code>	<code>[-+]? [0-7]+</code>
<code>%s</code>	<code>\S+</code>
<code>%u</code>	<code>\d+</code>
<code>%x, %X</code>	<code>[-+]? (0[xX])? [\dA-Fa-f]+</code>

Pour extraire le nom de fichier et les nombres depuis une chaîne comme :

```
/usr/sbin/sendmail - 0 errors, 4 warnings
```

vous utiliseriez un format `scanf()` comme :

```
%s - %d errors, %d warnings
```

L'expression rationnelle équivalente serait :

```
(\S+) - (\d+) errors, (\d+) warnings
```

`search()` vs. `match()`

Python offre deux opérations primitives basées sur les expressions rationnelles : `re.match()` cherche une correspondance uniquement au début de la chaîne, tandis que `re.search()` en recherche une n'importe où dans la chaîne (ce que fait Perl par défaut).

Par exemple :

```
>>> re.match("c", "abcdef")    # No match
>>> re.search("c", "abcdef")   # Match
<_sre.SRE_Match object at ...>
```

Les expressions rationnelles commençant par `'^'` peuvent être utilisées avec `search()` pour restreindre la recherche au début de la chaîne :

```
>>> re.match("c", "abcdef")    # No match
>>> re.search("^c", "abcdef")  # No match
>>> re.search("^a", "abcdef")  # Match
<_sre.SRE_Match object at ...>
```

Notez cependant qu'en mode `MULTILINE`, `match()` ne recherche qu'au début de la chaîne, alors que `search()` avec une expression rationnelle commençant par `'^'` recherchera au début de chaque ligne.

```
>>> re.match('X', 'A\nB\nX', re.MULTILINE) # No match
>>> re.search('^X', 'A\nB\nX', re.MULTILINE) # Match
<_sre.SRE_Match object at ...>
```


Construire un répertoire téléphonique

`split()` découpe une chaîne en une liste délimitée par le motif donné. La méthode est inestimable pour convertir des données textuelles vers des structures de données qui peuvent être lues et modifiées par Python comme démontré dans l'exemple suivant qui crée un répertoire téléphonique.

Premièrement, voici l'entrée. Elle provient normalement d'un fichier, nous utilisons ici une chaîne à guillemets triples :

```
>>> text = """Ross McFluff: 834.345.1254 155 Elm Street
...
... Ronald Heathmore: 892.345.3428 436 Finley Avenue
... Frank Burger: 925.541.7625 662 South Dogwood Way
...
...
... Heather Albrecht: 548.326.4584 919 Park Place"""
```

Les entrées sont séparées par un saut de ligne ou plus. Nous convertissons maintenant la chaîne en une liste où chaque ligne non vide aura sa propre entrée :

```
>>> entries = re.split("\n+", text)
>>> entries
['Ross McFluff: 834.345.1254 155 Elm Street',
 'Ronald Heathmore: 892.345.3428 436 Finley Avenue',
 'Frank Burger: 925.541.7625 662 South Dogwood Way',
 'Heather Albrecht: 548.326.4584 919 Park Place']
```

Finalement, on sépare chaque entrée en une liste avec prénom, nom, numéro de téléphone et adresse. Nous utilisons le paramètre `maxsplit` de `split()` parce que l'adresse contient des espaces, qui sont notre motif de séparation :

```
>>> [re.split("?: ", entry, 3) for entry in entries]
[['Ross', 'McFluff', '834.345.1254', '155 Elm Street'],
 ['Ronald', 'Heathmore', '892.345.3428', '436 Finley Avenue'],
 ['Frank', 'Burger', '925.541.7625', '662 South Dogwood Way'],
 ['Heather', 'Albrecht', '548.326.4584', '919 Park Place']]
```

Le motif `:?` trouve les deux points derrière le nom de famille, pour qu'ils n'apparaissent pas dans la liste résultante. Avec un `maxsplit` de 4, nous pourrions séparer le numéro du nom de la rue :

```
>>> [re.split("?: ", entry, 4) for entry in entries]
[['Ross', 'McFluff', '834.345.1254', '155', 'Elm Street'],
 ['Ronald', 'Heathmore', '892.345.3428', '436', 'Finley Avenue'],
 ['Frank', 'Burger', '925.541.7625', '662', 'South Dogwood Way'],
 ['Heather', 'Albrecht', '548.326.4584', '919', 'Park Place']]
```

Mélanger les lettres des mots

`sub()` remplace toutes les occurrences d'un motif par une chaîne ou le résultat d'une fonction. Cet exemple le montre, en utilisant `sub()` avec une fonction qui mélange aléatoirement les caractères de chaque mot dans une phrase (à l'exception des premiers et derniers caractères) :

```
>>> def repl(m):
...     inner_word = list(m.group(2))
...     random.shuffle(inner_word)
```

(suite sur la page suivante)

(suite de la page précédente)

```
...     return m.group(1) + ".".join(inner_word) + m.group(3)
>>> text = "Professor Abdolmalek, please report your absences promptly."
>>> re.sub(r"(\w)(\w+)(\w)", repl, text)
'Poefsrosr Aealmlodbk, pslae reorpt your abnseces plmrptoy.'
>>> re.sub(r"(\w)(\w+)(\w)", repl, text)
'Pofsrosr Aodlambelk, plasee reorpt yuor asnebcas potlmpy.'
```

Trouver tous les adverbes

findall() matches *all* occurrences of a pattern, not just the first one as *search()* does. For example, if a writer wanted to find all of the adverbs in some text, they might use *findall()* in the following manner :

```
>>> text = "He was carefully disguised but captured quickly by police."
>>> re.findall(r"\w+ly", text)
['carefully', 'quickly']
```

Trouver tous les adverbes et leurs positions

If one wants more information about all matches of a pattern than the matched text, *finditer()* is useful as it provides instances of *MatchObject* instead of strings. Continuing with the previous example, if a writer wanted to find all of the adverbs *and their positions* in some text, they would use *finditer()* in the following manner :

```
>>> text = "He was carefully disguised but captured quickly by police."
>>> for m in re.finditer(r"\w+ly", text):
...     print '%02d-%02d: %s' % (m.start(), m.end(), m.group(0))
07-16: carefully
40-47: quickly
```

Notation brutes de chaînes

La notation brute de chaînes (*r"text"*) garde saines les expressions rationnelles. Sans elle, chaque *backslash* (*'\'*) dans une expression rationnelle devrait être préfixé d'un autre *backslash* pour l'échapper. Par exemple, les deux lignes de code suivantes sont fonctionnellement identiques :

```
>>> re.match(r"\W(.\)\1\W", " ff ")
<_sre.SRE_Match object at ...>
>>> re.match("\\W(.\)\1\\W", " ff ")
<_sre.SRE_Match object at ...>
```

Pour rechercher un *backslash* littéral, il faut l'échapper dans l'expression rationnelle. Avec la notation brute, cela signifie *r"\"*. Sans elle, il faudrait utiliser *"\\\"*, faisant que les deux lignes de code suivantes sont fonctionnellement identiques :

```
>>> re.match(r"\"", r"\"")
<_sre.SRE_Match object at ...>
>>> re.match("\\\"", r"\\")
<_sre.SRE_Match object at ...>
```

7.3 struct — Interpret strings as packed binary data

This module performs conversions between Python values and C structs represented as Python strings. This can be used in handling binary data stored in files or from network connections, among other sources. It uses *Format Strings* as compact descriptions of the layout of the C structs and the intended conversion to/from Python values.

Note : By default, the result of packing a given C struct includes pad bytes in order to maintain proper alignment for the C types involved ; similarly, alignment is taken into account when unpacking. This behavior is chosen so that the bytes of a packed struct correspond exactly to the layout in memory of the corresponding C struct. To handle platform-independent data formats or omit implicit pad bytes, use `standard` size and alignment instead of `native` size and alignment : see *Byte Order, Size, and Alignment* for details.

7.3.1 Functions and Exceptions

The module defines the following exception and functions :

exception struct.error

Exception raised on various occasions ; argument is a string describing what is wrong.

struct.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.

struct.pack_into(fmt, buffer, offset, v1, v2, ...)

Pack the values `v1`, `v2`, ... according to the given format, write the packed bytes into the writable `buffer` starting at `offset`. Note that the offset is a required argument.

Nouveau dans la version 2.5.

struct.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 (`len(string)` must equal `calcsiz(fmt)`).

struct.unpack_from(fmt, buffer[, offset=0])

Unpack the `buffer` according to the given format. The result is a tuple even if it contains exactly one item. The `buffer` must contain at least the amount of data required by the format (`len(buffer[offset:])` must be at least `calcsiz(fmt)`).

Nouveau dans la version 2.5.

struct.calcsiz(fmt)

Return the size of the struct (and hence of the string) corresponding to the given format.

7.3.2 Format Strings

Format strings are the mechanism used to specify the expected layout when packing and unpacking data. They are built up from *Format Characters*, which specify the type of data being packed/unpacked. In addition, there are special characters for controlling the *Byte Order, Size, and Alignment*.

Byte Order, Size, and Alignment

By default, C types 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 :

Caractère	Byte order	Size	Alignment
@	native	native	native
=	native	standard	none
<	little-endian	standard	none
>	big-endian	standard	none
!	network (= big-endian)	standard	none

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. For example, Intel x86 and AMD64 (x86-64) are little-endian ; Motorola 68000 and PowerPC G5 are big-endian ; ARM and Intel Itanium feature switchable endianness (bi-endian). Use `sys.byteorder` to check the endianness of your system.

Native size and alignment are determined using the C compiler's `sizeof` expression. This is always combined with native byte order.

Standard size depends only on the format character ; see the table in the *Format Characters* section.

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 (force byte-swapping) ; use the appropriate choice of '<' or '>'.

Notes :

- (1) Padding is only automatically added between successive structure members. No padding is added at the beginning or the end of the encoded struct.
- (2) No padding is added when using non-native size and alignment, e.g. with "<", ">", "=", and "!".
- (3) 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. See *Examples*.

Format Characters

Format characters have the following meaning ; the conversion between C and Python values should be obvious given their types. The "Standard size" column refers to the size of the packed value in bytes when using standard size ; that is, when the format string starts with one of '<', '>', '!' or '='. When using native size, the size of the packed value is platform-dependent.

Format	Type C	Type Python	Standard size	Notes
x	pad byte	no value		
c	char	string of length 1	1	
b	signed char	integer	1	(3)
B	unsigned char	integer	1	(3)
?	_Bool	bool	1	(1)
h	short	integer	2	(3)
H	unsigned short	integer	2	(3)
i	int	integer	4	(3)
I	unsigned int	integer	4	(3)
l	long	integer	4	(3)
L	unsigned long	integer	4	(3)
q	long long	integer	8	(2), (3)
Q	unsigned long long	integer	8	(2), (3)
f	float	<i>float</i>	4	(4)
d	double	<i>float</i>	8	(4)
s	char[]	<i>string</i>		
p	char[]	<i>string</i>		
P	void *	integer		(5), (3)

Notes :

- (1) The '?' conversion code corresponds to the `_Bool` type defined by C99. If this type is not available, it is simulated using a `char`. In standard mode, it is always represented by one byte.
Nouveau dans la version 2.6.
- (2) The 'q' and 'Q' conversion codes are available in native mode only if the platform C compiler supports C `long long`, or, on Windows, `__int64`. They are always available in standard modes.
Nouveau dans la version 2.2.
- (3) When attempting to pack a non-integer using any of the integer conversion codes, if the non-integer has a `__index__()` method then that method is called to convert the argument to an integer before packing. If no `__index__()` method exists, or the call to `__index__()` raises *TypeError*, then the `__int__()` method is tried. However, the use of `__int__()` is deprecated, and will raise *DeprecationWarning*.
Modifié dans la version 2.7 : Use of the `__index__()` method for non-integers is new in 2.7.
Modifié dans la version 2.7 : Prior to version 2.7, not all integer conversion codes would use the `__int__()` method to convert, and *DeprecationWarning* was raised only for float arguments.
- (4) For the 'f' and 'd' conversion codes, the packed representation uses the IEEE 754 binary32 (for 'f') or binary64 (for 'd') format, regardless of the floating-point format used by the platform.
- (5) The 'P' format character is only available for the native byte ordering (selected as the default or with the '@' byte order character). The byte order character '=' chooses to use little- or big-endian ordering based on the host system. The struct module does not interpret this as native ordering, so the 'P' format is not available.

A format character may be preceded by an integral repeat count. For example, 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; for example, '10s' means a single 10-byte string, while '10c' means 10 characters. If a count is not given, it defaults to 1. 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).

The 'p' format character encodes a « Pascal string », meaning a short variable-length string stored in a *fixed number of bytes*, given by the count. The first byte stored is the length of the string, or 255, whichever is smaller. The bytes of the string follow. If the string passed in to `pack()` is too long (longer than the count minus 1), only the leading `count-1` bytes of the string are stored. If the string is shorter than `count-1`, it is padded with null bytes so that exactly `count` bytes in all are used. Note that for `unpack()`, the 'p' format character consumes `count` bytes, but that the string returned can never contain more than 255 characters.

For the 'P' format character, the return value is a Python integer or long integer, depending on the size needed to hold a pointer when it has been cast to an integer type. A *NULL* pointer will always be returned as the Python integer 0. When packing pointer-sized values, Python integer or long integer objects may be used. For example, the Alpha and Merced processors use 64-bit pointer values, meaning a Python long integer will be used to hold the pointer; other platforms use 32-bit pointers and will use a Python integer.

For the '?' format character, the return value is either *True* or *False*. When packing, the truth value of the argument object is used. Either 0 or 1 in the native or standard bool representation will be packed, and any non-zero value will be *True* when unpacking.

Examples

Note : All examples assume a native byte order, size, and alignment with a big-endian machine.

A basic example of packing/unpacking three integers :

```
>>> from struct import *
>>> pack('hhl', 1, 2, 3)
'\x00\x01\x00\x02\x00\x00\x00\x03'
>>> unpack('hhl', '\x00\x01\x00\x02\x00\x00\x00\x03')
(1, 2, 3)
>>> calcsize('hhl')
8
```

Unpacked fields can be named by assigning them to variables or by wrapping the result in a named tuple :

```
>>> record = 'raymond \x32\x12\x08\x01\x08'
>>> name, serialnum, school, gradelevel = unpack('<10sHHb', record)

>>> from collections import namedtuple
>>> Student = namedtuple('Student', 'name serialnum school gradelevel')
>>> Student._make(unpack('<10sHHb', record))
Student(name='raymond ', serialnum=4658, school=264, gradelevel=8)
```

The ordering of format characters may have an impact on size since the padding needed to satisfy alignment requirements is different :

```
>>> pack('ci', '*', 0x12131415)
'*\x00\x00\x00\x12\x13\x14\x15'
>>> pack('ic', 0x12131415, '*')
'\x12\x13\x14\x15*'
>>> calcsize('ci')
8
>>> calcsize('ic')
5
```

The following format 'llh01' specifies two pad bytes at the end, assuming longs are aligned on 4-byte boundaries :

```
>>> pack('llh01', 1, 2, 3)
'\x00\x00\x00\x01\x00\x00\x00\x02\x00\x03\x00\x00'
```

This only works when native size and alignment are in effect ; standard size and alignment does not enforce any alignment.

Voir aussi :

Module `array` Packed binary storage of homogeneous data.

Module `xdrlib` Packing and unpacking of XDR data.

7.3.3 Classes

The `struct` module also defines the following type :

class `struct.Struct(format)`

Return a new Struct object which writes and reads binary data according to the format string *format*. Creating a Struct object once and calling its methods is more efficient than calling the `struct` functions with the same format since the format string only needs to be compiled once.

Nouveau dans la version 2.5.

Compiled Struct objects support the following methods and attributes :

pack(v1, v2, ...)

Identical to the `pack()` function, using the compiled format. (`len(result)` will equal `self.size`.)

pack_into(buffer, offset, v1, v2, ...)

Identical to the `pack_into()` function, using the compiled format.

unpack(string)

Identical to the `unpack()` function, using the compiled format. (`len(string)` must equal `self.size`).

unpack_from(buffer, offset=0)

Identical to the `unpack_from()` function, using the compiled format. (`len(buffer[offset:])` must be at least `self.size`).

format

The format string used to construct this Struct object.

size

The calculated size of the struct (and hence of the string) corresponding to *format*.

7.4 difflib — Helpers for computing deltas

Nouveau dans la version 2.1.

This module provides classes and functions for comparing sequences. It can be used for example, for comparing files, and can produce difference information in various formats, including HTML and context and unified diffs. For comparing directories and files, see also, the `filecmp` module.

class `difflib.SequenceMatcher`

This is a flexible class for comparing pairs of sequences of any type, so long as the sequence elements are *hashable*. The basic algorithm predates, and is a little fancier than, an algorithm published in the late 1980's by Ratcliff and Obershelp under the hyperbolic name « gestalt pattern matching. » The idea is to find the longest contiguous matching subsequence that contains no « junk » elements (the Ratcliff and Obershelp algorithm doesn't address junk). The same idea is then applied recursively to the pieces of the sequences to the left and to the right of the matching subsequence. This does not yield minimal edit sequences, but does tend to yield matches that « look right » to people.

Timing : The basic Ratcliff-Obershelp algorithm is cubic time in the worst case and quadratic time in the expected case. `SequenceMatcher` is quadratic time for the worst case and has expected-case

behavior dependent in a complicated way on how many elements the sequences have in common ; best case time is linear.

Automatic junk heuristic : *SequenceMatcher* supports a heuristic that automatically treats certain sequence items as junk. The heuristic counts how many times each individual item appears in the sequence. If an item's duplicates (after the first one) account for more than 1% of the sequence and the sequence is at least 200 items long, this item is marked as « popular » and is treated as junk for the purpose of sequence matching. This heuristic can be turned off by setting the `autojunk` argument to `False` when creating the *SequenceMatcher*.

Nouveau dans la version 2.7.1 : The *autojunk* parameter.

`class difflib.Differ`

This is a class for comparing sequences of lines of text, and producing human-readable differences or deltas. Differ uses *SequenceMatcher* both to compare sequences of lines, and to compare sequences of characters within similar (near-matching) lines.

Each line of a *Differ* delta begins with a two-letter code :

Code	Signification
'- '	line unique to sequence 1
'+'	line unique to sequence 2
' '	line common to both sequences
'? '	line not present in either input sequence

Lines beginning with “?” attempt to guide the eye to intraline differences, and were not present in either input sequence. These lines can be confusing if the sequences contain tab characters.

`class difflib.HtmlDiff`

This class can be used to create an HTML table (or a complete HTML file containing the table) showing a side by side, line by line comparison of text with inter-line and intra-line change highlights. The table can be generated in either full or contextual difference mode.

The constructor for this class is :

`__init__(tabsize=8, wrapcolumn=None, linejunk=None, charjunk=IS_CHARACTER_JUNK)`

Initializes instance of *HtmlDiff*.

tabsize is an optional keyword argument to specify tab stop spacing and defaults to 8.

wrapcolumn is an optional keyword to specify column number where lines are broken and wrapped, defaults to `None` where lines are not wrapped.

linejunk and *charjunk* are optional keyword arguments passed into *ndiff()* (used by *HtmlDiff* to generate the side by side HTML differences). See *ndiff()* documentation for argument default values and descriptions.

The following methods are public :

`make_file(fromlines, tolines [, fromdesc][, todesc][, context][, numlines])`

Compares *fromlines* and *tolines* (lists of strings) and returns a string which is a complete HTML file containing a table showing line by line differences with inter-line and intra-line changes highlighted. *fromdesc* and *todesc* are optional keyword arguments to specify from/to file column header strings (both default to an empty string).

context and *numlines* are both optional keyword arguments. Set *context* to `True` when contextual differences are to be shown, else the default is `False` to show the full files. *numlines* defaults to 5. When *context* is `True` *numlines* controls the number of context lines which surround the difference highlights. When *context* is `False` *numlines* controls the number of lines which are shown before a difference highlight when using the « next » hyperlinks (setting to zero would cause the « next » hyperlinks to place the next difference highlight at the top of the browser without any leading context).

`make_table(fromlines, tolines [, fromdesc][, todesc][, context][, numlines])`

Compares *fromlines* and *tolines* (lists of strings) and returns a string which is a complete HTML table showing line by line differences with inter-line and intra-line changes highlighted.

The arguments for this method are the same as those for the `make_file()` method.

`Tools/scripts/diff.py` is a command-line front-end to this class and contains a good example of its use.

Nouveau dans la version 2.4.

`difflib.context_diff(a, b[, fromfile][, tofile][, fromfiledate][, tofiledate][, n][, lineterm])`

Compare *a* and *b* (lists of strings); return a delta (a *generator* generating the delta lines) in context diff format.

Context diffs are a compact way of showing just the lines that have changed plus a few lines of context. The changes are shown in a before/after style. The number of context lines is set by *n* which defaults to three.

By default, the diff control lines (those with `***` or `---`) are created with a trailing newline. This is helpful so that inputs created from `file.readlines()` result in diffs that are suitable for use with `file.writelines()` since both the inputs and outputs have trailing newlines.

For inputs that do not have trailing newlines, set the *lineterm* argument to `"` so that the output will be uniformly newline free.

The context diff format normally has a header for filenames and modification times. Any or all of these may be specified using strings for *fromfile*, *tofile*, *fromfiledate*, and *tofiledate*. The modification times are normally expressed in the ISO 8601 format. If not specified, the strings default to blanks.

```
>>> s1 = ['bacon\n', 'eggs\n', 'ham\n', 'guido\n']
>>> s2 = ['python\n', 'eggy\n', 'hamster\n', 'guido\n']
>>> for line in context_diff(s1, s2, fromfile='before.py', tofile='after.py'):
...     sys.stdout.write(line) # doctest: +NORMALIZE_WHITESPACE
*** before.py
--- after.py
*****
*** 1,4 ****
! bacon
! eggs
! ham
! guido
--- 1,4 ----
! python
! eggy
! hamster
! guido
```

See [A command-line interface to difflib](#) for a more detailed example.

Nouveau dans la version 2.3.

`difflib.get_close_matches(word, possibilities[, n][, cutoff])`

Return a list of the best « good enough » matches. *word* is a sequence for which close matches are desired (typically a string), and *possibilities* is a list of sequences against which to match *word* (typically a list of strings).

Optional argument *n* (default 3) is the maximum number of close matches to return; *n* must be greater than 0.

Optional argument *cutoff* (default 0.6) is a float in the range [0, 1]. Possibilities that don't score at least that similar to *word* are ignored.

The best (no more than *n*) matches among the possibilities are returned in a list, sorted by similarity score, most similar first.

```
>>> get_close_matches('appel', ['ape', 'apple', 'peach', 'puppy'])
['apple', 'ape']
```

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```
>>> import keyword
>>> get_close_matches('wheel', keyword.kwlist)
['while']
>>> get_close_matches('apple', keyword.kwlist)
[]
>>> get_close_matches('accept', keyword.kwlist)
['except']
```

`difflib.ndiff(a, b[, linejunk[, charjunk]])`

Compare *a* and *b* (lists of strings); return a *Differ*-style delta (a *generator* generating the delta lines).

Optional keyword parameters *linejunk* and *charjunk* are for filter functions (or `None`) :

linejunk : A function that accepts a single string argument, and returns true if the string is junk, or false if not. The default is (`None`), starting with Python 2.3. Before then, the default was the module-level function `IS_LINE_JUNK()`, which filters out lines without visible characters, except for at most one pound character ('#'). As of Python 2.3, the underlying *SequenceMatcher* class does a dynamic analysis of which lines are so frequent as to constitute noise, and this usually works better than the pre-2.3 default.

charjunk : A function that accepts a character (a string of length 1), and returns if the character is junk, or false if not. The default is module-level function `IS_CHARACTER_JUNK()`, which filters out whitespace characters (a blank or tab; note : bad idea to include newline in this!).

`Tools/scripts/ndiff.py` is a command-line front-end to this function.

```
>>> diff = ndiff('one\ntwo\nthree\n'.splitlines(1),
...              'ore\ntree\nemu\n'.splitlines(1))
>>> print ''.join(diff),
- one
? ^
+ ore
? ^
- two
- three
? -
+ tree
+ emu
```

`difflib.restore(sequence, which)`

Return one of the two sequences that generated a delta.

Given a *sequence* produced by *Differ.compare()* or *ndiff()*, extract lines originating from file 1 or 2 (parameter *which*), stripping off line prefixes.

Exemple :

```
>>> diff = ndiff('one\ntwo\nthree\n'.splitlines(1),
...              'ore\ntree\nemu\n'.splitlines(1))
>>> diff = list(diff) # materialize the generated delta into a list
>>> print ''.join	restore(diff, 1)),
one
two
three
>>> print ''.join	restore(diff, 2)),
ore
tree
emu
```

`difflib.unified_diff(a, b[, fromfile[, tofile[, fromfiledate[, tofiledate[, n[, lineterm]])`

Compare *a* and *b* (lists of strings); return a delta (a *generator* generating the delta lines) in unified diff format.

Unified diffs are a compact way of showing just the lines that have changed plus a few lines of context. The changes are shown in an inline style (instead of separate before/after blocks). The number of context lines is set by *n* which defaults to three.

By default, the diff control lines (those with ---, +++, or @@) are created with a trailing newline. This is helpful so that inputs created from `file.readlines()` result in diffs that are suitable for use with `file.writelines()` since both the inputs and outputs have trailing newlines.

For inputs that do not have trailing newlines, set the *lineterm* argument to "" so that the output will be uniformly newline free.

The context diff format normally has a header for filenames and modification times. Any or all of these may be specified using strings for *fromfile*, *tofile*, *fromfiledate*, and *tofiledate*. The modification times are normally expressed in the ISO 8601 format. If not specified, the strings default to blanks.

```
>>> s1 = ['bacon\n', 'eggs\n', 'ham\n', 'guido\n']
>>> s2 = ['python\n', 'egggy\n', 'hamster\n', 'guido\n']
>>> for line in unified_diff(s1, s2, fromfile='before.py', tofile='after.py'):
...     sys.stdout.write(line)    # doctest: +NORMALIZE_WHITESPACE
--- before.py
+++ after.py
@@ -1,4 +1,4 @@
-bacon
-eggs
-ham
+python
+egggy
+hamster
 guido
```

See [A command-line interface to difflib](#) for a more detailed example.

Nouveau dans la version 2.3.

`difflib.IS_LINE_JUNK(line)`

Return true for ignorable lines. The line *line* is ignorable if *line* is blank or contains a single '#', otherwise it is not ignorable. Used as a default for parameter *linejunk* in `ndiff()` before Python 2.3.

`difflib.IS_CHARACTER_JUNK(ch)`

Return true for ignorable characters. The character *ch* is ignorable if *ch* is a space or tab, otherwise it is not ignorable. Used as a default for parameter *charjunk* in `ndiff()`.

Voir aussi :

Pattern Matching : The Gestalt Approach Discussion of a similar algorithm by John W. Ratcliff and D. E. Metzener. This was published in *Dr. Dobb's Journal* in July, 1988.

7.4.1 SequenceMatcher Objects

The `SequenceMatcher` class has this constructor :

`class difflib.SequenceMatcher(isjunk=None, a="", b="", autojunk=True)`

Optional argument *isjunk* must be `None` (the default) or a one-argument function that takes a sequence element and returns true if and only if the element is « junk » and should be ignored. Passing `None` for *isjunk* is equivalent to passing `lambda x: 0`; in other words, no elements are ignored. For example, pass :

```
lambda x: x in " \t"
```

if you're comparing lines as sequences of characters, and don't want to synch up on blanks or hard tabs.

The optional arguments *a* and *b* are sequences to be compared; both default to empty strings. The elements of both sequences must be *hashable*.

The optional argument *autojunk* can be used to disable the automatic junk heuristic.

Nouveau dans la version 2.7.1 : The *autojunk* parameter.

SequenceMatcher objects have the following methods :

set_seqs(a, b)

Set the two sequences to be compared.

SequenceMatcher computes and caches detailed information about the second sequence, so if you want to compare one sequence against many sequences, use *set_seq2()* to set the commonly used sequence once and call *set_seq1()* repeatedly, once for each of the other sequences.

set_seq1(a)

Set the first sequence to be compared. The second sequence to be compared is not changed.

set_seq2(b)

Set the second sequence to be compared. The first sequence to be compared is not changed.

find_longest_match(alo**, a**hi**, b**lo**, b**hi**)**

Find longest matching block in *a*[*a***lo**:*a***hi**] and *b*[*b***lo**:*b***hi**].

If *isjunk* was omitted or None, *find_longest_match()* returns (*i*, *j*, *k*) such that *a*[*i*:*i*+*k*] is equal to *b*[*j*:*j*+*k*], where *a***lo** ≤ *i* ≤ *i*+*k* ≤ *a***hi** and *b***lo** ≤ *j* ≤ *j*+*k* ≤ *b***hi**. For all (*i*', *j*', *k*') meeting those conditions, the additional conditions *k* ≥ *k*', *i* ≤ *i*', and if *i* == *i*', *j* ≤ *j*' are also met. In other words, of all maximal matching blocks, return one that starts earliest in *a*, and of all those maximal matching blocks that start earliest in *a*, return the one that starts earliest in *b*.

```
>>> s = SequenceMatcher(None, " abcd", "abcd abcd")
>>> s.find_longest_match(0, 5, 0, 9)
Match(a=0, b=4, size=5)
```

If *isjunk* was provided, first the longest matching block is determined as above, but with the additional restriction that no junk element appears in the block. Then that block is extended as far as possible by matching (only) junk elements on both sides. So the resulting block never matches on junk except as identical junk happens to be adjacent to an interesting match.

Here's the same example as before, but considering blanks to be junk. That prevents ' abcd' from matching the ' abcd' at the tail end of the second sequence directly. Instead only the 'abcd' can match, and matches the leftmost 'abcd' in the second sequence :

```
>>> s = SequenceMatcher(lambda x: x==" ", " abcd", "abcd abcd")
>>> s.find_longest_match(0, 5, 0, 9)
Match(a=1, b=0, size=4)
```

If no blocks match, this returns (*a***lo**, *b***lo**, 0).

Modifié dans la version 2.6 : This method returns a *named tuple* *Match(a, b, size)*.

get_matching_blocks()

Return list of triples describing non-overlapping matching subsequences. Each triple is of the form (*i*, *j*, *n*), and means that *a*[*i*:*i*+*n*] == *b*[*j*:*j*+*n*]. The triples are monotonically increasing in *i* and *j*.

The last triple is a dummy, and has the value (*len(a)*, *len(b)*, 0). It is the only triple with *n* == 0. If (*i*, *j*, *n*) and (*i*', *j*', *n*') are adjacent triples in the list, and the second is not the last triple in the list, then *i*+*n* < *i*' or *j*+*n* < *j*'; in other words, adjacent triples always describe non-adjacent equal blocks.

Modifié dans la version 2.5 : The guarantee that adjacent triples always describe non-adjacent blocks was implemented.

```
>>> s = SequenceMatcher(None, "abxcd", "abcd")
>>> s.get_matching_blocks()
[Match(a=0, b=0, size=2), Match(a=3, b=2, size=2), Match(a=5, b=4, size=0)]
```

`get_opcodes()`

Return list of 5-tuples describing how to turn *a* into *b*. Each tuple is of the form (*tag*, *i1*, *i2*, *j1*, *j2*). The first tuple has *i1* == *j1* == 0, and remaining tuples have *i1* equal to the *i2* from the preceding tuple, and, likewise, *j1* equal to the previous *j2*.

The *tag* values are strings, with these meanings :

Valeur	Signification
'replace'	<code>a[i1:i2]</code> should be replaced by <code>b[j1:j2]</code> .
'delete'	<code>a[i1:i2]</code> should be deleted. Note that <code>j1</code> == <code>j2</code> in this case.
'insert'	<code>b[j1:j2]</code> should be inserted at <code>a[i1:i1]</code> . Note that <code>i1</code> == <code>i2</code> in this case.
'equal'	<code>a[i1:i2]</code> == <code>b[j1:j2]</code> (the sub-sequences are equal).

Par exemple :

```
>>> a = "qabxcd"
>>> b = "abycdf"
>>> s = SequenceMatcher(None, a, b)
>>> for tag, i1, i2, j1, j2 in s.get_opcodes():
...     print ("%7s a[%d:%d] (%s) b[%d:%d] (%s)" %
...             (tag, i1, i2, a[i1:i2], j1, j2, b[j1:j2]))
delete a[0:1] (q) b[0:0] ()
equal a[1:3] (ab) b[0:2] (ab)
replace a[3:4] (x) b[2:3] (y)
equal a[4:6] (cd) b[3:5] (cd)
insert a[6:6] () b[5:6] (f)
```

`get_grouped_opcodes([n])`

Return a *generator* of groups with up to *n* lines of context.

Starting with the groups returned by `get_opcodes()`, this method splits out smaller change clusters and eliminates intervening ranges which have no changes.

The groups are returned in the same format as `get_opcodes()`.

Nouveau dans la version 2.3.

`ratio()`

Return a measure of the sequences' similarity as a float in the range [0, 1].

Where *T* is the total number of elements in both sequences, and *M* is the number of matches, this is $2.0 * M / T$. Note that this is 1.0 if the sequences are identical, and 0.0 if they have nothing in common.

This is expensive to compute if `get_matching_blocks()` or `get_opcodes()` hasn't already been called, in which case you may want to try `quick_ratio()` or `real_quick_ratio()` first to get an upper bound.

`quick_ratio()`

Return an upper bound on `ratio()` relatively quickly.

`real_quick_ratio()`

Return an upper bound on `ratio()` very quickly.

The three methods that return the ratio of matching to total characters can give different results due to differing levels of approximation, although `quick_ratio()` and `real_quick_ratio()` are always at least as large as `ratio()` :

```
>>> s = SequenceMatcher(None, "abcd", "bcde")
>>> s.ratio()
0.75
>>> s.quick_ratio()
0.75
>>> s.real_quick_ratio()
1.0
```

7.4.2 SequenceMatcher Examples

This example compares two strings, considering blanks to be « junk : »

```
>>> s = SequenceMatcher(lambda x: x == " ",
...                      "private Thread currentThread;",
...                      "private volatile Thread currentThread;")
```

`ratio()` returns a float in $[0, 1]$, measuring the similarity of the sequences. As a rule of thumb, a `ratio()` value over 0.6 means the sequences are close matches :

```
>>> print round(s.ratio(), 3)
0.866
```

If you're only interested in where the sequences match, `get_matching_blocks()` is handy :

```
>>> for block in s.get_matching_blocks():
...     print "a[%d] and b[%d] match for %d elements" % block
a[0] and b[0] match for 8 elements
a[8] and b[17] match for 21 elements
a[29] and b[38] match for 0 elements
```

Note that the last tuple returned by `get_matching_blocks()` is always a dummy, `(len(a), len(b), 0)`, and this is the only case in which the last tuple element (number of elements matched) is 0.

If you want to know how to change the first sequence into the second, use `get_opcodes()` :

```
>>> for opcode in s.get_opcodes():
...     print "%6s a[%d:%d] b[%d:%d]" % opcode
equal a[0:8] b[0:8]
insert a[8:8] b[8:17]
equal a[8:29] b[17:38]
```

Voir aussi :

- The `get_close_matches()` function in this module which shows how simple code building on *SequenceMatcher* can be used to do useful work.
- Simple version control recipe for a small application built with *SequenceMatcher*.

7.4.3 Differ Objects

Note that *Differ*-generated deltas make no claim to be **minimal** diffs. To the contrary, minimal diffs are often counter-intuitive, because they synch up anywhere possible, sometimes accidental matches 100 pages apart. Restricting synch points to contiguous matches preserves some notion of locality, at the occasional cost of producing a longer diff.

The *Differ* class has this constructor :

```
class difflib.Differ([linejunk[, charjunk]])
```

Optional keyword parameters *linejunk* and *charjunk* are for filter functions (or `None`) :

linejunk : A function that accepts a single string argument, and returns true if the string is junk. The default is `None`, meaning that no line is considered junk.

charjunk : A function that accepts a single character argument (a string of length 1), and returns true if the character is junk. The default is `None`, meaning that no character is considered junk.

Differ objects are used (deltas generated) via a single method :

```
compare(a, b)
```

Compare two sequences of lines, and generate the delta (a sequence of lines).

Each sequence must contain individual single-line strings ending with newlines. Such sequences can be obtained from the *readlines()* method of file-like objects. The delta generated also consists of newline-terminated strings, ready to be printed as-is via the *writelines()* method of a file-like object.

7.4.4 Differ Example

This example compares two texts. First we set up the texts, sequences of individual single-line strings ending with newlines (such sequences can also be obtained from the *readlines()* method of file-like objects) :

```
>>> text1 = ''' 1. Beautiful is better than ugly.
... 2. Explicit is better than implicit.
... 3. Simple is better than complex.
... 4. Complex is better than complicated.
... '''.splitlines(1)
>>> len(text1)
4
>>> text1[0][-1]
'\n'
>>> text2 = ''' 1. Beautiful is better than ugly.
... 3. Simple is better than complex.
... 4. Complicated is better than complex.
... 5. Flat is better than nested.
... '''.splitlines(1)
```

Next we instantiate a *Differ* object :

```
>>> d = Differ()
```

Note that when instantiating a *Differ* object we may pass functions to filter out line and character « junk. » See the *Differ()* constructor for details.

Finally, we compare the two :

```
>>> result = list(d.compare(text1, text2))
```

result is a list of strings, so let's pretty-print it :

```
>>> from pprint import pprint
>>> pprint(result)
[' 1. Beautiful is better than ugly.\n',
'- 2. Explicit is better than implicit.\n',
'- 3. Simple is better than complex.\n',
'+ 3. Simple is better than complex.\n',
'? ++\n',
```

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```
'- 4. Complex is better than complicated.\n',
'?      ^              ---- ^\n',
'+ 4. Complicated is better than complex.\n',
'?      ++++ ^              ^\n',
'+ 5. Flat is better than nested.\n']
```

As a single multi-line string it looks like this :

```
>>> import sys
>>> sys.stdout.writelines(result)
1. Beautiful is better than ugly.
- 2. Explicit is better than implicit.
- 3. Simple is better than complex.
+ 3.   Simple is better than complex.
?    ++
- 4. Complex is better than complicated.
?      ^              ---- ^
+ 4. Complicated is better than complex.
?      ++++ ^              ^
+ 5. Flat is better than nested.
```

7.4.5 A command-line interface to difflib

This example shows how to use difflib to create a diff-like utility. It is also contained in the Python source distribution, as Tools/scripts/diff.py.

```
""" Command line interface to difflib.py providing diffs in four formats:

* ndiff:    lists every line and highlights interline changes.
* context:  highlights clusters of changes in a before/after format.
* unified:  highlights clusters of changes in an inline format.
* html:     generates side by side comparison with change highlights.

"""

import sys, os, time, difflib, optparse

def main():
    # Configure the option parser
    usage = "usage: %prog [options] fromfile tofile"
    parser = optparse.OptionParser(usage)
    parser.add_option("-c", action="store_true", default=False,
                      help='Produce a context format diff (default)')
    parser.add_option("-u", action="store_true", default=False,
                      help='Produce a unified format diff')
    hlp = 'Produce HTML side by side diff (can use -c and -l in conjunction)'
    parser.add_option("-m", action="store_true", default=False, help=hlp)
    parser.add_option("-n", action="store_true", default=False,
                      help='Produce a ndiff format diff')
    parser.add_option("-l", "--lines", type="int", default=3,
                      help='Set number of context lines (default 3)')
    (options, args) = parser.parse_args()
```

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(suite de la page précédente)

```

if len(args) == 0:
    parser.print_help()
    sys.exit(1)
if len(args) != 2:
    parser.error("need to specify both a fromfile and tofile")

n = options.lines
fromfile, tofile = args # as specified in the usage string

# we're passing these as arguments to the diff function
fromdate = time.ctime(os.stat(fromfile).st_mtime)
todate = time.ctime(os.stat(tofile).st_mtime)
with open(fromfile, 'U') as f:
    fromlines = f.readlines()
with open(tofile, 'U') as f:
    tolines = f.readlines()

if options.u:
    diff = difflib.unified_diff(fromlines, tolines, fromfile, tofile,
                                fromdate, todate, n=n)
elif options.n:
    diff = difflib.ndiff(fromlines, tolines)
elif options.m:
    diff = difflib.HtmlDiff().make_file(fromlines, tolines, fromfile,
                                         tofile, context=options.c,
                                         numlines=n)
else:
    diff = difflib.context_diff(fromlines, tolines, fromfile, tofile,
                                fromdate, todate, n=n)

# we're using writelines because diff is a generator
sys.stdout.writelines(diff)

if __name__ == '__main__':
    main()

```

7.5 StringIO — Read and write strings as files

This module implements a file-like class, *StringIO*, that reads and writes a string buffer (also known as *memory files*). See the description of file objects for operations (section *Objets fichiers*). (For standard strings, see *str* and *unicode*.)

class StringIO.StringIO(*buffer*)

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. In both cases, the initial file position starts at zero.

The *StringIO* object can accept either Unicode or 8-bit strings, but mixing the two may take some care. If both are used, 8-bit strings that cannot be interpreted as 7-bit ASCII (that use the 8th bit) will cause a *UnicodeError* to be raised when *getvalue()* is called.

The following methods of *StringIO* objects require special mention :

StringIO.getvalue()

Retrieve the entire contents of the « file » at any time before the *StringIO* object's *close()* method is called. See the note above for information about mixing Unicode and 8-bit strings ; such mixing can cause this method to raise *UnicodeError*.

StringIO.close()

Free the memory buffer. Attempting to do further operations with a closed *StringIO* object will raise a *ValueError*.

Example usage :

```
import StringIO

output = StringIO.StringIO()
output.write('First line.\n')
print >>output, 'Second line.'

# Retrieve file contents -- this will be
# 'First line.\nSecond line.\n'
contents = output.getvalue()

# Close object and discard memory buffer --
# .getvalue() will now raise an exception.
output.close()
```

7.6 cStringIO — Faster version of StringIO

The module *cStringIO* provides an interface similar to that of the *StringIO* module. Heavy use of *StringIO*. *StringIO* objects can be made more efficient by using the function *StringIO()* from this module instead.

cStringIO.StringIO([s])

Return a StringIO-like stream for reading or writing.

Since this is a factory function which returns objects of built-in types, there's no way to build your own version using subclassing. It's not possible to set attributes on it. Use the original *StringIO* module in those cases.

Unlike the *StringIO* module, this module is not able to accept Unicode strings that cannot be encoded as plain ASCII strings.

Another difference from the *StringIO* module is that calling *StringIO()* with a string parameter creates a read-only object. Unlike an object created without a string parameter, it does not have write methods. These objects are not generally visible. They turn up in tracebacks as *StringI* and *String0*.

The following data objects are provided as well :

cStringIO.InputType

The type object of the objects created by calling *StringIO()* with a string parameter.

cStringIO.OutputType

The type object of the objects returned by calling *StringIO()* with no parameters.

There is a C API to the module as well ; refer to the module source for more information.

Example usage :

```
import cStringIO
```

(suite sur la page suivante)

(suite de la page précédente)

```

output = cStringIO.StringIO()
output.write('First line.\n')
print >>output, 'Second line.'

# Retrieve file contents -- this will be
# 'First line.\nSecond line.\n'
contents = output.getvalue()

# Close object and discard memory buffer --
# .getvalue() will now raise an exception.
output.close()

```

7.7 textwrap — Text wrapping and filling

Nouveau dans la version 2.3.

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

The *textwrap* module provides two convenience functions, *wrap()* and *fill()*, as well as *TextWrapper*, the class that does all the work, and a utility function *dedent()*. If you're just wrapping or filling one or two text strings, the convenience functions should be good enough; otherwise, you should use an instance of *TextWrapper* for efficiency.

textwrap.wrap(text[, width[, ...]])

Wraps the single paragraph in *text* (a string) so every line is at most *width* characters long. Returns a list of output lines, without final newlines.

Optional keyword arguments correspond to the instance attributes of *TextWrapper*, documented below. *width* defaults to 70.

See the *TextWrapper.wrap()* method for additional details on how *wrap()* behaves.

textwrap.fill(text[, width[, ...]])

Wraps the single paragraph in *text*, and returns a single string containing the wrapped paragraph. *fill()* is shorthand for

```
"\n".join(wrap(text, ...))
```

In particular, *fill()* accepts exactly the same keyword arguments as *wrap()*.

Both *wrap()* and *fill()* work by creating a *TextWrapper* instance and calling a single method on it. That instance is not reused, so for applications that wrap/fill many text strings, it will be more efficient for you to create your own *TextWrapper* object.

Text is preferably wrapped on whitespaces and right after the hyphens in hyphenated words; only then will long words be broken if necessary, unless *TextWrapper.break_long_words* is set to false.

An additional utility function, *dedent()*, is provided to remove indentation from strings that have unwanted whitespace to the left of the text.

textwrap.dedent(text)

Remove any common leading whitespace from every line in *text*.

This can be used to make triple-quoted strings line up with the left edge of the display, while still presenting them in the source code in indented form.

Note that tabs and spaces are both treated as whitespace, but they are not equal: the lines " hello" and "\thello" are considered to have no common leading whitespace. (This behaviour is new in

Python 2.5; older versions of this module incorrectly expanded tabs before searching for common leading whitespace.)

Par exemple :

```
def test():
    # end first line with \ to avoid the empty line!
    s = '''\
hello
    world
    '''
    print repr(s)          # prints '    hello\n        world\n    '
    print repr(dedent(s))  # prints 'hello\n world\n'
```

`class textwrap.TextWrapper(...)`

The *TextWrapper* constructor accepts a number of optional keyword arguments. Each argument corresponds to one instance attribute, so for example

```
wrapper = TextWrapper(initial_indent="* ")
```

is the same as

```
wrapper = TextWrapper()
wrapper.initial_indent = "* "
```

You can re-use the same *TextWrapper* object many times, and you can change any of its options through direct assignment to instance attributes between uses.

The *TextWrapper* instance attributes (and keyword arguments to the constructor) are as follows :

width

(default : 70) The maximum length of wrapped lines. As long as there are no individual words in the input text longer than *width*, *TextWrapper* guarantees that no output line will be longer than *width* characters.

expand_tabs

(default : True) If true, then all tab characters in *text* will be expanded to spaces using the `expandtabs()` method of *text*.

replace_whitespace

(default : True) If true, after tab expansion but before wrapping, the *wrap()* method will replace each whitespace character with a single space. The whitespace characters replaced are as follows : tab, newline, vertical tab, formfeed, and carriage return ('`\t\n\v\f\r`').

Note : If *expand_tabs* is false and *replace_whitespace* is true, each tab character will be replaced by a single space, which is *not* the same as tab expansion.

Note : If *replace_whitespace* is false, newlines may appear in the middle of a line and cause strange output. For this reason, text should be split into paragraphs (using *str.splitlines()* or similar) which are wrapped separately.

drop_whitespace

(default : True) If true, whitespace at the beginning and ending of every line (after wrapping but before indenting) is dropped. Whitespace at the beginning of the paragraph, however, is not dropped if non-whitespace follows it. If whitespace being dropped takes up an entire line, the whole line is dropped.

Nouveau dans la version 2.6 : Whitespace was always dropped in earlier versions.

initial_indent

(default : '') String that will be prepended to the first line of wrapped output. Counts towards the length of the first line. The empty string is not indented.

subsequent_indent

(default : '') String that will be prepended to all lines of wrapped output except the first. Counts towards the length of each line except the first.

fix_sentence_endings

(default : False) If true, *TextWrapper* attempts to detect sentence endings and ensure that sentences are always separated by exactly two spaces. This is generally desired for text in a monospaced font. However, the sentence detection algorithm is imperfect : it assumes that a sentence ending consists of a lowercase letter followed by one of '.', '!', or '?', possibly followed by one of '"' or "'", followed by a space. One problem with this is algorithm is that it is unable to detect the difference between « Dr. » in

```
[...] Dr. Frankenstein's monster [...]
```

and « Spot. » in

```
[...] See Spot. See Spot run [...]
```

fix_sentence_endings is false by default.

Since the sentence detection algorithm relies on `string.lowercase` for the definition of « lowercase letter, » and a convention of using two spaces after a period to separate sentences on the same line, it is specific to English-language texts.

break_long_words

(default : True) If true, then words longer than *width* will be broken in order to ensure that no lines are longer than *width*. If it is false, long words will not be broken, and some lines may be longer than *width*. (Long words will be put on a line by themselves, in order to minimize the amount by which *width* is exceeded.)

break_on_hyphens

(default : True) If true, wrapping will occur preferably on whitespaces and right after hyphens in compound words, as it is customary in English. If false, only whitespaces will be considered as potentially good places for line breaks, but you need to set *break_long_words* to false if you want truly insecable words. Default behaviour in previous versions was to always allow breaking hyphenated words.

Nouveau dans la version 2.6.

TextWrapper also provides two public methods, analogous to the module-level convenience functions :

wrap(text)

Wraps the single paragraph in *text* (a string) so every line is at most *width* characters long. All wrapping options are taken from instance attributes of the *TextWrapper* instance. Returns a list of output lines, without final newlines. If the wrapped output has no content, the returned list is empty.

fill(text)

Wraps the single paragraph in *text*, and returns a single string containing the wrapped paragraph.

7.8 codecs — Codec registry and base classes

This module defines base classes for standard Python codecs (encoders and decoders) and provides access to the internal Python codec registry which manages the codec and error handling lookup process.

It defines the following functions :

`codecs.encode(obj[, encoding[, errors]])`

Encodes *obj* using the codec registered for *encoding*. The default encoding is 'ascii'.

Errors may be given to set the desired error handling scheme. The default error handler is 'strict' meaning that encoding errors raise *ValueError* (or a more codec specific subclass, such as *UnicodeEncodeError*). Refer to *Codec Base Classes* for more information on codec error handling. Nouveau dans la version 2.4.

`codecs.decode(obj[, encoding[, errors]])`

Decodes *obj* using the codec registered for *encoding*. The default encoding is 'ascii'.

Errors may be given to set the desired error handling scheme. The default error handler is 'strict' meaning that decoding errors raise *ValueError* (or a more codec specific subclass, such as *UnicodeDecodeError*). Refer to *Codec Base Classes* for more information on codec error handling. Nouveau dans la version 2.4.

`codecs.register(search_function)`

Register a codec search function. Search functions are expected to take one argument, the encoding name in all lower case letters, and return a *CodecInfo* object having the following attributes :

- **name** The name of the encoding ;
- **encode** The stateless encoding function ;
- **decode** The stateless decoding function ;
- **incrementalencoder** An incremental encoder class or factory function ;
- **incrementaldecoder** An incremental decoder class or factory function ;
- **streamwriter** A stream writer class or factory function ;
- **streamreader** A stream reader class or factory function.

The various functions or classes take the following arguments :

encode and *decode* : These must be functions or methods which have the same interface as the *encode()*/*decode()* methods of *Codec* instances (see *Codec Interface*). The functions/methods are expected to work in a stateless mode.

incrementalencoder and *incrementaldecoder* : These have to be factory functions providing the following interface :

`factory(errors='strict')`

The factory functions must return objects providing the interfaces defined by the base classes *IncrementalEncoder* and *IncrementalDecoder*, respectively. Incremental codecs can maintain state.

streamreader and *streamwriter* : These have to be factory functions providing the following interface :

`factory(stream, errors='strict')`

The factory functions must return objects providing the interfaces defined by the base classes *StreamReader* and *StreamWriter*, respectively. Stream codecs can maintain state.

Possible values for errors are

- 'strict' : raise an exception in case of an encoding error
- 'replace' : replace malformed data with a suitable replacement marker, such as '?' or '\ufffd'
- 'ignore' : ignore malformed data and continue without further notice
- 'xmlcharrefreplace' : replace with the appropriate XML character reference (for encoding only)
- 'backslashreplace' : replace with backslashed escape sequences (for encoding only)

as well as any other error handling name defined via *register_error()*.

In case a search function cannot find a given encoding, it should return *None*.

`codecs.lookup(encoding)`

Looks up the codec info in the Python codec registry and returns a *CodecInfo* object as defined above.

Encodings are first looked up in the registry's cache. If not found, the list of registered search functions is scanned. If no *CodecInfo* object is found, a *LookupError* is raised. Otherwise, the *CodecInfo* object is stored in the cache and returned to the caller.

To simplify access to the various codecs, the module provides these additional functions which use *lookup()* for the codec lookup :

`codecs.getencoder(encoding)`

Look up the codec for the given encoding and return its encoder function.

Raises a [`LookupError`](#) in case the encoding cannot be found.

`codecs.getdecoder(encoding)`

Look up the codec for the given encoding and return its decoder function.

Raises a [`LookupError`](#) in case the encoding cannot be found.

`codecs.getincrementalencoder(encoding)`

Look up the codec for the given encoding and return its incremental encoder class or factory function.

Raises a [`LookupError`](#) in case the encoding cannot be found or the codec doesn't support an incremental encoder.

Nouveau dans la version 2.5.

`codecs.getincrementaldecoder(encoding)`

Look up the codec for the given encoding and return its incremental decoder class or factory function.

Raises a [`LookupError`](#) in case the encoding cannot be found or the codec doesn't support an incremental decoder.

Nouveau dans la version 2.5.

`codecs.getreader(encoding)`

Look up the codec for the given encoding and return its `StreamReader` class or factory function.

Raises a [`LookupError`](#) in case the encoding cannot be found.

`codecs.getwriter(encoding)`

Look up the codec for the given encoding and return its `StreamWriter` class or factory function.

Raises a [`LookupError`](#) in case the encoding cannot be found.

`codecs.register_error(name, error_handler)`

Register the error handling function *error_handler* under the name *name*. *error_handler* will be called during encoding and decoding in case of an error, when *name* is specified as the errors parameter.

For encoding *error_handler* will be called with a [`UnicodeEncodeError`](#) instance, which contains information about the location of the error. The error handler must either raise this or a different exception or return a tuple with a replacement for the unencodable part of the input and a position where encoding should continue. The encoder will encode the replacement and continue encoding the original input at the specified position. Negative position values will be treated as being relative to the end of the input string. If the resulting position is out of bound an [`IndexError`](#) will be raised.

Decoding and translating works similar, except [`UnicodeDecodeError`](#) or [`UnicodeTranslateError`](#) will be passed to the handler and that the replacement from the error handler will be put into the output directly.

`codecs.lookup_error(name)`

Return the error handler previously registered under the name *name*.

Raises a [`LookupError`](#) in case the handler cannot be found.

`codecs.strict_errors(exception)`

Implements the **strict** error handling : each encoding or decoding error raises a [`UnicodeError`](#).

`codecs.replace_errors(exception)`

Implements the **replace** error handling : malformed data is replaced with a suitable replacement character such as '?' in bytestrings and '\ufffd' in Unicode strings.

`codecs.ignore_errors(exception)`

Implements the **ignore** error handling : malformed data is ignored and encoding or decoding is continued without further notice.

`codecs.xmlcharrefreplace_errors(exception)`

Implements the **xmlcharrefreplace** error handling (for encoding only) : the unencodable character is replaced by an appropriate XML character reference.

`codecs.backslashreplace_errors(exception)`

Implements the `backslashreplace` error handling (for encoding only) : the unencodable character is replaced by a backslashed escape sequence.

To simplify working with encoded files or stream, the module also defines these utility functions :

`codecs.open(filename, mode[, encoding[, errors[, buffering]]])`

Open an encoded file using the given *mode* and return a wrapped version providing transparent encoding/decoding. The default file mode is `'r'` meaning to open the file in read mode.

Note : The wrapped version will only accept the object format defined by the codecs, i.e. Unicode objects for most built-in codecs. Output is also codec-dependent and will usually be Unicode as well.

Note : Files are always opened in binary mode, even if no binary mode was specified. This is done to avoid data loss due to encodings using 8-bit values. This means that no automatic conversion of `'\n'` is done on reading and writing.

encoding specifies the encoding which is to be used for the file.

errors may be given to define the error handling. It defaults to `'strict'` which causes a *ValueError* to be raised in case an encoding error occurs.

buffering has the same meaning as for the built-in *open()* function. It defaults to line buffered.

`codecs.EncodedFile(file, input[, output[, errors]]])`

Return a wrapped version of file which provides transparent encoding translation.

Strings written to the wrapped file are interpreted according to the given *input* encoding and then written to the original file as strings using the *output* encoding. The intermediate encoding will usually be Unicode but depends on the specified codecs.

If *output* is not given, it defaults to *input*.

errors may be given to define the error handling. It defaults to `'strict'`, which causes *ValueError* to be raised in case an encoding error occurs.

`codecs.iterencode(iterable, encoding[, errors])`

Uses an incremental encoder to iteratively encode the input provided by *iterable*. This function is a *generator*. *errors* (as well as any other keyword argument) is passed through to the incremental encoder.

Nouveau dans la version 2.5.

`codecs.iterdecode(iterable, encoding[, errors])`

Uses an incremental decoder to iteratively decode the input provided by *iterable*. This function is a *generator*. *errors* (as well as any other keyword argument) is passed through to the incremental decoder.

Nouveau dans la version 2.5.

The module also provides the following constants which are useful for reading and writing to platform dependent files :

`codecs.BOM`

`codecs.BOM_BE`

`codecs.BOM_LE`

`codecs.BOM_UTF8`

`codecs.BOM_UTF16`

`codecs.BOM_UTF16_BE`

`codecs.BOM_UTF16_LE`

`codecs.BOM_UTF32`

`codecs.BOM_UTF32_BE`

`codecs.BOM_UTF32_LE`

These constants define various encodings of the Unicode byte order mark (BOM) used in UTF-16 and

UTF-32 data streams to indicate the byte order used in the stream or file and in UTF-8 as a Unicode signature. `BOM_UTF16` is either `BOM_UTF16_BE` or `BOM_UTF16_LE` depending on the platform's native byte order, `BOM` is an alias for `BOM_UTF16`, `BOM_LE` for `BOM_UTF16_LE` and `BOM_BE` for `BOM_UTF16_BE`. The others represent the BOM in UTF-8 and UTF-32 encodings.

7.8.1 Codec Base Classes

The `codecs` module defines a set of base classes which define the interface and can also be used to easily write your own codecs for use in Python.

Each codec has to define four interfaces to make it usable as codec in Python : stateless encoder, stateless decoder, stream reader and stream writer. The stream reader and writers typically reuse the stateless encoder/decoder to implement the file protocols.

The `Codec` class defines the interface for stateless encoders/decoders.

To simplify and standardize error handling, the `encode()` and `decode()` methods may implement different error handling schemes by providing the `errors` string argument. The following string values are defined and implemented by all standard Python codecs :

Valeur	Signification
'strict'	Raise <code>UnicodeError</code> (or a subclass) ; this is the default.
'ignore'	Ignore the character and continue with the next.
'replace'	Replace with a suitable replacement character ; Python will use the official U+FFFD REPLACEMENT CHARACTER for the built-in Unicode codecs on decoding and “?” on encoding.
'xmlcharrefreplace'	Replace with the appropriate XML character reference (only for encoding).
'backslashreplace'	Replace with backslashed escape sequences (only for encoding).

The set of allowed values can be extended via `register_error()`.

Codec Objects

The `Codec` class defines these methods which also define the function interfaces of the stateless encoder and decoder :

`Codec.encode(input[, errors])`

Encodes the object `input` and returns a tuple (output object, length consumed). While codecs are not restricted to use with Unicode, in a Unicode context, encoding converts a Unicode object to a plain string using a particular character set encoding (e.g., `cp1252` or `iso-8859-1`).

`errors` defines the error handling to apply. It defaults to 'strict' handling.

The method may not store state in the `Codec` instance. Use `StreamWriter` for codecs which have to keep state in order to make encoding efficient.

The encoder must be able to handle zero length input and return an empty object of the output object type in this situation.

`Codec.decode(input[, errors])`

Decodes the object `input` and returns a tuple (output object, length consumed). In a Unicode context, decoding converts a plain string encoded using a particular character set encoding to a Unicode object.

`input` must be an object which provides the `bf_getreadbuf` buffer slot. Python strings, buffer objects and memory mapped files are examples of objects providing this slot.

`errors` defines the error handling to apply. It defaults to 'strict' handling.

The method may not store state in the `Codec` instance. Use `StreamReader` for codecs which have to keep state in order to make decoding efficient.

The decoder must be able to handle zero length input and return an empty object of the output object type in this situation.

The *IncrementalEncoder* and *IncrementalDecoder* classes provide the basic interface for incremental encoding and decoding. Encoding/decoding the input isn't done with one call to the stateless encoder/decoder function, but with multiple calls to the *encode()/decode()* method of the incremental encoder/decoder. The incremental encoder/decoder keeps track of the encoding/decoding process during method calls.

The joined output of calls to the *encode()/decode()* method is the same as if all the single inputs were joined into one, and this input was encoded/decoded with the stateless encoder/decoder.

IncrementalEncoder Objects

Nouveau dans la version 2.5.

The *IncrementalEncoder* class is used for encoding an input in multiple steps. It defines the following methods which every incremental encoder must define in order to be compatible with the Python codec registry.

```
class codecs.IncrementalEncoder([errors])
```

Constructor for an *IncrementalEncoder* instance.

All incremental encoders must provide this constructor interface. They are free to add additional keyword arguments, but only the ones defined here are used by the Python codec registry.

The *IncrementalEncoder* may implement different error handling schemes by providing the *errors* keyword argument. These parameters are predefined :

- 'strict' Raise *ValueError* (or a subclass); this is the default.
- 'ignore' Ignore the character and continue with the next.
- 'replace' Replace with a suitable replacement character
- 'xmlcharrefreplace' Replace with the appropriate XML character reference
- 'backslashreplace' Replace with backslashed escape sequences.

The *errors* argument will be assigned to an attribute of the same name. Assigning to this attribute makes it possible to switch between different error handling strategies during the lifetime of the *IncrementalEncoder* object.

The set of allowed values for the *errors* argument can be extended with *register_error()*.

```
encode(object[, final])
```

Encodes *object* (taking the current state of the encoder into account) and returns the resulting encoded object. If this is the last call to *encode()* *final* must be true (the default is false).

```
reset()
```

Reset the encoder to the initial state.

IncrementalDecoder Objects

The *IncrementalDecoder* class is used for decoding an input in multiple steps. It defines the following methods which every incremental decoder must define in order to be compatible with the Python codec registry.

```
class codecs.IncrementalDecoder([errors])
```

Constructor for an *IncrementalDecoder* instance.

All incremental decoders must provide this constructor interface. They are free to add additional keyword arguments, but only the ones defined here are used by the Python codec registry.

The *IncrementalDecoder* may implement different error handling schemes by providing the *errors* keyword argument. These parameters are predefined :

- 'strict' Raise *ValueError* (or a subclass); this is the default.
- 'ignore' Ignore the character and continue with the next.
- 'replace' Replace with a suitable replacement character.

The *errors* argument will be assigned to an attribute of the same name. Assigning to this attribute makes it possible to switch between different error handling strategies during the lifetime of the *IncrementalDecoder* object.

The set of allowed values for the *errors* argument can be extended with *register_error()*.

decode(*object*[, *final*])

Decodes *object* (taking the current state of the decoder into account) and returns the resulting decoded object. If this is the last call to *decode()* *final* must be true (the default is false). If *final* is true the decoder must decode the input completely and must flush all buffers. If this isn't possible (e.g. because of incomplete byte sequences at the end of the input) it must initiate error handling just like in the stateless case (which might raise an exception).

reset()

Reset the decoder to the initial state.

The *StreamWriter* and *StreamReader* classes provide generic working interfaces which can be used to implement new encoding submodules very easily. See `encodings.utf_8` for an example of how this is done.

StreamWriter Objects

The *StreamWriter* class is a subclass of *Codec* and defines the following methods which every stream writer must define in order to be compatible with the Python codec registry.

class `codecs.StreamWriter`(*stream*[, *errors*])

Constructor for a *StreamWriter* instance.

All stream writers must provide this constructor interface. They are free to add additional keyword arguments, but only the ones defined here are used by the Python codec registry.

stream must be a file-like object open for writing binary data.

The *StreamWriter* may implement different error handling schemes by providing the *errors* keyword argument. These parameters are predefined :

- 'strict' Raise *ValueError* (or a subclass) ; this is the default.
- 'ignore' Ignore the character and continue with the next.
- 'replace' Replace with a suitable replacement character
- 'xmlcharrefreplace' Replace with the appropriate XML character reference
- 'backslashreplace' Replace with backslashed escape sequences.

The *errors* argument will be assigned to an attribute of the same name. Assigning to this attribute makes it possible to switch between different error handling strategies during the lifetime of the *StreamWriter* object.

The set of allowed values for the *errors* argument can be extended with *register_error()*.

write(*object*)

Writes the object's contents encoded to the stream.

writelines(*list*)

Writes the concatenated list of strings to the stream (possibly by reusing the *write()* method).

reset()

Flushes and resets the codec buffers used for keeping state.

Calling this method should ensure that the data on the output is put into a clean state that allows appending of new fresh data without having to rescan the whole stream to recover state.

In addition to the above methods, the *StreamWriter* must also inherit all other methods and attributes from the underlying stream.

StreamReader Objects

The *StreamReader* class is a subclass of *Codec* and defines the following methods which every stream reader must define in order to be compatible with the Python codec registry.

class `codecs.StreamReader`(*stream*[, *errors*])

Constructor for a *StreamReader* instance.

All stream readers must provide this constructor interface. They are free to add additional keyword arguments, but only the ones defined here are used by the Python codec registry.

stream must be a file-like object open for reading (binary) data.

The *StreamReader* may implement different error handling schemes by providing the *errors* keyword argument. These parameters are defined :

- 'strict' Raise *ValueError* (or a subclass) ; this is the default.
- 'ignore' Ignore the character and continue with the next.
- 'replace' Replace with a suitable replacement character.

The *errors* argument will be assigned to an attribute of the same name. Assigning to this attribute makes it possible to switch between different error handling strategies during the lifetime of the *StreamReader* object.

The set of allowed values for the *errors* argument can be extended with *register_error()*.

read([*size*[, *chars*[, *firstline*]]])

Decodes data from the stream and returns the resulting object.

chars indicates the number of characters to read from the stream. *read()* will never return more than *chars* characters, but it might return less, if there are not enough characters available.

size indicates the approximate maximum number of bytes to read from the stream for decoding purposes. The decoder can modify this setting as appropriate. The default value -1 indicates to read and decode as much as possible. *size* is intended to prevent having to decode huge files in one step.

firstline indicates that it would be sufficient to only return the first line, if there are decoding errors on later lines.

The method should use a greedy read strategy meaning that it should read as much data as is allowed within the definition of the encoding and the given size, e.g. if optional encoding endings or state markers are available on the stream, these should be read too.

Modifié dans la version 2.4 : *chars* argument added.

Modifié dans la version 2.4.2 : *firstline* argument added.

readline([*size*[, *keepends*]])

Read one line from the input stream and return the decoded data.

size, if given, is passed as size argument to the stream's *read()* method.

If *keepends* is false line-endings will be stripped from the lines returned.

Modifié dans la version 2.4 : *keepends* argument added.

readlines([*sizehint*[, *keepends*]])

Read all lines available on the input stream and return them as a list of lines.

Line-endings are implemented using the codec's decoder method and are included in the list entries if *keepends* is true.

sizehint, if given, is passed as the *size* argument to the stream's *read()* method.

reset()

Resets the codec buffers used for keeping state.

Note that no stream repositioning should take place. This method is primarily intended to be able to recover from decoding errors.

In addition to the above methods, the *StreamReader* must also inherit all other methods and attributes from the underlying stream.

The next two base classes are included for convenience. They are not needed by the codec registry, but may provide useful in practice.

StreamReaderWriter Objects

The *StreamReaderWriter* allows wrapping streams which work in both read and write modes.

The design is such that one can use the factory functions returned by the *lookup()* function to construct the instance.

class codecs.*StreamReaderWriter*(*stream*, *Reader*, *Writer*, *errors*)

Creates a *StreamReaderWriter* instance. *stream* must be a file-like object. *Reader* and *Writer* must

be factory functions or classes providing the *StreamReader* and *StreamWriter* interface resp. Error handling is done in the same way as defined for the stream readers and writers.

StreamReaderWriter instances define the combined interfaces of *StreamReader* and *StreamWriter* classes. They inherit all other methods and attributes from the underlying stream.

StreamRecoder Objects

The *StreamRecoder* provide a frontend - backend view of encoding data which is sometimes useful when dealing with different encoding environments.

The design is such that one can use the factory functions returned by the *lookup()* function to construct the instance.

class `codecs.StreamRecoder`(*stream, encode, decode, Reader, Writer, errors*)

Creates a *StreamRecoder* instance which implements a two-way conversion : *encode* and *decode* work on the frontend (the input to *read()* and output of *write()*) while *Reader* and *Writer* work on the backend (reading and writing to the stream).

You can use these objects to do transparent direct recodings from e.g. Latin-1 to UTF-8 and back.

stream must be a file-like object.

encode, *decode* must adhere to the *Codec* interface. *Reader*, *Writer* must be factory functions or classes providing objects of the *StreamReader* and *StreamWriter* interface respectively.

encode and *decode* are needed for the frontend translation, *Reader* and *Writer* for the backend translation. The intermediate format used is determined by the two sets of codecs, e.g. the Unicode codecs will use Unicode as the intermediate encoding.

Error handling is done in the same way as defined for the stream readers and writers.

StreamRecoder instances define the combined interfaces of *StreamReader* and *StreamWriter* classes. They inherit all other methods and attributes from the underlying stream.

7.8.2 Encodings and Unicode

Unicode strings are stored internally as sequences of code points (to be precise as `Py_UNICODE` arrays). Depending on the way Python is compiled (either via `--enable-unicode=ucs2` or `--enable-unicode=ucs4`, with the former being the default) `Py_UNICODE` is either a 16-bit or 32-bit data type. Once a Unicode object is used outside of CPU and memory, CPU endianness and how these arrays are stored as bytes become an issue. Transforming a unicode object into a sequence of bytes is called encoding and recreating the unicode object from the sequence of bytes is known as decoding. There are many different methods for how this transformation can be done (these methods are also called encodings). The simplest method is to map the code points 0-255 to the bytes 0x0-0xff. This means that a unicode object that contains code points above U+00FF can't be encoded with this method (which is called 'latin-1' or 'iso-8859-1'). `unicode.encode()` will raise a *UnicodeEncodeError* that looks like this : `UnicodeEncodeError: 'latin-1' codec can't encode character u'\u1234' in position 3: ordinal not in range(256)`.

There's another group of encodings (the so called charmap encodings) that choose a different subset of all unicode code points and how these code points are mapped to the bytes 0x0-0xff. To see how this is done simply open e.g. `encodings/cp1252.py` (which is an encoding that is used primarily on Windows). There's a string constant with 256 characters that shows you which character is mapped to which byte value.

All of these encodings can only encode 256 of the 1114112 code points defined in unicode. A simple and straightforward way that can store each Unicode code point, is to store each code point as four consecutive bytes. There are two possibilities : store the bytes in big endian or in little endian order. These two encodings are called UTF-32-BE and UTF-32-LE respectively. Their disadvantage is that if e.g. you use UTF-32-BE on a little endian machine you will always have to swap bytes on encoding and decoding. UTF-32 avoids this problem : bytes will always be in natural endianness. When these bytes are read by a CPU with a different endianness, then bytes have to be swapped though. To be able to detect the endianness of a UTF-16 or UTF-32 byte sequence, there's the so called BOM (« Byte Order Mark »). This is the Unicode character U+FEFF.

This character can be prepended to every UTF-16 or UTF-32 byte sequence. The byte swapped version of this character (0xFFFE) is an illegal character that may not appear in a Unicode text. So when the first character in an UTF-16 or UTF-32 byte sequence appears to be a U+FFFE the bytes have to be swapped on decoding. Unfortunately the character U+FEFF had a second purpose as a ZERO WIDTH NO-BREAK SPACE : a character that has no width and doesn't allow a word to be split. It can e.g. be used to give hints to a ligature algorithm. With Unicode 4.0 using U+FEFF as a ZERO WIDTH NO-BREAK SPACE has been deprecated (with U+2060 (WORD JOINER) assuming this role). Nevertheless Unicode software still must be able to handle U+FEFF in both roles : as a BOM it's a device to determine the storage layout of the encoded bytes, and vanishes once the byte sequence has been decoded into a Unicode string ; as a ZERO WIDTH NO-BREAK SPACE it's a normal character that will be decoded like any other.

There's another encoding that is able to encoding the full range of Unicode characters : UTF-8. UTF-8 is an 8-bit encoding, which means there are no issues with byte order in UTF-8. Each byte in a UTF-8 byte sequence consists of two parts : marker bits (the most significant bits) and payload bits. The marker bits are a sequence of zero to four 1 bits followed by a 0 bit. Unicode characters are encoded like this (with x being payload bits, which when concatenated give the Unicode character) :

Range	Encoding
U-00000000 ... U-0000007F	0xxxxxxx
U-00000080 ... U-000007FF	110xxxxx 10xxxxxx
U-00000800 ... U-0000FFFF	1110xxxx 10xxxxxx 10xxxxxx
U-00010000 ... U-0010FFFF	11110xxx 10xxxxxx 10xxxxxx 10xxxxxx

The least significant bit of the Unicode character is the rightmost x bit.

As UTF-8 is an 8-bit encoding no BOM is required and any U+FEFF character in the decoded Unicode string (even if it's the first character) is treated as a ZERO WIDTH NO-BREAK SPACE.

Without external information it's impossible to reliably determine which encoding was used for encoding a Unicode string. Each charmap encoding can decode any random byte sequence. However that's not possible with UTF-8, as UTF-8 byte sequences have a structure that doesn't allow arbitrary byte sequences. To increase the reliability with which a UTF-8 encoding can be detected, Microsoft invented a variant of UTF-8 (that Python 2.5 calls "utf-8-sig") for its Notepad program : Before any of the Unicode characters is written to the file, a UTF-8 encoded BOM (which looks like this as a byte sequence : 0xef, 0xbb, 0xbf) is written. As it's rather improbable that any charmap encoded file starts with these byte values (which would e.g. map to

LATIN SMALL LETTER I WITH DIAERESIS
RIGHT-POINTING DOUBLE ANGLE QUOTATION MARK
INVERTED QUESTION MARK

in iso-8859-1), this increases the probability that a utf-8-sig encoding can be correctly guessed from the byte sequence. So here the BOM is not used to be able to determine the byte order used for generating the byte sequence, but as a signature that helps in guessing the encoding. On encoding the utf-8-sig codec will write 0xef, 0xbb, 0xbf as the first three bytes to the file. On decoding utf-8-sig will skip those three bytes if they appear as the first three bytes in the file. In UTF-8, the use of the BOM is discouraged and should generally be avoided.

7.8.3 Standard Encodings

Python comes with a number of codecs built-in, either implemented as C functions or with dictionaries as mapping tables. The following table lists the codecs by name, together with a few common aliases, and the languages for which the encoding is likely used. Neither the list of aliases nor the list of languages is meant to be exhaustive. Notice that spelling alternatives that only differ in case or use a hyphen instead of an underscore are also valid aliases ; therefore, e.g. 'utf-8' is a valid alias for the 'utf_8' codec.

Many of the character sets support the same languages. They vary in individual characters (e.g. whether the EURO SIGN is supported or not), and in the assignment of characters to code positions. For the European languages in particular, the following variants typically exist :

- an ISO 8859 codeset
- a Microsoft Windows code page, which is typically derived from an 8859 codeset, but replaces control characters with additional graphic characters
- an IBM EBCDIC code page
- an IBM PC code page, which is ASCII compatible

Codec	Aliases	Languages
ascii	646, us-ascii	Anglais
big5	big5-tw, csbig5	Chinois Traditionnel
big5hkscs	big5-hkscs, hkscs	Chinois Traditionnel
cp037	IBM037, IBM039	Anglais
cp424	EBCDIC-CP-HE, IBM424	Hébreux
cp437	437, IBM437	Anglais
cp500	EBCDIC-CP-BE, EBCDIC-CP-CH, IBM500	Europe de l'ouest
cp720		Arabe
cp737		Grec
cp775	IBM775	Langues Baltiques
cp850	850, IBM850	Europe de l'ouest
cp852	852, IBM852	Europe centrale et Europe de l'Est
cp855	855, IBM855	Bulgare, Biélorusse, Macédonien, Russe, Serbe
cp856		Hébreux
cp857	857, IBM857	Turc
cp858	858, IBM858	Europe de l'ouest
cp860	860, IBM860	Portugais
cp861	861, CP-IS, IBM861	Islandais
cp862	862, IBM862	Hébreux
cp863	863, IBM863	Canadien
cp864	IBM864	Arabe
cp865	865, IBM865	Danish, Norwegian
cp866	866, IBM866	Russe
cp869	869, CP-GR, IBM869	Grec
cp874		Thai
cp875		Grec
cp932	932, ms932, mskanji, ms-kanji	Japanese
cp949	949, ms949, uhc	Korean
cp950	950, ms950	Chinois Traditionnel
cp1006		Urdu
cp1026	ibm1026	Turc
cp1140	ibm1140	Europe de l'ouest
cp1250	windows-1250	Europe centrale et Europe de l'Est
cp1251	windows-1251	Bulgare, Biélorusse, Macédonien, Russe, Serbe
cp1252	windows-1252	Europe de l'ouest
cp1253	windows-1253	Grec
cp1254	windows-1254	Turc

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Tableau 3 – suite de la page précédente

Codec	Aliases	Languages
cp1255	windows-1255	Hébreux
cp1256	windows-1256	Arabe
cp1257	windows-1257	Langues Baltiques
cp1258	windows-1258	Vietnamese
euc_jp	eucjp, ujis, u-jis	Japanese
euc_jis_2004	jisx0213, eucjis2004	Japanese
euc_jisx0213	eucjisx0213	Japanese
euc_kr	euckr, korean, ksc5601, ks_c-5601, ks_c-5601-1987, ksx1001, ks_x-1001	Korean
gb2312	chinese, csiso58gb231280, euc-cn, euccn, eucgb2312-cn, gb2312-1980, gb2312-80, iso-ir-58	Simplified Chinese
gbk	936, cp936, ms936	Unified Chinese
gb18030	gb18030-2000	Unified Chinese
hz	hzgb, hz-gb, hz-gb-2312	Simplified Chinese
iso2022_jp	csiso2022jp, iso2022jp, iso-2022-jp	Japanese
iso2022_jp_1	iso2022jp-1, iso-2022-jp-1	Japanese
iso2022_jp_2	iso2022jp-2, iso-2022-jp-2	Japanese, Korean, Simplified Chinese, Western Europe, Greek
iso2022_jp_2004	iso2022jp-2004, iso-2022-jp-2004	Japanese
iso2022_jp_3	iso2022jp-3, iso-2022-jp-3	Japanese
iso2022_jp_ext	iso2022jp-ext, iso-2022-jp-ext	Japanese
iso2022_kr	csiso2022kr, iso2022kr, iso-2022-kr	Korean
latin_1	iso-8859-1, iso8859-1, 8859, cp819, latin, latin1, L1	Europe de l'Ouest
iso8859_2	iso-8859-2, latin2, L2	Europe centrale et Europe de l'Est
iso8859_3	iso-8859-3, latin3, L3	Esperanto, Maltese
iso8859_4	iso-8859-4, latin4, L4	Langues Baltiques
iso8859_5	iso-8859-5, cyrillic	Bulgare, Biélorusse, Macédonien, Russe, Serbe
iso8859_6	iso-8859-6, arabic	Arabe
iso8859_7	iso-8859-7, greek, greek8	Grec
iso8859_8	iso-8859-8, hebrew	Hébreux
iso8859_9	iso-8859-9, latin5, L5	Turc
iso8859_10	iso-8859-10, latin6, L6	Nordic languages
iso8859_11	iso-8859-11, thai	Thai languages
iso8859_13	iso-8859-13, latin7, L7	Langues Baltiques
iso8859_14	iso-8859-14, latin8, L8	Celtic languages
iso8859_15	iso-8859-15, latin9, L9	Europe de l'ouest
iso8859_16	iso-8859-16, latin10, L10	South-Eastern Europe
johab	cp1361, ms1361	Korean
koi8_r		Russe
koi8_u		Ukrainian
mac_cyrillic	maccyrillic	Bulgare, Biélorusse, Macédonien, Russe, Serbe

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Tableau 3 – suite de la page précédente

Codec	Aliases	Languages
mac_greek	macgreek	Grec
mac_iceland	maciceland	Islandais
mac_latin2	maclatin2, maccentraleurope	Europe centrale et Europe de l'Est
mac_roman	macroman	Europe de l'ouest
mac_turkish	macturkish	Turc
ptcp154	csptcp154, pt154, cp154, cyrillic-asian	Kazakh
shift_jis	csshiftjis, shiftjis, sjis, s_jis	Japanese
shift_jis_2004	shiftjis2004, sjis_2004, sjis2004	Japanese
shift_jisx0213	shiftjisx0213, sjisx0213, s_jisx0213	Japanese
utf_32	U32, utf32	all languages
utf_32_be	UTF-32BE	all languages
utf_32_le	UTF-32LE	all languages
utf_16	U16, utf16	all languages
utf_16_be	UTF-16BE	all languages (BMP only)
utf_16_le	UTF-16LE	all languages (BMP only)
utf_7	U7, unicode-1-1-utf-7	all languages
utf_8	U8, UTF, utf8	all languages
utf_8_sig		all languages

7.8.4 Python Specific Encodings

A number of predefined codecs are specific to Python, so their codec names have no meaning outside Python. These are listed in the tables below based on the expected input and output types (note that while text encodings are the most common use case for codecs, the underlying codec infrastructure supports arbitrary data transforms rather than just text encodings). For asymmetric codecs, the stated purpose describes the encoding direction.

The following codecs provide unicode-to-str encoding¹ and str-to-unicode decoding², similar to the Unicode text encodings.

Codec	Aliases	Objectif
idna		Implements RFC 3490 , see also encodings.idna
mbcs	dbcs	Windows only : Encode operand according to the ANSI codepage (CP_ACP)
palmos		Encoding of PalmOS 3.5
punycode		Implements RFC 3492
raw_unicode_escape		Produce a string that is suitable as raw Unicode literal in Python source code
rot_13	rot13	Returns the Caesar-cypher encryption of the operand
undefined		Raise an exception for all conversions. Can be used as the system encoding if no automatic coercion between byte and Unicode strings is desired.
unicode_escape		Produce a string that is suitable as Unicode literal in Python source code
unicode_internal		Return the internal representation of the operand

1. str objects are also accepted as input in place of unicode objects. They are implicitly converted to unicode by decoding them using the default encoding. If this conversion fails, it may lead to encoding operations raising [UnicodeDecodeError](#).

2. unicode objects are also accepted as input in place of str objects. They are implicitly converted to str by encoding them using the default encoding. If this conversion fails, it may lead to decoding operations raising [UnicodeEncodeError](#).

Nouveau dans la version 2.3 : The `idna` and `punycode` encodings.

The following codecs provide str-to-str encoding and decoding².

Codec	Aliases	Objectif	Encoder/decoder
<code>base64_codec</code>	<code>base64</code> , <code>base-64</code>	Convert operand to multiline MIME base64 (the result always includes a trailing <code>'\n'</code>)	<code>base64.encodestring()</code> , <code>base64.decodestring()</code>
<code>bz2_codec</code>	<code>bz2</code>	Compress the operand using bz2	<code>bz2.compress()</code> , <code>bz2.decompress()</code>
<code>hex_codec</code>	<code>hex</code>	Convert operand to hexadecimal representation, with two digits per byte	<code>binascii.b2a_hex()</code> , <code>binascii.a2b_hex()</code>
<code>quopri_codec</code>	<code>quopri</code> , <code>quoted-printable</code> , <code>quotedprintable</code>	Convert operand to MIME quoted printable	<code>quopri.encode()</code> with <code>quotetabs=True</code> , <code>quopri.decode()</code>
<code>string_escape</code>		Produce a string that is suitable as string literal in Python source code	
<code>uu_codec</code>	<code>uu</code>	Convert the operand using uuencode	<code>uu.encode()</code> , <code>uu.decode()</code>
<code>zlib_codec</code>	<code>zip</code> , <code>zlib</code>	Compress the operand using gzip	<code>zlib.compress()</code> , <code>zlib.decompress()</code>

7.8.5 `encodings.idna` — Internationalized Domain Names in Applications

Nouveau dans la version 2.3.

This module implements [RFC 3490](#) (Internationalized Domain Names in Applications) and [RFC 3492](#) (Nameprep : A Stringprep Profile for Internationalized Domain Names (IDN)). It builds upon the `punycode` encoding and `stringprep`.

These RFCs together define a protocol to support non-ASCII characters in domain names. A domain name containing non-ASCII characters (such as `www.Alliancefrançaise.nu`) is converted into an ASCII-compatible encoding (ACE, such as `www.xn--alliancefranaise-npb.nu`). The ACE form of the domain name is then used in all places where arbitrary characters are not allowed by the protocol, such as DNS queries, HTTP *Host* fields, and so on. This conversion is carried out in the application ; if possible invisible to the user : The application should transparently convert Unicode domain labels to IDNA on the wire, and convert back ACE labels to Unicode before presenting them to the user.

Python supports this conversion in several ways : the `idna` codec performs conversion between Unicode and ACE, separating an input string into labels based on the separator characters defined in [section 3.1 \(1\)](#) of [RFC 3490](#) and converting each label to ACE as required, and conversely separating an input byte string into labels based on the `.` separator and converting any ACE labels found into unicode. Furthermore, the `socket` module transparently converts Unicode host names to ACE, so that applications need not be concerned about converting host names themselves when they pass them to the socket module. On top of that, modules that have host names as function parameters, such as `httpplib` and `ftplib`, accept Unicode host names (`httpplib` then also transparently sends an IDNA hostname in the *Host* field if it sends that field at all).

When receiving host names from the wire (such as in reverse name lookup), no automatic conversion to Unicode is performed : Applications wishing to present such host names to the user should decode them to Unicode.

The module `encodings.idna` also implements the nameprep procedure, which performs certain normalizations on host names, to achieve case-insensitivity of international domain names, and to unify similar characters. The nameprep functions can be used directly if desired.

`encodings.idna.nameprep(label)`

Return the nameprepped version of *label*. The implementation currently assumes query strings, so `AllowUnassigned` is true.

`encodings.idna.ToASCII(label)`

Convert a label to ASCII, as specified in [RFC 3490](#). `UseSTD3ASCIIRules` is assumed to be false.

`encodings.idna.ToUnicode(label)`

Convert a label to Unicode, as specified in [RFC 3490](#).

7.8.6 `encodings.utf_8_sig` — UTF-8 codec with BOM signature

Nouveau dans la version 2.5.

This module implements a variant of the UTF-8 codec : On encoding a UTF-8 encoded BOM will be prepended to the UTF-8 encoded bytes. For the stateful encoder this is only done once (on the first write to the byte stream). For decoding an optional UTF-8 encoded BOM at the start of the data will be skipped.

7.9 `unicodedata` — Base de données Unicode

This module provides access to the Unicode Character Database which defines character properties for all Unicode characters. The data in this database is based on the `UnicodeData.txt` file version 5.2.0 which is publicly available from <ftp://ftp.unicode.org/>.

The module uses the same names and symbols as defined by the UnicodeData File Format 5.2.0 (see <http://www.unicode.org/reports/tr44/tr44-4.html>). It defines the following functions :

`unicodedata.lookup(name)`

Look up character by name. If a character with the given name is found, return the corresponding Unicode character. If not found, `KeyError` is raised.

`unicodedata.name(unichr[, default])`

Returns the name assigned to the Unicode character *unichr* as a string. If no name is defined, *default* is returned, or, if not given, `ValueError` is raised.

`unicodedata.decimal(unichr[, default])`

Returns the decimal value assigned to the Unicode character *unichr* as integer. If no such value is defined, *default* is returned, or, if not given, `ValueError` is raised.

`unicodedata.digit(unichr[, default])`

Returns the digit value assigned to the Unicode character *unichr* as integer. If no such value is defined, *default* is returned, or, if not given, `ValueError` is raised.

`unicodedata.numeric(unichr[, default])`

Returns the numeric value assigned to the Unicode character *unichr* as float. If no such value is defined, *default* is returned, or, if not given, `ValueError` is raised.

`unicodedata.category(unichr)`

Returns the general category assigned to the Unicode character *unichr* as string.

`unicodedata.bidirectional(unichr)`

Returns the bidirectional class assigned to the Unicode character *unichr* as string. If no such value is defined, an empty string is returned.

`unicodedata.combining(unichr)`

Returns the canonical combining class assigned to the Unicode character *unichr* as integer. Returns 0 if no combining class is defined.

`unicodedata.east_asian_width(unichr)`

Returns the east asian width assigned to the Unicode character *unichr* as string.

Nouveau dans la version 2.4.

`unicodedata.mirrored(unichr)`

Returns the mirrored property assigned to the Unicode character *unichr* as integer. Returns 1 if the character has been identified as a « mirrored » character in bidirectional text, 0 otherwise.

`unicodedata.decomposition(unichr)`

Returns the character decomposition mapping assigned to the Unicode character *unichr* as string. An empty string is returned in case no such mapping is defined.

`unicodedata.normalize(form, unistr)`

Renvoie la forme normale *form* de la chaîne de caractère Unicode *unistr*. Les valeurs valides de *form* sont *NFC*, *NFKC*, *NFD*, et *NFKD*.

Le standard Unicode définit les différentes variantes de normalisation d'une chaîne de caractères Unicode en se basant sur les définitions d'équivalence canonique et d'équivalence de compatibilité. En Unicode, plusieurs caractères peuvent être exprimés de différentes façons. Par exemple, le caractère *U+00C7* (*LATIN CAPITAL LETTER C WITH CEDILLA*) peut aussi être exprimé comme la séquence *U+0043* (*LATIN CAPITAL LETTER C*) *U+0327* (*COMBINING CEDILLA*).

Pour chaque caractère, il existe deux formes normales : la forme normale C et la forme normale D. La forme normale D (NFD) est aussi appelée décomposition canonique, et traduit chaque caractère dans sa forme décomposée. La forme normale C (NFC) applique d'abord la décomposition canonique, puis compose à nouveau les caractères pré-combinés.

En plus de ces deux formes, il existe deux formes nominales basées sur l'équivalence de compatibilité. En Unicode, certains caractères sont gérés alors qu'ils sont normalement unifiés avec d'autres caractères. Par exemple, *U+2160* (*ROMAN NUMERAL ONE*) est vraiment la même chose que *U+0049* (*LATIN CAPITAL LETTER I*). Cependant, ce caractère est supporté par souci de compatibilité avec les jeux de caractères existants (par exemple *gb2312*).

La forme normale KD (NFKD) applique la décomposition de compatibilité, c'est-à-dire remplacer les caractères de compatibilités avec leurs équivalents. La forme normale KC (NFKC) applique d'abord la décomposition de compatibilité, puis applique la composition canonique.

Même si deux chaînes de caractères Unicode sont normalisées et ont la même apparence pour un lecteur humain, si un a des caractères combinés alors que l'autre n'en a pas, elles peuvent ne pas être égales lors d'une comparaison.

Nouveau dans la version 2.3.

De plus, ce module expose la constante suivante :

`unicodedata.unidata_version`

La version de la base de données Unicode utilisée dans ce module.

Nouveau dans la version 2.3.

`unicodedata.ucd_3_2_0`

Ceci est un objet qui a les mêmes méthodes que le module, mais qui utilise la version 3.2 de la base de données Unicode, pour les applications qui nécessitent cette version spécifique de la base de données Unicode (comme l'IDNA).

Nouveau dans la version 2.5.

Exemples :

```
>>> import unicodedata
>>> unicodedata.lookup('LEFT CURLY BRACKET')
u'{'
>>> unicodedata.name(u'/')
'SOLIDUS'
```

(suite sur la page suivante)

(suite de la page précédente)

```

>>> unicodedata.decimal(u'9')
9
>>> unicodedata.decimal(u'a')
Traceback (most recent call last):
  File "<stdin>", line 1, in <module>
ValueError: not a decimal
>>> unicodedata.category(u'A') # 'L'etter, 'u'ppercase
'Lu'
>>> unicodedata.bidirectional(u'\u0660') # 'A'rabic, 'N'umber
'AN'

```

7.10 stringprep — Internet String Preparation

Nouveau dans la version 2.3.

When identifying things (such as host names) in the internet, it is often necessary to compare such identifications for « equality ». Exactly how this comparison is executed may depend on the application domain, e.g. whether it should be case-insensitive or not. It may be also necessary to restrict the possible identifications, to allow only identifications consisting of « printable » characters.

RFC 3454 defines a procedure for « preparing » Unicode strings in internet protocols. Before passing strings onto the wire, they are processed with the preparation procedure, after which they have a certain normalized form. The RFC defines a set of tables, which can be combined into profiles. Each profile must define which tables it uses, and what other optional parts of the **stringprep** procedure are part of the profile. One example of a **stringprep** profile is **nameprep**, which is used for internationalized domain names.

The module *stringprep* only exposes the tables from RFC 3454. As these tables would be very large to represent them as dictionaries or lists, the module uses the Unicode character database internally. The module source code itself was generated using the **mkstringprep.py** utility.

As a result, these tables are exposed as functions, not as data structures. There are two kinds of tables in the RFC : sets and mappings. For a set, *stringprep* provides the « characteristic function », i.e. a function that returns true if the parameter is part of the set. For mappings, it provides the mapping function : given the key, it returns the associated value. Below is a list of all functions available in the module.

stringprep.in_table_a1(*code*)

Determine whether *code* is in tableA.1 (Unassigned code points in Unicode 3.2).

stringprep.in_table_b1(*code*)

Determine whether *code* is in tableB.1 (Commonly mapped to nothing).

stringprep.map_table_b2(*code*)

Return the mapped value for *code* according to tableB.2 (Mapping for case-folding used with NFKC).

stringprep.map_table_b3(*code*)

Return the mapped value for *code* according to tableB.3 (Mapping for case-folding used with no normalization).

stringprep.in_table_c11(*code*)

Determine whether *code* is in tableC.1.1 (ASCII space characters).

stringprep.in_table_c12(*code*)

Determine whether *code* is in tableC.1.2 (Non-ASCII space characters).

stringprep.in_table_c11_c12(*code*)

Determine whether *code* is in tableC.1 (Space characters, union of C.1.1 and C.1.2).

`stringprep.in_table_c21(code)`
Determine whether *code* is in tableC.2.1 (ASCII control characters).

`stringprep.in_table_c22(code)`
Determine whether *code* is in tableC.2.2 (Non-ASCII control characters).

`stringprep.in_table_c21_c22(code)`
Determine whether *code* is in tableC.2 (Control characters, union of C.2.1 and C.2.2).

`stringprep.in_table_c3(code)`
Determine whether *code* is in tableC.3 (Private use).

`stringprep.in_table_c4(code)`
Determine whether *code* is in tableC.4 (Non-character code points).

`stringprep.in_table_c5(code)`
Determine whether *code* is in tableC.5 (Surrogate codes).

`stringprep.in_table_c6(code)`
Determine whether *code* is in tableC.6 (Inappropriate for plain text).

`stringprep.in_table_c7(code)`
Determine whether *code* is in tableC.7 (Inappropriate for canonical representation).

`stringprep.in_table_c8(code)`
Determine whether *code* is in tableC.8 (Change display properties or are deprecated).

`stringprep.in_table_c9(code)`
Determine whether *code* is in tableC.9 (Tagging characters).

`stringprep.in_table_d1(code)`
Determine whether *code* is in tableD.1 (Characters with bidirectional property « R » or « AL »).

`stringprep.in_table_d2(code)`
Determine whether *code* is in tableD.2 (Characters with bidirectional property « L »).

7.11 `fpformat` — Floating point conversions

Obsolète depuis la version 2.6 : The *fpformat* module has been removed in Python 3.

The *fpformat* module defines functions for dealing with floating point numbers representations in 100% pure Python.

Note : This module is unnecessary : everything here can be done using the % string interpolation operator described in the *String Formatting Operations* section.

The *fpformat* module defines the following functions and an exception :

`fpformat.fix(x, digs)`
Format *x* as `[-]ddd.ddd` with *digs* digits after the point and at least one digit before. If *digs* \leq 0, the decimal point is suppressed.
x can be either a number or a string that looks like one. *digs* is an integer.
Return value is a string.

`fpformat.sci(x, digs)`
Format *x* as `[-]d.dddE[+-]ddd` with *digs* digits after the point and exactly one digit before. If *digs* \leq 0, one digit is kept and the point is suppressed.
x can be either a real number, or a string that looks like one. *digs* is an integer.
Return value is a string.

exception `fpformat.NotANumber`

Exception raised when a string passed to *fix()* or *sci()* as the *x* parameter does not look like a number. This is a subclass of *ValueError* when the standard exceptions are strings. The exception value is the improperly formatted string that caused the exception to be raised.

Example :

```
>>> import fpformat
>>> fpformat.fix(1.23, 1)
'1.2'
```


Les modules documentés dans ce chapitre fournissent une gamme de types de données spécialisés tel que les dates et les heures, les listes à type prédéfini, les *heap queue*, les queues synchronisées, et les ensembles.

Python also provides some built-in data types, in particular, *dict*, *list*, *set* (which along with *frozenset*, replaces the deprecated *sets* module), and *tuple*. The *str* class can be used to handle binary data and 8-bit text, and the *unicode* class to handle Unicode text.

Les modules suivants sont documentés dans ce chapitre :

8.1 *datetime* — Types de base pour la date et l'heure

Nouveau dans la version 2.3.

Le module *datetime* fournit des classes pour manipuler de façon simple ou plus complexe des dates et des heures. Bien que les calculs de date et d'heure sont supportés, l'implémentation est essentiellement tournée vers l'efficacité pour extraire des attributs pour les manipuler et les formater pour l'affichage. Pour d'autres fonctionnalités associées, voir aussi les modules *time* et *calendar*.

Il y a deux sortes d'objets *date* et *time* : les « naïfs » et les « avisés ».

Un objet avisé possède suffisamment de connaissance des règles à appliquer et des politiques d'ajustement de l'heure comme les informations sur les fuseaux horaires et l'heure d'été pour se situer de façon relative par rapport à d'autres objets avisés. Un objet avisé est utilisé pour représenter un moment précis de l'histoire qui n'est pas ouvert à l'interprétation¹.

A naive object does not contain enough information to unambiguously locate itself relative to other date/time objects. Whether a naive object represents Coordinated Universal Time (UTC), local time, or time in some other timezone is purely up to the program, just like it's up to the program whether a particular number represents metres, miles, or mass. Naive objects are easy to understand and to work with, at the cost of ignoring some aspects of reality.

For applications requiring aware objects, *datetime* and *time* objects have an optional time zone information attribute, *tzinfo*, that can be set to an instance of a subclass of the abstract *tzinfo* class. These *tzinfo*

1. Si on ignore les effets de la Relativité

objects capture information about the offset from UTC time, the time zone name, and whether Daylight Saving Time is in effect. Note that no concrete *tzinfo* classes are supplied by the *datetime* module. Supporting timezones at whatever level of detail is required is up to the application. The rules for time adjustment across the world are more political than rational, and there is no standard suitable for every application.

Le module *datetime* exporte les constantes suivantes :

`datetime.MINYEAR`

Le numéro d'année le plus petit autorisé dans un objet *date* ou *datetime*. *MINYEAR* vaut 1.

`datetime.MAXYEAR`

Le numéro d'année le plus grand autorisé dans un objet *date* ou *datetime*. *MAXYEAR* vaut 9999.

Voir aussi :

Module *calendar* Fonctions génériques associées au calendrier.

Module *time* Accès aux données d'horaires et aux conversions associées.

8.1.1 Types disponibles

`class datetime.date`

Une date naïve idéalisée, en supposant que le calendrier Grégorien actuel a toujours existé et qu'il existera toujours. Attributs : *year*, *month* et *day*.

`class datetime.time`

Un temps idéalisé, indépendant d'une date particulière, en supposant qu'une journée est composée d'exactly 24*60*60 secondes (il n'y a pas ici de notion de « seconde bissextile »). Attributs : *hour*, *minute*, *second*, *microsecond* et *tzinfo*.

`class datetime.datetime`

Une combinaison d'une date et d'une heure. Attributs : *year*, *month*, *day*, *hour*, *minute*, *second*, *microsecond*, et *tzinfo*.

`class datetime.timedelta`

Une durée qui exprime la différence entre deux instances de *date*, *time* ou *datetime* en microsecondes.

`class datetime.tzinfo`

Une classe de base abstraite pour les objets portant des informations sur les fuseaux horaires. Ceux-ci sont utilisés par les classes *datetime* et *time* pour donner une notion personnalisable d'ajustement d'horaire (par exemple la prise en compte d'un fuseau horaire et/ou de l'heure d'été).

Les objets issus de ces types sont immuables.

Les objets de type *date* sont toujours naïfs.

Un objet de type *time* ou *datetime* peut être naïf ou avisé. Un objet *datetime* *d* est avisé si *d.tzinfo* ne vaut pas *None* et que *d.tzinfo.utcoffset(d)* ne renvoie pas *None*. Si *d.tzinfo* vaut *None* ou que *d.tzinfo* ne vaut pas *None* mais que *d.tzinfo.utcoffset(d)* renvoie *None*, alors *d* est naïf. Un objet *time* *t* est avisé si *t.tzinfo* ne vaut pas *None* et que *t.tzinfo.utcoffset(None)* ne renvoie pas *None*. Sinon, *t* est naïf.

La distinction entre naïf et avisé ne s'applique pas aux objets de type *timedelta*.

Relations entre les sous-classes :

```
graph TD
    object --> timedelta
    object --> tzinfo
    object --> time
    object --> date
    date --> datetime
```

8.1.2 Objets `timedelta`

Un objet `timedelta` représente une durée, c'est-à-dire la différence entre deux dates ou heures.

```
class datetime.timedelta([days[, seconds[, microseconds[, milliseconds[, minutes[, hours[, weeks]]]]]])
```

All arguments are optional and default to 0. Arguments may be ints, longs, or floats, and may be positive or negative.

Seuls les *jours*, les *secondes* et les *microsecondes* sont stockés en interne. Tous les paramètres sont convertis dans ces unités :

- Une milliseconde est convertie en 1000 microsecondes.
- Une minute est convertie en 60 secondes.
- Une heure est convertie en 3600 secondes.
- Une semaine est convertie en 7 jours.

et ensuite les jours, secondes et microsecondes sont normalisés pour que la représentation soit unique avec

- `0 <= microseconds < 1000000`
- `0 <= secondes < 3600*24` (le nombre de secondes dans une journée)
- `-999999999 <= days <= 999999999`

If any argument is a float and there are fractional microseconds, the fractional microseconds left over from all arguments are combined and their sum is rounded to the nearest microsecond. If no argument is a float, the conversion and normalization processes are exact (no information is lost).

Si la valeur normalisée des jours déborde de l'intervalle indiqué, une `OverflowError` est levée.

Notez que la normalisation de valeurs négatives peut être surprenante au premier abord. Par exemple,

```
>>> from datetime import timedelta
>>> d = timedelta(microseconds=-1)
>>> (d.days, d.seconds, d.microseconds)
(-1, 86399, 999999)
```

Les attributs de la classe sont :

`timedelta.min`

L'objet `timedelta` le plus négatif, `timedelta(-999999999)`.

`timedelta.max`

L'objet `timedelta` le plus positif, `timedelta(days=999999999, hours=23, minutes=59, seconds=59, microseconds=999999)`.

`timedelta.resolution`

La plus petite différence entre des objets `timedelta` non égaux, `timedelta(microseconds=1)`.

Il est à noter, du fait de la normalisation, que `timedelta.max > -timedelta.min`. `-timedelta.max` n'est pas représentable sous la forme d'un objet `timedelta`.

Attributs de l'instance (en lecture seule) :

Attribut	Valeur
<code>days</code>	Entre -999999999 et 999999999 inclus
<code>seconds</code>	Entre 0 et 86399 inclus
<code>microseconds</code>	Entre 0 et 999999 inclus

Opérations supportées :

Opération	Résultat
<code>t1 = t2 + t3</code>	Somme de <i>t2</i> et <i>t3</i> . Ensuite <code>t1 - t2 == t3</code> et <code>t1 - t3 == t2</code> sont des expressions vraies. (1)
<code>t1 = t2 - t3</code>	Différence entre <i>t2</i> et <i>t3</i> . Ensuite <code>t1 == t2 - t3</code> et <code>t2 == t1 + t3</code> sont des expressions vraies. (1)
<code>t1 = t2 * i</code> or <code>t1 = i * t2</code>	Delta multiplied by an integer or long. Afterwards <code>t1 // i == t2</code> is true, provided <code>i != 0</code> .
	De manière générale, <code>t1 * i == t1 * (i-1) + t1</code> est vrai. (1)
<code>t1 = t2 // i</code>	The floor is computed and the remainder (if any) is thrown away. (3)
<code>+t1</code>	Renvoie un objet <i>timedelta</i> avec la même valeur. (2)
<code>-t1</code>	équivalent à <i>timedelta</i> (- <i>t1.days</i> , - <i>t1.seconds</i> , - <i>t1.microseconds</i>), et à <code>t1 * -1</code> . (1)(4)
<code>abs(t)</code>	équivalent à <code>+t</code> quand <code>t.days >= 0</code> , et à <code>-t</code> quand <code>t.days < 0</code> . (2)
<code>str(t)</code>	Renvoie une chaîne de la forme <code>[D day[s],] [H]H:MM:SS[.UUUUUU]</code> , où D est négatif pour <i>t</i> négatif. (5)
<code>repr(t)</code>	Renvoie une chaîne de la forme <code>datetime.timedelta(D[, S[, U]])</code> , où D est négatif pour <i>t</i> négatif. (5)

Notes :

- (1) Ceci est exact, mais peut provoquer un débordement.
- (2) Ceci est exact, et ne peut pas provoquer un débordement.
- (3) Une division par 0 provoque *ZeroDivisionError*.
- (4) *-timedelta.max* n'est pas représentable avec un objet *timedelta*.
- (5) La représentation en chaîne de caractères des objets *timedelta* est normalisée similairement à leur représentation interne. Cela amène à des résultats inhabituels pour des *timedeltas* négatifs. Par exemple :

```
>>> timedelta(hours=-5)
datetime.timedelta(-1, 68400)
>>> print(_)
-1 day, 19:00:00
```

En plus des opérations listées ci-dessus, les objets *timedelta* supportent certaines additions et soustractions avec des objets *date* et *datetime* (voir ci-dessous).

Les comparaisons entre objets *timedelta* sont maintenant supportées avec le *timedelta* représentant la plus courte durée considéré comme le plus petit. Afin d'empêcher les comparaisons de types mixtes de retomber sur la comparaison par défaut par l'adresse de l'objet, quand un objet *timedelta* est comparé à un objet de type différent, une *TypeError* est levée à moins que la comparaison soit `==` ou `!=`. Ces derniers cas renvoient respectivement *False* et *True*.

Les objets *timedelta* sont *hashable* (utilisables comme clés de dictionnaires), supportent le protocole *pickle*, et dans un contexte booléen, un *timedelta* est considéré vrai si et seulement si il n'est pas égal à *timedelta(0)*.

Méthodes de l'instance :

timedelta.total_seconds()

Return the total number of seconds contained in the duration. Equivalent to `(td.microseconds + (td.seconds + td.days * 24 * 3600) * 10**6) / 10**6` computed with true division enabled.

Notez que pour des intervalles de temps très larges (supérieurs à 270 ans sur la plupart des plateformes), cette méthode perdra la précision des microsecondes.

Nouveau dans la version 2.7.

Exemple d'utilisation :

```
>>> from datetime import timedelta
>>> year = timedelta(days=365)
>>> another_year = timedelta(weeks=40, days=84, hours=23,
...                           minutes=50, seconds=600) # adds up to 365 days
>>> year.total_seconds()
31536000.0
>>> year == another_year
True
>>> ten_years = 10 * year
>>> ten_years, ten_years.days // 365
(datetime.timedelta(3650), 10)
>>> nine_years = ten_years - year
>>> nine_years, nine_years.days // 365
(datetime.timedelta(3285), 9)
>>> three_years = nine_years // 3;
>>> three_years, three_years.days // 365
(datetime.timedelta(1095), 3)
>>> abs(three_years - ten_years) == 2 * three_years + year
True
```

8.1.3 Objets date

Un objet *date* représente une date (année, mois et jour) dans un calendrier idéal, l'actuel calendrier grégorien étendu indéfiniment dans les deux directions. Le 1er janvier de l'an 1 est appelé le jour numéro 1, le 2 janvier de l'an 1 est appelé le jour numéro 2, et ainsi de suite. Cela correspond à la définition du calendrier « grégorien proleptique » dans le livre *Calendrical Calculations* de Dershowitz et Reingold, où il est la base de tous les calculs. Référez-vous au livre pour les algorithmes de conversion entre calendriers grégorien proleptique et les autres systèmes.

class `datetime.date(year, month, day)`

All arguments are required. Arguments may be ints or longs, in the following ranges :

- `MINYEAR <= year <= MAXYEAR`
- `1 <= month <= 12`
- `1 <= day <= nombre de jours dans le mois et l'année donnés`

Si un argument est donné en dehors de ces intervalles, une `valueError` est levée.

Autres constructeurs, méthodes de classe :

classmethod `date.today()`

Renvoie la date locale courante. Cela est équivalent à `date.fromtimestamp(time.time())`.

classmethod `date.fromtimestamp(timestamp)`

Return the local date corresponding to the POSIX timestamp, such as is returned by `time.time()`. This may raise `ValueError`, if the timestamp is out of the range of values supported by the platform C `localtime()` function. It's common for this to be restricted to years from 1970 through 2038. Note that on non-POSIX systems that include leap seconds in their notion of a timestamp, leap seconds are ignored by `fromtimestamp()`.

classmethod `date.fromordinal(ordinal)`

Renvoie la date correspondant à l'ordinal grégorien proleptique, où le 1er janvier de l'an 1 a l'ordinal 1. `ValueError` est levée à moins que `1 <= ordinal <= date.max.toordinal()`. Pour toute date `d`, `date.fromordinal(d.toordinal()) == d`.

Attributs de la classe :

`date.min`

La plus vieille date représentable, `date(MINYEAR, 1, 1)`.

`date.max`

La dernière date représentable, `date(MAXYEAR, 12, 31)`.

`date.resolution`

La plus petite différence possible entre deux objets dates non-égaux, `timedelta(days=1)`.

Attributs de l'instance (en lecture seule) :

`date.year`

Entre *MINYEAR* et *MAXYEAR* inclus.

`date.month`

Entre 1 et 12 inclus.

`date.day`

Entre 1 et le nombre de jours du mois donné de l'année donnée.

Opérations supportées :

Opération	Résultat
<code>date2 = date1 + timedelta</code>	<i>date2</i> est décalée de <code>timedelta.days</code> jours par rapport à <i>date1</i> . (1)
<code>date2 = date1 - timedelta</code>	Calcule <i>date2</i> de façon à avoir <code>date2 + timedelta == date1</code> . (2)
<code>timedelta = date1 - date2</code>	(3)
<code>date1 < date2</code>	<i>date1</i> est considérée comme inférieure à <i>date2</i> quand <i>date1</i> précède <i>date2</i> dans le temps. (4)

Notes :

- (1) *date2* est déplacée en avant dans le temps si `timedelta.days > 0`, ou en arrière si `timedelta.days < 0`. Après quoi `date2 - date1 == timedelta.days`, `timedelta.seconds` et `timedelta.microseconds` sont ignorés. Une *OverflowError* est levée si *date2.year* devait être inférieure à *MINYEAR* ou supérieure à *MAXYEAR*.
- (2) Cela n'est pas vraiment équivalent à `date1 + (-timedelta)`, parce que `-timedelta` isolé peut dépasser les bornes dans des cas où `date1 - timedelta` ne les dépasserait pas. `timedelta.seconds` et `timedelta.microseconds` sont ignorés.
- (3) Cela est exact, et ne peut pas dépasser les bornes. `timedelta.seconds` et `timedelta.microseconds` valent 0, et `date2 + timedelta == date1` après cela.
- (4) En d'autres termes, `date1 < date2` si et seulement si `date1.toordinal() < date2.toordinal()`. Afin d'empêcher les comparaisons de retomber sur la comparaison par défaut par l'adresse des objets, la comparaison de dates lève normalement une *TypeError* si l'autre opérande n'est pas un objet *date*. Cependant, *NotImplemented* est renvoyé à la place si l'autre opérande a un attribut `timetuple()`. Cela permet à d'autres types d'objets dates d'avoir une chance d'implémenter une comparaison entre types différents. Sinon, quand un objet *date* est comparé à un objet d'un type différent, une *TypeError* est levée à moins que la comparaison soit `==` ou `!=`. Ces derniers cas renvoient respectivement *False* et *True*.

Les dates peuvent être utilisées en tant que clés de dictionnaires. Dans un contexte booléen, tous les objets *date* sont considérés comme vrais.

Méthodes de l'instance :

`date.replace(year, month, day)`

Renvoie une date avec la même valeur, excepté pour les valeurs spécifiées par arguments nommés. Par exemple, si `d == date(2002, 12, 31)`, alors `d.replace(day=26) == date(2002, 12, 26)`.

`date.timetuple()`

Renvoie une `time.struct_time` telle que renvoyée par `time.localtime()`. Les heures, minutes et secondes valent 0, et le *flag DST* (heure d'été) est -1. `d.timetuple()` est équivalent à `time.struct_time((d.year, d.month, d.day, 0, 0, 0, d.weekday(), yday, -1))`, où `yday = d.toordinal() - date(d.year, 1, 1).toordinal() + 1` est le numéro du jour dans l'année courante, commençant avec 1 pour le 1er janvier.

`date.toordinal()`

Renvoie l'ordinal grégorien proleptique de la date, où le 1er janvier de l'an 1 a l'ordinal 1. Pour tout objet *date* `d`, `date.fromordinal(d.toordinal()) == d`.

`date.weekday()`

Renvoie le jour de la semaine sous forme de nombre, où lundi vaut 0 et dimanche vaut 6. Par exemple, `date(2002, 12, 4).weekday() == 2`, un mercredi. Voir aussi `isoweekday()`.

`date.isoweekday()`

Renvoie le jour de la semaine sous forme de nombre, où lundi vaut 1 et dimanche vaut 7. Par exemple, `date(2002, 12, 4).isoweekday() == 3`, un mercredi. Voir aussi `weekday()`, `isocalendar()`.

`date.isocalendar()`

Renvoie un *tuple* de 3 éléments, (année ISO, numéro de semaine ISO, jour de la semaine ISO).

Le calendrier ISO est une variante largement utilisée du calendrier grégorien. Voir <https://www.staff.science.uu.nl/~gent0113/calendar/isocalendar.htm> pour une bonne explication.

Une année ISO est composée de 52 ou 53 semaines pleines, où chaque semaine débute un lundi et se termine un dimanche. La première semaine d'une année ISO est la première semaine calendaire (grégorienne) de l'année comportant un jeudi. Elle est appelée la semaine numéro 1, et l'année ISO de ce mercredi est la même que son année grégorienne.

Par exemple, l'année 2004 débute un jeudi, donc la première semaine de l'année ISO 2004 débute le lundi 29 décembre 2003 et se termine le dimanche 4 janvier 2004, ainsi `date(2003, 12, 29).isocalendar() == (2004, 1, 1)` et `date(2004, 1, 4).isocalendar() == (2004, 1, 7)`.

`date.isoformat()`

Renvoie une chaîne de caractères représentant la date au format ISO 8601, « YYYY-MM-DD ». Par exemple, `date(2002, 12, 4).isoformat() == '2002-12-04'`.

`date.__str__()`

Pour une date `d`, `str(d)` est équivalent à `d.isoformat()`.

`date.ctime()`

Renvoie une chaîne de caractères représentant la date, par exemple `date(2002, 12, 4).ctime() == 'Wed Dec 4 00:00:00 2002'`. `d.ctime()` est équivalent à `time.ctime(time.mktime(d.timetuple()))` sur les plateformes où la fonction C native `ctime()` (que `time.ctime()` invoque, mais pas `date.ctime()`) est conforme au standard C.

`date.strftime(format)`

Return a string representing the date, controlled by an explicit format string. Format codes referring to hours, minutes or seconds will see 0 values. For a complete list of formatting directives, see section *Comportement de strftime() et strptime()*.

`date.__format__(format)`

Same as `date.strftime()`. This makes it possible to specify a format string for a *date* object when using `str.format()`. See section *Comportement de strftime() et strptime()*.

Exemple de décompte des jours avant un événement :

```
>>> import time
>>> from datetime import date
>>> today = date.today()
>>> today
datetime.date(2007, 12, 5)
>>> today == date.fromtimestamp(time.time())
True
>>> my_birthday = date(today.year, 6, 24)
>>> if my_birthday < today:
...     my_birthday = my_birthday.replace(year=today.year + 1)
>>> my_birthday
datetime.date(2008, 6, 24)
>>> time_to_birthday = abs(my_birthday - today)
>>> time_to_birthday.days
202
```

Exemple d'utilisation de la classe `date` :

```
>>> from datetime import date
>>> d = date.fromordinal(730920) # 730920th day after 1. 1. 0001
>>> d
datetime.date(2002, 3, 11)
>>> t = d.timetuple()
>>> for i in t:
...     print i
2002                # year
3                   # month
11                  # day
0
0
0
0                   # weekday (0 = Monday)
70                  # 70th day in the year
-1
>>> ic = d.isocalendar()
>>> for i in ic:
...     print i
2002                # ISO year
11                  # ISO week number
1                   # ISO day number ( 1 = Monday )
>>> d.isoformat()
'2002-03-11'
>>> d.strftime("%d/%m/%y")
'11/03/02'
>>> d.strftime("%A %d. %B %Y")
'Monday 11. March 2002'
>>> 'The {1} is {0:%d}, the {2} is {0:%B}.'.format(d, "day", "month")
'The day is 11, the month is March.'
```

8.1.4 Objets `datetime`

Un objet `datetime` est un objet comportant toutes les informations d'un objet `date` et d'un objet `time`. Comme un objet `date`, un objet `datetime` utilise l'actuel calendrier Grégorien étendu vers le passé et le

futur ; comme un objet `time`, un objet `datetime` suppose qu'il y a exactement 3600*24 secondes chaque jour.

Constructeur :

```
class datetime.datetime(year, month, day[, hour[, minute[, second[, microsecond[, tzinfo]]]]])
```

The year, month and day arguments are required. *tzinfo* may be `None`, or an instance of a *tzinfo* subclass. The remaining arguments may be ints or longs, in the following ranges :

- `MINYEAR <= year <= MAXYEAR`
- `1 <= month <= 12`
- `1 <= day <= nombre de jours dans le mois et l'année donnés`
- `0 <= hour < 24`
- `0 <= minute < 60`
- `0 <= second < 60`
- `0 <= microsecond < 1000000`

Si un argument est donné en dehors de ces intervalles, une `valueError` est levée.

Autres constructeurs, méthodes de classe :

```
classmethod datetime.today()
```

Renvoie le *datetime* local courant, avec *tzinfo* à `None`. Cela est équivalent à `datetime.fromtimestamp(time.time())`. Voir aussi `now()`, `fromtimestamp()`.

```
classmethod datetime.now([tz])
```

Renvoie la date et l'heure courantes locales. Si l'argument optionnel *tz* est `None` ou n'est pas spécifié, la méthode est similaire à `today()`, mais, si possible, apporte plus de précisions que ce qui peut être trouvé à travers un *timestamp* `time.time()` (par exemple, cela peut être possible sur des plateformes fournissant la fonction C `gettimeofday()`).

Si *tz* n'est pas `None`, il doit être une instance d'une sous-classe *tzinfo*, et la date et l'heure courantes sont converties vers le fuseau horaire *tz*. Dans ce cas le résultat est équivalent à `tz.fromutc(datetime.utcnow().replace(tzinfo=tz))`. Voir aussi `today()`, `utcnow()`.

```
classmethod datetime.utcnow()
```

Return the current UTC date and time, with *tzinfo* `None`. This is like `now()`, but returns the current UTC date and time, as a naive *datetime* object. See also `now()`.

```
classmethod datetime.fromtimestamp(timestamp[, tz])
```

Renvoie la date et l'heure locales correspondant au *timestamp* *POSIX*, comme renvoyé par `time.time()`. Si l'argument optionnel *tz* est `None` ou n'est pas spécifié, le *timestamp* est converti vers la date et l'heure locales de la plateforme, et l'objet *datetime* renvoyé est naïf.

Si *tz* n'est pas `None`, il doit être une instance d'une sous-classe *tzinfo*, et le *timestamp* est converti vers le fuseau horaire *tz*. Dans ce cas le résultat est équivalent à `tz.fromutc(datetime.utcfromtimestamp(timestamp).replace(tzinfo=tz))`.

`fromtimestamp()` may raise `ValueError`, if the timestamp is out of the range of values supported by the platform C `localtime()` or `gmtime()` functions. It's common for this to be restricted to years in 1970 through 2038. Note that on non-*POSIX* systems that include leap seconds in their notion of a timestamp, leap seconds are ignored by `fromtimestamp()`, and then it's possible to have two timestamps differing by a second that yield identical *datetime* objects. See also `utcfromtimestamp()`.

```
classmethod datetime.utcfromtimestamp(timestamp)
```

Return the UTC *datetime* corresponding to the *POSIX* timestamp, with *tzinfo* `None`. This may raise `ValueError`, if the timestamp is out of the range of values supported by the platform C `gmtime()` function. It's common for this to be restricted to years in 1970 through 2038. See also `fromtimestamp()`.

```
classmethod datetime.fromordinal(ordinal)
```

Renvoie le *datetime* correspondant à l'ordinal du calendrier grégorien proleptique, où le 1er janvier de l'an 1 a l'ordinal 1. Une `ValueError` est levée à moins que `1 <= ordinal <= datetime.max.toordinal()`. Les heures, minutes, secondes et microsecondes du résultat valent toutes 0, et *tzinfo* est `None`.

classmethod `datetime.combine(date, time)`

Return a new *datetime* object whose date components are equal to the given *date* object's, and whose time components and *tzinfo* attributes are equal to the given *time* object's. For any *datetime* object *d*, `d == datetime.combine(d.date(), d.timetz())`. If *date* is a *datetime* object, its time components and *tzinfo* attributes are ignored.

classmethod `datetime.strptime(date_string, format)`

Return a *datetime* corresponding to *date_string*, parsed according to *format*. This is equivalent to `datetime(*(time.strptime(date_string, format)[0:6]))`. *ValueError* is raised if the *date_string* and *format* can't be parsed by *time.strptime()* or if it returns a value which isn't a time tuple. For a complete list of formatting directives, see section *Comportement de strptime() et strptime()*.

Nouveau dans la version 2.5.

Attributs de la classe :

`datetime.min`

Le plus ancien *datetime* représentable, `datetime(MINYEAR, 1, 1, tzinfo=None)`.

`datetime.max`

Le dernier *datetime* représentable, `datetime(MAXYEAR, 12, 31, 23, 59, 59, 999999, tzinfo=None)`.

`datetime.resolution`

La plus petite différence possible entre deux objets *datetime* non-égaux, `timedelta(microseconds=1)`.

Attributs de l'instance (en lecture seule) :

`datetime.year`

Entre *MINYEAR* et *MAXYEAR* inclus.

`datetime.month`

Entre 1 et 12 inclus.

`datetime.day`

Entre 1 et le nombre de jours du mois donné de l'année donnée.

`datetime.hour`

Dans `range(24)`.

`datetime.minute`

Dans `range(60)`.

`datetime.second`

Dans `range(60)`.

`datetime.microsecond`

Dans `range(1000000)`.

`datetime.tzinfo`

L'objet passé en tant que paramètre *tzinfo* du constructeur de la classe *datetime* ou *None* si aucun n'a été donné.

Opérations supportées :

Opération	Résultat
<code>datetime2 = datetime1 + timedelta</code>	(1)
<code>datetime2 = datetime1 - timedelta</code>	(2)
<code>timedelta = datetime1 - datetime2</code>	(3)
<code>datetime1 < datetime2</code>	Compare <i>datetime</i> à <i>datetime</i> . (4)

- (1) *datetime2* est décalé d'une durée *timedelta* par rapport à *datetime1*, en avant dans le temps si *timedelta.days > 0*, ou en arrière si *timedelta.days < 0*. Le résultat a le même attribut *tzinfo* que le *datetime* d'entrée, et *datetime2 - datetime1 == timedelta* après l'opération. Une *OverflowError* est levée si *datetime2.year* devait être inférieure à *MINYEAR* ou supérieure à *MAXYEAR*. Notez qu'aucun ajustement de fuseau horaire n'est réalisé même si l'entrée est avisée.
- (2) Calcule *datetime2* tel que *datetime2 + timedelta == datetime1*. Comme pour l'addition, le résultat a le même attribut *tzinfo* que le *datetime* d'entrée, et aucun ajustement de fuseau horaire n'est réalisé même si l'entrée est avisée. Ce n'est pas vraiment équivalent à *datetime1 + (-timedelta)*, parce que *-timedelta* isolé peut déborder dans des cas où *datetime1 - timedelta* ne déborde pas.
- (3) La soustraction d'un *datetime* à un autre *datetime* n'est définie que si les deux opérandes sont naïfs, ou s'ils sont les deux avisés. Si l'un est avisé et que l'autre est naïf, une *TypeError* est levée.
Si les deux sont naïfs, ou que les deux sont avisés et ont le même attribut *tzinfo*, les attributs *tzinfo* sont ignorés, et le résultat est un objet *timedelta t* tel que *datetime2 + t == datetime1*. Aucun ajustement de fuseau horaire n'a lieu dans ce cas.
Si les deux sont avisés mais ont des attributs *tzinfo* différents, *a-b* agit comme si *a* et *b* étaient premièrement convertis vers des *datetimes* UTC naïfs. Le résultat est *(a.replace(tzinfo=None) - a.utcoffset()) - (b.replace(tzinfo=None) - b.utcoffset())* à l'exception que l'implémentation ne produit jamais de débordement.
- (4) *datetime1* est considéré inférieur à *datetime2* quand il le précède dans le temps.
If one comparand is naive and the other is aware, *TypeError* is raised. If both comparands are aware, and have the same *tzinfo* attribute, the common *tzinfo* attribute is ignored and the base datetimes are compared. If both comparands are aware and have different *tzinfo* attributes, the comparands are first adjusted by subtracting their UTC offsets (obtained from *self.utcoffset()*).

Note : Afin d'empêcher la comparaison de retomber sur le schéma par défaut de comparaison des adresses des objets, la comparaison *datetime* lève normalement une *TypeError* si l'autre opérande n'est pas aussi un objet *datetime*. Cependant, *NotImplemented* est renvoyé à la place si l'autre opérande a un attribut *timetuple()*. Cela permet à d'autres types d'objets dates d'implémenter la comparaison entre types mixtes. Sinon, quand un objet *datetime* est comparé à un objet d'un type différent, une *TypeError* est levée à moins que la comparaison soit *==* ou *!=*. Ces derniers cas renvoient respectivement *False* et *True*.

Les objets *datetime* peuvent être utilisés comme clés de dictionnaires. Dans les contextes booléens, tous les objets *datetime* sont considérés vrais.

Méthodes de l'instance :

datetime.date()

Renvoie un objet *date* avec les mêmes année, mois et jour.

datetime.time()

Return *time* object with same hour, minute, second and microsecond. *tzinfo* is None. See also method *timetz()*.

datetime.timetz()

Return *time* object with same hour, minute, second, microsecond, and *tzinfo* attributes. See also method *time()*.

datetime.replace([year[, month[, day[, hour[, minute[, second[, microsecond[, tzinfo]]]]]]]))

Renvoie un *datetime* avec les mêmes attributs, exceptés ceux dont de nouvelles valeurs sont données par les arguments nommés correspondant. Notez que *tzinfo=None* peut être spécifié pour créer un *datetime* naïf depuis un *datetime* avisé sans conversion de la date ou de l'heure.

`datetime.astimezone(tz)`

Renvoie un objet *datetime* avec un nouvel attribut *tzinfo* valant *tz*, ajustant la date et l'heure pour que le résultat soit le même temps UTC que *self*, mais dans le temps local au fuseau *tz*.

tz must be an instance of a *tzinfo* subclass, and its *utcoffset()* and *dst()* methods must not return *None*. *self* must be aware (*self.tzinfo* must not be *None*, and *self.utcoffset()* must not return *None*).

If *self.tzinfo* is *tz*, *self.astimezone(tz)* is equal to *self* : no adjustment of date or time data is performed. Else the result is local time in time zone *tz*, representing the same UTC time as *self* : after *astz = dt.astimezone(tz)*, *astz - astz.utcoffset()* will usually have the same date and time data as *dt - dt.utcoffset()*. The discussion of class *tzinfo* explains the cases at Daylight Saving Time transition boundaries where this cannot be achieved (an issue only if *tz* models both standard and daylight time).

Si vous voulez seulement associer un fuseau horaire *tz* à un *datetime dt* sans ajustement des données de date et d'heure, utilisez *dt.replace(tzinfo=tz)*. Si vous voulez seulement supprimer le fuseau horaire d'un *datetime dt* avisé sans conversion des données de date et d'heure, utilisez *dt.replace(tzinfo=None)*.

Notez que la méthode par défaut *tzinfo.fromutc()* peut être redéfinie dans une sous-classe *tzinfo* pour affecter le résultat renvoyé par *astimezone()*. En ignorant les cas d'erreurs, *astimezone()* se comporte comme :

```
def astimezone(self, tz):
    if self.tzinfo is tz:
        return self
    # Convert self to UTC, and attach the new time zone object.
    utc = (self - self.utcoffset()).replace(tzinfo=tz)
    # Convert from UTC to tz's local time.
    return tz.fromutc(utc)
```

`datetime.utcoffset()`

Si *tzinfo* est *None*, renvoie *None*, sinon renvoie *self.tzinfo.utcoffset(self)*, et lève une exception si l'expression précédente ne renvoie pas *None* ou un objet *timedelta* représentant un nombre entier de minutes de magnitude inférieure à un jour.

`datetime.dst()`

Si *tzinfo* est *None*, renvoie *None*, sinon renvoie *self.tzinfo.dst(self)*, et lève une exception si l'expression précédente ne renvoie pas *None* ou un objet *timedelta* représentant un nombre entier de minutes de magnitude inférieure à un jour.

`datetime.tzname()`

Si *tzinfo* est *None*, renvoie *None*, sinon renvoie *self.tzinfo.tzname(self)*, lève une exception si l'expression précédente ne renvoie pas *None* ou une chaîne de caractères.

`datetime.timetuple()`

Renvoie un *time.struct_time* comme renvoyé par *time.localtime()*. *d.timetuple()* est équivalent à *time.struct_time((d.year, d.month, d.day, d.hour, d.minute, d.second, d.weekday(), yday, dst))*, où *yday = d.toordinal() - date(d.year, 1, 1).toordinal() + 1* est le numéro de jour dans l'année courante commençant avec 1 pour le 1er janvier. L'option *tm_isdst* du résultat est attribuée selon la méthode *dst()* : si *tzinfo* est *None* ou que *dst()* renvoie *None*, *tm_isdst* est mise à -1 ; sinon, si *dst()* renvoie une valeur non-nulle, *tm_isdst* est mise à 1 ; sinon *tm_isdst* est mise à 0.

`datetime.utctimetuple()`

Si l'instance de *datetime d* est naïve, cela est équivalent à *d.timetuple()*, excepté que *tm_isdst* est forcé à 0 sans tenir compte de ce que renvoie *d.dst()*. L'heure d'été n'est jamais effective pour un temps UTC.

If *d* is aware, *d* is normalized to UTC time, by subtracting `d.utcoffset()`, and a `time.struct_time` for the normalized time is returned. `tm_isdst` is forced to 0. Note that the result's `tm_year` member may be `MINYEAR-1` or `MAXYEAR+1`, if *d*.year was `MINYEAR` or `MAXYEAR` and UTC adjustment spills over a year boundary.

`datetime.toordinal()`

Renvoie l'ordinal du calendrier géorgien proleptique de cette date. Identique à `self.date().toordinal()`.

`datetime.weekday()`

Renvoie le jour de la semaine sous forme de nombre, où lundi vaut 0 et dimanche vaut 6. Identique à `self.date().weekday()`. Voir aussi `isoweekday()`.

`datetime.isoweekday()`

Renvoie le jour de la semaine sous forme de nombre, où lundi vaut 1 et dimanche vaut 7. Identique à `self.date().isoweekday()`. Voir aussi `weekday()`, `isocalendar()`.

`datetime.isocalendar()`

Renvoie un *tuple* de 3 éléments, (année ISO, numéro de semaine ISO, jour de la semaine ISO). Identique à `self.date().isocalendar()`.

`datetime.isoformat([sep])`

Renvoie une chaîne représentant la date et l'heure au format ISO 8601, `YYYY-MM-DDTHH:MM:SS.mmmmmmm` ou, si `microsecond` vaut 0, `YYYY-MM-DDTHH:MM:SS`

Si `utcoffset()` ne renvoie pas `None`, une chaîne de 6 caractères est ajoutée, donnant le décalage UTC en heures et minutes (relatives) : `YYYY-MM-DDTHH:MM:SS.mmmmmmm+HH:MM` ou, si `microsecond` vaut 0, `YYYY-MM-DDTHH:MM:SS+HH:MM`

L'argument optionnel *sep* (valant par défaut 'T') est un séparateur d'un caractère, placé entre les portions du résultat correspondant à la date et à l'heure. Par exemple,

```
>>> from datetime import tzinfo, timedelta, datetime
>>> class TZ(tzinfo):
...     def utcoffset(self, dt): return timedelta(minutes=-399)
...
>>> datetime(2002, 12, 25, tzinfo=TZ()).isoformat(' ')
'2002-12-25 00:00:00-06:39'
```

`datetime.__str__()`

Pour une instance *d* de `datetime`, `str(d)` est équivalent à `d.isoformat(' ')`.

`datetime.ctime()`

Renvoie une chaîne représentant la date et l'heure, par exemple `datetime(2002, 12, 4, 20, 30, 40).ctime() == 'Wed Dec 4 20:30:40 2002'`. `d.ctime()` est équivalent à `time.ctime(time.mktime(d.timetuple()))` sur les plateformes où la fonction C native `ctime()` (invoquée par `time.ctime()` mais pas par `datetime.ctime()`) est conforme au standard C.

`datetime.strftime(format)`

Return a string representing the date and time, controlled by an explicit format string. For a complete list of formatting directives, see section *Comportement de strftime() et strptime()*.

`datetime.__format__(format)`

Same as `datetime.strftime()`. This makes it possible to specify a format string for a `datetime` object when using `str.format()`. See section *Comportement de strftime() et strptime()*.

Exemples d'utilisation des objets `datetime` :

```
>>> from datetime import datetime, date, time
>>> # Using datetime.combine()
```

(suite sur la page suivante)

(suite de la page précédente)

```

>>> d = date(2005, 7, 14)
>>> t = time(12, 30)
>>> datetime.combine(d, t)
datetime.datetime(2005, 7, 14, 12, 30)
>>> # Using datetime.now() or datetime.utcnow()
>>> datetime.now()
datetime.datetime(2007, 12, 6, 16, 29, 43, 79043)    # GMT +1
>>> datetime.utcnow()
datetime.datetime(2007, 12, 6, 15, 29, 43, 79060)
>>> # Using datetime.strptime()
>>> dt = datetime.strptime("21/11/06 16:30", "%d/%m/%y %H:%M")
>>> dt
datetime.datetime(2006, 11, 21, 16, 30)
>>> # Using datetime.timetuple() to get tuple of all attributes
>>> tt = dt.timetuple()
>>> for it in tt:
...     print it
...
2006    # year
11      # month
21      # day
16      # hour
30      # minute
0       # second
1       # weekday (0 = Monday)
325     # number of days since 1st January
-1      # dst - method tzinfo.dst() returned None
>>> # Date in ISO format
>>> ic = dt.isocalendar()
>>> for it in ic:
...     print it
...
2006    # ISO year
47      # ISO week
2       # ISO weekday
>>> # Formatting datetime
>>> dt.strftime("%A, %d. %B %Y %I:%M%p")
'Tuesday, 21. November 2006 04:30PM'
>>> 'The {1} is {0:%d}, the {2} is {0:%B}, the {3} is {0:%I:%M%p}.'.format(dt, "day",
↪ "month", "time")
'The day is 21, the month is November, the time is 04:30PM.'

```

Utilisation de *datetime* avec *tzinfo* :

```

>>> from datetime import timedelta, datetime, tzinfo
>>> class GMT1(tzinfo):
...     def utcoffset(self, dt):
...         return timedelta(hours=1) + self.dst(dt)
...     def dst(self, dt):
...         # DST starts last Sunday in March
...         d = datetime(dt.year, 4, 1)    # ends last Sunday in October
...         self.dston = d - timedelta(days=d.weekday() + 1)

```

(suite sur la page suivante)

(suite de la page précédente)

```

...     d = datetime(dt.year, 11, 1)
...     self.dstoff = d - timedelta(days=d.weekday() + 1)
...     if self.dston <= dt.replace(tzinfo=None) < self.dstoff:
...         return timedelta(hours=1)
...     else:
...         return timedelta(0)
...     def tzname(self,dt):
...         return "GMT +1"
...
>>> class GMT2(tzinfo):
...     def utcoffset(self, dt):
...         return timedelta(hours=2) + self.dst(dt)
...     def dst(self, dt):
...         d = datetime(dt.year, 4, 1)
...         self.dston = d - timedelta(days=d.weekday() + 1)
...         d = datetime(dt.year, 11, 1)
...         self.dstoff = d - timedelta(days=d.weekday() + 1)
...         if self.dston <= dt.replace(tzinfo=None) < self.dstoff:
...             return timedelta(hours=1)
...         else:
...             return timedelta(0)
...     def tzname(self,dt):
...         return "GMT +2"
...
>>> gmt1 = GMT1()
>>> # Daylight Saving Time
>>> dt1 = datetime(2006, 11, 21, 16, 30, tzinfo=gmt1)
>>> dt1.dst()
datetime.timedelta(0)
>>> dt1.utcoffset()
datetime.timedelta(0, 3600)
>>> dt2 = datetime(2006, 6, 14, 13, 0, tzinfo=gmt1)
>>> dt2.dst()
datetime.timedelta(0, 3600)
>>> dt2.utcoffset()
datetime.timedelta(0, 7200)
>>> # Convert datetime to another time zone
>>> dt3 = dt2.astimezone(GMT2())
>>> dt3      # doctest: +ELLIPSIS
datetime.datetime(2006, 6, 14, 14, 0, tzinfo=<GMT2 object at 0x...>)
>>> dt2      # doctest: +ELLIPSIS
datetime.datetime(2006, 6, 14, 13, 0, tzinfo=<GMT1 object at 0x...>)
>>> dt2.utctimetuple() == dt3.utctimetuple()
True

```

8.1.5 time Objects

Un objet *time* représente une heure (locale) du jour, indépendante de tout jour particulier, et sujette à des ajustements par un objet *tzinfo*.

```
class datetime.time([hour[, minute[, second[, microsecond[, tzinfo]]]]])
```

All arguments are optional. *tzinfo* may be None, or an instance of a *tzinfo* subclass. The remaining arguments may be ints or longs, in the following ranges :


```
— 0 <= hour < 24
— 0 <= minute < 60
— 0 <= second < 60
— 0 <= microsecond < 1000000.
```

Si un argument est fourni en dehors de ces bornes, une *ValueError* est levée. Ils valent tous 0 par défaut, à l'exception de *tzinfo* qui vaut *None*.

Attributs de la classe :

time.min

Le plus petit objet *time* représentable, `time(0, 0, 0, 0)`.

time.max

Le plus grand objet *time* représentable, `time(23, 59, 59, 999999)`.

time.resolution

La plus petite différence possible entre deux objets *time* non-égaux, `timedelta(microseconds=1)`, notez cependant que les objets *time* ne supportent pas d'opérations arithmétiques.

Attributs de l'instance (en lecture seule) :

time.hour

Dans `range(24)`.

time.minute

Dans `range(60)`.

time.second

Dans `range(60)`.

time.microsecond

Dans `range(1000000)`.

time.tzinfo

L'objet passé comme argument *tzinfo* au constructeur de *time*, ou *None* si aucune valeur n'a été passée.

Opérations supportées :

- comparison of *time* to *time*, where *a* is considered less than *b* when *a* precedes *b* in time. If one comparand is naive and the other is aware, *TypeError* is raised. If both comparands are aware, and have the same *tzinfo* attribute, the common *tzinfo* attribute is ignored and the base times are compared. If both comparands are aware and have different *tzinfo* attributes, the comparands are first adjusted by subtracting their UTC offsets (obtained from `self.utcoffset()`). In order to stop mixed-type comparisons from falling back to the default comparison by object address, when a *time* object is compared to an object of a different type, *TypeError* is raised unless the comparison is `==` or `!=`. The latter cases return *False* or *True*, respectively.
- hachage, utilisation comme clef de dictionnaire
- sérialisation (*pickling*) efficace
- in Boolean contexts, a *time* object is considered to be true if and only if, after converting it to minutes and subtracting `utcoffset()` (or 0 if that's *None*), the result is non-zero.

Méthodes de l'instance :

time.replace([hour[, minute[, second[, microsecond[, tzinfo]]]])

Renvoie un objet *time* avec la même valeur, à l'exception des attributs dont une nouvelle valeur est spécifiée par les arguments nommés. Notez que `tzinfo=None` peut être spécifié pour créer une instance *time* naïve à partir d'une instance *time* avisée, sans conversion des données de temps.

time.isoformat()

Return a string representing the time in ISO 8601 format, HH :MM :SS.mmmmmmm or, if `self.microsecond` is 0, HH :MM :SS If `utcoffset()` does not return *None*, a 6-character string is ap-

pended, giving the UTC offset in (signed) hours and minutes : HH :MM :SS.mmmmmmm+HH :MM or, if self.microsecond is 0, HH :MM :SS+HH :MM

`time.__str__()`

Pour un temps `t`, `str(t)` est équivalent à `t.isoformat()`.

`time.strftime(format)`

Return a string representing the time, controlled by an explicit format string. For a complete list of formatting directives, see section *Comportement de strftime() et strptime()*.

`time.__format__(format)`

Same as `time.strftime()`. This makes it possible to specify a format string for a `time` object when using `str.format()`. See section *Comportement de strftime() et strptime()*.

`time.utcoffset()`

Si `tzinfo` est `None`, renvoie `None`, sinon renvoie `self.tzinfo.utcoffset(None)`, et lève une exception si l'expression précédente ne renvoie pas `None` ou un objet `timedelta` représentant un nombre entier de minutes de magnitude inférieure à un jour.

`time.dst()`

Si `tzinfo` est `None`, renvoie `None`, sinon renvoie `self.tzinfo.dst(None)`, et lève une exception si l'expression précédente ne renvoie pas `None` ou un objet `timedelta` représentant un nombre entier de minutes de magnitude inférieure à un jour.

`time.tzname()`

Si `tzinfo` est `None`, renvoie `None`, sinon renvoie `self.tzinfo.tzname(None)`, et lève une exception si l'expression précédente ne renvoie pas `None` ou une chaîne de caractères.

Exemple :

```
>>> from datetime import time, tzinfo, timedelta
>>> class GMT1(tzinfo):
...     def utcoffset(self, dt):
...         return timedelta(hours=1)
...     def dst(self, dt):
...         return timedelta(0)
...     def tzname(self, dt):
...         return "Europe/Prague"
...
>>> t = time(12, 10, 30, tzinfo=GMT1())
>>> t                                     # doctest: +ELLIPSIS
datetime.time(12, 10, 30, tzinfo=<GMT1 object at 0x...>)
>>> gmt = GMT1()
>>> t.isoformat()
'12:10:30+01:00'
>>> t.dst()
datetime.timedelta(0)
>>> t.tzname()
'Europe/Prague'
>>> t.strftime("%H:%M:%S %Z")
'12:10:30 Europe/Prague'
>>> 'The {} is {:%H:%M}.'.format("time", t)
'The time is 12:10.'
```

8.1.6 Objets `tzinfo`

`class datetime.tzinfo`

This is an abstract base class, meaning that this class should not be instantiated directly. You need to derive a concrete subclass, and (at least) supply implementations of the standard `tzinfo` methods needed by the `datetime` methods you use. The `datetime` module does not supply any concrete subclasses of `tzinfo`.

Une instance (d'une sous-classe concrète) de `tzinfo` peut être passée aux constructeurs des objets `datetime` et `time`. Les objets en question voient leurs attributs comme étant en temps local, et l'objet `tzinfo` contient des méthodes pour obtenir le décalage du temps local par rapport à UTC, le nom du fuseau horaire, le décalage d'heure d'été, tous relatifs à un objet de date ou d'heure qui leur est passé.

Prérequis spécifique au *pickling* : Une sous-classe `tzinfo` doit avoir une méthode `__init__()` qui peut être appelée sans arguments, sans quoi un objet sérialisé ne pourrait pas toujours être désérialisé. C'est un prérequis technique qui pourrait être assoupli dans le futur.

Une sous-classe concrète de `tzinfo` peut devoir implémenter les méthodes suivantes. Les méthodes réellement nécessaires dépendent de l'utilisation qui est faite des objets `datetime` avisés. Dans le doute, implémentez-les toutes.

`tzinfo.utcoffset(self, dt)`

Renvoie le décalage entre le temps local et UTC, en minutes vers l'est d'UTC. Si le temps local se situe à l'ouest d'UTC, le décalage devrait être négatif. Notez que cela est prévu pour être le décalage total par rapport à UTC ; par exemple, si un objet `tzinfo` représente à la fois un fuseau horaire et son ajustement à l'heure d'été, `utcoffset()` devrait renvoyer leur somme. Si le décalage UTC n'est pas connu, renvoie `None`. Sinon, la valeur renvoyée doit être un objet `timedelta` spécifiant un nombre entier de minutes dans l'intervalle de -1439 à 1439 inclus ($1440 = 24 \times 60$; la magnitude du décalage doit être inférieure à un jour). La plupart des implémentations de `utcoffset()` ressembleront probablement à l'une des deux suivantes :

```
return CONSTANT                # fixed-offset class
return CONSTANT + self.dst(dt) # daylight-aware class
```

Si `utcoffset()` ne renvoie pas `None`, `dst()` ne doit pas non plus renvoyer `None`.

L'implémentation par défaut de `utcoffset()` lève une `NotImplementedError`.

`tzinfo.dst(self, dt)`

Renvoie l'ajustement d'heure d'été (DST, *daylight saving time*), en minutes vers l'est d'UTC, ou `None` si l'information n'est pas connue. Renvoie `timedelta(0)` si l'heure d'été n'est pas effective. Si elle est effective, renvoie un décalage sous forme d'un objet `timedelta` (voir `utcoffset()` pour les détails). Notez que ce décalage, si applicable, est déjà compris dans le décalage UTC renvoyé par `utcoffset()`, il n'est donc pas nécessaire de faire appel à `dst()` à moins que vous ne souhaitiez obtenir les informations séparément. Par exemple, `datetime.timetuple()` appelle la méthode `dst()` de son attribut `tzinfo` pour déterminer si l'option `tm_isdst` doit être activée, et `tzinfo.fromutc()` fait appel à `dst()` pour tenir compte des heures d'été quand elle traverse des fuseaux horaires.

Une instance `tz` d'une sous-classe `tzinfo` convenant à la fois pour une heure standard et une heure d'été doit être cohérente :

`tz.utcoffset(dt) - tz.dst(dt)`

doit renvoyer le même résultat pour tout objet `datetime dt` avec `dt.tzinfo == tz`. Pour les sous-classes saines de `tzinfo`, cette expression calcule le « décalage standard » du fuseau horaire, qui ne doit pas dépendre de la date ou de l'heure, mais seulement de la position géographique. L'implémentation de `datetime.astimezone()` se base là-dessus, mais ne peut pas détecter les violations ; il est de la responsabilité du programmeur de l'assurer. Si une sous-classe `tzinfo` ne le garantit pas, il doit être possible de redéfinir l'implémentation par défaut de `tzinfo.fromutc()` pour tout de même fonctionner correctement avec `astimezone()`.

La plupart des implémentations de `dst()` ressembleront probablement à l'une des deux suivantes :

```
def dst(self, dt):
    # a fixed-offset class: doesn't account for DST
    return timedelta(0)
```

ou :

```
def dst(self, dt):
    # Code to set dston and dstoff to the time zone's DST
    # transition times based on the input dt.year, and expressed
    # in standard local time. Then

    if dston <= dt.replace(tzinfo=None) < dstoff:
        return timedelta(hours=1)
    else:
        return timedelta(0)
```

L'implémentation par défaut de `dst()` lève une `NotImplementedError`.

`tzinfo.tzname(self, dt)`

Renvoie le nom du fuseau horaire correspondant à l'objet `datetime` `dt`, sous forme d'une chaîne de caractères. rien n'est défini sur les noms par le module `datetime`, et il n'est pas nécessaire que ces noms signifient quelque chose en particulier. Par exemple, « `GMT` », « `UTC` », « `-500` », « `-5:00` », « `EDT` », « `US/Eastern` » et « `America/New York` » sont toutes des valeurs de retour valides. Renvoie `None` si un nom est inconnu. Notez qu'il s'agit d'une méthode et non d'une chaîne fixée en amont, parce que les sous-classes de `tzinfo` peuvent souhaiter renvoyer des noms différents en fonction de valeurs de `dt` spécifiques, en particulier si la classe `tzinfo` tient compte de l'heure d'été.

L'implémentation par défaut de `tzname()` lève une `NotImplementedError`.

Ces méthodes sont appelées par les objets `datetime` et `time`, en réponse à leurs méthodes aux mêmes noms. Un objet `datetime` se passe lui-même en tant qu'argument, et un objet `time` passe `None`. Les méthodes des sous-classes `tzinfo` doivent alors être prêtes à recevoir un argument `None` pour `dt`, ou une instance de `datetime`.

Quand `None` est passé, il est de la responsabilité du designer de la classe de choisir la meilleure réponse. Par exemple, renvoyer `None` est approprié si la classe souhaite signaler que les objets de temps ne participent pas au protocole `tzinfo`. Il peut être plus utile pour `utcoffset(None)` de renvoyer le décalage UTC standard, comme il n'existe aucune autre convention pour obtenir ce décalage.

Quand un objet `datetime` est passé en réponse à une méthode de `datetime`, `dt.tzinfo` est le même objet que `self`. Les méthodes de `tzinfo` peuvent se baser là-dessus, à moins que le code utilisateur appelle directement des méthodes de `tzinfo`. L'intention est que les méthodes de `tzinfo` interprètent `dt` comme étant le temps local, et n'aient pas à se soucier des objets dans d'autres fuseaux horaires.

Il y a une dernière méthode de `tzinfo` que les sous-classes peuvent vouloir redéfinir :

`tzinfo.fromutc(self, dt)`

Elle est appelée par l'implémentation par défaut de `datetime.astimezone()`. Quand appelée depuis cette méthode, `dt.tzinfo` est `self`, et les données de date et d'heure de `dt` sont vues comme exprimant un temps UTC. Le rôle de `fromutc()` est d'ajuster les données de date et d'heure, renvoyant un objet `datetime` équivalent à `self`, dans le temps local.

La plupart des sous-classes `tzinfo` doivent être en mesure d'hériter sans problème de l'implémentation par défaut de `fromutc()`. Elle est suffisamment robuste pour gérer les fuseaux horaires à décalage fixe, et les fuseaux représentant à la fois des heures standards et d'été, et ce même si le décalage de l'heure d'été est différent suivant les années. Un exemple de fuseau horaire qui ne serait pas géré correctement dans tous les cas par l'implémentation par défaut de `fromutc()` en est un où le décalage standard (par rapport à UTC) dépend de valeurs spécifiques de date et d'heure passées, ce qui peut arriver pour

des raisons politiques. Les implémentations par défaut de `astimezone()` et `fromutc()` peuvent ne pas produire les résultats attendus si le résultat est l'une des heures affectées par le changement d'heure. En omettant le code des cas d'erreurs, l'implémentation par défaut de `fromutc()` se comporte comme suit :

```
def fromutc(self, dt):
    # raise ValueError error if dt.tzinfo is not self
    dtoff = dt.utcoffset()
    dtdst = dt.dst()
    # raise ValueError if dtoff is None or dtdst is None
    delta = dtoff - dtdst # this is self's standard offset
    if delta:
        dt += delta # convert to standard local time
        dtdst = dt.dst()
        # raise ValueError if dtdst is None
    if dtdst:
        return dt + dtdst
    else:
        return dt
```

Exemple de classes `tzinfo` :

```
from datetime import tzinfo, timedelta, datetime

ZERO = timedelta(0)
HOUR = timedelta(hours=1)

# A UTC class.

class UTC(tzinfo):
    """UTC"""

    def utcoffset(self, dt):
        return ZERO

    def tzname(self, dt):
        return "UTC"

    def dst(self, dt):
        return ZERO

utc = UTC()

# A class building tzinfo objects for fixed-offset time zones.
# Note that FixedOffset(0, "UTC") is a different way to build a
# UTC tzinfo object.

class FixedOffset(tzinfo):
    """Fixed offset in minutes east from UTC."""

    def __init__(self, offset, name):
        self.__offset = timedelta(minutes = offset)
        self.__name = name
```

(suite sur la page suivante)

(suite de la page précédente)

```

def utcoffset(self, dt):
    return self.__offset

def tzname(self, dt):
    return self.__name

def dst(self, dt):
    return ZERO

# A class capturing the platform's idea of local time.

import time as _time

STDOFFSET = timedelta(seconds = -_time.timezone)
if _time.daylight:
    DSTOFFSET = timedelta(seconds = -_time.altzone)
else:
    DSTOFFSET = STDOFFSET

DSTDIFF = DSTOFFSET - STDOFFSET

class LocalTimezone(tzinfo):

    def utcoffset(self, dt):
        if self._isdst(dt):
            return DSTOFFSET
        else:
            return STDOFFSET

    def dst(self, dt):
        if self._isdst(dt):
            return DSTDIFF
        else:
            return ZERO

    def tzname(self, dt):
        return _time.tzname[self._isdst(dt)]

    def _isdst(self, dt):
        tt = (dt.year, dt.month, dt.day,
              dt.hour, dt.minute, dt.second,
              dt.weekday(), 0, 0)
        stamp = _time.mktime(tt)
        tt = _time.localtime(stamp)
        return tt.tm_isdst > 0

Local = LocalTimezone()

# A complete implementation of current DST rules for major US time zones.

```

(suite sur la page suivante)

(suite de la page précédente)

```

def first_sunday_on_or_after(dt):
    days_to_go = 6 - dt.weekday()
    if days_to_go:
        dt += timedelta(days_to_go)
    return dt

# US DST Rules
#
# This is a simplified (i.e., wrong for a few cases) set of rules for US
# DST start and end times. For a complete and up-to-date set of DST rules
# and timezone definitions, visit the Olson Database (or try pytz):
# http://www.twinsun.com/tz/tz-link.htm
# http://sourceforge.net/projects/pytz/ (might not be up-to-date)
#
# In the US, since 2007, DST starts at 2am (standard time) on the second
# Sunday in March, which is the first Sunday on or after Mar 8.
DSTSTART_2007 = datetime(1, 3, 8, 2)
# and ends at 2am (DST time; 1am standard time) on the first Sunday of Nov.
DSTEND_2007 = datetime(1, 11, 1, 1)
# From 1987 to 2006, DST used to start at 2am (standard time) on the first
# Sunday in April and to end at 2am (DST time; 1am standard time) on the last
# Sunday of October, which is the first Sunday on or after Oct 25.
DSTSTART_1987_2006 = datetime(1, 4, 1, 2)
DSTEND_1987_2006 = datetime(1, 10, 25, 1)
# From 1967 to 1986, DST used to start at 2am (standard time) on the last
# Sunday in April (the one on or after April 24) and to end at 2am (DST time;
# 1am standard time) on the last Sunday of October, which is the first Sunday
# on or after Oct 25.
DSTSTART_1967_1986 = datetime(1, 4, 24, 2)
DSTEND_1967_1986 = DSTEND_1987_2006

class USTimeZone(tzinfo):

    def __init__(self, hours, reprname, stdname, dstname):
        self.stdoffset = timedelta(hours=hours)
        self.reprname = reprname
        self.stdname = stdname
        self.dstname = dstname

    def __repr__(self):
        return self.reprname

    def tzname(self, dt):
        if self.dst(dt):
            return self.dstname
        else:
            return self.stdname

    def utcoffset(self, dt):
        return self.stdoffset + self.dst(dt)

```

(suite sur la page suivante)

(suite de la page précédente)

```

def dst(self, dt):
    if dt is None or dt.tzinfo is None:
        # An exception may be sensible here, in one or both cases.
        # It depends on how you want to treat them. The default
        # fromutc() implementation (called by the default astimezone()
        # implementation) passes a datetime with dt.tzinfo is self.
        return ZERO
    assert dt.tzinfo is self

    # Find start and end times for US DST. For years before 1967, return
    # ZERO for no DST.
    if 2006 < dt.year:
        dststart, dstend = DSTSTART_2007, DSTEND_2007
    elif 1986 < dt.year < 2007:
        dststart, dstend = DSTSTART_1987_2006, DSTEND_1987_2006
    elif 1966 < dt.year < 1987:
        dststart, dstend = DSTSTART_1967_1986, DSTEND_1967_1986
    else:
        return ZERO

    start = first_sunday_on_or_after(dststart.replace(year=dt.year))
    end = first_sunday_on_or_after(dstend.replace(year=dt.year))

    # Can't compare naive to aware objects, so strip the timezone from
    # dt first.
    if start <= dt.replace(tzinfo=None) < end:
        return HOUR
    else:
        return ZERO

Eastern = USTimeZone(-5, "Eastern", "EST", "EDT")
Central = USTimeZone(-6, "Central", "CST", "CDT")
Mountain = USTimeZone(-7, "Mountain", "MST", "MDT")
Pacific = USTimeZone(-8, "Pacific", "PST", "PDT")

```

Notez que, deux fois par an, on rencontre des subtilités inévitables dans les sous-classes de `tzinfo` représentant à la fois des heures standard et d'été, au passage de l'une à l'autre. Concrètement, considérez le fuseau de l'est des États-Unis (UTC -0500), où EDT (heure d'été) débute à la minute qui suit 1 :59 (EST) le second dimanche de mars, et se termine à la minute qui suit 1 :59 (EDT) le premier dimanche de novembre :

UTC	3:MM	4:MM	5:MM	6:MM	7:MM	8:MM
EST	22:MM	23:MM	0:MM	1:MM	2:MM	3:MM
EDT	23:MM	0:MM	1:MM	2:MM	3:MM	4:MM
start	22:MM	23:MM	0:MM	1:MM	3:MM	4:MM
end	23:MM	0:MM	1:MM	1:MM	2:MM	3:MM

When DST starts (the « start » line), the local wall clock leaps from 1 :59 to 3 :00. A wall time of the form 2 :MM doesn't really make sense on that day, so `astimezone(Eastern)` won't deliver a result with `hour == 2` on the day DST begins. In order for `astimezone()` to make this guarantee, the `tzinfo.dst()` method must consider times in the « missing hour » (2 :MM for Eastern) to be in daylight time.

When DST ends (the « end » line), there's a potentially worse problem : there's an hour that can't be spelled unambiguously in local wall time : the last hour of daylight time. In Eastern, that's times of the form 5 :MM UTC on the day daylight time ends. The local wall clock leaps from 1 :59 (daylight time) back to 1 :00 (standard time) again. Local times of the form 1 :MM are ambiguous. `astimezone()` mimics the local clock's behavior by mapping two adjacent UTC hours into the same local hour then. In the Eastern example, UTC times of the form 5 :MM and 6 :MM both map to 1 :MM when converted to Eastern. In order for `astimezone()` to make this guarantee, the `tzinfo.dst()` method must consider times in the « repeated hour » to be in standard time. This is easily arranged, as in the example, by expressing DST switch times in the time zone's standard local time.

Applications that can't bear such ambiguities should avoid using hybrid `tzinfo` subclasses; there are no ambiguities when using UTC, or any other fixed-offset `tzinfo` subclass (such as a class representing only EST (fixed offset -5 hours), or only EDT (fixed offset -4 hours)).

Voir aussi :

pytz The standard library has no `tzinfo` instances, but there exists a third-party library which brings the *IANA time zone database* (also known as the Olson database) to Python : `pytz`.

`pytz` contains up-to-date information and its usage is recommended.

Base de données des fuseaux horaires de l'IANA The Time Zone Database (often called `tz` or `zoneinfo`) contains code and data that represent the history of local time for many representative locations around the globe. It is updated periodically to reflect changes made by political bodies to time zone boundaries, UTC offsets, and daylight-saving rules.

8.1.7 Comportement de `strftime()` et `strptime()`

Les objets `date`, `datetime` et `time` comportent tous une méthode `strftime(format)`, pour créer une représentation du temps sous forme d'une chaîne de caractères, contrôlée par une chaîne de formatage explicite. Grossièrement, `d.strftime(fmt)` se comporte comme la fonction `time.strftime(fmt, d.timetuple())` du module `time`, bien que tous les objets ne comportent pas de méthode `timetuple()`.

Conversely, the `datetime.strptime()` class method creates a `datetime` object from a string representing a date and time and a corresponding format string. `datetime.strptime(date_string, format)` is equivalent to `datetime(*(time.strptime(date_string, format)[0:6]))`, except when the format includes sub-second components or timezone offset information, which are supported in `datetime.strptime` but are discarded by `time.strptime`.

Pour les objets `time`, les codes de formatage pour l'année, le mois et le jour ne devraient pas être utilisés, puisque les objets de temps ne possèdent pas de telles valeurs. S'ils sont tout de même utilisés, 1900 est substitué à l'année, et 1 au mois et au jour.

Pour les objets `date`, les codes de formatage pour les heures, minutes, secondes et microsecondes ne devraient pas être utilisés, puisque les objets `date` ne possèdent pas de telles valeurs. S'ils sont tous de même utilisés, ils sont substitués par 0.

L'ensemble complet des codes de formatage supportés varie selon les plateformes, parce que Python appelle la fonction `strftime()` de la bibliothèque C de la plateforme, et les variations sont courantes. Pour voir un ensemble complet des codes de formatage supportés par votre plateforme, consultez la documentation de `strftime(3)`.

La liste suivante est la liste de tous les codes de formatage requis par le standard C (version 1989), ils fonctionnent sur toutes les plateformes possédant une implémentation de C standard. Notez que la version 1999 du standard C a ajouté des codes de formatage additionnels.

The exact range of years for which `strftime()` works also varies across platforms. Regardless of platform, years before 1900 cannot be used.

Directive	Signification	Exemple	Notes
%a	Jour de la semaine abrégé dans la langue locale.	Sun, Mon, ..., Sat (en_US); Lu, Ma, ..., Di (fr_FR)	(1)
%A	Jour de la semaine complet dans la langue locale.	Sunday, Monday, ..., Saturday (en_US); Lundi, Mardi, ..., Dimanche (fr_FR)	(1)
%w	Jour de la semaine en chiffre, avec 0 pour le dimanche et 6 pour le samedi.	0, 1, ..., 6	
%d	Jour du mois sur deux chiffres.	01, 02, ..., 31	
%b	Nom du mois abrégé dans la langue locale.	Jan, Feb, ..., Dec (en_US); janv., févr., ..., déc. (fr_FR)	(1)
%B	Nom complet du mois dans la langue locale.	January, February, ..., December (en_US); janvier, février, ..., décembre (fr_FR)	(1)
%m	Numéro du mois sur deux chiffres.	01, 02, ..., 12	
%y	Année sur deux chiffres (sans le siècle).	00, 01, ..., 99	
%Y	Année complète sur quatre chiffres.	1970, 1988, 2001, 2013	
%H	Heure à deux chiffres de 00 à 23.	00, 01, ..., 23	
%I	Heure à deux chiffres pour les horloges 12h (01 à 12).	01, 02, ..., 12	
%p	Équivalent local à AM/PM.	AM, PM (en_US); am, pm (de_DE)	(1), (2)
%M	Minutes sur deux chiffres.	00, 01, ..., 59	
%S	Secondes sur deux chiffres.	00, 01, ..., 59	(3)
%f	Microsecondes sur 6 chiffres.	000000, 000001, ..., 999999	(4)
%z	UTC offset in the form +HHMM or -HHMM (empty string if the object is naive).	(-0000), +0000, -0400, +1030	(5)

Notes :

- (1) Comme le format dépend de la locale courante, les assumptions sur la valeur de retour doivent être prises soigneusement. L'ordre des champs variera (par exemple, « mois/jour/année » versus « année/mois/jour »), et le retour pourrait contenir des caractères Unicode encodés en utilisant l'encodage par défaut de la locale (par exemple, si la locale courante est `ja_JP`, l'encodage par défaut pourrait être `eucJP`, `SJIS` ou `utf-8` ; utilisez `locale.getlocale()` pour déterminer l'encodage de la locale courante).
- (2) Quand utilisée avec la méthode `strptime()`, la directive `%p` n'affecte l'heure extraite que si la directive `%I` est utilisée pour analyser l'heure.
- (3) À l'inverse du module `time`, le module `datetime` ne supporte pas les secondes intercalaires.
- (4) `%f` is an extension to the set of format characters in the C standard (but implemented separately in datetime objects, and therefore always available). When used with the `strptime()` method, the `%f` directive accepts from one to six digits and zero pads on the right.

Nouveau dans la version 2.6.

- (5) Pour les objets naïfs, les codes de formatage `%z` et `%Z` sont remplacés par des chaînes vides.

Pour un objet avisé :

%z Le résultat de `utcoffset()` est transformé en une chaîne de 5 caractères de la forme `+HHMM` ou `-HHMM`, où `HH` est une chaîne de deux chiffres donnant le nombre d'heures du décalage UTC, et `MM` est une chaîne de deux chiffres donnant le nombre de minutes de ce décalage. Par exemple, si `utcoffset()` renvoie `timedelta(hours=-3, minutes=-30)`, `%z` est remplacé par la chaîne `"-0330"`.

%Z Si `tzname()` renvoie `None`, `%Z` est remplacé par une chaîne vide. Autrement `%Z` est remplacé par la valeur renvoyée, qui doit être une chaîne.

- (6) When used with the `strptime()` method, `%U` and `%W` are only used in calculations when the day of the week and the year are specified.

Notes

8.2 calendar — General calendar-related functions

Code source : [Lib/calendar.py](#)

This module allows you to output calendars like the Unix `cal` program, and provides additional useful functions related to the calendar. By default, these calendars have Monday as the first day of the week, and Sunday as the last (the European convention). Use `setfirstweekday()` to set the first day of the week to Sunday (6) or to any other weekday. Parameters that specify dates are given as integers. For related functionality, see also the `datetime` and `time` modules.

Most of these functions and classes rely on the `datetime` module which uses an idealized calendar, the current Gregorian calendar indefinitely extended in both directions. This matches the definition of the « proleptic Gregorian » calendar in Dershowitz and Reingold's book « Calendrical Calculations », where it's the base calendar for all computations.

class `calendar.Calendar`(`[firstweekday]`)

Creates a `Calendar` object. `firstweekday` is an integer specifying the first day of the week. 0 is Monday (the default), 6 is Sunday.

A `Calendar` object provides several methods that can be used for preparing the calendar data for formatting. This class doesn't do any formatting itself. This is the job of subclasses.

Nouveau dans la version 2.5.

`Calendar` instances have the following methods :

iterweekdays()
 Return an iterator for the week day numbers that will be used for one week. The first value from the iterator will be the same as the value of the *firstweekday* property.

itermonthdates(year, month)
 Return an iterator for the month *month* (1–12) in the year *year*. This iterator will return all days (as *datetime.date* objects) for the month and all days before the start of the month or after the end of the month that are required to get a complete week.

itermonthdays2(year, month)
 Return an iterator for the month *month* in the year *year* similar to *itermonthdates()*. Days returned will be tuples consisting of a day number and a week day number.

itermonthdays(year, month)
 Return an iterator for the month *month* in the year *year* similar to *itermonthdates()*. Days returned will simply be day numbers.

monthdatescalendar(year, month)
 Return a list of the weeks in the month *month* of the year *year* as full weeks. Weeks are lists of seven *datetime.date* objects.

monthdays2calendar(year, month)
 Return a list of the weeks in the month *month* of the year *year* as full weeks. Weeks are lists of seven tuples of day numbers and weekday numbers.

monthdayscalendar(year, month)
 Return a list of the weeks in the month *month* of the year *year* as full weeks. Weeks are lists of seven day numbers.

yeardatescalendar(year[, width])
 Return the data for the specified year ready for formatting. The return value is a list of month rows. Each month row contains up to *width* months (defaulting to 3). Each month contains between 4 and 6 weeks and each week contains 1–7 days. Days are *datetime.date* objects.

yeardays2calendar(year[, width])
 Return the data for the specified year ready for formatting (similar to *yeardatescalendar()*). Entries in the week lists are tuples of day numbers and weekday numbers. Day numbers outside this month are zero.

yeardayscalendar(year[, width])
 Return the data for the specified year ready for formatting (similar to *yeardatescalendar()*). Entries in the week lists are day numbers. Day numbers outside this month are zero.

class calendar.TextCalendar([firstweekday])
 This class can be used to generate plain text calendars.
 Nouveau dans la version 2.5.
TextCalendar instances have the following methods :

formatmonth(theyear, themonth[, w[, l]])
 Return a month's calendar in a multi-line string. If *w* is provided, it specifies the width of the date columns, which are centered. If *l* is given, it specifies the number of lines that each week will use. Depends on the first weekday as specified in the constructor or set by the *setfirstweekday()* method.

prmonth(theyear, themonth[, w[, l]])
 Print a month's calendar as returned by *formatmonth()*.

formatyear(theyear[, w[, l[, c[, m]]]])
 Return a *m*-column calendar for an entire year as a multi-line string. Optional parameters *w*, *l*, and *c* are for date column width, lines per week, and number of spaces between month columns, respectively. Depends on the first weekday as specified in the constructor or set by the *setfirstweekday()* method. The earliest year for which a calendar can be generated is platform-dependent.

```
pryear(theyear[, w[, l[, c[, m]]]])
```

Print the calendar for an entire year as returned by *formatyear()*.

```
class calendar.HTMLCalendar([firstweekday])
```

Cette classe peut être utilisée pour générer des calendriers HTML.

Nouveau dans la version 2.5.

HTMLCalendar instances have the following methods :

```
formatmonth(theyear, themonth[, withyear])
```

Return a month's calendar as an HTML table. If *withyear* is true the year will be included in the header, otherwise just the month name will be used.

```
formatyear(theyear[, width])
```

Return a year's calendar as an HTML table. *width* (defaulting to 3) specifies the number of months per row.

```
formatyearpage(theyear[, width[, css[, encoding]]])
```

Return a year's calendar as a complete HTML page. *width* (defaulting to 3) specifies the number of months per row. *css* is the name for the cascading style sheet to be used. *None* can be passed if no style sheet should be used. *encoding* specifies the encoding to be used for the output (defaulting to the system default encoding).

```
class calendar.LocaleTextCalendar([firstweekday[, locale]])
```

This subclass of *TextCalendar* can be passed a locale name in the constructor and will return month and weekday names in the specified locale. If this locale includes an encoding all strings containing month and weekday names will be returned as unicode.

Nouveau dans la version 2.5.

```
class calendar.LocaleHTMLCalendar([firstweekday[, locale]])
```

This subclass of *HTMLCalendar* can be passed a locale name in the constructor and will return month and weekday names in the specified locale. If this locale includes an encoding all strings containing month and weekday names will be returned as unicode.

Nouveau dans la version 2.5.

Note : The *formatweekday()* and *formatmonthname()* methods of these two classes temporarily change the current locale to the given *locale*. Because the current locale is a process-wide setting, they are not thread-safe.

For simple text calendars this module provides the following functions.

```
calendar.setfirstweekday(weekday)
```

Sets the weekday (0 is Monday, 6 is Sunday) to start each week. The values *MONDAY*, *TUESDAY*, *WEDNESDAY*, *THURSDAY*, *FRIDAY*, *SATURDAY*, and *SUNDAY* are provided for convenience. For example, to set the first weekday to Sunday :

```
import calendar
calendar.setfirstweekday(calendar.SUNDAY)
```

Nouveau dans la version 2.0.

```
calendar.firstweekday()
```

Returns the current setting for the weekday to start each week.

Nouveau dans la version 2.0.

```
calendar.isleap(year)
```

Returns *True* if *year* is a leap year, otherwise *False*.

`calendar.leapdays(y1, y2)`

Returns the number of leap years in the range from *y1* to *y2* (exclusive), where *y1* and *y2* are years.

Modifié dans la version 2.0 : This function didn't work for ranges spanning a century change in Python 1.5.2.

`calendar.weekday(year, month, day)`

Returns the day of the week (0 is Monday) for *year* (1970–...), *month* (1–12), *day* (1–31).

`calendar.weekheader(n)`

Return a header containing abbreviated weekday names. *n* specifies the width in characters for one weekday.

`calendar.monthrange(year, month)`

Returns weekday of first day of the month and number of days in month, for the specified *year* and *month*.

`calendar.monthcalendar(year, month)`

Returns a matrix representing a month's calendar. Each row represents a week; days outside of the month are represented by zeros. Each week begins with Monday unless set by `setfirstweekday()`.

`calendar.prmonth(theyear, themonth[, w[, l]])`

Prints a month's calendar as returned by `month()`.

`calendar.month(theyear, themonth[, w[, l]])`

Returns a month's calendar in a multi-line string using the `formatmonth()` of the `TextCalendar` class. Nouveau dans la version 2.0.

`calendar.prcal(year[, w[, l[c]]])`

Prints the calendar for an entire year as returned by `calendar()`.

`calendar.calendar(year[, w[, l[c]]])`

Returns a 3-column calendar for an entire year as a multi-line string using the `formatyear()` of the `TextCalendar` class.

Nouveau dans la version 2.0.

`calendar.timegm(tuple)`

An unrelated but handy function that takes a time tuple such as returned by the `gmtime()` function in the `time` module, and returns the corresponding Unix timestamp value, assuming an epoch of 1970, and the POSIX encoding. In fact, `time.gmtime()` and `timegm()` are each others' inverse.

Nouveau dans la version 2.0.

The `calendar` module exports the following data attributes :

`calendar.day_name`

An array that represents the days of the week in the current locale.

`calendar.day_abbr`

An array that represents the abbreviated days of the week in the current locale.

`calendar.month_name`

An array that represents the months of the year in the current locale. This follows normal convention of January being month number 1, so it has a length of 13 and `month_name[0]` is the empty string.

`calendar.month_abbr`

An array that represents the abbreviated months of the year in the current locale. This follows normal convention of January being month number 1, so it has a length of 13 and `month_abbr[0]` is the empty string.

Voir aussi :

Module `datetime` Object-oriented interface to dates and times with similar functionality to the `time` module.

Module `time` Low-level time related functions.

8.3 collections — High-performance container datatypes

Nouveau dans la version 2.4.

Source code : `Lib/collections.py` and `Lib/_abcoll.py`

Ce module implémente des types de données de conteneurs spécialisés qui apportent des alternatives aux conteneurs natifs de Python plus généraux `dict`, `list`, `set` et `tuple`.

<code>namedtuple</code>	Fonction permettant de créer des sous-classes de <code>tuple</code> avec des champs nommés	Nouveau dans la version 2.6.
<code>deque</code>	conteneur se comportant comme une liste avec des ajouts et retraits rapides à chaque extrémité	Nouveau dans la version 2.4.
<code>Counter</code>	sous-classe de <code>dict</code> pour compter des objets hachables	Nouveau dans la version 2.7.
<code>OrderedDict</code>	sous-classe de <code>dict</code> qui garde en mémoire l'ordre dans lequel les entrées ont été ajoutées	Nouveau dans la version 2.7.
<code>defaultdict</code>	sous-classe de <code>dict</code> qui appelle une fonction de fabrication en cas de valeur manquante	Nouveau dans la version 2.5.

In addition to the concrete container classes, the collections module provides *abstract base classes* that can be used to test whether a class provides a particular interface, for example, whether it is hashable or a mapping.

8.3.1 Objets Counter

Ce module fournit un outil pour effectuer rapidement et facilement des dénombrements. Par exemple :

```
>>> # Tally occurrences of words in a list
>>> cnt = Counter()
>>> for word in ['red', 'blue', 'red', 'green', 'blue', 'blue']:
...     cnt[word] += 1
>>> cnt
Counter({'blue': 3, 'red': 2, 'green': 1})

>>> # Find the ten most common words in Hamlet
>>> import re
>>> words = re.findall(r'\w+', open('hamlet.txt').read().lower())
>>> Counter(words).most_common(10)
[('the', 1143), ('and', 966), ('to', 762), ('of', 669), ('i', 631),
 ('you', 554), ('a', 546), ('my', 514), ('hamlet', 471), ('in', 451)]
```

`class collections.Counter([iterable-or-mapping])`

La classe `Counter` est une sous-classe de `dict` qui permet le dénombrement d'objets hachables. Il s'agit d'une collection non ordonnée dans laquelle les éléments sont stockés comme des clés de dictionnaire et leurs nombres d'occurrences respectifs comme leurs valeurs. Ceux-ci peuvent être des entiers relatifs (positifs, négatifs ou nuls). La classe `Counter` est similaire aux sacs ou aux multienssembles dans d'autres langages.

Les éléments sont comptés à partir d'un itérable ou initialisés à partir d'un autre dictionnaire (ou compteur) :

```
>>> c = Counter()                # a new, empty counter
>>> c = Counter('gallahad')      # a new counter from an iterable
>>> c = Counter({'red': 4, 'blue': 2}) # a new counter from a mapping
>>> c = Counter(cats=4, dogs=8)   # a new counter from keyword args
```

Les objets Counter ont une interface de dictionnaire, à l'exception près qu'ils renvoient zéro au lieu de lever une exception `KeyError` pour des éléments manquants :

```
>>> c = Counter(['eggs', 'ham'])
>>> c['bacon']                    # count of a missing element is zero
0
```

Mettre un comptage à zéro pour un élément ne le retire pas de l'objet Counter. Il faut utiliser `del` pour le supprimer complètement :

```
>>> c['sausage'] = 0              # counter entry with a zero count
>>> del c['sausage']              # del actually removes the entry
```

Nouveau dans la version 2.7.

En plus des méthodes disponibles pour tous les dictionnaires, les objets compteurs gèrent trois méthodes supplémentaires :

elements()

Renvoie un itérateur sur chaque élément en le répétant autant de fois que la valeur du compteur associé. Les éléments sont renvoyés dans un ordre arbitraire. Si le comptage d'un élément est strictement inférieur à 1, alors `elements()` l'ignore.

```
>>> c = Counter(a=4, b=2, c=0, d=-2)
>>> list(c.elements())
['a', 'a', 'a', 'a', 'b', 'b']
```

most_common(*n*)

Return a list of the *n* most common elements and their counts from the most common to the least. If *n* is omitted or None, `most_common()` returns *all* elements in the counter. Elements with equal counts are ordered arbitrarily :

```
>>> Counter('abracadabra').most_common(3)
[('a', 5), ('r', 2), ('b', 2)]
```

subtract(*[iterable-or-mapping]*)

Les éléments sont soustraits à partir d'un itérable ou d'un autre dictionnaire (ou compteur). Cette méthode se comporte comme `dict.update()` mais soustrait les nombres d'occurrences au lieu de les remplacer. Les entrées et sorties peuvent être négatives ou nulles.

```
>>> c = Counter(a=4, b=2, c=0, d=-2)
>>> d = Counter(a=1, b=2, c=3, d=4)
>>> c.subtract(d)
>>> c
Counter({'a': 3, 'b': 0, 'c': -3, 'd': -6})
```

Les méthodes usuelles des dictionnaires sont disponibles pour les objets `Counter` à l'exception de deux méthodes qui fonctionnent différemment pour les compteurs.

fromkeys(*iterable*)

Cette méthode de classe n'est pas implémentée pour les objets `Counter`.

`update([iterable-or-mapping])`

Les éléments sont comptés à partir d'un itérable ou ajoutés d'un autre dictionnaire (ou compteur). Cette méthode se comporte comme `dict.update()` mais additionne les nombres d'occurrences au lieu de les remplacer. De plus, l'itérable doit être une séquence d'éléments et non une séquence de paires (clé, valeur).

Opérations usuelles sur les objets *Counter* :

```
sum(c.values())           # total of all counts
c.clear()                 # reset all counts
list(c)                   # list unique elements
set(c)                    # convert to a set
dict(c)                   # convert to a regular dictionary
c.items()                 # convert to a list of (elem, cnt) pairs
Counter(dict(list_of_pairs)) # convert from a list of (elem, cnt) pairs
c.most_common()[:n-1:-1]  # n least common elements
c -= Counter()            # remove zero and negative counts
```

Quelques opérations mathématiques sont fournies pour combiner des objets *Counter* afin de créer des multiensembles (des compteurs dont les dénombrements des éléments sont strictement supérieurs à zéro). Les additions et soustractions combinent les compteurs en ajoutant ou retranchant les nombres d'occurrences des éléments correspondants. Les intersections et unions renvoient les minimums et maximums des comptages correspondants. Chaque opération peut accepter des entrées avec des comptages relatifs, mais la sortie exclut les résultats avec des comptages négatifs ou nuls.

```
>>> c = Counter(a=3, b=1)
>>> d = Counter(a=1, b=2)
>>> c + d                      # add two counters together: c[x] + d[x]
Counter({'a': 4, 'b': 3})
>>> c - d                      # subtract (keeping only positive counts)
Counter({'a': 2})
>>> c & d                      # intersection: min(c[x], d[x])
Counter({'a': 1, 'b': 1})
>>> c | d                      # union: max(c[x], d[x])
Counter({'a': 3, 'b': 2})
```

Note : Les compteurs ont été conçus essentiellement pour fonctionner avec des entiers naturels pour représenter les dénombrements en cours; cependant, les cas d'utilisation nécessitant d'autres types ou des valeurs négatives n'ont pas été écartés. Pour vous aider dans ces cas particuliers, cette section documente la plage minimale et les restrictions de type.

- La classe *Counter* est elle-même une sous-classe de dictionnaire sans restriction particulière sur ces clés ou valeurs. Les valeurs ont vocation à être des nombres représentants des comptages, mais il est possible de stocker n'importe quel type de valeur.
 - The `most_common()` method requires only that the values be orderable.
 - For in-place operations such as `c[key] += 1`, the value type need only support addition and subtraction. So fractions, floats, and decimals would work and negative values are supported. The same is also true for `update()` and `subtract()` which allow negative and zero values for both inputs and outputs.
 - Les méthodes de multiensembles sont uniquement conçues pour les cas d'utilisation avec des valeurs positives. Les entrées peuvent contenir des valeurs négatives ou nulles, mais seules les sorties avec des valeurs positives sont créées. Il n'y a pas de restriction de type, mais les types des valeurs doivent gérer l'addition, la soustraction et la comparaison.
 - The `elements()` method requires integer counts. It ignores zero and negative counts.
-

Voir aussi :

- [Counter](#) class adapted for Python 2.5 and an early [Bag](#) recipe for Python 2.4.
 - [Bag](#) class in Smalltalk.
 - L'article Wikipédia sur les [multiensembles](#) sur Wikipédia (ou l'article en anglais).
 - Des guides et exemples à propos des [multiensembles en C++](#).
 - Pour les opérations mathématiques sur les multiensembles et leurs applications, voir *Knuth, Donald. The Art of Computer Programming Volume II, Section 4.6.3, Exercise 19.*
 - To enumerate all distinct multisets of a given size over a given set of elements, see [itertools.combinations_with_replacement\(\)](#).
- map(Counter, combinations_with_replacement("ABC", 2)) -> AA AB AC BB BC CC

8.3.2 Objets deque

class collections.deque([iterable[, maxlen]])

Renvoie un nouvel objet *deque* initialisé de gauche à droite (en utilisant [append\(\)](#)) avec les données d'*iterable*. Si *iterable* n'est pas spécifié, alors la nouvelle *deque* est vide.

Les *deques* sont une généralisation des piles et des files (*deque* se prononce « *dèque* » et est l'abréviation de l'anglais *double-ended queue*) : il est possible d'ajouter et retirer des éléments par les deux bouts des *deques*. Celles-ci gèrent des ajouts et des retraits utilisables par de multiples fils d'exécution (*thread-safe*) et efficaces du point de vue de la mémoire des deux côtés de la *deque*, avec approximativement la même performance en $O(1)$ dans les deux sens.

Bien que les les objets *list* gèrent des opérations similaires, ils sont optimisés pour des opérations qui ne changent pas la taille de la liste. Les opérations `pop(0)` et `insert(0, v)` qui changent la taille et la position de la représentation des données sous-jacentes entraînent des coûts de déplacement de mémoire en $O(n)$.

Nouveau dans la version 2.4.

Si *maxlen* n'est pas spécifié ou vaut *None*, les *deques* peuvent atteindre une taille arbitraire. Sinon, la *deque* est limitée par cette taille maximale. Une fois que celle-ci est atteinte, un ajout d'un ou plusieurs éléments engendre la suppression du nombre correspondant d'éléments à l'autre extrémité de la *deque*. Les *deques* à longueur limitée apportent des fonctionnalités similaire au filtre *tail* d'Unix. Elles sont aussi utiles pour le suivi de transactions et autres lots de données où seule l'activité récente est intéressante.

Modifié dans la version 2.6 : Added *maxlen* parameter.

Les objets *deques* gèrent les méthodes suivantes :

append(x)

Ajoute *x* à l'extrémité droite de la *deque*.

appendleft(x)

Ajoute *x* à l'extrémité gauche de la *deque*.

clear()

Supprime tous les éléments de la *deque* et la laisse avec une longueur de 0.

count(x)

Compte le nombre d'éléments de la *deque* égaux à *x*.

Nouveau dans la version 2.7.

extend(iterable)

Étend la *deque* en ajoutant les éléments de l'itérable en argument à son extrémité droite.

extendleft(iterable)

Étend la *deque* en ajoutant les éléments d'*iterable* à son extrémité gauche. Dans ce cas, notez que la série d'ajouts inverse l'ordre des éléments de l'argument itérable.

pop()

Retire et renvoie un élément de l'extrémité droite de la *deque*. S'il n'y a aucun élément, lève une exception [IndexError](#).

popleft()

Retire et renvoie un élément de l'extrémité gauche de la *deque*. S'il n'y a aucun élément, lève une exception *IndexError*.

remove(value)

Remove the first occurrence of *value*. If not found, raises a *ValueError*.

Nouveau dans la version 2.5.

reverse()

Inverse le sens des éléments de la *deque* sans créer de copie et renvoie *None*.

Nouveau dans la version 2.7.

rotate(n=1)

Rotate the deque *n* steps to the right. If *n* is negative, rotate to the left.

When the deque is not empty, rotating one step to the right is equivalent to `d.appendleft(d.pop())`, and rotating one step to the left is equivalent to `d.append(d.popleft())`.

Les objets *deques* fournissent également un attribut en lecture seule :

maxlen

La taille maximale d'une *deque*, ou *None* si illimitée.

Nouveau dans la version 2.7.

En plus des méthodes précédentes, les *deques* gèrent l'itération, la sérialisation, `len(d)`, `reversed(d)`, `copy.copy(d)`, `copy.deepcopy(d)`, le test d'appartenance avec l'opérateur `in`, et les références en indice comme `d[-1]`. L'accès par indice est en $O(1)$ aux extrémités mais en $O(n)$ au milieu. Pour des accès aléatoires rapides, il est préférable d'utiliser des listes.

Exemple :

```
>>> from collections import deque
>>> d = deque('ghi')           # make a new deque with three items
>>> for elem in d:             # iterate over the deque's elements
...     print elem.upper()
G
H
I

>>> d.append('j')              # add a new entry to the right side
>>> d.appendleft('f')          # add a new entry to the left side
>>> d                          # show the representation of the deque
deque(['f', 'g', 'h', 'i', 'j'])

>>> d.pop()                    # return and remove the rightmost item
'j'
>>> d.popleft()                # return and remove the leftmost item
'f'
>>> list(d)                    # list the contents of the deque
['g', 'h', 'i']
>>> d[0]                       # peek at leftmost item
'g'
>>> d[-1]                      # peek at rightmost item
'i'

>>> list(reversed(d))          # list the contents of a deque in reverse
['i', 'h', 'g']
>>> 'h' in d                   # search the deque
True
```

(suite sur la page suivante)

(suite de la page précédente)

```

>>> d.extend('jkl')           # add multiple elements at once
>>> d
deque(['g', 'h', 'i', 'j', 'k', 'l'])
>>> d.rotate(1)               # right rotation
>>> d
deque(['l', 'g', 'h', 'i', 'j', 'k'])
>>> d.rotate(-1)              # left rotation
>>> d
deque(['g', 'h', 'i', 'j', 'k', 'l'])

>>> deque(reversed(d))        # make a new deque in reverse order
deque(['l', 'k', 'j', 'i', 'h', 'g'])
>>> d.clear()                  # empty the deque
>>> d.pop()                    # cannot pop from an empty deque
Traceback (most recent call last):
  File "<pyshell#6>", line 1, in -toplevel-
    d.pop()
IndexError: pop from an empty deque

>>> d.extendleft('abc')       # extendleft() reverses the input order
>>> d
deque(['c', 'b', 'a'])

```

Cas pratiques utilisant deque

Cette partie montre diverses approches afin de travailler avec les *deques*.

Les *deques* à taille limitée apportent une fonctionnalité similaire au filtre `tail` d'Unix :

```

def tail(filename, n=10):
    'Return the last n lines of a file'
    return deque(open(filename), n)

```

Une autre approche d'utilisation des *deques* est de maintenir une séquence d'éléments récemment ajoutés en les ajoutant à droite et en retirant les anciens par la gauche :

```

def moving_average(iterable, n=3):
    # moving_average([40, 30, 50, 46, 39, 44]) --> 40.0 42.0 45.0 43.0
    # http://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Moving_average
    it = iter(iterable)
    d = deque(itertools.islice(it, n-1))
    d.appendleft(0)
    s = sum(d)
    for elem in it:
        s += elem - d.popleft()
        d.append(elem)
        yield s / float(n)

```

The `rotate()` method provides a way to implement *deque* slicing and deletion. For example, a pure Python implementation of `del d[n]` relies on the `rotate()` method to position elements to be popped :

```

def delete_nth(d, n):
    d.rotate(-n)

```

(suite sur la page suivante)

```
d.popleft()
d.rotate(n)
```

To implement *deque* slicing, use a similar approach applying `rotate()` to bring a target element to the left side of the deque. Remove old entries with `popleft()`, add new entries with `extend()`, and then reverse the rotation. With minor variations on that approach, it is easy to implement Forth style stack manipulations such as `dup`, `drop`, `swap`, `over`, `pick`, `rot`, and `roll`.

8.3.3 Objets defaultdict

```
class collections.defaultdict([default_factory, ...])
```

Renvoie un nouvel objet qui se comporte comme un dictionnaire. `defaultdict` est une sous-classe de la classe native *dict*. Elle surcharge une méthode et ajoute une variable d'instance modifiable. Les autres fonctionnalités sont les mêmes que celles des objets *dict* et ne sont pas documentées ici.

Le premier argument fournit la valeur initiale de l'attribut `default_factory` qui doit être un objet callable sans paramètre ou `None`, sa valeur par défaut. Tous les autres arguments sont traités comme si on les passait au constructeur de *dict*, y compris les arguments nommés.

Nouveau dans la version 2.5.

En plus des opérations usuelles de *dict*, les objets *defaultdict* gèrent les méthodes supplémentaires suivantes :

`__missing__(key)`

Si l'attribut `default_factory` est `None`, lève une exception *KeyError* avec *key* comme argument.

Si `default_factory` ne vaut pas `None`, cet attribut est appelé sans argument pour fournir une valeur par défaut pour la *key* demandée. Cette valeur est insérée dans le dictionnaire avec pour clé *key* et est renvoyée.

Si appeler `default_factory` lève une exception, celle-ci est transmise inchangée.

Cette méthode est appelée par la méthode `__getitem__()` de la classe *dict* lorsque la clé demandée n'est pas trouvée. Ce qu'elle renvoie ou lève est alors renvoyé ou levé par `__getitem__()`.

Remarquez que `__missing__()` n'est pas appelée pour les opérations autres que `__getitem__()`. Cela signifie que `get()` renvoie `None` comme les dictionnaires natifs dans les cas triviaux et n'utilise pas `default_factory`.

Les objets *defaultdict* gèrent la variable d'instance :

`default_factory`

Cet attribut est utilisé par la méthode `__missing__()` ; il est initialisé par le premier argument passé au constructeur, s'il est spécifié, sinon par `None`.

Exemples utilisant defaultdict

Using `list` as the `default_factory`, it is easy to group a sequence of key-value pairs into a dictionary of lists :

```
>>> s = [('yellow', 1), ('blue', 2), ('yellow', 3), ('blue', 4), ('red', 1)]
>>> d = defaultdict(list)
>>> for k, v in s:
...     d[k].append(v)
...
>>> d.items()
[('blue', [2, 4]), ('red', [1]), ('yellow', [1, 3])]
```

When each key is encountered for the first time, it is not already in the mapping ; so an entry is automatically created using the `default_factory` function which returns an empty `list`. The `list.append()` operation then attaches the value to the new list. When keys are encountered again, the look-up proceeds normally

(returning the list for that key) and the `list.append()` operation adds another value to the list. This technique is simpler and faster than an equivalent technique using `dict.setdefault()` :

```
>>> d = {}
>>> for k, v in s:
...     d.setdefault(k, []).append(v)
...
>>> d.items()
[('blue', [2, 4]), ('red', [1]), ('yellow', [1, 3])]
```

Setting the `default_factory` to `int` makes the `defaultdict` useful for counting (like a bag or multiset in other languages) :

```
>>> s = 'mississippi'
>>> d = defaultdict(int)
>>> for k in s:
...     d[k] += 1
...
>>> d.items()
[('i', 4), ('p', 2), ('s', 4), ('m', 1)]
```

When a letter is first encountered, it is missing from the mapping, so the `default_factory` function calls `int()` to supply a default count of zero. The increment operation then builds up the count for each letter.

The function `int()` which always returns zero is just a special case of constant functions. A faster and more flexible way to create constant functions is to use `itertools.repeat()` which can supply any constant value (not just zero) :

```
>>> def constant_factory(value):
...     return itertools.repeat(value).next
>>> d = defaultdict(constant_factory('<missing>'))
>>> d.update(name='John', action='ran')
>>> '%(name)s %(action)s to %(object)s' % d
'John ran to <missing>'
```

Setting the `default_factory` to `set` makes the `defaultdict` useful for building a dictionary of sets :

```
>>> s = [('red', 1), ('blue', 2), ('red', 3), ('blue', 4), ('red', 1), ('blue', 4)]
>>> d = defaultdict(set)
>>> for k, v in s:
...     d[k].add(v)
...
>>> d.items()
[('blue', set([2, 4])), ('red', set([1, 3]))]
```

8.3.4 `namedtuple()` : fonction de construction pour *n-uplets* (*tuples*) avec des champs nommés

Les tuples nommés assignent une signification à chacun de leur élément, ce qui rend le code plus lisible et explicite. Ils peuvent être utilisés partout où les tuples natifs sont utilisés, et ils ajoutent la possibilité d'accéder à leurs champs grâce à leur nom au lieu de leur index de position.

`collections.namedtuple(typename, field_names[, verbose=False][, rename=False])`

Renvoie une nouvelle sous-classe de `tuple` appelée `typename`. Elle est utilisée pour créer des objets se comportant comme les *tuples* qui ont des champs accessibles par recherche d'attribut en plus d'être

indexables et itérables. Les instances de cette sous-classe possèdent aussi une *docstring* explicite (avec *type_name* et les *field_names*) et une méthode `__repr__()` pratique qui liste le contenu du tuple au format `nom=valeur`.

field_names peut être une séquence de chaînes de caractères telle que `['x', 'y']` ou bien une unique chaîne de caractères où les noms de champs sont séparés par un espace et/ou une virgule, par exemple `'x y'` ou `'x, y'`.

Any valid Python identifier may be used for a fieldname except for names starting with an underscore. Valid identifiers consist of letters, digits, and underscores but do not start with a digit or underscore and cannot be a *keyword* such as *class*, *for*, *return*, *global*, *pass*, *print*, or *raise*.

Si *rename* vaut `True`, alors les noms de champs invalides sont automatiquement renommés en noms positionnels. Par exemple, `['abc', 'def', 'ghi', 'abc']` est converti en `['abc', '_1', 'ghi', '_3']` afin d'éliminer le mot-clé `def` et le doublon de `abc`.

If *verbose* is true, the class definition is printed just before being built.

Les instances de tuples nommés n'ont pas de dictionnaires propres, elles sont donc légères et ne requièrent pas plus de mémoire que les tuples natifs.

Nouveau dans la version 2.6.

Modifié dans la version 2.7 : added support for *rename*.

Exemple :

```
>>> Point = namedtuple('Point', ['x', 'y'], verbose=True)
class Point(tuple):
    'Point(x, y)'

    __slots__ = ()

    _fields = ('x', 'y')

    def __new__(_cls, x, y):
        'Create new instance of Point(x, y)'
        return _tuple.__new__(_cls, (x, y))

    @classmethod
    def _make(cls, iterable, new=tuple.__new__, len=len):
        'Make a new Point object from a sequence or iterable'
        result = new(cls, iterable)
        if len(result) != 2:
            raise TypeError('Expected 2 arguments, got %d' % len(result))
        return result

    def __repr__(self):
        'Return a nicely formatted representation string'
        return 'Point(x=%r, y=%r)' % self

    def _asdict(self):
        'Return a new OrderedDict which maps field names to their values'
        return OrderedDict(zip(self._fields, self))

    def _replace(_self, **kwds):
        'Return a new Point object replacing specified fields with new values'
        result = _self._make(map(kwds.pop, ('x', 'y'), _self))
        if kwds:
            raise ValueError('Got unexpected field names: %r' % kwds.keys())
```

(suite sur la page suivante)

(suite de la page précédente)

```

        return result

    def __getnewargs__(self):
        'Return self as a plain tuple.  Used by copy and pickle.'
        return tuple(self)

    __dict__ = _property(_asdict)

    def __getstate__(self):
        'Exclude the OrderedDict from pickling'
        pass

    x = _property(_itemgetter(0), doc='Alias for field number 0')

    y = _property(_itemgetter(1), doc='Alias for field number 1')

>>> p = Point(11, y=22)           # instantiate with positional or keyword arguments
>>> p[0] + p[1]                   # indexable like the plain tuple (11, 22)
33
>>> x, y = p                      # unpack like a regular tuple
>>> x, y
(11, 22)
>>> p.x + p.y                     # fields also accessible by name
33
>>> p                             # readable __repr__ with a name=value style
Point(x=11, y=22)

```

Les tuples nommés sont particulièrement utiles pour associer des noms de champs à des tuples renvoyés par les modules `csv` ou `sqlite3` :

```

EmployeeRecord = namedtuple('EmployeeRecord', 'name, age, title, department, paygrade')

import csv
for emp in map(EmployeeRecord._make, csv.reader(open("employees.csv", "rb"))):
    print emp.name, emp.title

import sqlite3
conn = sqlite3.connect('/companydata')
cursor = conn.cursor()
cursor.execute('SELECT name, age, title, department, paygrade FROM employees')
for emp in map(EmployeeRecord._make, cursor.fetchall()):
    print emp.name, emp.title

```

In addition to the methods inherited from tuples, named tuples support three additional methods and one attribute. To prevent conflicts with field names, the method and attribute names start with an underscore.

classmethod `somenamedtuple._make(iterable)`

Méthode de classe qui construit une nouvelle instance à partir d'une séquence ou d'un itérable existant.

```

>>> t = [11, 22]
>>> Point._make(t)

```

(suite sur la page suivante)

(suite de la page précédente)

```
Point(x=11, y=22)
```

`somenamedtuple._asdict()`

Return a new *OrderedDict* which maps field names to their corresponding values :

```
>>> p = Point(x=11, y=22)
>>> p._asdict()
OrderedDict([('x', 11), ('y', 22)])
```

Modifié dans la version 2.7 : Renvoie un *OrderedDict* au lieu d'un *dict* natif.

`somenamedtuple._replace(**kwargs)`

Renvoie une nouvelle instance du tuple nommé en remplaçant les champs spécifiés par leurs nouvelles valeurs :

```
>>> p = Point(x=11, y=22)
>>> p._replace(x=33)
Point(x=33, y=22)

>>> for partnum, record in inventory.items():
...     inventory[partnum] = record._replace(price=newprices[partnum],
→timestamp=time.now())
```

`somenamedtuple._fields`

Tuple de chaînes de caractères listant les noms de champs. Pratique pour l'introspection et pour créer de nouveaux types de tuples nommés à partir d'existants.

```
>>> p._fields           # view the field names
('x', 'y')

>>> Color = namedtuple('Color', 'red green blue')
>>> Pixel = namedtuple('Pixel', Point._fields + Color._fields)
>>> Pixel(11, 22, 128, 255, 0)
Pixel(x=11, y=22, red=128, green=255, blue=0)
```

Pour récupérer un champ dont le nom est une chaîne de caractères, utilisez la fonction *getattr()* :

```
>>> getattr(p, 'x')
11
```

Pour convertir un dictionnaire en tuple nommé, utilisez l'opérateur double-étoile (comme expliqué dans *tut-unpacking-arguments*) :

```
>>> d = {'x': 11, 'y': 22}
>>> Point(**d)
Point(x=11, y=22)
```

Il est aisé d'ajouter ou de modifier les fonctionnalités des tuples nommés grâce à l'héritage puisqu'il s'agit de simples classes. Voici comment ajouter un champ calculé avec une longueur fixe d'affichage :

```
>>> class Point(namedtuple('Point', 'x y')):
...     __slots__ = ()
...     @property
...     def hypot(self):
```

(suite sur la page suivante)

(suite de la page précédente)

```

...     return (self.x ** 2 + self.y ** 2) ** 0.5
...     def __str__(self):
...         return 'Point: x=%6.3f y=%6.3f hypot=%6.3f' % (self.x, self.y, self.hypot)
...
>>> for p in Point(3, 4), Point(14, 5/7.):
...     print p
Point: x= 3.000 y= 4.000 hypot= 5.000
Point: x=14.000 y= 0.714 hypot=14.018

```

La sous-classe ci-dessus définit `__slots__` comme un tuple vide. Cela permet de garder une empreinte mémoire faible en empêchant la création de dictionnaire d'instance.

Subclassing is not useful for adding new, stored fields. Instead, simply create a new named tuple type from the `_fields` attribute :

```
>>> Point3D = namedtuple('Point3D', Point._fields + ('z',))
```

Default values can be implemented by using `_replace()` to customize a prototype instance :

```

>>> Account = namedtuple('Account', 'owner balance transaction_count')
>>> default_account = Account('<owner name>', 0.0, 0)
>>> johns_account = default_account._replace(owner='John')

```

Enumerated constants can be implemented with named tuples, but it is simpler and more efficient to use a simple class declaration :

```

>>> Status = namedtuple('Status', 'open pending closed')._make(range(3))
>>> Status.open, Status.pending, Status.closed
(0, 1, 2)
>>> class Status:
...     open, pending, closed = range(3)

```

Voir aussi :

[Named tuple recipe](#) adapted for Python 2.4.

8.3.5 Objets `OrderedDict`

En plus de se comporter comme des dictionnaires natifs, les dictionnaires ordonnés mémorisent l'ordre dans lequel les éléments ont été insérés. Quand on itère sur un dictionnaire ordonné, les éléments sont renvoyés dans l'ordre d'insertion des clés.

```
class collections.OrderedDict([items])
```

Renvoie une instance d'une sous-classe de `dict` qui gère les méthodes usuelles de *dict*. Un objet *OrderedDict* est un dictionnaire qui mémorise l'ordre d'insertion des clés. Si une nouvelle entrée écrase une autre, sa position reste inchangé. Si une entrée est supprimée puis réinsérée, elle est placée en dernière position.

Nouveau dans la version 2.7.

```
OrderedDict.popitem(last=True)
```

The *popitem()* method for ordered dictionaries returns and removes a (key, value) pair. The pairs are returned in LIFO order if *last* is true or FIFO order if false.

En plus des méthodes usuelles des dictionnaires, les dictionnaires ordonnés gèrent l'itération en sens inverse grâce à *reversed()*.

Equality tests between `OrderedDict` objects are order-sensitive and are implemented as `list(od1.items())==list(od2.items())`. Equality tests between `OrderedDict` objects and other `Mapping` objects are order-insensitive like regular dictionaries. This allows `OrderedDict` objects to be substituted anywhere a regular dictionary is used.

The `OrderedDict` constructor and `update()` method both accept keyword arguments, but their order is lost because Python's function call semantics pass-in keyword arguments using a regular unordered dictionary.

Voir aussi :

Equivalent `OrderedDict` recipe that runs on Python 2.4 or later.

Exemples et cas pratiques utilisant `OrderDict`

Puisqu'un dictionnaire ordonné mémorise l'ordre d'insertion de ses éléments, il peut être utilisé conjointement avec un classement pour créer un dictionnaire trié :

```
>>> # regular unsorted dictionary
>>> d = {'banana': 3, 'apple': 4, 'pear': 1, 'orange': 2}

>>> # dictionary sorted by key
>>> OrderedDict(sorted(d.items(), key=lambda t: t[0]))
OrderedDict([('apple', 4), ('banana', 3), ('orange', 2), ('pear', 1)])

>>> # dictionary sorted by value
>>> OrderedDict(sorted(d.items(), key=lambda t: t[1]))
OrderedDict([('pear', 1), ('orange', 2), ('banana', 3), ('apple', 4)])

>>> # dictionary sorted by length of the key string
>>> OrderedDict(sorted(d.items(), key=lambda t: len(t[0])))
OrderedDict([('pear', 1), ('apple', 4), ('orange', 2), ('banana', 3)])
```

Les nouveaux dictionnaires triés gardent leur classement quand des entrées sont supprimées, mais si de nouvelles clés sont ajoutées, celles-ci sont ajoutée à la fin et le classement est perdu.

Il est également facile de créer une variante de dictionnaire ordonné qui retient l'ordre dans lequel les clés ont été insérées *en dernier*. Si une nouvelle entrée écrase une existante, la position d'insertion d'origine est modifiée et déplacée à la fin :

```
class LastUpdatedOrderedDict(OrderedDict):
    'Store items in the order the keys were last added'

    def __setitem__(self, key, value):
        if key in self:
            del self[key]
        OrderedDict.__setitem__(self, key, value)
```

Un dictionnaire ordonné peut être combiné avec la classe `Counter` afin de mémoriser l'ordre dans lequel les éléments ont été ajoutés pour la première fois :

```
class OrderedCounter(Counter, OrderedDict):
    'Counter that remembers the order elements are first encountered'

    def __repr__(self):
        return '%s(%r)' % (self.__class__.__name__, OrderedDict(self))
```

(suite sur la page suivante)

(suite de la page précédente)

```
def __reduce__(self):
    return self.__class__, (OrderedDict(self),)
```

8.3.6 Classes de base abstraites de collections

Le module collections apporte les *ABC* suivantes :

ABC	Hérite de	Méthodes abstraites	Méthodes <i>mixin</i>
<i>Container</i>		<code>__contains__</code>	
<i>Hashable</i>		<code>__hash__</code>	
<i>Iterable</i>		<code>__iter__</code>	
<i>Iterator</i>	<i>Iterable</i>	<code>next</code>	<code>__iter__</code>
<i>Sized</i>		<code>__len__</code>	
<i>Callable</i>		<code>__call__</code>	
<i>Sequence</i>	<i>Sized</i> , <i>Iterable</i> , <i>Container</i>	<code>__getitem__</code> , <code>__len__</code>	<code>__contains__</code> , <code>__iter__</code> , <code>__reversed__</code> , index et count
<i>MutableSequence</i>	<i>Sequence</i>	<code>__getitem__</code> , <code>__setitem__</code> , <code>__delitem__</code> , <code>__len__</code> , insert	Méthodes héritées de <i>Sequence</i> , et <code>append</code> , <code>reverse</code> , <code>extend</code> , <code>pop</code> , <code>remove</code> et <code>__iadd__</code>
<i>Set</i>	<i>Sized</i> , <i>Iterable</i> , <i>Container</i>	<code>__contains__</code> , <code>__iter__</code> , <code>__len__</code>	<code>__le__</code> , <code>__lt__</code> , <code>__eq__</code> , <code>__ne__</code> , <code>__gt__</code> , <code>__ge__</code> , <code>__and__</code> , <code>__or__</code> , <code>__sub__</code> , <code>__xor__</code> et <code>isdisjoint</code>
<i>MutableSet</i>	<i>Set</i>	<code>__contains__</code> , <code>__iter__</code> , <code>__len__</code> , <code>add</code> , <code>discard</code>	Méthodes héritées de <i>Set</i> , et <code>clear</code> , <code>pop</code> , <code>remove</code> , <code>__ior__</code> , <code>__iand__</code> , <code>__ixor__</code> et <code>__isub__</code>
<i>Mapping</i>	<i>Sized</i> , <i>Iterable</i> , <i>Container</i>	<code>__getitem__</code> , <code>__iter__</code> , <code>__len__</code>	<code>__contains__</code> , <code>keys</code> , <code>items</code> , <code>values</code> , <code>get</code> , <code>__eq__</code> et <code>__ne__</code>
<i>MutableMapping</i>	<i>Mapping</i>	<code>__getitem__</code> , <code>__setitem__</code> , <code>__delitem__</code> , <code>__iter__</code> , <code>__len__</code>	Méthodes héritées de <i>Mapping</i> , et <code>pop</code> , <code>popitem</code> , <code>clear</code> , <code>update</code> et <code>setdefault</code>
<i>MappingView</i>	<i>Sized</i>		<code>__len__</code>
<i>ItemsView</i>	<i>MappingView</i> , <i>Set</i>		<code>__contains__</code> , <code>__iter__</code>
<i>KeysView</i>	<i>MappingView</i> , <i>Set</i>		<code>__contains__</code> , <code>__iter__</code>
<i>ValuesView</i>	<i>MappingView</i>		<code>__contains__</code> , <code>__iter__</code>

```
class collections.Container
```

```
class collections.Hashable
```

```
class collections.Sized
```

```
class collections.Callable
```

ABC pour les classes qui définissent respectivement les méthodes `__contains__()`, `__hash__()`, `__len__()` et `__call__()`.

```
class collections.Iterable
```

ABC for classes that provide the `__iter__()` method. See also the definition of *iterable*.

```
class collections.Iterator
```

ABC for classes that provide the `__iter__()` and `next()` methods. See also the definition of *iterator*.

```
class collections.Sequence
```

```
class collections.MutableSequence
    ABC pour les séquences immuables et muables.

class collections.Set
class collections.MutableSet
    ABC pour les ensembles immuables et muables.

class collections.Mapping
class collections.MutableMapping
    ABC pour les tables de correspondances immuables et muables.

class collections.MappingView
class collections.ItemsView
class collections.KeysView
class collections.ValuesView
    ABC pour les vues de mappings (tableaux de correspondances), d'éléments, de clés et de valeurs.
```

Ces ABC permettent de demander à des classes ou à des instances si elles fournissent des fonctionnalités particulières, par exemple

```
size = None
if isinstance(myvar, collections.Sized):
    size = len(myvar)
```

Several of the ABCs are also useful as mixins that make it easier to develop classes supporting container APIs. For example, to write a class supporting the full *Set* API, it only necessary to supply the three underlying abstract methods: `__contains__()`, `__iter__()`, and `__len__()`. The ABC supplies the remaining methods such as `__and__()` and `isdisjoint()`

```
class ListBasedSet(collections.Set):
    ''' Alternate set implementation favoring space over speed
        and not requiring the set elements to be hashable. '''
    def __init__(self, iterable):
        self.elements = lst = []
        for value in iterable:
            if value not in lst:
                lst.append(value)

    def __iter__(self):
        return iter(self.elements)

    def __contains__(self, value):
        return value in self.elements

    def __len__(self):
        return len(self.elements)

s1 = ListBasedSet('abcdef')
s2 = ListBasedSet('defghi')
overlap = s1 & s2           # The __and__() method is supported automatically
```

Notes à propos de l'utilisation de *Set* et *MutableSet* comme *mixin* :

- (1) Comme une partie des opérations sur les ensembles créent de nouveaux ensembles, les méthodes *mixins* par défaut ont besoin d'un moyen de créer de nouvelles instances à partir d'un itérable. Le constructeur de classe est supposé avoir une signature de la forme `ClassName(iterable)`. Cette supposition est faite par une méthode de classe interne appelée `_from_iterable()` qui appelle `cls(iterable)` pour

construire un nouvel ensemble. Si le *Set mixin* est utilisé dans une classe avec un constructeur de signature différente, vous devrez surcharger `_from_iterable()` avec une méthode de classe qui peut construire de nouvelles instances à partir d'un argument itérable.

- (2) Pour surcharger les comparaisons (a priori pour la rapidité, puisque la sémantique est fixe), il faut redéfinir `__le__()` et `__ge__()`, puis les autres opérations seront automatiquement adaptées.
- (3) La classe *mixin Set* apporte une méthode `_hash()` pour calculer une valeur de hachage pour l'ensemble; cependant `__hash__()` n'est pas défini car tous les ensembles ne sont pas hachables ou immuables. Pour rendre un ensemble hachable en utilisant les *mixins*, héritez de `Set()` et de `Hashable()`, puis définissez `__hash__ = Set._hash`.

Voir aussi :

- [OrderedSet recipe](#) pour un exemple construit sur *MutableSet*.
- Pour plus d'informations à propos des ABC, voir le module *abc* et la [PEP 3119](#).

8.4 heapq — Heap queue algorithm

Nouveau dans la version 2.3.

Code source : [Lib/heapq.py](#)

This module provides an implementation of the heap queue algorithm, also known as the priority queue algorithm.

Heaps are binary trees for which every parent node has a value less than or equal to any of its children. This implementation uses arrays for which `heap[k] <= heap[2*k+1]` and `heap[k] <= heap[2*k+2]` for all *k*, counting elements from zero. For the sake of comparison, non-existing elements are considered to be infinite. The interesting property of a heap is that its smallest element is always the root, `heap[0]`.

The API below differs from textbook heap algorithms in two aspects : (a) We use zero-based indexing. This makes the relationship between the index for a node and the indexes for its children slightly less obvious, but is more suitable since Python uses zero-based indexing. (b) Our pop method returns the smallest item, not the largest (called a « min heap » in textbooks; a « max heap » is more common in texts because of its suitability for in-place sorting).

These two make it possible to view the heap as a regular Python list without surprises : `heap[0]` is the smallest item, and `heap.sort()` maintains the heap invariant !

To create a heap, use a list initialized to `[]`, or you can transform a populated list into a heap via function `heapify()`.

Les fonctions suivantes sont fournies :

`heapq.heappush(heap, item)`

Push the value *item* onto the *heap*, maintaining the heap invariant.

`heapq.heappop(heap)`

Pop and return the smallest item from the *heap*, maintaining the heap invariant. If the heap is empty, *IndexError* is raised. To access the smallest item without popping it, use `heap[0]`.

`heapq.heappushpop(heap, item)`

Push *item* on the heap, then pop and return the smallest item from the *heap*. The combined action runs more efficiently than `heappush()` followed by a separate call to `heappop()`.

Nouveau dans la version 2.6.

`heapq.heapify(x)`

Transform list *x* into a heap, in-place, in linear time.

`heapq.heapreplace(heap, item)`

Pop and return the smallest item from the *heap*, and also push the new *item*. The heap size doesn't change. If the heap is empty, `IndexError` is raised.

This one step operation is more efficient than a `heappop()` followed by `heappush()` and can be more appropriate when using a fixed-size heap. The pop/push combination always returns an element from the heap and replaces it with *item*.

The value returned may be larger than the *item* added. If that isn't desired, consider using `heappushpop()` instead. Its push/pop combination returns the smaller of the two values, leaving the larger value on the heap.

The module also offers three general purpose functions based on heaps.

`heapq.merge(*iterables)`

Merge multiple sorted inputs into a single sorted output (for example, merge timestamped entries from multiple log files). Returns an *iterator* over the sorted values.

Similar to `sorted(itertools.chain(*iterables))` but returns an iterable, does not pull the data into memory all at once, and assumes that each of the input streams is already sorted (smallest to largest).

Nouveau dans la version 2.6.

`heapq.nlargest(n, iterable[, key])`

Return a list with the *n* largest elements from the dataset defined by *iterable*. *key*, if provided, specifies a function of one argument that is used to extract a comparison key from each element in the iterable : `key=str.lower` Equivalent to : `sorted(iterable, key=key, reverse=True)[:n]`

Nouveau dans la version 2.4.

Modifié dans la version 2.5 : Added the optional *key* argument.

`heapq.nsmallest(n, iterable[, key])`

Return a list with the *n* smallest elements from the dataset defined by *iterable*. *key*, if provided, specifies a function of one argument that is used to extract a comparison key from each element in the iterable : `key=str.lower` Equivalent to : `sorted(iterable, key=key)[:n]`

Nouveau dans la version 2.4.

Modifié dans la version 2.5 : Added the optional *key* argument.

The latter two functions perform best for smaller values of *n*. For larger values, it is more efficient to use the `sorted()` function. Also, when `n==1`, it is more efficient to use the built-in `min()` and `max()` functions. If repeated usage of these functions is required, consider turning the iterable into an actual heap.

8.4.1 Basic Examples

A `heapsort` can be implemented by pushing all values onto a heap and then popping off the smallest values one at a time :

```
>>> def heapsort(iterable):
...     h = []
...     for value in iterable:
...         heappush(h, value)
...     return [heappop(h) for i in range(len(h))]
...
>>> heapsort([1, 3, 5, 7, 9, 2, 4, 6, 8, 0])
[0, 1, 2, 3, 4, 5, 6, 7, 8, 9]
```

This is similar to `sorted(iterable)`, but unlike `sorted()`, this implementation is not stable.

Heap elements can be tuples. This is useful for assigning comparison values (such as task priorities) alongside the main record being tracked :

```
>>> h = []
>>> heappush(h, (5, 'write code'))
>>> heappush(h, (7, 'release product'))
>>> heappush(h, (1, 'write spec'))
>>> heappush(h, (3, 'create tests'))
>>> heappop(h)
(1, 'write spec')
```

8.4.2 Priority Queue Implementation Notes

A [priority queue](#) is common use for a heap, and it presents several implementation challenges :

- Sort stability : how do you get two tasks with equal priorities to be returned in the order they were originally added ?
- In the future with Python 3, tuple comparison breaks for (priority, task) pairs if the priorities are equal and the tasks do not have a default comparison order.
- If the priority of a task changes, how do you move it to a new position in the heap ?
- Or if a pending task needs to be deleted, how do you find it and remove it from the queue ?

A solution to the first two challenges is to store entries as 3-element list including the priority, an entry count, and the task. The entry count serves as a tie-breaker so that two tasks with the same priority are returned in the order they were added. And since no two entry counts are the same, the tuple comparison will never attempt to directly compare two tasks.

The remaining challenges revolve around finding a pending task and making changes to its priority or removing it entirely. Finding a task can be done with a dictionary pointing to an entry in the queue.

Removing the entry or changing its priority is more difficult because it would break the heap structure invariants. So, a possible solution is to mark the existing entry as removed and add a new entry with the revised priority :

```
pq = []                                # list of entries arranged in a heap
entry_finder = {}                       # mapping of tasks to entries
REMOVED = '<removed-task>'              # placeholder for a removed task
counter = itertools.count()             # unique sequence count

def add_task(task, priority=0):
    'Add a new task or update the priority of an existing task'
    if task in entry_finder:
        remove_task(task)
    count = next(counter)
    entry = [priority, count, task]
    entry_finder[task] = entry
    heappush(pq, entry)

def remove_task(task):
    'Mark an existing task as REMOVED. Raise KeyError if not found.'
    entry = entry_finder.pop(task)
    entry[-1] = REMOVED

def pop_task():
    'Remove and return the lowest priority task. Raise KeyError if empty.'
    while pq:
        priority, count, task = heappop(pq)
        if task is not REMOVED:
```

(suite sur la page suivante)

(suite de la page précédente)

```

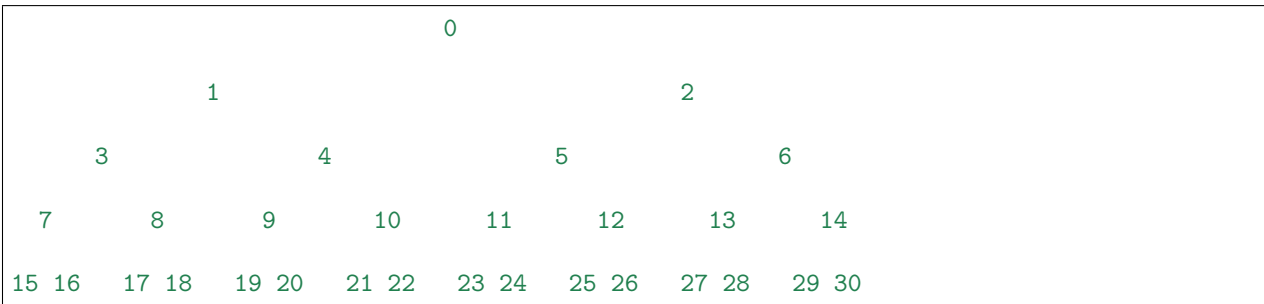
del entry_finder[task]
return task
raise KeyError('pop from an empty priority queue')

```

8.4.3 Theory

Heaps are arrays for which $a[k] \leq a[2k+1]$ and $a[k] \leq a[2k+2]$ for all k , counting elements from 0. For the sake of comparison, non-existing elements are considered to be infinite. The interesting property of a heap is that $a[0]$ is always its smallest element.

The strange invariant above is meant to be an efficient memory representation for a tournament. The numbers below are k , not $a[k]$:



In the tree above, each cell k is topping $2k+1$ and $2k+2$. In a usual binary tournament we see in sports, each cell is the winner over the two cells it tops, and we can trace the winner down the tree to see all opponents s/he had. However, in many computer applications of such tournaments, we do not need to trace the history of a winner. To be more memory efficient, when a winner is promoted, we try to replace it by something else at a lower level, and the rule becomes that a cell and the two cells it tops contain three different items, but the top cell « wins » over the two topped cells.

If this heap invariant is protected at all time, index 0 is clearly the overall winner. The simplest algorithmic way to remove it and find the « next » winner is to move some loser (let's say cell 30 in the diagram above) into the 0 position, and then percolate this new 0 down the tree, exchanging values, until the invariant is re-established. This is clearly logarithmic on the total number of items in the tree. By iterating over all items, you get an $O(n \log n)$ sort.

A nice feature of this sort is that you can efficiently insert new items while the sort is going on, provided that the inserted items are not « better » than the last 0'th element you extracted. This is especially useful in simulation contexts, where the tree holds all incoming events, and the « win » condition means the smallest scheduled time. When an event schedules other events for execution, they are scheduled into the future, so they can easily go into the heap. So, a heap is a good structure for implementing schedulers (this is what I used for my MIDI sequencer :-).

Various structures for implementing schedulers have been extensively studied, and heaps are good for this, as they are reasonably speedy, the speed is almost constant, and the worst case is not much different than the average case. However, there are other representations which are more efficient overall, yet the worst cases might be terrible.

Heaps are also very useful in big disk sorts. You most probably all know that a big sort implies producing « runs » (which are pre-sorted sequences, whose size is usually related to the amount of CPU memory), followed by a merging passes for these runs, which merging is often very cleverly organised¹. It is very

1. The disk balancing algorithms which are current, nowadays, are more annoying than clever, and this is a consequence of the seeking capabilities of the disks. On devices which cannot seek, like big tape drives, the story was quite different, and one had to be very clever to ensure (far in advance) that each tape movement will be the most effective possible (that is, will best participate at « progressing » the merge). Some tapes were even able to read backwards, and this was also used to avoid the

important that the initial sort produces the longest runs possible. Tournaments are a good way to achieve that. If, using all the memory available to hold a tournament, you replace and percolate items that happen to fit the current run, you'll produce runs which are twice the size of the memory for random input, and much better for input fuzzily ordered.

Moreover, if you output the 0'th item on disk and get an input which may not fit in the current tournament (because the value « wins » over the last output value), it cannot fit in the heap, so the size of the heap decreases. The freed memory could be cleverly reused immediately for progressively building a second heap, which grows at exactly the same rate the first heap is melting. When the first heap completely vanishes, you switch heaps and start a new run. Clever and quite effective!

In a word, heaps are useful memory structures to know. I use them in a few applications, and I think it is good to keep a “heap” module around. :-)

Notes

8.5 bisect — Algorithme de bisection de listes

Nouveau dans la version 2.1.

Code source : [Lib/bisect.py](#)

Ce module fournit des outils pour maintenir une liste triée sans avoir à la trier à chaque insertion. Il pourrait être plus rapide que l'approche classique pour de longues listes d'éléments dont les opérations de comparaison sont lourdes. Le module se nomme *bisect* car il utilise une approche simple par bisection. Si vous voulez un exemple de cet algorithme, le mieux est d'aller lire le code source de ce module (les conditions sur les limites y étant justes !).

Les fonctions suivantes sont fournies :

bisect.bisect_left(*a*, *x*, *lo*=0, *hi*=len(*a*))

Trouve le point d'insertion de *x* dans *a* permettant de conserver l'ordre. Les paramètres *lo* et *hi* permettent de limiter les emplacements à vérifier dans la liste, par défaut toute la liste est utilisée. Si *x* est déjà présent dans *a*, le point d'insertion proposé sera avant (à gauche) de l'entrée existante. Si *a* est déjà triée, la valeur renvoyée peut directement être utilisée comme premier paramètre de `list.insert()`.

Le point d'insertion renvoyé, *i*, coupe la liste *a* en deux moitiés telles que, pour la moitié de gauche : `all(val < x for val in a[lo:i])`, et pour la partie de droite : `all(val >= x for val in a[i:hi])`.

bisect.bisect_right(*a*, *x*, *lo*=0, *hi*=len(*a*))

bisect.bisect(*a*, *x*, *lo*=0, *hi*=len(*a*))

Semblable à *bisect_left()*, mais renvoie un point d'insertion après (à droite) d'une potentielle entrée existante valant *x* dans *a*.

Le point d'insertion renvoyé, *i*, coupe la liste *a* en deux moitiés telles que, pour la moitié de gauche : `all(val <= x for val in a[lo:i])` et pour la moitié de droite : `all(val > x for val in a[i:hi])`.

bisect.insort_left(*a*, *x*, *lo*=0, *hi*=len(*a*))

Insère *x* dans *a* en conservant le tri. C'est l'équivalent de `a.insert(bisect.bisect_left(a, x, lo, hi), x)`, tant que *a* est déjà triée. Gardez en tête que bien que la recherche ne coûte que $O(\log n)$, l'insertion coûte $O(n)$.

bisect.insort_right(*a*, *x*, *lo*=0, *hi*=len(*a*))

rewinding time. Believe me, real good tape sorts were quite spectacular to watch! From all times, sorting has always been a Great Art! :-)

```
bisect.insort(a, x, lo=0, hi=len(a))
```

Similaire à `insort_left()`, mais en insérant `x` dans `a` après une potentielle entrée existante égale à `x`.

Voir aussi :

`SortedCollection` recipe utilise le module `bisect` pour construire une classe collection exposant des méthodes de recherches naturelles et gérant une fonction clef. Les clefs sont pré-calculées pour économiser des appels inutiles à la fonction clef durant les recherches.

8.5.1 Chercher dans des listes triées

Les fonctions `bisect()` ci-dessus sont utiles pour insérer des éléments, mais peuvent être étranges et peu naturelles à utiliser pour rechercher des éléments. Les cinq fonctions suivantes montrent comment les transformer en recherche plus classique pour les listes triées :

```
def index(a, x):
    'Locate the leftmost value exactly equal to x'
    i = bisect_left(a, x)
    if i != len(a) and a[i] == x:
        return i
    raise ValueError

def find_lt(a, x):
    'Find rightmost value less than x'
    i = bisect_left(a, x)
    if i:
        return a[i-1]
    raise ValueError

def find_le(a, x):
    'Find rightmost value less than or equal to x'
    i = bisect_right(a, x)
    if i:
        return a[i-1]
    raise ValueError

def find_gt(a, x):
    'Find leftmost value greater than x'
    i = bisect_right(a, x)
    if i != len(a):
        return a[i]
    raise ValueError

def find_ge(a, x):
    'Find leftmost item greater than or equal to x'
    i = bisect_left(a, x)
    if i != len(a):
        return a[i]
    raise ValueError
```

8.5.2 Autres Exemples

La fonction `bisect()` peut être utile pour des recherches dans des tableaux de nombres. Cet exemple utilise `bisect()` pour rechercher la note (sous forme de lettre) correspondant à un note sous forme de points, en se basant sur une échelle prédéfinie : plus de 90 vaut "A", de 80 à 89 vaut "B", etc... :

```
>>> def grade(score, breakpoints=[60, 70, 80, 90], grades='FDCBA'):
    i = bisect(breakpoints, score)
    return grades[i]

>>> [grade(score) for score in [33, 99, 77, 70, 89, 90, 100]]
['F', 'A', 'C', 'C', 'B', 'A', 'A']
```

Contrairement à la fonction `sorted()`, ça n'aurait pas de sens pour la fonction `bisect()` d'avoir un paramètre `key` ou `reversed`, qui conduiraient à une utilisation inefficace (des appels successifs à la fonction `bisect` n'auraient aucun moyen de se « souvenir » des recherches de clef précédentes).

Il est préférable d'utiliser une liste de clefs pré-calculée pour chercher l'index de l'enregistrement en question :

```
>>> data = [('red', 5), ('blue', 1), ('yellow', 8), ('black', 0)]
>>> data.sort(key=lambda r: r[1])
>>> keys = [r[1] for r in data]           # precomputed list of keys
>>> data[bisect_left(keys, 0)]
('black', 0)
>>> data[bisect_left(keys, 1)]
('blue', 1)
>>> data[bisect_left(keys, 5)]
('red', 5)
>>> data[bisect_left(keys, 8)]
('yellow', 8)
```

8.6 array — Tableaux efficaces de valeurs numériques

Ce module définit un type d'objet qui permet de représenter de façon compacte un tableau (*array*) de valeurs élémentaires : caractères, entiers, flottants. Les tableaux sont de type séquence et se comportent de manière très similaire aux listes, sauf que les types d'objets qui y sont stockés sont limités. Le type est spécifié au moment de la création de l'objet en utilisant *type code*, qui est un caractère unique. Voir ci-dessous pour la définition des types :

Code d'indication du type	Type C	Type Python	Taille minimum en octets
'c'	char	character	1
'b'	signed char	int	1
'B'	unsigned char	int	1
'u'	Py_UNICODE	Caractère Unicode	2 (see note)
'h'	signed short	int	2
'H'	unsigned short	int	2
'i'	signed int	int	2
'I'	unsigned int	long	2
'l'	signed long	int	4
'L'	unsigned long	long	4
'f'	float	float	4
'd'	double	float	8

Note : The 'u' typecode corresponds to Python's unicode character. On narrow Unicode builds this is 2-bytes, on wide builds this is 4-bytes.

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 cannot represent the full range of C's unsigned (long) integers.

Le module définit le type suivant :

`class array.array(typecode[, initializer])`

A new array whose items are restricted by *typecode*, and initialized from the optional *initializer* value, which must be a list, string, or iterable over elements of the appropriate type.

Modifié dans la version 2.4 : Formerly, only lists or strings were accepted.

If given a list or string, the initializer is passed to the new array's `fromlist()`, `fromstring()`, or `fromunicode()` method (see below) to add initial items to the array. Otherwise, the iterable initializer is passed to the `extend()` method.

`array.ArrayType`

Obsolete alias for `array`.

Array objects support the ordinary sequence operations of indexing, slicing, concatenation, and multiplication. When using slice assignment, the assigned value must be an array object with the same type code; in all other cases, `TypeError` is raised. Array objects also implement the buffer interface, and may be used wherever buffer objects are supported.

Les éléments de données et méthodes suivants sont également supportés :

`array.typecode`

Le code (de type Python caractère) utilisé pour spécifier le type des éléments du tableau.

`array.itemsize`

La longueur en octets d'un élément du tableau dans la représentation interne.

`array.append(x)`

Ajoute un nouvel élément avec la valeur *x* à la fin du tableau.

`array.buffer_info()`

Renvoie un tuple (`address`, `length`) indiquant l'adresse mémoire courante et la longueur en éléments du tampon utilisé pour contenir le contenu du tableau. La taille du tampon mémoire en octets peut être calculée par `array.buffer_info()[1] * array.itemsize`. Ceci est parfois utile lorsque vous travaillez sur des interfaces E/S de bas niveau (et intrinsèquement dangereuses) qui nécessitent des adresses mémoire, telles que certaines opérations `ioctl()`. Les nombres renvoyés sont valides tant que le tableau existe et qu'aucune opération qui modifie sa taille ne lui est appliquée.

Note : Lors de l'utilisation d'objets tableaux provenant de codes écrits en C ou C++ (le seul moyen d'utiliser efficacement ces informations), il est plus logique d'utiliser l'interface tampon supportée par les objets tableaux. Cette méthode est maintenue pour des raisons de rétrocompatibilité et devrait être évitée dans un nouveau code. L'interface tampon est documentée dans `bufferobjects`.

`array.byteswap()`

Boutisme de tous les éléments du tableau. Ceci n'est pris en charge que pour les valeurs de 1, 2, 4 ou 8 octets ; pour les autres types de valeur, `RuntimeError` est levée. Il est utile lors de la lecture de données à partir d'un fichier écrit sur une machine avec un ordre d'octets différent.

`array.count(x)`

Renvoie le nombre d'occurrences de *x* dans le tableau.

`array.extend(iterable)`

Ajoute les éléments de *iterable* à la fin du tableau. Si *iterable* est un autre tableau, il doit le même code

d'indication du type ; dans le cas contraire, *TypeError* sera levée. Si *iterable* n'est pas un tableau, il doit être itérable et ces éléments doivent être du bon type pour être ajoutés dans le tableau.

Modifié dans la version 2.4 : Formerly, the argument could only be another array.

array.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.

array.fromlist(*list*)

Ajoute les éléments de la liste. C'est l'équivalent de `for x in list: a.append(x)` sauf que s'il y a une erreur de type, le tableau est inchangé.

array.fromstring(*s*)

Ajoute des éléments de la chaîne, interprétant la chaîne comme un tableau de valeurs machine (comme si elle avait été lue depuis le fichier en utilisant la méthode `from file()`).

array.fromunicode(*s*)

Extends this array with data from the given unicode string. The array must be a type 'u' array ; otherwise a *ValueError* is raised. Use `array.fromstring(unicodestring.encode(enc))` to append Unicode data to an array of some other type.

array.index(*x*)

Renvoie le plus petit *i* tel que *i* est l'index de la première occurrence de *x* dans le tableau.

array.insert(*i*, *x*)

Ajoute un nouvel élément avec la valeur *x* dans le tableau avant la position *i*. Les valeurs négatives sont traitées relativement à la fin du tableau.

array.pop([*i*])

Supprime l'élément du tableau avec l'index *i* et le renvoie. L'argument optionnel par défaut est à -1, de sorte que par défaut le dernier élément est supprimé et renvoyé.

array.read(*f*, *n*)

Obsolète depuis la version 1.5.1 : Use the *fromfile()* method.

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.

array.remove(*x*)

Supprime la première occurrence de *x* du tableau.

array.reverse()

Inverse l'ordre des éléments du tableau.

array.tofile(*f*)

Write all items (as machine values) to the file object *f*.

array.tolist()

Convertit le tableau en une liste ordinaire avec les mêmes éléments.

array.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.)

array.tounicode()

Convert the array to a unicode string. The array must be a type 'u' array ; otherwise a *ValueError* is raised. Use `array.tostring().decode(enc)` to obtain a unicode string from an array of some other type.

`array.write(f)`

Obsolète depuis la version 1.5.1 : Use the *tofile()* method.

Write all items (as machine values) to the file object *f*.

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 *eval()*, so long as the *array* class has been imported using `from array import array`. Examples :

```
array('l')
array('c', 'hello world')
array('u', u'hello \u2641')
array('l', [1, 2, 3, 4, 5])
array('d', [1.0, 2.0, 3.14])
```

Voir aussi :

Module *struct* Empaquetage et dépaquetage de données binaires hétérogènes.

Module *xdrlib* Empaquetage et dépaquetage des données XDR (External Data Representation) telles qu'elles sont utilisées dans certains systèmes d'appels de procédures à distance (ou RPC pour *remote procedure call* en anglais).

The Numerical Python Documentation L'extension *Numeric Python* (NumPy) définit un autre type de tableau ; voir <http://www.numpy.org/> pour plus d'informations sur *Numeric Python*.

8.7 sets — Unordered collections of unique elements

Nouveau dans la version 2.3.

Obsolète depuis la version 2.6 : The built-in *set/frozenset* types replace this module.

The *sets* module provides classes for constructing and manipulating unordered collections of unique elements. Common uses include membership testing, removing duplicates from a sequence, and computing standard math operations on sets such as intersection, union, difference, and symmetric difference.

Comme pour les autres collections, les ensembles supportent `x in set`, `len(set)`, et `for x in set`. En tant que collection non-triée, les ensembles n'enregistrent pas la position des éléments ou leur ordre d'insertion. En conséquence, les *sets* n'autorisent ni l'indexation, ni le découpage, ou tout autre comportement de séquence.

Most set applications use the *Set* class which provides every set method except for `__hash__()`. For advanced applications requiring a hash method, the *ImmutableSet* class adds a `__hash__()` method but omits methods which alter the contents of the set. Both *Set* and *ImmutableSet* derive from *BaseSet*, an abstract class useful for determining whether something is a set : `isinstance(obj, BaseSet)`.

The set classes are implemented using dictionaries. Accordingly, the requirements for set elements are the same as those for dictionary keys; namely, that the element defines both `__eq__()` and `__hash__()`. As a result, sets cannot contain mutable elements such as lists or dictionaries. However, they can contain immutable collections such as tuples or instances of *ImmutableSet*. For convenience in implementing sets of sets, inner sets are automatically converted to immutable form, for example, `Set([Set(['dog'])])` is transformed to `Set([ImmutableSet(['dog'])])`.

class *sets.Set*(*[iterable]*)

Constructs a new empty *Set* object. If the optional *iterable* parameter is supplied, updates the set with elements obtained from iteration. All of the elements in *iterable* should be immutable or be transformable to an immutable using the protocol described in section *Protocol for automatic conversion to immutable*.

```
class sets.ImmutableSet([iterable])
```

Constructs a new empty *ImmutableSet* object. If the optional *iterable* parameter is supplied, updates the set with elements obtained from iteration. All of the elements in *iterable* should be immutable or be transformable to an immutable using the protocol described in section *Protocol for automatic conversion to immutable*.

Because *ImmutableSet* objects provide a `__hash__()` method, they can be used as set elements or as dictionary keys. *ImmutableSet* objects do not have methods for adding or removing elements, so all of the elements must be known when the constructor is called.

8.7.1 Set Objects

Instances of *Set* and *ImmutableSet* both provide the following operations :

Opération	Equivalent	Résultat
<code>len(s)</code>		number of elements in set <i>s</i> (cardinality)
<code>x in s</code>		test <i>x</i> for membership in <i>s</i>
<code>x not in s</code>		test <i>x</i> for non-membership in <i>s</i>
<code>s.issubset(t)</code>	<code>s <= t</code>	test whether every element in <i>s</i> is in <i>t</i>
<code>s.issuperset(t)</code>	<code>s >= t</code>	test whether every element in <i>t</i> is in <i>s</i>
<code>s.union(t)</code>	<code>s t</code>	new set with elements from both <i>s</i> and <i>t</i>
<code>s.intersection(t)</code>	<code>s & t</code>	new set with elements common to <i>s</i> and <i>t</i>
<code>s.difference(t)</code>	<code>s - t</code>	new set with elements in <i>s</i> but not in <i>t</i>
<code>s.symmetric_difference(t)</code>	<code>s ^ t</code>	new set with elements in either <i>s</i> or <i>t</i> but not both
<code>s.copy()</code>		new set with a shallow copy of <i>s</i>

Note, the non-operator versions of `union()`, `intersection()`, `difference()`, and `symmetric_difference()` will accept any iterable as an argument. In contrast, their operator based counterparts require their arguments to be sets. This precludes error-prone constructions like `Set('abc') & 'cbs'` in favor of the more readable `Set('abc').intersection('cbs')`.

Modifié dans la version 2.3.1 : Formerly all arguments were required to be sets.

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

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

Puisque les *sets* ne définissent qu'un ordre partiel (par leurs relations de sous-ensembles), la sortie de la méthode `list.sort()` n'est pas définie pour des listes d'ensembles.

The following table lists operations available in *ImmutableSet* but not found in *Set* :

Opération	Résultat
<code>hash(s)</code>	returns a hash value for <i>s</i>

The following table lists operations available in *Set* but not found in *ImmutableSet* :

Opération	Equiva- lent	Résultat
<code>s.update(t)</code>	$s \mid= t$	return set <i>s</i> with elements added from <i>t</i>
<code>s.intersection_update(t)</code>	$s \&= t$	return set <i>s</i> keeping only elements also found in <i>t</i>
<code>s.difference_update(t)</code>	$s -= t$	return set <i>s</i> after removing elements found in <i>t</i>
<code>s.symmetric_difference_update(t)</code>	$s \hat{=} t$	return set <i>s</i> with elements from <i>s</i> or <i>t</i> but not both
<code>s.add(x)</code>		add element <i>x</i> to set <i>s</i>
<code>s.remove(x)</code>		remove <i>x</i> from set <i>s</i> ; raises <i>KeyError</i> if not present
<code>s.discard(x)</code>		removes <i>x</i> from set <i>s</i> if present
<code>s.pop()</code>		remove and return an arbitrary element from <i>s</i> ; raises <i>KeyError</i> if empty
<code>s.clear()</code>		remove all elements from set <i>s</i>

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

Modifié dans la version 2.3.1 : Formerly all arguments were required to be sets.

Also note, the module also includes a `union_update()` method which is an alias for `update()`. The method is included for backwards compatibility. Programmers should prefer the `update()` method because it is supported by the built-in `set()` and `frozenset()` types.

8.7.2 Exemple

```
>>> from sets import Set
>>> engineers = Set(['John', 'Jane', 'Jack', 'Janice'])
>>> programmers = Set(['Jack', 'Sam', 'Susan', 'Janice'])
>>> managers = Set(['Jane', 'Jack', 'Susan', 'Zack'])
>>> employees = engineers | programmers | managers           # union
>>> engineering_management = engineers & managers           # intersection
>>> fulltime_management = managers - engineers - programmers # difference
>>> engineers.add('Marvin')                                   # add element
>>> print engineers # doctest: +SKIP
Set(['Jane', 'Marvin', 'Janice', 'John', 'Jack'])
>>> employees.issuperset(engineers)                          # superset test
False
>>> employees.update(engineers)                               # update from another set
>>> employees.issuperset(engineers)
True
>>> for group in [engineers, programmers, managers, employees]: # doctest: +SKIP
...     group.discard('Susan')                               # unconditionally remove element
...     print group
...
Set(['Jane', 'Marvin', 'Janice', 'John', 'Jack'])
Set(['Janice', 'Jack', 'Sam'])
Set(['Jane', 'Zack', 'Jack'])
Set(['Jack', 'Sam', 'Jane', 'Marvin', 'Janice', 'John', 'Zack'])
```

8.7.3 Protocol for automatic conversion to immutable

Sets can only contain immutable elements. For convenience, mutable `Set` objects are automatically copied to an `ImmutableSet` before being added as a set element.

The mechanism is to always add a *hashable* element, or if it is not hashable, the element is checked to see if it has an `__as_immutable__()` method which returns an immutable equivalent.

Since *Set* objects have a `__as_immutable__()` method returning an instance of *ImmutableSet*, it is possible to construct sets of sets.

A similar mechanism is needed by the `__contains__()` and `remove()` methods which need to hash an element to check for membership in a set. Those methods check an element for hashability and, if not, check for a `__as_temporarily_immutable__()` method which returns the element wrapped by a class that provides temporary methods for `__hash__()`, `__eq__()`, and `__ne__()`.

The alternate mechanism spares the need to build a separate copy of the original mutable object.

Set objects implement the `__as_temporarily_immutable__()` method which returns the *Set* object wrapped by a new class `_TemporarilyImmutableSet`.

The two mechanisms for adding hashability are normally invisible to the user; however, a conflict can arise in a multi-threaded environment where one thread is updating a set while another has temporarily wrapped it in `_TemporarilyImmutableSet`. In other words, sets of mutable sets are not thread-safe.

8.7.4 Comparison to the built-in set types

The built-in *set* and *frozenset* types were designed based on lessons learned from the *sets* module. The key differences are :

- *Set* and *ImmutableSet* were renamed to *set* and *frozenset*.
- There is no equivalent to `BaseSet`. Instead, use `isinstance(x, (set, frozenset))`.
- The hash algorithm for the built-ins performs significantly better (fewer collisions) for most datasets.
- The built-in versions have more space efficient pickles.
- The built-in versions do not have a `union_update()` method. Instead, use the `update()` method which is equivalent.
- The built-in versions do not have a `_repr(sorted=True)` method. Instead, use the built-in `repr()` and `sorted()` functions : `repr(sorted(s))`.
- The built-in version does not have a protocol for automatic conversion to immutable. Many found this feature to be confusing and no one in the community reported having found real uses for it.

8.8 sched — Event scheduler

Code source : [Lib/sched.py](#)

The *sched* module defines a class which implements a general purpose event scheduler :

class `sched.scheduler`(*timefunc*, *delayfunc*)

The *scheduler* class defines a generic interface to scheduling events. It needs two functions to actually deal with the « outside world » — *timefunc* should be callable without arguments, and return a number (the « time », in any units whatsoever). The *delayfunc* function should be callable with one argument, compatible with the output of *timefunc*, and should delay that many time units. *delayfunc* will also be called with the argument 0 after each event is run to allow other threads an opportunity to run in multi-threaded applications.

Exemple :

```
>>> import sched, time
>>> s = sched.scheduler(time.time, time.sleep)
>>> def print_time(): print "From print_time", time.time()
...

```

(suite sur la page suivante)

(suite de la page précédente)

```
>>> def print_some_times():
...     print time.time()
...     s.enter(5, 1, print_time, ())
...     s.enter(10, 1, print_time, ())
...     s.run()
...     print time.time()
...
>>> print_some_times()
930343690.257
From print_time 930343695.274
From print_time 930343700.273
930343700.276
```

In multi-threaded environments, the *scheduler* class has limitations with respect to thread-safety, inability to insert a new task before the one currently pending in a running scheduler, and holding up the main thread until the event queue is empty. Instead, the preferred approach is to use the *threading.Timer* class instead.

Exemple :

```
>>> import time
>>> from threading import Timer
>>> def print_time():
...     print "From print_time", time.time()
...
>>> def print_some_times():
...     print time.time()
...     Timer(5, print_time, ()).start()
...     Timer(10, print_time, ()).start()
...     time.sleep(11) # sleep while time-delay events execute
...     print time.time()
...
>>> print_some_times()
930343690.257
From print_time 930343695.274
From print_time 930343700.273
930343701.301
```

8.8.1 Scheduler Objects

scheduler instances have the following methods and attributes :

scheduler.enterabs(*time*, *priority*, *action*, *argument*)

Schedule a new event. The *time* argument should be a numeric type compatible with the return value of the *timefunc* function passed to the constructor. Events scheduled for the same *time* will be executed in the order of their *priority*. A lower number represents a higher priority.

Executing the event means executing *action(*argument)*. *argument* must be a sequence holding the parameters for *action*.

Return value is an event which may be used for later cancellation of the event (see *cancel()*).

scheduler.enter(*delay*, *priority*, *action*, *argument*)

Schedule an event for *delay* more time units. Other than the relative time, the other arguments, the effect and the return value are the same as those for *enterabs()*.

scheduler.cancel(*event*)

Remove the event from the queue. If *event* is not an event currently in the queue, this method will raise a *ValueError*.

`scheduler.empty()`

Return true if the event queue is empty.

`scheduler.run()`

Run all scheduled events. This function will wait (using the `delayfunc()` function passed to the constructor) for the next event, then execute it and so on until there are no more scheduled events.

Either *action* or *delayfunc* can raise an exception. In either case, the scheduler will maintain a consistent state and propagate the exception. If an exception is raised by *action*, the event will not be attempted in future calls to `run()`.

If a sequence of events takes longer to run than the time available before the next event, the scheduler will simply fall behind. No events will be dropped; the calling code is responsible for canceling events which are no longer pertinent.

`scheduler.queue`

Read-only attribute returning a list of upcoming events in the order they will be run. Each event is shown as a *named tuple* with the following fields : time, priority, action, argument.

Nouveau dans la version 2.6.

8.9 mutex — Mutual exclusion support

Obsolète depuis la version 2.6 : The *mutex* module has been removed in Python 3.

The *mutex* module defines a class that allows mutual-exclusion via acquiring and releasing locks. It does not require (or imply) *threading* or multi-tasking, though it could be useful for those purposes.

The *mutex* module defines the following class :

`class mutex.mutex`

Create a new (unlocked) mutex.

A mutex has two pieces of state — a « locked » bit and a queue. When the mutex is not locked, the queue is empty. Otherwise, the queue contains zero or more (`function`, `argument`) pairs representing functions (or methods) waiting to acquire the lock. When the mutex is unlocked while the queue is not empty, the first queue entry is removed and its `function(argument)` pair called, implying it now has the lock.

Of course, no multi-threading is implied – hence the funny interface for `lock()`, where a function is called once the lock is acquired.

8.9.1 Mutex Objects

mutex objects have following methods :

`mutex.test()`

Check whether the mutex is locked.

`mutex.testandset()`

« Atomic » test-and-set, grab the lock if it is not set, and return `True`, otherwise, return `False`.

`mutex.lock(function, argument)`

Execute `function(argument)`, unless the mutex is locked. In the case it is locked, place the function and argument on the queue. See `unlock()` for explanation of when `function(argument)` is executed in that case.

`mutex.unlock()`

Unlock the mutex if queue is empty, otherwise execute the first element in the queue.

8.10 Queue — A synchronized queue class

Note : The `Queue` module has been renamed to `queue` in Python 3. The `2to3` tool will automatically adapt imports when converting your sources to Python 3.

Source code : `Lib/Queue.py`

The `Queue` module implements multi-producer, multi-consumer queues. It is especially useful in threaded 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; see the `threading` module.

The module implements three types of queue, which differ only in the order in which the entries are retrieved. In a FIFO queue, the first tasks added are the first retrieved. In a LIFO queue, the most recently added entry is the first retrieved (operating like a stack). With a priority queue, the entries are kept sorted (using the `heapq` module) and the lowest valued entry is retrieved first.

The `Queue` module defines the following classes and exceptions :

class `Queue.Queue(maxsize=0)`

Constructor for a FIFO queue. *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.

class `Queue.LifoQueue(maxsize=0)`

Constructor for a LIFO queue. *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.

Nouveau dans la version 2.6.

class `Queue.PriorityQueue(maxsize=0)`

Constructeur pour une file de priorité. *maxsize* est un entier définissant le nombre maximal d'éléments pouvant être mis dans la file. L'insertion sera bloquée lorsque cette borne supérieure sera atteinte, jusqu'à ce que des éléments soient consommés. Si *maxsize* est inférieur ou égal à 0, la taille de la file sera infinie.

Les éléments de valeurs les plus faibles sont extraits en premier (l'élément de valeur la plus faible est celui renvoyé par `sorted(list(entries))[0]`). Un cas typique est d'utiliser des tuple de la forme : `(priority_number, data)`.

Nouveau dans la version 2.6.

exception `Queue.Empty`

Exception raised when non-blocking `get()` (or `get_nowait()`) is called on a `Queue` object which is empty.

exception `Queue.Full`

Exception raised when non-blocking `put()` (or `put_nowait()`) is called on a `Queue` object which is full.

Voir aussi :

`collections.deque` is an alternative implementation of unbounded queues with fast atomic `append()` and `popleft()` operations that do not require locking.

8.10.1 Objets Queue

Queue objects (`Queue`, `LifoQueue`, or `PriorityQueue`) provide the public methods described below.

Queue.qsize()

Renvoie la taille approximative de la file. Notez que `qsize() > 0` ne garantit pas qu'un `get()` ultérieur ne sera pas bloquant et que `qsize() < maxsize` ne garantit pas non plus qu'un `put()` ne sera pas bloquant.

Queue.empty()

Renvoie `True` si la file est vide, `False` sinon. Si `empty()` renvoie `True`, cela ne garantit pas qu'un appel ultérieur à `put()` ne sera pas bloquant. Similairement, si `empty()` renvoie `False`, cela ne garantit pas qu'un appel ultérieur à `get()` ne sera pas bloquant.

Queue.full()

Renvoie `True` si la file est pleine, `False` sinon. Si `full()` renvoie `True`, cela ne garantit pas qu'un appel ultérieur à `get()` ne sera pas bloquant. Similairement, si `full()` retourne `False`, cela ne garantit pas qu'un appel ultérieur à `put()` ne sera pas bloquant.

Queue.put(item[, block[, timeout]])

Met *item* dans la file. Si les arguments optionnels *block* et *timeout* sont respectivement `True` et `None` (les valeurs par défaut), la méthode bloque si nécessaire jusqu'à ce qu'un emplacement libre soit disponible. Si *timeout* est un nombre positif, elle bloque au plus *timeout* secondes et lève l'exception `Full` s'il n'y avait pas d'emplacement libre pendant cette période de temps. Sinon (*block* est `False`), elle met un élément dans la file s'il y a un emplacement libre immédiatement disponible. Si ce n'est pas le cas, elle lève l'exception `Full` (*timeout* est ignoré dans ce cas).

Nouveau dans la version 2.3 : The *timeout* parameter.

Queue.put_nowait(item)

Équivalent à `put(item, False)`.

Queue.get([block[, timeout]])

Retire et renvoie un élément de la file. Si les arguments optionnels *block* et *timeout* valent respectivement `True` et `None` (les valeurs par défaut), la méthode bloque si nécessaire jusqu'à ce qu'un élément soit disponible. Si *timeout* est un entier positif, elle bloque au plus *timeout* secondes et lève l'exception `Empty` s'il n'y avait pas d'élément disponible pendant cette période de temps. Sinon (*block* vaut `False`), elle renvoie un élément s'il y en a un immédiatement disponible. Si ce n'est pas le cas, elle lève l'exception `Empty` (*timeout* est ignoré dans ce cas).

Nouveau dans la version 2.3 : The *timeout* parameter.

Queue.get_nowait()

Équivalent à `get(False)`.

Deux méthodes sont proposées afin de savoir si les tâches mises dans la file ont été entièrement traitées par les fils d'exécution consommateurs du démon.

Queue.task_done()

Indique qu'une tâche précédemment mise dans la file est terminée. Utilisé par les fils d'exécution consommateurs de la file. Pour chaque appel à `get()` effectué afin de récupérer une tâche, un appel ultérieur à `task_done()` informe la file que le traitement de la tâche est terminé.

Si un `join()` est actuellement bloquant, on reprendra lorsque tous les éléments auront été traités (ce qui signifie qu'un appel à `task_done()` a été effectué pour chaque élément qui a été `put()` dans la file).

Lève une exception `ValueError` si appelée plus de fois qu'il y avait d'éléments dans la file.

Nouveau dans la version 2.5.

Queue.join()

Bloque jusqu'à ce que tous les éléments de la file aient été obtenus et traités.

Le nombre de tâches inachevées augmente chaque fois qu'un élément est ajouté à la file. Ce nombre diminue chaque fois qu'un fil d'exécution consommateur appelle `task_done()` pour indiquer que l'élément a été extrait et que tout le travail à effectuer dessus est terminé. Lorsque le nombre de tâches non terminées devient nul, `join()` débloque.

Nouveau dans la version 2.5.

Exemple montrant comment attendre que les tâches mises dans la file soient terminées :

```
def worker():
    while True:
        item = q.get()
        do_work(item)
        q.task_done()

q = Queue()
for i in range(num_worker_threads):
    t = Thread(target=worker)
    t.daemon = True
    t.start()

for item in source():
    q.put(item)

q.join()          # block until all tasks are done
```

8.11 weakref — Weak references

Nouveau dans la version 2.1.

Code source : [Lib/weakref.py](#)

The *weakref* module allows the Python programmer to create *weak references* to objects.

In the following, the term *referent* means the object which is referred to by a weak reference.

A weak reference to an object is not enough to keep the object alive : when the only remaining references to a referent are weak references, *garbage collection* is free to destroy the referent and reuse its memory for something else. A primary use for weak references is to implement caches or mappings holding large objects, where it's desired that a large object not be kept alive solely because it appears in a cache or mapping.

For example, if you have a number of large binary image objects, you may wish to associate a name with each. If you used a Python dictionary to map names to images, or images to names, the image objects would remain alive just because they appeared as values or keys in the dictionaries. The *WeakKeyDictionary* and *WeakValueDictionary* classes supplied by the *weakref* module are an alternative, using weak references to construct mappings that don't keep objects alive solely because they appear in the mapping objects. If, for example, an image object is a value in a *WeakValueDictionary*, then when the last remaining references to that image object are the weak references held by weak mappings, garbage collection can reclaim the object, and its corresponding entries in weak mappings are simply deleted.

WeakKeyDictionary and *WeakValueDictionary* use weak references in their implementation, setting up callback functions on the weak references that notify the weak dictionaries when a key or value has been reclaimed by garbage collection. Most programs should find that using one of these weak dictionary types is all they need – it's not usually necessary to create your own weak references directly. The low-level machinery used by the weak dictionary implementations is exposed by the *weakref* module for the benefit of advanced uses.

Not all objects can be weakly referenced ; those objects which can include class instances, functions written in Python (but not in C), methods (both bound and unbound), sets, frozensets, file objects, *generators*, type objects, *DBcursor* objects from the *bsddb* module, sockets, arrays, dequeues, regular expression pattern objects, and code objects.

Modifié dans la version 2.4 : Added support for files, sockets, arrays, and patterns.

Modifié dans la version 2.7 : Added support for `thread.lock`, `threading.Lock`, and code objects.

Several built-in types such as `list` and `dict` do not directly support weak references but can add support through subclassing :

```
class Dict(dict):
    pass

obj = Dict(red=1, green=2, blue=3)    # this object is weak referenceable
```

CPython implementation detail : Other built-in types such as `tuple` and `long` do not support weak references even when subclassed.

Extension types can easily be made to support weak references ; see `weakref-support`.

`class weakref.ref(object[, callback])`

Return a weak reference to *object*. The original object can be retrieved by calling the reference object if the referent is still alive ; if the referent is no longer alive, calling the reference object will cause `None` to be returned. If *callback* is provided and not `None`, and the returned weakref object is still alive, the callback will be called when the object is about to be finalized ; the weak reference object will be passed as the only parameter to the callback ; the referent will no longer be available.

It is allowable for many weak references to be constructed for the same object. Callbacks registered for each weak reference will be called from the most recently registered callback to the oldest registered callback.

Exceptions raised by the callback will be noted on the standard error output, but cannot be propagated ; they are handled in exactly the same way as exceptions raised from an object's `__del__()` method.

Weak references are *hashable* if the *object* is hashable. They will maintain their hash value even after the *object* was deleted. If `hash()` is called the first time only after the *object* was deleted, the call will raise `TypeError`.

Weak references support tests for equality, but not ordering. If the referents are still alive, two references have the same equality relationship as their referents (regardless of the *callback*). If either referent has been deleted, the references are equal only if the reference objects are the same object.

Modifié dans la version 2.4 : This is now a subclassable type rather than a factory function ; it derives from *object*.

`weakref.proxy(object[, callback])`

Return a proxy to *object* which uses a weak reference. This supports use of the proxy in most contexts instead of requiring the explicit dereferencing used with weak reference objects. The returned object will have a type of either `ProxyType` or `CallableProxyType`, depending on whether *object* is callable. Proxy objects are not *hashable* regardless of the referent ; this avoids a number of problems related to their fundamentally mutable nature, and prevent their use as dictionary keys. *callback* is the same as the parameter of the same name to the `ref()` function.

`weakref.getweakrefcount(object)`

Return the number of weak references and proxies which refer to *object*.

`weakref.getweakrefs(object)`

Return a list of all weak reference and proxy objects which refer to *object*.

`class weakref.WeakKeyDictionary([dict])`

Mapping class that references keys weakly. Entries in the dictionary will be discarded when there is no longer a strong reference to the key. This can be used to associate additional data with an object owned by other parts of an application without adding attributes to those objects. This can be especially useful with objects that override attribute accesses.

Note : Caution : Because a *WeakKeyDictionary* is built on top of a Python dictionary, it must not change size when iterating over it. This can be difficult to ensure for a *WeakKeyDictionary* because actions performed by the program during iteration may cause items in the dictionary to vanish « by magic » (as a side effect of garbage collection).

WeakKeyDictionary objects have the following additional methods. These expose the internal references directly. The references are not guaranteed to be « live » at the time they are used, so the result of calling the references needs to be checked before being used. This can be used to avoid creating references that will cause the garbage collector to keep the keys around longer than needed.

`WeakKeyDictionary.iterkeyrefs()`

Return an iterable of the weak references to the keys.

Nouveau dans la version 2.5.

`WeakKeyDictionary.keyrefs()`

Return a list of weak references to the keys.

Nouveau dans la version 2.5.

`class weakref.WeakValueDictionary([dict])`

Mapping class that references values weakly. Entries in the dictionary will be discarded when no strong reference to the value exists any more.

Note : Caution : Because a *WeakValueDictionary* is built on top of a Python dictionary, it must not change size when iterating over it. This can be difficult to ensure for a *WeakValueDictionary* because actions performed by the program during iteration may cause items in the dictionary to vanish « by magic » (as a side effect of garbage collection).

WeakValueDictionary objects have the following additional methods. These methods have the same issues as the `iterkeyrefs()` and `keyrefs()` methods of *WeakKeyDictionary* objects.

`WeakValueDictionary.itervaluerefs()`

Return an iterable of the weak references to the values.

Nouveau dans la version 2.5.

`WeakValueDictionary.valuerefs()`

Return a list of weak references to the values.

Nouveau dans la version 2.5.

`class weakref.WeakSet([elements])`

Set class that keeps weak references to its elements. An element will be discarded when no strong reference to it exists any more.

Nouveau dans la version 2.7.

`weakref.ReferenceType`

The type object for weak references objects.

`weakref.ProxyType`

The type object for proxies of objects which are not callable.

`weakref.CallableProxyType`

The type object for proxies of callable objects.

`weakref.ProxyTypes`

Sequence containing all the type objects for proxies. This can make it simpler to test if an object is a proxy without being dependent on naming both proxy types.

exception `weakref.ReferenceError`

Exception raised when a proxy object is used but the underlying object has been collected. This is the same as the standard [ReferenceError](#) exception.

Voir aussi :

PEP 205 - Weak References The proposal and rationale for this feature, including links to earlier implementations and information about similar features in other languages.

8.11.1 Weak Reference Objects

Weak reference objects have no attributes or methods, but do allow the referent to be obtained, if it still exists, by calling it :

```
>>> import weakref
>>> class Object:
...     pass
...
>>> o = Object()
>>> r = weakref.ref(o)
>>> o2 = r()
>>> o is o2
True
```

If the referent no longer exists, calling the reference object returns *None* :

```
>>> del o, o2
>>> print r()
None
```

Testing that a weak reference object is still live should be done using the expression `ref() is not None`. Normally, application code that needs to use a reference object should follow this pattern :

```
# r is a weak reference object
o = r()
if o is None:
    # referent has been garbage collected
    print "Object has been deallocated; can't frobnicate."
else:
    print "Object is still live!"
    o.do_something_useful()
```

Using a separate test for « liveness » creates race conditions in threaded applications; another thread can cause a weak reference to become invalidated before the weak reference is called; the idiom shown above is safe in threaded applications as well as single-threaded applications.

Specialized versions of *ref* objects can be created through subclassing. This is used in the implementation of the [WeakValueDictionary](#) to reduce the memory overhead for each entry in the mapping. This may be most useful to associate additional information with a reference, but could also be used to insert additional processing on calls to retrieve the referent.

This example shows how a subclass of *ref* can be used to store additional information about an object and affect the value that's returned when the referent is accessed :

```
import weakref
```

(suite sur la page suivante)

(suite de la page précédente)

```

class ExtendedRef(weakref.ref):
    def __init__(self, ob, callback=None, **annotations):
        super(ExtendedRef, self).__init__(ob, callback)
        self.__counter = 0
        for k, v in annotations.iteritems():
            setattr(self, k, v)

    def __call__(self):
        """Return a pair containing the referent and the number of
        times the reference has been called.
        """
        ob = super(ExtendedRef, self).__call__()
        if ob is not None:
            self.__counter += 1
            ob = (ob, self.__counter)
        return ob

```

8.11.2 Exemple

This simple example shows how an application can use object IDs to retrieve objects that it has seen before. The IDs of the objects can then be used in other data structures without forcing the objects to remain alive, but the objects can still be retrieved by ID if they do.

```

import weakref

_id2obj_dict = weakref.WeakValueDictionary()

def remember(obj):
    oid = id(obj)
    _id2obj_dict[oid] = obj
    return oid

def id2obj(oid):
    return _id2obj_dict[oid]

```

8.12 UserDict — Class wrapper for dictionary objects

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

The module defines a mixin, *DictMixin*, defining all dictionary methods for classes that already have a minimum mapping interface. This greatly simplifies writing classes that need to be substitutable for dictionaries (such as the *shelve* module).

This module also defines a class, *UserDict*, that acts as a wrapper around dictionary objects. The need for this class has been largely supplanted by the ability to subclass directly from *dict* (a feature that became available starting with Python version 2.2). Prior to the introduction of *dict*, the *UserDict* class was used to create dictionary-like sub-classes that obtained new behaviors by overriding existing methods or adding new ones.

The *UserDict* module defines the *UserDict* class and *DictMixin* :

```
class UserDict.UserDict([initialdata])
```

Class that simulates a dictionary. The instance's contents are kept in a regular dictionary, which is accessible via the `data` attribute of *UserDict* instances. If *initialdata* is provided, `data` is initialized with its contents; note that a reference to *initialdata* will not be kept, allowing it be used for other purposes.

Note : For backward compatibility, instances of *UserDict* are not iterable.

```
class UserDict.IterableUserDict([initialdata])
```

Subclass of *UserDict* that supports direct iteration (e.g. `for key in myDict`).

In addition to supporting the methods and operations of mappings (see section *Les types de correspondances — dict*), *UserDict* and *IterableUserDict* instances provide the following attribute :

IterableUserDict.data

A real dictionary used to store the contents of the *UserDict* class.

```
class UserDict.DictMixin
```

Mixin defining all dictionary methods for classes that already have a minimum dictionary interface including `__getitem__()`, `__setitem__()`, `__delitem__()`, and `keys()`.

This mixin should be used as a superclass. Adding each of the above methods adds progressively more functionality. For instance, defining all but `__delitem__()` will preclude only `pop()` and `popitem()` from the full interface.

In addition to the four base methods, progressively more efficiency comes with defining `__contains__()`, `__iter__()`, and `iteritems()`.

Since the mixin has no knowledge of the subclass constructor, it does not define `__init__()` or `copy()`. Starting with Python version 2.6, it is recommended to use *collections.MutableMapping* instead of *DictMixin*.

Note that DictMixin does not implement the *viewkeys()*, *viewvalues()*, or *viewitems()* methods.

8.13 UserList — Class wrapper for list objects

Note : When Python 2.2 was released, many of the use cases for this class were subsumed by the ability to subclass `list` directly. However, a handful of use cases remain.

This module provides a list-interface around an underlying data store. By default, that data store is a `list`; however, it can be used to wrap a list-like interface around other objects (such as persistent storage).

In addition, this class can be mixed-in with built-in classes using multiple inheritance. This can sometimes be useful. For example, you can inherit from *UserList* and *str* at the same time. That would not be possible with both a real `list` and a real *str*.

This module defines a class that acts as a wrapper around list objects. It is a useful base class for your own list-like classes, which can inherit from them and override existing methods or add new ones. In this way one can add new behaviors to lists.

The *UserList* module defines the *UserList* class :

```
class UserList.UserList([list])
```

Class 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 a copy of *list*, defaulting to the empty list `[]`. *list* can be any iterable, e.g. a real Python list or a *UserList* object.

Note : The *UserList* class has been moved to the *collections* module in Python 3. The *2to3* tool will automatically adapt imports when converting your sources to Python 3.

In addition to supporting the methods and operations of mutable sequences (see section *Sequence Types* — *str*, *unicode*, *list*, *tuple*, *bytearray*, *buffer*, *xrange*), *UserList* instances provide the following attribute :

UserList.data

A real Python list object used to store the contents of the *UserList* class.

Subclassing requirements : Subclasses of *UserList* are expected to offer a constructor which can be called with either no arguments or one argument. List operations which return a new sequence attempt to create an instance of the actual implementation class. To do so, it assumes that the constructor can be called with a single parameter, which is a sequence object used as a data source.

Si une classe fille ne remplit pas cette condition, toutes les méthodes spéciales gérées par cette classe devront être implémentées à nouveau. Merci de consulter les sources pour obtenir des informations sur les méthodes qui doivent être fournies dans ce cas.

Modifié dans la version 2.0 : Python versions 1.5.2 and 1.6 also required that the constructor be callable with no parameters, and offer a mutable **data** attribute. Earlier versions of Python did not attempt to create instances of the derived class.

8.14 UserString — Class wrapper for string objects

Note : This *UserString* class from this module is available for backward compatibility only. If you are writing code that does not need to work with versions of Python earlier than Python 2.2, please consider subclassing directly from the built-in *str* type instead of using *UserString* (there is no built-in equivalent to *MutableString*).

This module defines a class that acts as a wrapper around string objects. It is a useful base class for your own string-like classes, which can inherit from them and override existing methods or add new ones. In this way one can add new behaviors to strings.

It should be noted that these classes are highly inefficient compared to real string or Unicode objects; this is especially the case for *MutableString*.

The *UserString* module defines the following classes :

class UserString.UserString([sequence])

Class that simulates a string or a Unicode string object. The instance's content is kept in a regular string or Unicode string object, which is accessible via the **data** attribute of *UserString* instances. The instance's contents are initially set to a copy of *sequence*. *sequence* can be either a regular Python string or Unicode string, an instance of *UserString* (or a subclass) or an arbitrary sequence which can be converted into a string using the built-in *str()* function.

Note : The *UserString* class has been moved to the *collections* module in Python 3. The *2to3* tool will automatically adapt imports when converting your sources to Python 3.

class UserString.MutableString([sequence])

This class is derived from the *UserString* above and redefines strings to be *mutable*. Mutable strings can't be used as dictionary keys, because dictionaries require *immutable* objects as keys. The main intention of this class is to serve as an educational example for inheritance and necessity to remove

(override) the `__hash__()` method in order to trap attempts to use a mutable object as dictionary key, which would be otherwise very error prone and hard to track down.

Obsolète depuis la version 2.6 : The *MutableString* class has been removed in Python 3.

In addition to supporting the methods and operations of string and Unicode objects (see section *Méthodes de chaînes de caractères*), *UserString* instances provide the following attribute :

MutableString.data

A real Python string or Unicode object used to store the content of the *UserString* class.

8.15 types — Names for built-in types

Code source : [Lib/types.py](#)

This module defines names for some object types that are used by the standard Python interpreter, but not for the types defined by various extension modules. Also, it does not include some of the types that arise during processing such as the `listiterator` type. It is safe to use `from types import *` — the module does not export any 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(mylist, item):
    if type(item) is IntType:
        del mylist[item]
    else:
        mylist.remove(item)
```

Starting in Python 2.2, built-in factory functions such as `int()` and `str()` are also names for the corresponding types. This is now the preferred way to access the type instead of using the *types* module. Accordingly, the example above should be written as follows :

```
def delete(mylist, item):
    if isinstance(item, int):
        del mylist[item]
    else:
        mylist.remove(item)
```

The module defines the following names :

types.NoneType

The type of `None`.

types.TypeType

The type of type objects (such as returned by `type()`); alias of the built-in `type`.

types.BooleanType

The type of the `bool` values `True` and `False`; alias of the built-in `bool`.

Nouveau dans la version 2.3.

types.IntType

The type of integers (e.g. `1`); alias of the built-in `int`.

types.LongType

The type of long integers (e.g. `1L`); alias of the built-in `long`.

types.FloatType

The type of floating point numbers (e.g. 1.0); alias of the built-in *float*.

types.ComplexType

The type of complex numbers (e.g. 1.0j). This is not defined if Python was built without complex number support.

types.StringType

The type of character strings (e.g. 'Spam'); alias of the built-in *str*.

types.UnicodeType

The type of Unicode character strings (e.g. u'Spam'). This is not defined if Python was built without Unicode support. It's an alias of the built-in *unicode*.

types.TupleType

The type of tuples (e.g. (1, 2, 3, 'Spam')); alias of the built-in *tuple*.

types.ListType

The type of lists (e.g. [0, 1, 2, 3]); alias of the built-in *list*.

types.DictType

The type of dictionaries (e.g. {'Bacon': 1, 'Ham': 0}); alias of the built-in *dict*.

types.DictionaryType

An alternate name for DictType.

types.FunctionType

types.LambdaType

The type of user-defined functions and functions created by *lambda* expressions.

types.GeneratorType

The type of *generator*-iterator objects, produced by calling a generator function.
Nouveau dans la version 2.2.

types.CodeType

The type for code objects such as returned by *compile()*.

types.ClassType

The type of user-defined old-style classes.

types.InstanceType

The type of instances of user-defined old-style classes.

types.MethodType

The type of methods of user-defined class instances.

types.UnboundMethodType

An alternate name for MethodType.

types.BuiltinFunctionType

types.BuiltinMethodType

The type of built-in functions like *len()* or *sys.exit()*, and methods of built-in classes. (Here, the term « built-in » means « written in C ».)

types.ModuleType

The type of modules.

types.FileType

The type of open file objects such as *sys.stdout*; alias of the built-in *file*.

types.XRangeType

The type of range objects returned by *xrange()*; alias of the built-in *xrange*.

types.SliceType

The type of objects returned by `slice()`; alias of the built-in `slice`.

types.EllipsisType

The type of `Ellipsis`.

types.TracebackType

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

types.FrameType

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

types.BufferType

The type of buffer objects created by the `buffer()` function.

types.DictProxyType

The type of dict proxies, such as `TypeType.__dict__`.

types.NotImplementedType

The type of `NotImplemented`

types.GetSetDescriptorType

The type of objects defined in extension modules with `PyGetSetDef`, such as `FrameType.f_locals` or `array.array.typecode`. This type is used as descriptor for object attributes; it has the same purpose as the `property` type, but for classes defined in extension modules.

Nouveau dans la version 2.5.

types.MemberDescriptorType

The type of objects defined in extension modules with `PyMemberDef`, such as `datetime.timedelta.days`. This type is used as descriptor for simple C data members which use standard conversion functions; it has the same purpose as the `property` type, but for classes defined in extension modules.

CPython implementation detail : In other implementations of Python, this type may be identical to `GetSetDescriptorType`.

Nouveau dans la version 2.5.

types.StringTypes

A sequence containing `StringType` and `UnicodeType` used to facilitate easier checking for any string object. Using this is more portable than using a sequence of the two string types constructed elsewhere since it only contains `UnicodeType` if it has been built in the running version of Python. For example : `isinstance(s, types.StringTypes)`.

Nouveau dans la version 2.2.

8.16 new — Creation of runtime internal objects

Obsolète depuis la version 2.6 : The `new` module has been removed in Python 3. Use the `types` module's classes instead.

The `new` module allows an interface to the interpreter object creation functions. This is for use primarily in marshal-type functions, when a new object needs to be created « magically » and not by using the regular creation functions. This module provides a low-level interface to the interpreter, so care must be exercised when using this module. It is possible to supply non-sensical arguments which crash the interpreter when the object is used.

The `new` module defines the following functions :

new.instance(*class*[, *dict*])

This function creates an instance of `class` with dictionary `dict` without calling the `__init__()` constructor. If `dict` is omitted or `None`, a new, empty dictionary is created for the new instance. Note that there are no guarantees that the object will be in a consistent state.

new.instancemethod(*function*, *instance*, *class*)

This function will return a method object, bound to *instance*, or unbound if *instance* is **None**. *function* must be callable.

new.function(*code*, *globals*[, *name*[, *argdefs*[, *closure*]]])

Returns a (Python) function with the given code and globals. If *name* is given, it must be a string or **None**. If it is a string, the function will have the given name, otherwise the function name will be taken from *code.co_name*. If *argdefs* is given, it must be a tuple and will be used to determine the default values of parameters. If *closure* is given, it must be **None** or a tuple of cell objects containing objects to bind to the names in *code.co_freevars*.

new.code(*argcount*, *nlocals*, *stacksize*, *flags*, *codestring*, *constants*, *names*, *varnames*, *filename*, *name*, *firstlineno*, *lnotab*)

This function is an interface to the `PyCode_New()` C function.

new.module(*name*[, *doc*])

This function returns a new module object with name *name*. *name* must be a string. The optional *doc* argument can have any type.

new.classobj(*name*, *baseclasses*, *dict*)

This function returns a new class object, with name *name*, derived from *baseclasses* (which should be a tuple of classes) and with namespace *dict*.

8.17 copy — Opérations de copie superficielle et récursive

Les instructions d'affectation en Python ne copient pas les objets, elles créent des liens entre la cible et l'objet. Concernant les collections qui sont muables ou contiennent des éléments muables, une copie est parfois nécessaire, pour pouvoir modifier une copie sans modifier l'autre. Ce module met à disposition des opérations de copie génériques superficielle et récursive (comme expliqué ci-dessous).

Résumé de l'interface :

copy.copy(*x*)

Renvoie une copie superficielle de *x*.

copy.deepcopy(*x*)

Renvoie une copie récursive de *x*.

exception copy.error

Levée pour les erreurs spécifiques au module.

La différence entre copie superficielle et récursive n'est pertinente que pour les objets composés (objets contenant d'autres objets, comme des listes ou des instances de classe) :

- Une *copie superficielle* construit un nouvel objet composé puis (dans la mesure du possible) insère dans l'objet composé des *références* aux objets trouvés dans l'original.
- Une *copie récursive (ou profonde)* construit un nouvel objet composé puis, récursivement, insère dans l'objet composé des *copies* des objets trouvés dans l'objet original.

On rencontre souvent deux problèmes avec les opérations de copie récursive qui n'existent pas avec les opérations de copie superficielle :

- Les objets récursifs (objets composés qui, directement ou indirectement, contiennent une référence à eux-mêmes) peuvent causer une boucle récursive.
- Because deep copy copies everything it may copy too much, such as data which is intended to be shared between copies.

La fonction `deepcopy()` évite ces problèmes en :

- gardant en mémoire dans un dictionnaire les objets déjà copiés durant la phase de copie actuelle ; et
- laissant les classes créées par l'utilisateur écraser l'opération de copie ou l'ensemble de composants copiés.

Ce module ne copie pas les types tels que module, méthode, trace d'appels, cadre de pile, fichier, socket, fenêtre, tableau, ou tout autre type similaire. Il « copie » les fonctions et les classes (superficiellement et récursivement), en retournant l'objet original inchangé ; c'est compatible avec la manière dont ils sont traités par le module *pickle*.

Les copies superficielles de dictionnaires peuvent être faites en utilisant *dict.copy()*, et de listes en affectant un slice de la liste, par exemple, *copied_list = original_list[:]*.

Modifié dans la version 2.5 : Added copying functions.

Classes can use the same interfaces to control copying that they use to control pickling. See the description of module *pickle* for information on these methods. The *copy* module does not use the *copy_reg* registration module.

Afin qu'une classe définisse sa propre implémentation de copie, elle peut définir les méthodes spéciales *__copy__()* et *__deepcopy__()*. La première est appelée pour implémenter l'opération de copie superficielle ; aucun argument supplémentaire n'est passé. La seconde est appelée pour implémenter l'opération de copie récursive ; elle reçoit un argument, le dictionnaire *memo*. Si l'implémentation de *__deepcopy__()* a besoin de faire une copie récursive d'un composant, elle devrait appeler la fonction *deepcopy()* avec le composant comme premier argument et le dictionnaire *memo* comme second argument.

Voir aussi :

Module *pickle* Discussion sur les méthodes spéciales utilisées pour gérer la récupération et la restauration de l'état d'un objet.

8.18 pprint — Data pretty printer

Code source : *Lib/pprint.py*

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 built-in 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.

Modifié dans la version 2.5 : Dictionaries are sorted by key before the display is computed ; before 2.5, a dictionary was sorted only if its display required more than one line, although that wasn't documented.

Modifié dans la version 2.6 : Added support for *set* and *frozenset*.

The *pprint* module defines one class :

class *pprint.PrettyPrinter*(*indent=1, width=80, depth=None, stream=None*)

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 80 characters. If a structure cannot be formatted within the constrained width, a best effort will be made.

```
>>> import pprint
>>> stuff = ['spam', 'eggs', 'lumberjack', 'knights', 'ni']
>>> stuff.insert(0, stuff[:])
>>> pp = pprint.PrettyPrinter(indent=4)
>>> pp.pprint(stuff)
[ ['spam', 'eggs', 'lumberjack', 'knights', 'ni'],
  'spam',
  'eggs',
  'lumberjack',
  'knights',
  'ni']
>>> tup = ('spam', ('eggs', ('lumberjack', ('knights', ('ni', ('dead',
... ('parrot', ('fresh fruit',))))))))))
>>> pp = pprint.PrettyPrinter(depth=6)
>>> pp.pprint(tup)
('spam', ('eggs', ('lumberjack', ('knights', ('ni', ('dead', (...)))))))
```

The *PrettyPrinter* class supports several derivative functions :

`pprint.pformat(object, indent=1, width=80, depth=None)`

Return the formatted representation of *object* as a string. *indent*, *width* and *depth* will be passed to the *PrettyPrinter* constructor as formatting parameters.

Modifié dans la version 2.4 : The parameters *indent*, *width* and *depth* were added.

`pprint.pprint(object, stream=None, indent=1, width=80, depth=None)`

Prints the formatted representation of *object* on *stream*, followed by a newline. If *stream* is *None*, *sys.stdout* is used. This may be used in the interactive interpreter instead of a `print` statement for inspecting values. *indent*, *width* and *depth* will be passed to the *PrettyPrinter* constructor as formatting parameters.

```
>>> import pprint
>>> stuff = ['spam', 'eggs', 'lumberjack', 'knights', 'ni']
>>> stuff.insert(0, stuff)
>>> pprint.pprint(stuff)
[<Recursion on list with id=...>,
  'spam',
  'eggs',
  'lumberjack',
  'knights',
  'ni']
```

Modifié dans la version 2.4 : The parameters *indent*, *width* and *depth* were added.

`pprint.isreadable(object)`

Determine if the formatted representation of *object* is « readable, » or can be used to reconstruct the value using *eval()*. This always returns **False** for recursive objects.

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

`pprint.isrecursive(object)`

Determine if *object* requires a recursive representation.

One more support function is also defined :

`pprint.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=...>, 'spam', 'eggs', 'lumberjack', 'knights', 'ni'] "
```

8.18.1 PrettyPrinter Objects

PrettyPrinter instances have the following methods :

`PrettyPrinter.pformat(object)`

Return the formatted representation of *object*. This takes into account the options passed to the *PrettyPrinter* constructor.

`PrettyPrinter.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.

`PrettyPrinter.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`.

`PrettyPrinter.isrecursive(object)`

Determine if the object requires a recursive representation.

This method is provided as a hook to allow subclasses to modify the way objects are converted to strings. The default implementation uses the internals of the *saferepr()* implementation.

`PrettyPrinter.format(object, context, maxlevels, level)`

Returns three values : the formatted version of *object* as a string, a flag indicating whether the result is readable, and a flag indicating whether recursion was detected. The first argument is the object to be presented. The second is a dictionary which contains the *id()* of objects that are part of the current presentation context (direct and indirect containers for *object* that are affecting the presentation) as the keys ; if an object needs to be presented which is already represented in *context*, the third return value should be `True`. Recursive calls to the *format()* method should add additional entries for containers to this dictionary. The third argument, *maxlevels*, gives the requested limit to recursion ; this will be 0 if there is no requested limit. This argument should be passed unmodified to recursive calls. The fourth argument, *level*, gives the current level ; recursive calls should be passed a value less than that of the current call.

Nouveau dans la version 2.3.

8.18.2 pprint Example

This example demonstrates several uses of the *pprint()* function and its parameters.

```
>>> import pprint
>>> tup = ('spam', ('eggs', ('lumberjack', ('knights', ('ni', ('dead',
... ('parrot', ('fresh fruit',))))))))
>>> stuff = ['a' * 10, tup, ['a' * 30, 'b' * 30], ['c' * 20, 'd' * 20]]
>>> pprint.pprint(stuff)
['aaaaaaaaaa',
```

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```

('spam',
 ('eggs',
  ('lumberjack',
   ('knights', ('ni', ('dead', ('parrot', ('fresh fruit',))))))),
 ['aaaaaaaaaaaaaaaaaaaaaaaaaaaaa', 'bbbbbbbbbbbbbbbbbbbbbbbbbbbbbb'],
 ['cccccccccccccccccccc', 'dddddddddddddddddddd'])
>>> pprint.pprint(stuff, depth=3)
['aaaaaaaa',
 ('spam', ('eggs', (...))),
 ['aaaaaaaaaaaaaaaaaaaaaaaaaaaaa', 'bbbbbbbbbbbbbbbbbbbbbbbbbbbbbb'],
 ['cccccccccccccccccccc', 'dddddddddddddddddddd')]
>>> pprint.pprint(stuff, width=60)
['aaaaaaaa',
 ('spam',
  ('eggs',
   ('lumberjack',
    ('knights',
     ('ni', ('dead', ('parrot', ('fresh fruit',))))))),
 ['aaaaaaaaaaaaaaaaaaaaaaaaaaaaa',
  'bbbbbbbbbbbbbbbbbbbbbbbbbbbbbb'],
 ['cccccccccccccccccccc', 'dddddddddddddddddddd')]

```

8.19 repr — Alternate repr() implementation

Note : The `repr` module has been renamed to `reprlib` in Python 3. The `2to3` tool will automatically adapt imports when converting your sources to Python 3.

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

The `repr` module provides a means for producing object representations with limits on the size of the resulting strings. This is used in the Python debugger and may be useful in other contexts as well.

This module provides a class, an instance, and a function :

`class repr.Repr`

Class which provides formatting services useful in implementing functions similar to the built-in `repr()`; size limits for different object types are added to avoid the generation of representations which are excessively long.

`repr.aRepr`

This is an instance of `Repr` which is used to provide the `repr()` function described below. Changing the attributes of this object will affect the size limits used by `repr()` and the Python debugger.

`repr.repr(obj)`

This is the `repr()` method of `aRepr`. It returns a string similar to that returned by the built-in function of the same name, but with limits on most sizes.

8.19.1 Repr Objects

`Repr` instances provide several attributes which can be used to provide size limits for the representations of different object types, and methods which format specific object types.

Repr.maxlevel

Depth limit on the creation of recursive representations. The default is 6.

Repr.maxdict**Repr.maxlist****Repr.maxtuple****Repr.maxset****Repr.maxfrozenset****Repr.maxdeque****Repr.maxarray**Limits on the number of entries represented for the named object type. The default is 4 for *maxdict*, 5 for *maxarray*, and 6 for the others.Nouveau dans la version 2.4 : *maxset*, *maxfrozenset*, and *set*.**Repr.maxlong**

Maximum number of characters in the representation for a long integer. Digits are dropped from the middle. The default is 40.

Repr.maxstring

Limit on the number of characters in the representation of the string. Note that the « normal » representation of the string is used as the character source : if escape sequences are needed in the representation, these may be mangled when the representation is shortened. The default is 30.

Repr.maxotherThis limit is used to control the size of object types for which no specific formatting method is available on the *Repr* object. It is applied in a similar manner as *maxstring*. The default is 20.**Repr.repr(obj)**The equivalent to the built-in *repr()* that uses the formatting imposed by the instance.**Repr.repr1(obj, level)**Recursive implementation used by *repr()*. This uses the type of *obj* to determine which formatting method to call, passing it *obj* and *level*. The type-specific methods should call *repr1()* to perform recursive formatting, with *level - 1* for the value of *level* in the recursive call.**Repr.repr_TYPE(obj, level)**Formatting methods for specific types are implemented as methods with a name based on the type name. In the method name, **TYPE** is replaced by `string.join(string.split(type(obj).__name__, '_'))`. Dispatch to these methods is handled by *repr1()*. Type-specific methods which need to recursively format a value should call `self.repr1(subobj, level - 1)`.

8.19.2 Subclassing Repr Objects

The use of dynamic dispatching by *Repr.repr1()* allows subclasses of *Repr* to add support for additional built-in object types or to modify the handling of types already supported. This example shows how special support for file objects could be added :

```
import repr as reprlib
import sys

class MyRepr(reprlib.Repr):
    def repr_file(self, obj, level):
        if obj.name in ['<stdin>', '<stdout>', '<stderr>']:
            return obj.name
        else:
            return repr(obj)
```

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```
aRepr = MyRepr()
print aRepr.repr(sys.stdin)           # prints '<stdin>'
```

Modules numériques et mathématiques

The modules described in this chapter provide numeric and math-related functions and data types. The *numbers* module defines an abstract hierarchy of numeric types. The *math* and *cmath* modules contain various mathematical functions for floating-point and complex numbers. For users more interested in decimal accuracy than in speed, the *decimal* module supports exact representations of decimal numbers.

Les modules suivants sont documentés dans ce chapitre :

9.1 numbers — Numeric abstract base classes

Nouveau dans la version 2.6.

The *numbers* module ([PEP 3141](#)) defines a hierarchy of numeric *abstract base classes* which progressively define more operations. None of the types defined in this module can be instantiated.

class numbers.Number

The root of the numeric hierarchy. If you just want to check if an argument *x* is a number, without caring what kind, use `isinstance(x, Number)`.

9.1.1 The numeric tower

class numbers.Complex

Subclasses of this type describe complex numbers and include the operations that work on the built-in *complex* type. These are : conversions to *complex* and *bool*, *real*, *imag*, *+*, *-*, ***, */*, *abs()*, *conjugate()*, *==*, and *!=*. All except *-* and *!=* are abstract.

real

Abstract. Retrieves the real component of this number.

imag

Abstract. Retrieves the imaginary component of this number.

conjugate()

Abstract. Returns the complex conjugate. For example, `(1+3j).conjugate() == (1-3j)`.

class numbers.Real

To *Complex*, *Real* adds the operations that work on real numbers.

In short, those are : a conversion to *float*, *math.trunc()*, *round()*, *math.floor()*, *math.ceil()*, *divmod()*, *//*, *%*, *<*, *<=*, *>*, and *>=*.

Real also provides defaults for *complex()*, *real*, *imag*, and *conjugate()*.

class numbers.Rational

Subtypes *Real* and adds *numerator* and *denominator* properties, which should be in lowest terms. With these, it provides a default for *float()*.

numerator

Résumé.

denominator

Résumé.

class numbers.Integral

Subtypes *Rational* and adds a conversion to *int*. Provides defaults for *float()*, *numerator*, and *denominator*. Adds abstract methods for **** and bit-string operations : *<<*, *>>*, *&*, *^*, *|*, *~*.

9.1.2 Notes for type implementors

Implementors should be careful to make equal numbers equal and hash them to the same values. This may be subtle if there are two different extensions of the real numbers. For example, *fractions.Fraction* implements *hash()* as follows :

```
def __hash__(self):
    if self.denominator == 1:
        # Get integers right.
        return hash(self.numerator)
    # Expensive check, but definitely correct.
    if self == float(self):
        return hash(float(self))
    else:
        # Use tuple's hash to avoid a high collision rate on
        # simple fractions.
        return hash((self.numerator, self.denominator))
```

Adding More Numeric ABCs

There are, of course, more possible ABCs for numbers, and this would be a poor hierarchy if it precluded the possibility of adding those. You can add *MyFoo* between *Complex* and *Real* with :

```
class MyFoo(Complex): ...
MyFoo.register(Real)
```

Implementing the arithmetic operations

We want to implement the arithmetic operations so that mixed-mode operations either call an implementation whose author knew about the types of both arguments, or convert both to the nearest built in type and do the operation there. For subtypes of *Integral*, this means that *__add__()* and *__radd__()* should be defined as :

```
class MyIntegral(Integral):

    def __add__(self, other):
        if isinstance(other, MyIntegral):
            return do_my_adding_stuff(self, other)
```

(suite sur la page suivante)

(suite de la page précédente)

```

elif isinstance(other, OtherTypeIKnowAbout):
    return do_my_other_adding_stuff(self, other)
else:
    return NotImplemented

def __radd__(self, other):
    if isinstance(other, MyIntegral):
        return do_my_adding_stuff(other, self)
    elif isinstance(other, OtherTypeIKnowAbout):
        return do_my_other_adding_stuff(other, self)
    elif isinstance(other, Integral):
        return int(other) + int(self)
    elif isinstance(other, Real):
        return float(other) + float(self)
    elif isinstance(other, Complex):
        return complex(other) + complex(self)
    else:
        return NotImplemented

```

There are 5 different cases for a mixed-type operation on subclasses of *Complex*. I'll refer to all of the above code that doesn't refer to *MyIntegral* and *OtherTypeIKnowAbout* as « boilerplate ». *a* will be an instance of *A*, which is a subtype of *Complex* (*a* : *A* <: *Complex*), and *b* : *B* <: *Complex*. I'll consider *a* + *b* :

1. If *A* defines an `__add__()` which accepts *b*, all is well.
2. If *A* falls back to the boilerplate code, and it were to return a value from `__add__()`, we'd miss the possibility that *B* defines a more intelligent `__radd__()`, so the boilerplate should return *NotImplemented* from `__add__()`. (Or *A* may not implement `__add__()` at all.)
3. Then *B*'s `__radd__()` gets a chance. If it accepts *a*, all is well.
4. If it falls back to the boilerplate, there are no more possible methods to try, so this is where the default implementation should live.
5. If *B* <: *A*, Python tries *B*.`__radd__` before *A*.`__add__`. This is ok, because it was implemented with knowledge of *A*, so it can handle those instances before delegating to *Complex*.

If *A* <: *Complex* and *B* <: *Real* without sharing any other knowledge, then the appropriate shared operation is the one involving the built in *complex*, and both `__radd__()` s land there, so *a*+*b* == *b*+*a*.

Because most of the operations on any given type will be very similar, it can be useful to define a helper function which generates the forward and reverse instances of any given operator. For example, *Fraction*.*Fraction* uses :

```

def _operator_fallbacks(monomorphic_operator, fallback_operator):
    def forward(a, b):
        if isinstance(b, (int, long, Fraction)):
            return monomorphic_operator(a, b)
        elif isinstance(b, float):
            return fallback_operator(float(a), b)
        elif isinstance(b, complex):
            return fallback_operator(complex(a), b)
        else:
            return NotImplemented
    forward.__name__ = '__' + fallback_operator.__name__ + '__'
    forward.__doc__ = monomorphic_operator.__doc__

```

(suite sur la page suivante)

(suite de la page précédente)

```

def reverse(b, a):
    if isinstance(a, Rational):
        # Includes ints.
        return monomorphic_operator(a, b)
    elif isinstance(a, numbers.Real):
        return fallback_operator(float(a), float(b))
    elif isinstance(a, numbers.Complex):
        return fallback_operator(complex(a), complex(b))
    else:
        return NotImplemented
reverse.__name__ = '__r' + fallback_operator.__name__ + '__'
reverse.__doc__ = monomorphic_operator.__doc__

return forward, reverse

def _add(a, b):
    """a + b"""
    return Fraction(a.numerator * b.denominator +
                    b.numerator * a.denominator,
                    a.denominator * b.denominator)

__add__, __radd__ = _operator_fallbacks(_add, operator.add)

# ...

```

9.2 Fonctions mathématiques — math

Ce module est toujours disponible. Il fournit l'accès aux fonctions mathématiques définies par le standard C.

Ces fonctions ne peuvent être utilisées avec les nombres complexes, utilisez les fonctions du même nom du module `cmath` si vous souhaitez un support des nombres complexes. La distinction entre les fonctions supportant les nombres complexes et celles ne les supportant pas set née du fait que tous les utilisateurs ne désirent pas acquérir le niveau mathématique suffisant pour comprendre les nombres complexes. Recevoir une exception à la place d'un nombre complexe permet de détecter un nombre complexe non désiré en paramètre, ainsi le programmeur peut déterminer comment et pourquoi il a été généré.

Les fonctions suivantes sont fournies dans ce module. Sauf mention contraire explicite, toutes les valeurs de retour sont des flottants.

9.2.1 Fonctions arithmétiques et de représentation

`math.ceil(x)`

Return the ceiling of x as a float, the smallest integer value greater than or equal to x .

`math.copysign(x, y)`

Return x with the sign of y . On a platform that supports signed zeros, `copysign(1.0, -0.0)` returns `-1.0`.

Nouveau dans la version 2.6.

`math.fabs(x)`

Renvoie la valeur absolue de x .

`math.factorial(x)`

Renvoie la factorielle de x . Lève une *ValueError* si x n'est pas entier ou s'il est négatif.
Nouveau dans la version 2.6.

`math.floor(x)`

Return the floor of x as a float, the largest integer value less than or equal to x .

`math.fmod(x, y)`

Renvoie `fmod(x, y)`, tel que défini par la bibliothèque C de la plate-forme. Notez que l'expression Python `x % y` peut ne pas renvoyer le même résultat. Le sens du standard C pour `fmod(x, y)` est d'être exactement (mathématiquement, à une précision infinie) égal à $x - n*y$ pour un entier n tel que le résultat a le signe de x et une magnitude inférieure à `abs(y)`. L'expression Python `x % y` renvoie un résultat avec le signe de y , et peut ne pas être calculable exactement pour des arguments flottants. Par exemple : `fmod(-1e-100, 1e100)` est `-1e-100`, mais le résultat de l'expression Python `-1e-100 % 1e100` est `1e100-1e-100`, qui ne peut pas être représenté exactement par un flottant et donc qui est arrondi à `1e100`. Pour cette raison, la fonction `fmod()` est généralement préférée quand des flottants sont manipulés, alors que l'expression Python `x % y` est préféré quand des entiers sont manipulés.

`math.frexp(x)`

Renvoie la mantisse et l'exposant de x dans un couple `(m, e)`. m est un flottant et e est un entier tels que $x == m * 2**e$ exactement. Si x vaut zéro, renvoie `(0, 0)`, sinon $0.5 <= \text{abs}(m) < 1$. Ceci est utilisé pour « extraire » la représentation interne d'un flottant de manière portable.

`math.fsum(iterable)`

Renvoie une somme flottante exacte des valeurs dans l'itérable. Évite la perte de précision en gardant plusieurs sommes partielles intermédiaires :

```
>>> sum([.1, .1, .1, .1, .1, .1, .1, .1, .1, .1])
0.9999999999999999
>>> fsum([.1, .1, .1, .1, .1, .1, .1, .1, .1, .1])
1.0
```

L'exactitude de cet algorithme dépend des garanties arithmétiques de IEEE-754 et des cas typiques où le mode d'arrondi est *half-even*. Sur certaines versions non Windows, la bibliothèque C sous-jacente utilise une addition par précision étendue et peut occasionnellement effectuer un double-arrondi sur une somme intermédiaire causant la prise d'une mauvaise valeur du bit de poids faible.

Pour de plus amples discussions et deux approches alternatives, voir [ASPN cookbook recipes for accurate floating point summation](#).

Nouveau dans la version 2.6.

`math.isinf(x)`

Check if the float x is positive or negative infinity.
Nouveau dans la version 2.6.

`math.isnan(x)`

Check if the float x is a NaN (not a number). For more information on NaNs, see the IEEE 754 standards.
Nouveau dans la version 2.6.

`math.ldexp(x, i)`

Renvoie $x * (2**i)$. C'est essentiellement l'inverse de la fonction `frexp()`.

`math.modf(x)`

Renvoie les parties entières et fractionnelle de x . Les deux résultats ont le signe de x et sont flottants.

`math.trunc(x)`

Return the *Real* value x truncated to an *Integral* (usually a long integer). Uses the `__trunc__` method.

Nouveau dans la version 2.6.

Notez que les fonctions `fexp()` et `modf()` ont un système d'appel différent de leur homologue C : elles prennent un simple argument et renvoient une paire de valeurs au lieu de renvoyer leur seconde valeur de retour dans un “paramètre de sortie” (il n’y a pas de telle possibilité en Python).

Pour les fonctions `ceil()`, `floor()`, et `modf()`, notez que *tous* les nombres flottants de magnitude suffisamment grande sont des entiers exacts. Les flottants de Python n’ont typiquement pas plus de 53 *bits* de précision (tels que le type C `double` de la plate-forme), en quel cas tout flottant x tel que `abs(x) >= 2**52` n’a aucun *bit* fractionnel.

9.2.2 Fonctions logarithme et exponentielle

`math.exp(x)`
Renvoie `e**x`.

`math.expm1(x)`
Return `e**x - 1`. For small floats x , the subtraction in `exp(x) - 1` can result in a significant loss of precision; the `expm1()` function provides a way to compute this quantity to full precision :

```
>>> from math import exp, expm1
>>> exp(1e-5) - 1 # gives result accurate to 11 places
1.0000050000069649e-05
>>> expm1(1e-5) # result accurate to full precision
1.0000050000166668e-05
```

Nouveau dans la version 2.7.

`math.log(x[, base])`
Avec un argument, renvoie le logarithme naturel de x (en base e).
Avec deux arguments, renvoie le logarithme de x en la *base* donnée, calculé par `log(x)/log(base)`.
Modifié dans la version 2.3 : *base* argument added.

`math.log1p(x)`
Renvoie le logarithme naturel de $1+x$ (en base e). Le résultat est calculé par un moyen qui reste exact pour x proche de zéro.
Nouveau dans la version 2.6.

`math.log10(x)`
Renvoie le logarithme de x en base 10. C’est habituellement plus exact que `log(x, 10)`.

`math.pow(x, y)`
Renvoie x élevé à la puissance y . Les cas exceptionnels suivent l’annexe “F” du standard C99 autant que possible. En particulier, `pow(1.0, x)` et `pow(x, 0.0)` renvoient toujours 1.0, même si x est zéro ou NaN. Si à la fois x et y sont finis, x est négatif et y n’est pas entier, alors `pow(x, y)` est non défini et lève une `ValueError`.
À l’inverse de l’opérateur interne `**`, la fonction `math.pow()` convertit ses deux arguments en *float*. Utilisez `**` ou la primitive `pow()` pour calculer des puissances exactes d’entiers.
Modifié dans la version 2.6 : The outcome of `1**nan` and `nan**0` was undefined.

`math.sqrt(x)`
Renvoie la racine carrée de x .

9.2.3 Fonctions trigonométriques

`math.acos(x)`
Renvoie l’arc cosinus de x , en radians.

`math.asin(x)`
Renvoie l’arc sinus de x , en radians.

`math.atan(x)`

Renvoie l'arc tangente de *x*, en radians.

`math.atan2(y, x)`

Renvoie `atan(y / x)`, en radians. Le résultat est entre `-pi` et `pi`. Le vecteur du plan allant de l'origine vers le point (*x*, *y*) forme cet angle avec l'axe X positif. L'intérêt de `atan2()` est que le signe des deux entrées est connu. Donc elle peut calculer le bon quadrant pour l'angle. par exemple `atan(1)` et `atan2(1, 1)` donnent tous deux `pi/4`, mais `atan2(-1, -1)` donne `-3*pi/4`.

`math.cos(x)`

Renvoie le cosinus de *x* radians.

`math.hypot(x, y)`

Renvoie la norme euclidienne `sqrt(x*x + y*y)`. C'est la longueur du vecteur allant de l'origine au point (*x*, *y*).

`math.sin(x)`

Renvoie le sinus de *x* radians.

`math.tan(x)`

Renvoie la tangente de *x* radians.

9.2.4 Conversion angulaire

`math.degrees(x)`

Convertit l'angle *x* de radians en degrés.

`math.radians(x)`

Convertit l'angle *x* de degrés en radians.

9.2.5 Fonctions hyperboliques

`math.acosh(x)`

Renvoie l'arc cosinus hyperbolique de *x*.
Nouveau dans la version 2.6.

`math.asinh(x)`

Renvoie l'arc sinus hyperbolique de *x*.
Nouveau dans la version 2.6.

`math.atanh(x)`

Renvoie l'arc tangente hyperbolique de *x*.
Nouveau dans la version 2.6.

`math.cosh(x)`

Renvoie le cosinus hyperbolique de *x*.

`math.sinh(x)`

Renvoie le sinus hyperbolique de *x*.

`math.tanh(x)`

Renvoie la tangente hyperbolique de *x*.

9.2.6 Fonctions spéciales

`math.erf(x)`

Return the error function at *x*.
Nouveau dans la version 2.7.

`math.erfc(x)`

Return the complementary error function at x .

Nouveau dans la version 2.7.

`math.gamma(x)`

Return the Gamma function at x .

Nouveau dans la version 2.7.

`math.lgamma(x)`

Renvoie le logarithme naturel de la valeur absolue de la fonction gamma en x .

Nouveau dans la version 2.7.

9.2.7 Constantes

`math.pi`

La constante mathématique $\pi = 3.141592\dots$, à la précision disponible.

`math.e`

La constante mathématique $e = 2.718281\dots$, à la précision disponible.

Le module `math` consiste majoritairement en un conteneur pour les fonctions mathématiques de la bibliothèque C de la plate-forme. Le comportement dans les cas spéciaux suit l'annexe "F" du standard C99 quand c'est approprié. L'implémentation actuelle lève une `ValueError` pour les opérations invalides telles que `sqrt(-1.0)` ou `log(0.0)` (où le standard C99 recommande de signaler que l'opération est invalide ou qu'il y a division par zéro), et une `OverflowError` pour les résultats qui débordent (par exemple `exp(1000.0)`). `NaN` ne sera renvoyé pour toute les fonctions ci-dessus sauf si au moins un des arguments de la fonction vaut `NaN`. Dans ce cas, la plupart des fonctions renvoient `NaN`, mais (à nouveau, selon l'annexe "F" du standard C99) il y a quelques exceptions à cette règle, par exemple `pow(float('nan'), 0.0)` ou `hypot(float('nan'), float('inf'))`.

Notez que Python ne fait aucun effort pour distinguer les NaNs signalétiques des NaNs silencieux, et le comportement de signalement des NaNs reste non-spécifié. le comportement typique est de traiter tous les NaNs comme s'ils étaient silencieux.

Modifié dans la version 2.6 : Behavior in special cases now aims to follow C99 Annex F. In earlier versions of Python the behavior in special cases was loosely specified.

Voir aussi :

Module `cmath` Version complexe de beaucoup de ces fonctions.

9.3 Fonctions mathématiques pour nombres complexes — `cmath`

Ce module est toujours disponible. Il fournit l'accès aux fonctions mathématiques pour les nombres complexes. Les fonctions de ce module acceptent les entiers, les nombres flottants ou les nombres complexes comme arguments. Elles accepteront également tout objet Python ayant une méthode `__complex__()` ou `__float__()` : ces méthodes sont utilisées pour convertir l'objet en un nombre complexe ou respectivement un nombre flottant, et la fonction est ensuite appliquée sur le résultat de la conversion.

Note : Sur les plate-formes avec un support système et matériel des zéros signés, les fonctions incluant une coupure complexe sont continues *de chaque* côté de la coupure : le signe du zéro distingue les deux extrémités de la coupure. Sur les plate-formes ne supportant pas les zéros signés, la continuité est spécifiée en-dessous.

9.3.1 Conversion vers et à partir de coordonnées polaires

Un nombre complexe Python `z` est stocké de manière interne en coordonnées *cartésiennes*. Il est entièrement défini par sa *partie réelle* `z.real` et sa *partie complexe* `z.imag`. En d'autres termes :

```
z == z.real + z.imag*1j
```

Les *coordonnées polaires* donnent une manière alternative de représenter un nombre complexe. En coordonnées polaires, un nombre complexe z est défini par son module r et par son argument (*angle de phase*) ϕ . Le module r est la distance entre z et l'origine, alors que l'argument ϕ est l'angle (dans le sens inverse des aiguilles d'une montre, ou sens trigonométrique), mesuré en radians, à partir de l'axe X positif, et vers le segment de droite joignant z à l'origine.

Les fonctions suivantes peuvent être utilisées pour convertir à partir des coordonnées rectangulaires natives vers les coordonnées polaires, et vice-versa.

`cmath.phase(x)`

Renvoie l'argument de x , dans un nombre flottant. `phase(x)` est équivalent à `math.atan2(x.imag, x.real)`. Le résultat se situe dans l'intervalle $[-\pi, +\pi]$, et la coupure par cette opération se situe sur l'axe X négatif, continue par au-dessus. Sur les systèmes supportant les zéros signés (ce qui inclut la plupart des systèmes utilisés actuellement), cela signifie que le signe du résultat est le même que `x.imag` même quand `x.imag` vaut zéro :

```
>>> phase(complex(-1.0, 0.0))
3.1415926535897931
>>> phase(complex(-1.0, -0.0))
-3.1415926535897931
```

Nouveau dans la version 2.6.

Note : Le module (valeur absolue) d'un nombre complexe x peut être calculé en utilisant la primitive `abs()`. Il n'y a pas de fonction spéciale du module `cmath` pour cette opération.

`cmath.polar(x)`

Renvoie la représentation de x en coordonnées polaires. Renvoie une paire (`r`, `phi`) où r est le module de x et ϕ est l'argument de x . `polar(x)` est équivalent à `(abs(x), phase(x))`.

Nouveau dans la version 2.6.

`cmath.rect(r, phi)`

Renvoie le nombre complexe x dont les coordonnées polaires sont r et ϕ . Équivalent à `r * (math.cos(phi) + math.sin(phi)*1j)`.

Nouveau dans la version 2.6.

9.3.2 Fonctions logarithme et exponentielle

`cmath.exp(x)`

Renvoie la valeur exponentielle `e**x`.

`cmath.log(x[, base])`

Renvoie le logarithme de x dans la *base* précisée. Si la *base* n'est pas précisée, le logarithme *naturel* (népérien) de x est renvoyé. Il y a une coupure, partant de 0 sur l'axe réel négatif et vers $-\infty$, continue par au-dessus.

Modifié dans la version 2.4 : *base* argument added.

`cmath.log10(x)`

Renvoie le logarithme en base 10 de x . Elle a la même coupure que `log()`.

`cmath.sqrt(x)`

Renvoie la racine carrée de x . Elle a la même coupure que `log()`.

9.3.3 Fonctions trigonométriques

`cmath.acos(x)`

Renvoie l'arc cosinus de x . Il y a deux coupures : une allant de 1 sur l'axe réel vers ∞ , continue par en-dessous ; l'autre allant de -1 sur l'axe réel vers $-\infty$, continue par au-dessus.

`cmath.asin(x)`

Renvoie l'arc sinus de x . Elle a les mêmes coupures que `acos()`.

`cmath.atan(x)`

Renvoie la tangente de x . Il y a deux coupures : une allant de $1j$ sur l'axe imaginaire vers ∞j , continue par la droite ; l'autre allant de $-1j$ sur l'axe imaginaire vers $-\infty j$, continue par la gauche.

Modifié dans la version 2.6 : direction of continuity of upper cut reversed

`cmath.cos(x)`

Renvoie le cosinus de x .

`cmath.sin(x)`

Renvoie le sinus de x .

`cmath.tan(x)`

Renvoie la tangente de x .

9.3.4 Fonctions hyperboliques

`cmath.acosh(x)`

Renvoie l'arc cosinus hyperbolique de x . Il y a une coupure, allant de 1 sur l'axe réel vers $-\infty$, continue par au-dessus.

`cmath.asinh(x)`

Renvoie l'arc sinus hyperbolique de x . Il y a deux coupures : une allant de $1j$ sur l'axe imaginaire vers ∞j , continue par la droite ; l'autre allant de $-1j$ sur l'axe imaginaire vers $-\infty j$, continue par la gauche.

Modifié dans la version 2.6 : branch cuts moved to match those recommended by the C99 standard

`cmath.atanh(x)`

Renvoie l'arc tangente hyperbolique de x . Il y a deux coupures : une allant de 1 sur l'axe réel allant vers ∞ , continue par en-dessous ; l'autre allant de -1 sur l'axe réel vers $-\infty$, continue par au-dessus.

Modifié dans la version 2.6 : direction of continuity of right cut reversed

`cmath.cosh(x)`

Renvoie le cosinus hyperbolique de x .

`cmath.sinh(x)`

Renvoie le sinus hyperbolique de x .

`cmath.tanh(x)`

Renvoie la tangente hyperbolique de x .

9.3.5 Fonctions de classifications

`cmath.isinf(x)`

Return `True` if the real or the imaginary part of x is positive or negative infinity.

Nouveau dans la version 2.6.

`cmath.isnan(x)`

Return `True` if the real or imaginary part of x is not a number (NaN).

Nouveau dans la version 2.6.

9.3.6 Constantes

`cmath.pi`

La constante mathématique π , en tant que flottant.

`cmath.e`

La constante mathématique e , en tant que flottant.

Notez que la sélection de fonctions est similaire, mais pas identique, à celles du module `math`. La raison d'avoir deux modules est que certains utilisateurs ne sont pas intéressés par les nombres complexes, et peut-être ne savent même pas ce qu'ils sont. Ils préféreraient alors que `math.sqrt(-1)` lève une exception au lieu de renvoyer un nombre complexe. Également, notez que les fonctions définies dans `cmath` renvoient toujours un nombre complexe, même si le résultat peut être exprimé à l'aide d'un nombre réel (en quel cas la partie imaginaire du complexe vaut zéro).

Une note sur les *coupures* : ce sont des courbes sur lesquelles la fonction n'est pas continue. Ce sont des caractéristiques nécessaires de beaucoup de fonctions complexes. Il est supposé que si vous avez besoin d'utiliser des fonctions complexes, vous comprendrez ce que sont les coupures. Consultez n'importe quel livre (pas trop élémentaire) sur les variables complexes pour plus d'informations. Pour des informations sur les choix des coupures à des fins numériques, voici une bonne référence :

Voir aussi :

Kahan, W : Branch cuts for complex elementary functions ; or, Much ado about nothing's sign bit. In Iserles, A., and Powell, M. (eds.), The state of the art in numerical analysis. Clarendon Press (1987) pp165–211.

9.4 decimal — Arithmétique décimale en virgule fixe et flottante

Nouveau dans la version 2.4.

The `decimal` module provides support for decimal floating point arithmetic. It offers several advantages over the `float` datatype :

- Le module `decimal` « est basé sur un modèle en virgule flottante conçu pour les humains, qui suit ce principe directeur : l'ordinateur doit fournir un modèle de calcul qui fonctionne de la même manière que le calcul qu'on apprend à l'école » – extrait (traduit) de la spécification de l'arithmétique décimale.
- Decimal numbers can be represented exactly. In contrast, numbers like 1.1 and 2.2 do not have exact representations in binary floating point. End users typically would not expect 1.1 + 2.2 to display as 3.3000000000000003 as it does with binary floating point.
- Ces inexactitudes ont des conséquences en arithmétique. En base décimale à virgule flottante, 0.1 + 0.1 + 0.1 - 0.3 est exactement égal à zéro. En virgule flottante binaire, l'ordinateur l'évalue à 5.5511151231257827e-017. Bien que très proche de zéro, cette différence induit des erreurs lors des tests d'égalité, erreurs qui peuvent s'accumuler. Pour ces raisons `decimal` est le module utilisé pour des applications comptables ayant des contraintes strictes de fiabilité.
- Le module `decimal` incorpore la notion de chiffres significatifs, tels que 1.30 + 1.20 est égal à 2.50. Le dernier zéro n'est conservé que pour respecter le nombre de chiffres significatifs. C'est également l'affichage préféré pour représenter des sommes d'argent. Pour la multiplication, l'approche « scolaire » utilise tout les chiffres présents dans les facteurs. Par exemple, 1.3 * 1.2 donnerait 1.56 tandis que 1.30 * 1.20 donnerait 1.5600.
- Contrairement à l'arithmétique en virgule flottante binaire, le module `decimal` possède un paramètre de précision ajustable (par défaut à 28 chiffres significatifs) qui peut être aussi élevée que nécessaire pour un problème donné :

```
>>> from decimal import *
>>> getcontext().prec = 6
>>> Decimal(1) / Decimal(7)
Decimal('0.142857')
```

(suite sur la page suivante)

(suite de la page précédente)

```
>>> getcontext().prec = 28
>>> Decimal(1) / Decimal(7)
Decimal('0.1428571428571428571428571429')
```

- L'arithmétique binaire et décimale en virgule flottante sont implémentées selon des standards publiés. Alors que le type `float` n'expose qu'une faible portion de ses capacités, le module `decimal` expose tous les composants nécessaires du standard. Lorsque nécessaire, le développeur a un contrôle total de la gestion de signal et de l'arrondi. Cela inclut la possibilité de forcer une arithmétique exacte en utilisant des exceptions pour bloquer toute opération inexacte.
- Le module `decimal` a été conçu pour gérer « sans préjugé, à la fois une arithmétique décimale non-arrondie (aussi appelée arithmétique en virgule fixe) et à la fois une arithmétique en virgule flottante. » (extrait traduit de la spécification de l'arithmétique décimale).

Le module est conçu autour de trois concepts : le nombre décimal, le contexte arithmétique et les signaux.

Un `Decimal` est immuable. Il a un signe, un coefficient, et un exposant. Pour préserver le nombre de chiffres significatifs, les zéros en fin de chaîne ne sont pas tronqués. Les décimaux incluent aussi des valeurs spéciales telles que `Infinity`, `-Infinity`, et `NaN`. Le standard fait également la différence entre `-0` et `+0`.

Le contexte de l'arithmétique est un environnement qui permet de configurer une précision, une règle pour l'arrondi, des limites sur l'exposant, des options indiquant le résultat des opérations et si les signaux (remontés lors d'opérations illégales) sont traités comme des exceptions Python. Les options d'arrondi incluent `ROUND_CEILING`, `ROUND_DOWN`, `ROUND_FLOOR`, `ROUND_HALF_DOWN`, `ROUND_HALF_EVEN`, `ROUND_HALF_UP`, `ROUND_UP`, et `ROUND_05UP`.

Signals are groups of exceptional conditions arising during the course of computation. Depending on the needs of the application, signals may be ignored, considered as informational, or treated as exceptions. The signals in the decimal module are : *Clamped*, *InvalidOperation*, *DivisionByZero*, *Inexact*, *Rounded*, *Subnormal*, *Overflow*, and *Underflow*.

Chaque signal est configurable indépendamment. Quand une opération illégale survient, le signal est mis à 1, puis s'il est configuré pour, une exception est levée. La mise à 1 est persistante, l'utilisateur doit donc les remettre à zéro avant de commencer un calcul qu'il souhaite surveiller.

Voir aussi :

- IBM's General Decimal Arithmetic Specification, [The General Decimal Arithmetic Specification](#).

9.4.1 Introduction pratique

Commençons par importer le module, regarder le contexte actuel avec `getcontext()`, et si nécessaire configurer la précision, l'arrondi, et la gestion des signaux :

```
>>> from decimal import *
>>> getcontext()
Context(prec=28, rounding=ROUND_HALF_EVEN, Emin=-999999999, Emax=999999999,
        capitals=1, flags=[], traps=[Overflow, DivisionByZero,
        InvalidOperation])

>>> getcontext().prec = 7           # Set a new precision
```

Decimal instances can be constructed from integers, strings, floats, or tuples. Construction from an integer or a float performs an exact conversion of the value of that integer or float. Decimal numbers include special values such as `NaN` which stands for « Not a number », positive and negative `Infinity`, and `-0`.

```
>>> getcontext().prec = 28
>>> Decimal(10)
```

(suite sur la page suivante)

(suite de la page précédente)

```

Decimal('10')
>>> Decimal('3.14')
Decimal('3.14')
>>> Decimal(3.14)
Decimal('3.140000000000000124344978758017532527446746826171875')
>>> Decimal((0, (3, 1, 4), -2))
Decimal('3.14')
>>> Decimal(str(2.0 ** 0.5))
Decimal('1.41421356237')
>>> Decimal(2) ** Decimal('0.5')
Decimal('1.414213562373095048801688724')
>>> Decimal('NaN')
Decimal('NaN')
>>> Decimal('-Infinity')
Decimal('-Infinity')

```

Le nombre de chiffres significatifs d'un nouvel objet `Decimal` est déterminé entièrement par le nombre de chiffres saisis. La précision et les règles d'arrondis n'interviennent que lors d'opérations arithmétiques.

```

>>> getcontext().prec = 6
>>> Decimal('3.0')
Decimal('3.0')
>>> Decimal('3.1415926535')
Decimal('3.1415926535')
>>> Decimal('3.1415926535') + Decimal('2.7182818285')
Decimal('5.85987')
>>> getcontext().rounding = ROUND_UP
>>> Decimal('3.1415926535') + Decimal('2.7182818285')
Decimal('5.85988')

```

Les objets `Decimal` interagissent très bien avec le reste de Python. Voici quelques exemple d'opérations avec des décimaux :

```

>>> data = map(Decimal, '1.34 1.87 3.45 2.35 1.00 0.03 9.25'.split())
>>> max(data)
Decimal('9.25')
>>> min(data)
Decimal('0.03')
>>> sorted(data)
[Decimal('0.03'), Decimal('1.00'), Decimal('1.34'), Decimal('1.87'),
 Decimal('2.35'), Decimal('3.45'), Decimal('9.25')]
>>> sum(data)
Decimal('19.29')
>>> a,b,c = data[:3]
>>> str(a)
'1.34'
>>> float(a)
1.34
>>> round(a, 1)      # round() first converts to binary floating point
1.3
>>> int(a)
1

```

(suite sur la page suivante)

(suite de la page précédente)

```
>>> a * 5
Decimal('6.70')
>>> a * b
Decimal('2.5058')
>>> c % a
Decimal('0.77')
```

Et certaines fonctions mathématiques sont également disponibles sur des instances de `Decimal` :

```
>>> getcontext().prec = 28
>>> Decimal(2).sqrt()
Decimal('1.414213562373095048801688724')
>>> Decimal(1).exp()
Decimal('2.718281828459045235360287471')
>>> Decimal('10').ln()
Decimal('2.302585092994045684017991455')
>>> Decimal('10').log10()
Decimal('1')
```

La méthode `quantize()` arrondit un nombre à un exposant fixe. Cette méthode est utile pour des applications monétaires qui arrondissent souvent un résultat à un nombre de chiffres significatifs exact :

```
>>> Decimal('7.325').quantize(Decimal('.01'), rounding=ROUND_DOWN)
Decimal('7.32')
>>> Decimal('7.325').quantize(Decimal('1.'), rounding=ROUND_UP)
Decimal('8')
```

Comme montré plus haut, la fonction `getcontext()` accède au contexte actuel et permet de modifier les paramètres. Cette approche répond aux besoins de la plupart des applications.

Pour un travail plus avancé, il peut être utile de créer des contextes alternatifs en utilisant le constructeur de `Context`. Pour activer cet objet `Context`, utilisez la fonction `setcontext()`.

En accord avec le standard, le module `decimal` fournit des objets `Context` standards, `BasicContext` et `ExtendedContext`. Le premier est particulièrement utile pour le débogage car beaucoup des pièges sont activés dans cet objet.

```
>>> myothercontext = Context(prec=60, rounding=ROUND_HALF_DOWN)
>>> setcontext(myothercontext)
>>> Decimal(1) / Decimal(7)
Decimal('0.142857142857142857142857142857142857142857142857142857')

>>> ExtendedContext
Context(prec=9, rounding=ROUND_HALF_EVEN, Emin=-999999999, Emax=999999999,
       capitals=1, flags=[], traps=[])
>>> setcontext(ExtendedContext)
>>> Decimal(1) / Decimal(7)
Decimal('0.142857143')
>>> Decimal(42) / Decimal(0)
Decimal('Infinity')

>>> setcontext(BasicContext)
>>> Decimal(42) / Decimal(0)
```

(suite sur la page suivante)

(suite de la page précédente)

```
Traceback (most recent call last):
  File "<pyshell#143>", line 1, in -toplevel-
    Decimal(42) / Decimal(0)
DivisionByZero: x / 0
```

Les objets `Context` ont aussi des options pour détecter des opérations illégales lors des calculs. Ces options restent activées jusqu'à ce qu'elles soit remises à zéro de manière explicite. Il convient donc de remettre à zéro ces options avant chaque inspection de chaque calcul, avec la méthode `clear_flags()`.

```
>>> setcontext(ExtendedContext)
>>> getcontext().clear_flags()
>>> Decimal(355) / Decimal(113)
Decimal('3.14159292')
>>> getcontext()
Context(prec=9, rounding=ROUND_HALF_EVEN, Emin=-999999999, Emax=999999999,
        capitals=1, flags=[Rounded, Inexact], traps=[])
```

Les options montrent que l'approximation de Pi par une fraction a été arrondie (les chiffres au delà de la précision spécifiée par l'objet `Context` ont été tronqués) et que le résultat est différent (certains des chiffres tronqués étaient différents de zéro).

L'activation des pièges se fait en utilisant un dictionnaire dans l'attribut `traps` de l'objet `Context` :

```
>>> setcontext(ExtendedContext)
>>> Decimal(1) / Decimal(0)
Decimal('Infinity')
>>> getcontext().traps[DivisionByZero] = 1
>>> Decimal(1) / Decimal(0)
Traceback (most recent call last):
  File "<pyshell#112>", line 1, in -toplevel-
    Decimal(1) / Decimal(0)
DivisionByZero: x / 0
```

La plupart des applications n'ajustent l'objet `Context` qu'une seule fois, au démarrage. Et, dans beaucoup d'applications, les données sont convertie une fois pour toutes en *Decimal*. Une fois le `Context` initialisé, et les objets `Decimal` créés, l'essentiel du programme manipule la donnée de la même manière qu'avec les autres types numériques Python.

9.4.2 Les objets Decimal

`class decimal.Decimal([value[, context]])`

Construire un nouvel objet *Decimal* à partir de *value*.

value can be an integer, string, tuple, *float*, or another *Decimal* object. If no *value* is given, returns `Decimal('0')`. If *value* is a string, it should conform to the decimal numeric string syntax after leading and trailing whitespace characters are removed :

```
sign          ::= '+' | '-'
digit         ::= '0' | '1' | '2' | '3' | '4' | '5' | '6' | '7' | '8' | '9'
indicator     ::= 'e' | 'E'
digits        ::= digit [digit]...
decimal-part  ::= digits '.' [digits] | ['.' ] digits
exponent-part ::= indicator [sign] digits
infinity     ::= 'Infinity' | 'Inf'
```

(suite sur la page suivante)

(suite de la page précédente)

```
nan          ::= 'NaN' [digits] | 'sNaN' [digits]
numeric-value ::= decimal-part [exponent-part] | infinity
numeric-string ::= [sign] numeric-value | [sign] nan
```

If *value* is a unicode string then other Unicode decimal digits are also permitted where *digit* appears above. These include decimal digits from various other alphabets (for example, Arabic-Indic and Devanāgarī digits) along with the fullwidth digits u'\uff10' through u'\uff19'.

Si *value* est un *tuple*, il doit avoir 3 éléments, le signe (0 pour positif ou 1 pour négatif), un *tuple* de chiffres, et un entier représentant l'exposant. Par exemple, `Decimal((0, (1, 4, 1, 4), -3))` construit l'objet `Decimal('1.414')`.

Si *value* est un *float*, la valeur en binaire flottant est convertie exactement à son équivalent décimal. Cette conversion peut parfois nécessiter 53 chiffres significatifs ou plus. Par exemple, `Decimal(float('1.1'))` devient `Decimal('1.100000000000000088817841970012523233890533447265625')`.

La précision spécifiée dans *Context* n'affecte pas le nombre de chiffres stockés. Cette valeur est déterminée exclusivement par le nombre de chiffres dans *value*. Par exemple, `Decimal('3.00000')` enregistre les 5 zéros même si la précision du contexte est de 3.

L'objectif de l'argument *context* est de déterminer ce que Python doit faire si *value* est une chaîne avec un mauvais format. Si l'option *InvalidOperation* est activée, une exception est levée, sinon le constructeur renvoie un objet `Decimal` avec la valeur NaN.

Une fois construit, les objets *Decimal* sont immuables.

Modifié dans la version 2.6 : leading and trailing whitespace characters are permitted when creating a `Decimal` instance from a string.

Modifié dans la version 2.7 : L'argument du constructeur peut désormais être un objet *float*.

`Decimal` floating point objects share many properties with the other built-in numeric types such as *float* and *int*. All of the usual math operations and special methods apply. Likewise, decimal objects can be copied, pickled, printed, used as dictionary keys, used as set elements, compared, sorted, and coerced to another type (such as *float* or *long*).

Il existe quelques différences mineures entre l'arithmétique entre les objets décimaux et l'arithmétique avec les entiers et les *float*. Quand l'opérateur modulo % est appliqué sur des objets décimaux, le signe du résultat est le signe du *dividend* plutôt que le signe du diviseur :

```
>>> (-7) % 4
1
>>> Decimal(-7) % Decimal(4)
Decimal('-3')
```

L'opérateur division entière, // se comporte de la même manière, retournant la partie entière du quotient, plutôt que son arrondi, de manière à préserver l'identité d'Euclide `x == (x // y) * y + x % y` :

```
>>> -7 // 4
-2
>>> Decimal(-7) // Decimal(4)
Decimal('-1')
```

Les opérateurs // et % implémentent la division entière et le reste (ou modulo), respectivement, tel que décrit dans la spécification.

`Decimal` objects cannot generally be combined with floats in arithmetic operations : an attempt to add a *Decimal* to a *float*, for example, will raise a *TypeError*. There's one exception to this rule : it's possible to use Python's comparison operators to compare a *float* instance *x* with a *Decimal* instance *y*. Without this exception, comparisons between *Decimal* and *float* instances would follow the general rules for comparing objects of different types described in the expressions section of the reference manual, leading to confusing results.

Modifié dans la version 2.7 : A comparison between a *float* instance *x* and a *Decimal* instance *y* now returns a result based on the values of *x* and *y*. In earlier versions *x* < *y* returned the same (arbitrary) result for any *Decimal* instance *x* and any *float* instance *y*.

In addition to the standard numeric properties, decimal floating point objects also have a number of specialized methods :

adjusted()

Return the adjusted exponent after shifting out the coefficient's rightmost digits until only the lead digit remains : `Decimal('321e+5').adjusted()` returns seven. Used for determining the position of the most significant digit with respect to the decimal point.

as_tuple()

Return a *named tuple* representation of the number : `DecimalTuple(sign, digits, exponent)`.

Modifié dans la version 2.6 : Use a named tuple.

canonical()

Return the canonical encoding of the argument. Currently, the encoding of a *Decimal* instance is always canonical, so this operation returns its argument unchanged.

Nouveau dans la version 2.6.

compare(*other*[, *context*])

Compare the values of two Decimal instances. This operation behaves in the same way as the usual comparison method `__cmp__()`, except that *compare()* returns a Decimal instance rather than an integer, and if either operand is a NaN then the result is a NaN :

```
a or b is a NaN ==> Decimal('NaN')
a < b           ==> Decimal('-1')
a == b         ==> Decimal('0')
a > b          ==> Decimal('1')
```

compare_signal(*other*[, *context*])

This operation is identical to the *compare()* method, except that all NaNs signal. That is, if neither operand is a signaling NaN then any quiet NaN operand is treated as though it were a signaling NaN.

Nouveau dans la version 2.6.

compare_total(*other*)

Compare two operands using their abstract representation rather than their numerical value. Similar to the *compare()* method, but the result gives a total ordering on *Decimal* instances. Two *Decimal* instances with the same numeric value but different representations compare unequal in this ordering :

```
>>> Decimal('12.0').compare_total(Decimal('12'))
Decimal('-1')
```

Quiet and signaling NaNs are also included in the total ordering. The result of this function is `Decimal('0')` if both operands have the same representation, `Decimal('-1')` if the first operand is lower in the total order than the second, and `Decimal('1')` if the first operand is higher in the total order than the second operand. See the specification for details of the total order.

Nouveau dans la version 2.6.

compare_total_mag(*other*)

Compare two operands using their abstract representation rather than their value as in *compare_total()*, but ignoring the sign of each operand. `x.compare_total_mag(y)` is equivalent to `x.copy_abs().compare_total(y.copy_abs())`.

Nouveau dans la version 2.6.

conjugate()

Just returns self, this method is only to comply with the Decimal Specification.

Nouveau dans la version 2.6.

copy_abs()

Return the absolute value of the argument. This operation is unaffected by the context and is quiet : no flags are changed and no rounding is performed.

Nouveau dans la version 2.6.

copy_negate()

Return the negation of the argument. This operation is unaffected by the context and is quiet : no flags are changed and no rounding is performed.

Nouveau dans la version 2.6.

copy_sign(*other*)

Return a copy of the first operand with the sign set to be the same as the sign of the second operand. For example :

```
>>> Decimal('2.3').copy_sign(Decimal('-1.5'))
Decimal('-2.3')
```

This operation is unaffected by the context and is quiet : no flags are changed and no rounding is performed.

Nouveau dans la version 2.6.

exp([*context*])

Return the value of the (natural) exponential function e^{**x} at the given number. The result is correctly rounded using the ROUND_HALF_EVEN rounding mode.

```
>>> Decimal(1).exp()
Decimal('2.718281828459045235360287471')
>>> Decimal(321).exp()
Decimal('2.561702493119680037517373933E+139')
```

Nouveau dans la version 2.6.

from_float(*f*)

Classmethod that converts a float to a decimal number, exactly.

Note *Decimal.from_float(0.1)* is not the same as *Decimal("0.1")*. Since 0.1 is not exactly representable in binary floating point, the value is stored as the nearest representable value which is $0x1.999999999999ap-4$. That equivalent value in decimal is *0.1000000000000000055511151231257827021181583404541015625*.

Note : From Python 2.7 onwards, a *Decimal* instance can also be constructed directly from a *float*.

```
>>> Decimal.from_float(0.1)
Decimal('0.1000000000000000055511151231257827021181583404541015625')
>>> Decimal.from_float(float('nan'))
Decimal('NaN')
>>> Decimal.from_float(float('inf'))
Decimal('Infinity')
>>> Decimal.from_float(float('-inf'))
Decimal('-Infinity')
```

Nouveau dans la version 2.7.

fma(*other*, *third*[, *context*])

Fused multiply-add. Return $self*other+third$ with no rounding of the intermediate product $self*other$.


```
>>> Decimal(2).fma(3, 5)
Decimal('11')
```

Nouveau dans la version 2.6.

is_canonical()

Return *True* if the argument is canonical and *False* otherwise. Currently, a *Decimal* instance is always canonical, so this operation always returns *True*.

Nouveau dans la version 2.6.

is_finite()

Return *True* if the argument is a finite number, and *False* if the argument is an infinity or a NaN.

Nouveau dans la version 2.6.

is_infinite()

Return *True* if the argument is either positive or negative infinity and *False* otherwise.

Nouveau dans la version 2.6.

is_nan()

Return *True* if the argument is a (quiet or signaling) NaN and *False* otherwise.

Nouveau dans la version 2.6.

is_normal()

Return *True* if the argument is a *normal* finite non-zero number with an adjusted exponent greater than or equal to *Emin*. Return *False* if the argument is zero, subnormal, infinite or a NaN. Note, the term *normal* is used here in a different sense with the *normalize()* method which is used to create canonical values.

Nouveau dans la version 2.6.

is_qnan()

Return *True* if the argument is a quiet NaN, and *False* otherwise.

Nouveau dans la version 2.6.

is_signed()

Return *True* if the argument has a negative sign and *False* otherwise. Note that zeros and NaNs can both carry signs.

Nouveau dans la version 2.6.

is_snan()

Return *True* if the argument is a signaling NaN and *False* otherwise.

Nouveau dans la version 2.6.

is_subnormal()

Return *True* if the argument is subnormal, and *False* otherwise. A number is subnormal is if it is nonzero, finite, and has an adjusted exponent less than *Emin*.

Nouveau dans la version 2.6.

is_zero()

Return *True* if the argument is a (positive or negative) zero and *False* otherwise.

Nouveau dans la version 2.6.

ln([context])

Return the natural (base e) logarithm of the operand. The result is correctly rounded using the ROUND_HALF_EVEN rounding mode.

Nouveau dans la version 2.6.

log10([context])

Return the base ten logarithm of the operand. The result is correctly rounded using the ROUND_HALF_EVEN rounding mode.

Nouveau dans la version 2.6.

logb([context])

For a nonzero number, return the adjusted exponent of its operand as a *Decimal* instance. If the

operand is a zero then `Decimal('-Infinity')` is returned and the *DivisionByZero* flag is raised. If the operand is an infinity then `Decimal('Infinity')` is returned.

Nouveau dans la version 2.6.

logical_and(*other*[, *context*])

logical_and() is a logical operation which takes two *logical operands* (see *Logical operands*). The result is the digit-wise **and** of the two operands.

Nouveau dans la version 2.6.

logical_invert([*context*])

logical_invert() is a logical operation. The result is the digit-wise inversion of the operand.

Nouveau dans la version 2.6.

logical_or(*other*[, *context*])

logical_or() is a logical operation which takes two *logical operands* (see *Logical operands*). The result is the digit-wise **or** of the two operands.

Nouveau dans la version 2.6.

logical_xor(*other*[, *context*])

logical_xor() is a logical operation which takes two *logical operands* (see *Logical operands*). The result is the digit-wise exclusive or of the two operands.

Nouveau dans la version 2.6.

max(*other*[, *context*])

Like `max(self, other)` except that the context rounding rule is applied before returning and that NaN values are either signaled or ignored (depending on the context and whether they are signaling or quiet).

max_mag(*other*[, *context*])

Similar to the *max()* method, but the comparison is done using the absolute values of the operands.

Nouveau dans la version 2.6.

min(*other*[, *context*])

Like `min(self, other)` except that the context rounding rule is applied before returning and that NaN values are either signaled or ignored (depending on the context and whether they are signaling or quiet).

min_mag(*other*[, *context*])

Similar to the *min()* method, but the comparison is done using the absolute values of the operands.

Nouveau dans la version 2.6.

next_minus([*context*])

Return the largest number representable in the given context (or in the current thread's context if no context is given) that is smaller than the given operand.

Nouveau dans la version 2.6.

next_plus([*context*])

Return the smallest number representable in the given context (or in the current thread's context if no context is given) that is larger than the given operand.

Nouveau dans la version 2.6.

next_toward(*other*[, *context*])

If the two operands are unequal, return the number closest to the first operand in the direction of the second operand. If both operands are numerically equal, return a copy of the first operand with the sign set to be the same as the sign of the second operand.

Nouveau dans la version 2.6.

normalize([*context*])

Normalize the number by stripping the rightmost trailing zeros and converting any result equal to `Decimal('0')` to `Decimal('0e0')`. Used for producing canonical values for attributes of an equivalence class. For example, `Decimal('32.100')` and `Decimal('0.321000e+2')` both normalize to the equivalent value `Decimal('32.1')`.

number_class(*context*)

Return a string describing the *class* of the operand. The returned value is one of the following ten strings.

- "-Infinity", indicating that the operand is negative infinity.
- "-Normal", indicating that the operand is a negative normal number.
- "-Subnormal", indicating that the operand is negative and subnormal.
- "-Zero", indicating that the operand is a negative zero.
- "+Zero", indicating that the operand is a positive zero.
- "+Subnormal", indicating that the operand is positive and subnormal.
- "+Normal", indicating that the operand is a positive normal number.
- "+Infinity", indicating that the operand is positive infinity.
- "NaN", indicating that the operand is a quiet NaN (Not a Number).
- "sNaN", indicating that the operand is a signaling NaN.

Nouveau dans la version 2.6.

quantize(*exp*[, *rounding*[, *context*[, *watchexp*]]])

Return a value equal to the first operand after rounding and having the exponent of the second operand.

```
>>> Decimal('1.41421356').quantize(Decimal('1.000'))
Decimal('1.414')
```

Unlike other operations, if the length of the coefficient after the quantize operation would be greater than precision, then an *InvalidOperation* is signaled. This guarantees that, unless there is an error condition, the quantized exponent is always equal to that of the right-hand operand.

Also unlike other operations, quantize never signals Underflow, even if the result is subnormal and inexact.

If the exponent of the second operand is larger than that of the first then rounding may be necessary. In this case, the rounding mode is determined by the **rounding** argument if given, else by the given **context** argument; if neither argument is given the rounding mode of the current thread's context is used.

If *watchexp* is set (default), then an error is returned whenever the resulting exponent is greater than *E_{max}* or less than *E_{tiny}*.

radix()

Return `Decimal(10)`, the radix (base) in which the *Decimal* class does all its arithmetic. Included for compatibility with the specification.

Nouveau dans la version 2.6.

remainder_near(*other*[, *context*])

Return the remainder from dividing *self* by *other*. This differs from `self % other` in that the sign of the remainder is chosen so as to minimize its absolute value. More precisely, the return value is `self - n * other` where *n* is the integer nearest to the exact value of `self / other`, and if two integers are equally near then the even one is chosen.

If the result is zero then its sign will be the sign of *self*.

```
>>> Decimal(18).remainder_near(Decimal(10))
Decimal('-2')
>>> Decimal(25).remainder_near(Decimal(10))
Decimal('5')
>>> Decimal(35).remainder_near(Decimal(10))
Decimal('-5')
```

rotate(*other*[, *context*])

Return the result of rotating the digits of the first operand by an amount specified by the second operand. The second operand must be an integer in the range `-precision` through `precision`. The absolute value of the second operand gives the number of places to rotate. If the second operand

is positive then rotation is to the left ; otherwise rotation is to the right. The coefficient of the first operand is padded on the left with zeros to length precision if necessary. The sign and exponent of the first operand are unchanged.

Nouveau dans la version 2.6.

`same_quantum(other[, context])`

Test whether self and other have the same exponent or whether both are NaN.

`scaleb(other[, context])`

Return the first operand with exponent adjusted by the second. Equivalently, return the first operand multiplied by `10**other`. The second operand must be an integer.

Nouveau dans la version 2.6.

`shift(other[, context])`

Return the result of shifting the digits of the first operand by an amount specified by the second operand. The second operand must be an integer in the range `-precision` through `precision`. The absolute value of the second operand gives the number of places to shift. If the second operand is positive then the shift is to the left ; otherwise the shift is to the right. Digits shifted into the coefficient are zeros. The sign and exponent of the first operand are unchanged.

Nouveau dans la version 2.6.

`sqrt([context])`

Return the square root of the argument to full precision.

`to_eng_string([context])`

Convert to a string, using engineering notation if an exponent is needed.

Engineering notation has an exponent which is a multiple of 3. This can leave up to 3 digits to the left of the decimal place and may require the addition of either one or two trailing zeros.

For example, this converts `Decimal('123E+1')` to `Decimal('1.23E+3')`.

`to_integral([rounding[, context]])`

Identical to the `to_integral_value()` method. The `to_integral` name has been kept for compatibility with older versions.

`to_integral_exact([rounding[, context]])`

Round to the nearest integer, signaling *Inexact* or *Rounded* as appropriate if rounding occurs. The rounding mode is determined by the `rounding` parameter if given, else by the given `context`. If neither parameter is given then the rounding mode of the current context is used.

Nouveau dans la version 2.6.

`to_integral_value([rounding[, context]])`

Round to the nearest integer without signaling *Inexact* or *Rounded*. If given, applies *rounding*; otherwise, uses the rounding method in either the supplied *context* or the current context.

Modifié dans la version 2.6 : renommé de `to_integral` à `to_integral_value`. The old name remains valid for compatibility.

Logical operands

The `logical_and()`, `logical_invert()`, `logical_or()`, and `logical_xor()` methods expect their arguments to be *logical operands*. A *logical operand* is a *Decimal* instance whose exponent and sign are both zero, and whose digits are all either 0 or 1.

9.4.3 Context objects

Contexts are environments for arithmetic operations. They govern precision, set rules for rounding, determine which signals are treated as exceptions, and limit the range for exponents.

Each thread has its own current context which is accessed or changed using the `getcontext()` and `setcontext()` functions :

`decimal.getcontext()`

Return the current context for the active thread.

`decimal.setcontext(c)`

Set the current context for the active thread to *c*.

Beginning with Python 2.5, you can also use the `with` statement and the `localcontext()` function to temporarily change the active context.

`decimal.localcontext([c])`

Return a context manager that will set the current context for the active thread to a copy of *c* on entry to the with-statement and restore the previous context when exiting the with-statement. If no context is specified, a copy of the current context is used.

Nouveau dans la version 2.5.

For example, the following code sets the current decimal precision to 42 places, performs a calculation, and then automatically restores the previous context :

```
from decimal import localcontext

with localcontext() as ctx:
    ctx.prec = 42  # Perform a high precision calculation
    s = calculate_something()
s = +s  # Round the final result back to the default precision

with localcontext(BasicContext):  # temporarily use the BasicContext
    print Decimal(1) / Decimal(7)
    print Decimal(355) / Decimal(113)
```

New contexts can also be created using the `Context` constructor described below. In addition, the module provides three pre-made contexts :

class decimal.BasicContext

This is a standard context defined by the General Decimal Arithmetic Specification. Precision is set to nine. Rounding is set to `ROUND_HALF_UP`. All flags are cleared. All traps are enabled (treated as exceptions) except *Inexact*, *Rounded*, and *Subnormal*.

Because many of the traps are enabled, this context is useful for debugging.

class decimal.ExtendedContext

This is a standard context defined by the General Decimal Arithmetic Specification. Precision is set to nine. Rounding is set to `ROUND_HALF_EVEN`. All flags are cleared. No traps are enabled (so that exceptions are not raised during computations).

Because the traps are disabled, this context is useful for applications that prefer to have result value of NaN or Infinity instead of raising exceptions. This allows an application to complete a run in the presence of conditions that would otherwise halt the program.

class decimal.DefaultContext

This context is used by the `Context` constructor as a prototype for new contexts. Changing a field (such as a precision) has the effect of changing the default for new contexts created by the `Context` constructor. This context is most useful in multi-threaded environments. Changing one of the fields before threads are started has the effect of setting system-wide defaults. Changing the fields after threads have started is not recommended as it would require thread synchronization to prevent race conditions.

In single threaded environments, it is preferable to not use this context at all. Instead, simply create contexts explicitly as described below.

The default values are precision=28, rounding=ROUND_HALF_EVEN, and enabled traps for Overflow, InvalidOperation, and DivisionByZero.

In addition to the three supplied contexts, new contexts can be created with the `Context` constructor.

```
class decimal.Context(prec=None, rounding=None, traps=None, flags=None, Emin=None,
                      Emax=None, capitals=1)
```

Creates a new context. If a field is not specified or is *None*, the default values are copied from the *DefaultContext*. If the *flags* field is not specified or is *None*, all flags are cleared.

The *prec* field is a positive integer that sets the precision for arithmetic operations in the context.

The *rounding* option is one of :

- *ROUND_CEILING* (towards *Infinity*),
- *ROUND_DOWN* (towards zero),
- *ROUND_FLOOR* (towards *-Infinity*),
- *ROUND_HALF_DOWN* (to nearest with ties going towards zero),
- *ROUND_HALF_EVEN* (to nearest with ties going to nearest even integer),
- *ROUND_HALF_UP* (to nearest with ties going away from zero), or
- *ROUND_UP* (away from zero).
- *ROUND_05UP* (away from zero if last digit after rounding towards zero would have been 0 or 5; otherwise towards zero)

The *traps* and *flags* fields list any signals to be set. Generally, new contexts should only set traps and leave the flags clear.

The *Emin* and *Emax* fields are integers specifying the outer limits allowable for exponents.

The *capitals* field is either 0 or 1 (the default). If set to 1, exponents are printed with a capital E; otherwise, a lowercase e is used : *Decimal('6.02e+23')*.

Modifié dans la version 2.6 : The *ROUND_05UP* rounding mode was added.

The *Context* class defines several general purpose methods as well as a large number of methods for doing arithmetic directly in a given context. In addition, for each of the *Decimal* methods described above (with the exception of the *adjusted()* and *as_tuple()* methods) there is a corresponding *Context* method. For example, for a *Context* instance *C* and *Decimal* instance *x*, *C.exp(x)* is equivalent to *x.exp(context=C)*. Each *Context* method accepts a Python integer (an instance of *int* or *long*) anywhere that a *Decimal* instance is accepted.

clear_flags()

Resets all of the flags to 0.

copy()

Return a duplicate of the context.

copy_decimal(num)

Return a copy of the *Decimal* instance *num*.

create_decimal(num)

Creates a new *Decimal* instance from *num* but using *self* as context. Unlike the *Decimal* constructor, the context precision, rounding method, flags, and traps are applied to the conversion.

This is useful because constants are often given to a greater precision than is needed by the application. Another benefit is that rounding immediately eliminates unintended effects from digits beyond the current precision. In the following example, using unrounded inputs means that adding zero to a sum can change the result :

```
>>> getcontext().prec = 3
>>> Decimal('3.4445') + Decimal('1.0023')
Decimal('4.45')
>>> Decimal('3.4445') + Decimal(0) + Decimal('1.0023')
Decimal('4.44')
```

This method implements the to-number operation of the IBM specification. If the argument is a string, no leading or trailing whitespace is permitted.

create_decimal_from_float(f)

Creates a new *Decimal* instance from a float *f* but rounding using *self* as the context. Unlike the *Decimal.from_float()* class method, the context precision, rounding method, flags, and traps are applied to the conversion.

```

>>> context = Context(prec=5, rounding=ROUND_DOWN)
>>> context.create_decimal_from_float(math.pi)
Decimal('3.1415')
>>> context = Context(prec=5, traps=[Inexact])
>>> context.create_decimal_from_float(math.pi)
Traceback (most recent call last):
...
Inexact: None

```

Nouveau dans la version 2.7.

Etiny()

Returns a value equal to $E_{\min} - \text{prec} + 1$ which is the minimum exponent value for subnormal results. When underflow occurs, the exponent is set to *Etiny*.

Etop()

Returns a value equal to $E_{\max} - \text{prec} + 1$.

The usual approach to working with decimals is to create *Decimal* instances and then apply arithmetic operations which take place within the current context for the active thread. An alternative approach is to use context methods for calculating within a specific context. The methods are similar to those for the *Decimal* class and are only briefly recounted here.

abs(*x*)

Renvoie la valeur absolue de *x*.

add(*x*, *y*)

Return the sum of *x* and *y*.

canonical(*x*)

Returns the same *Decimal* object *x*.

compare(*x*, *y*)

Compares *x* and *y* numerically.

compare_signal(*x*, *y*)

Compares the values of the two operands numerically.

compare_total(*x*, *y*)

Compares two operands using their abstract representation.

compare_total_mag(*x*, *y*)

Compares two operands using their abstract representation, ignoring sign.

copy_abs(*x*)

Returns a copy of *x* with the sign set to 0.

copy_negate(*x*)

Returns a copy of *x* with the sign inverted.

copy_sign(*x*, *y*)

Copies the sign from *y* to *x*.

divide(*x*, *y*)

Return *x* divided by *y*.

divide_int(*x*, *y*)

Return *x* divided by *y*, truncated to an integer.

divmod(*x*, *y*)

Divides two numbers and returns the integer part of the result.

exp(*x*)

Returns e^{**x} .

fma(*x*, *y*, *z*)

Returns *x* multiplied by *y*, plus *z*.

is_canonical(*x*)

Returns True if *x* is canonical; otherwise returns False.

is_finite(*x*)
Returns **True** if *x* is finite; otherwise returns **False**.

is_infinite(*x*)
Returns **True** if *x* is infinite; otherwise returns **False**.

is_nan(*x*)
Returns **True** if *x* is a qNaN or sNaN; otherwise returns **False**.

is_normal(*x*)
Returns **True** if *x* is a normal number; otherwise returns **False**.

is_qnan(*x*)
Returns **True** if *x* is a quiet NaN; otherwise returns **False**.

is_signed(*x*)
Returns **True** if *x* is negative; otherwise returns **False**.

is_snan(*x*)
Returns **True** if *x* is a signaling NaN; otherwise returns **False**.

is_subnormal(*x*)
Returns **True** if *x* is subnormal; otherwise returns **False**.

is_zero(*x*)
Returns **True** if *x* is a zero; otherwise returns **False**.

ln(*x*)
Returns the natural (base e) logarithm of *x*.

log10(*x*)
Returns the base 10 logarithm of *x*.

logb(*x*)
Returns the exponent of the magnitude of the operand's MSD.

logical_and(*x*, *y*)
Applies the logical operation *and* between each operand's digits.

logical_invert(*x*)
Invert all the digits in *x*.

logical_or(*x*, *y*)
Applies the logical operation *or* between each operand's digits.

logical_xor(*x*, *y*)
Applies the logical operation *xor* between each operand's digits.

max(*x*, *y*)
Compares two values numerically and returns the maximum.

max_mag(*x*, *y*)
Compares the values numerically with their sign ignored.

min(*x*, *y*)
Compares two values numerically and returns the minimum.

min_mag(*x*, *y*)
Compares the values numerically with their sign ignored.

minus(*x*)
Minus corresponds to the unary prefix minus operator in Python.

multiply(*x*, *y*)
Return the product of *x* and *y*.

next_minus(*x*)
Returns the largest representable number smaller than *x*.

next_plus(*x*)
Returns the smallest representable number larger than *x*.

next_toward(*x*, *y*)
Returns the number closest to *x*, in direction towards *y*.

normalize(*x*)

Reduces *x* to its simplest form.

number_class(*x*)

Returns an indication of the class of *x*.

plus(*x*)

Plus corresponds to the unary prefix plus operator in Python. This operation applies the context precision and rounding, so it is *not* an identity operation.

power(*x*, *y*[, *modulo*])

Return *x* to the power of *y*, reduced modulo *modulo* if given.

With two arguments, compute *x**y*. If *x* is negative then *y* must be integral. The result will be inexact unless *y* is integral and the result is finite and can be expressed exactly in “precision” digits. The result should always be correctly rounded, using the rounding mode of the current thread’s context.

With three arguments, compute *(x**y) % modulo*. For the three argument form, the following restrictions on the arguments hold :

- all three arguments must be integral
- *y* must be nonnegative
- at least one of *x* or *y* must be nonzero
- *modulo* must be nonzero and have at most “precision” digits

The value resulting from `Context.power(x, y, modulo)` is equal to the value that would be obtained by computing *(x**y) % modulo* with unbounded precision, but is computed more efficiently. The exponent of the result is zero, regardless of the exponents of *x*, *y* and *modulo*. The result is always exact.

Modifié dans la version 2.6 : *y* may now be nonintegral in *x**y*. Stricter requirements for the three-argument version.

quantize(*x*, *y*)

Returns a value equal to *x* (rounded), having the exponent of *y*.

radix()

Just returns 10, as this is Decimal, :)

remainder(*x*, *y*)

Returns the remainder from integer division.

The sign of the result, if non-zero, is the same as that of the original dividend.

remainder_near(*x*, *y*)

Returns *x - y * n*, where *n* is the integer nearest the exact value of *x / y* (if the result is 0 then its sign will be the sign of *x*).

rotate(*x*, *y*)

Returns a rotated copy of *x*, *y* times.

same_quantum(*x*, *y*)

Returns `True` if the two operands have the same exponent.

scaleb(*x*, *y*)

Returns the first operand after adding the second value its exp.

shift(*x*, *y*)

Returns a shifted copy of *x*, *y* times.

sqrt(*x*)

Square root of a non-negative number to context precision.

subtract(*x*, *y*)

Return the difference between *x* and *y*.

to_eng_string(*x*)

Convert to a string, using engineering notation if an exponent is needed.

Engineering notation has an exponent which is a multiple of 3. This can leave up to 3 digits to the left of the decimal place and may require the addition of either one or two trailing zeros.

`to_integral_exact(x)`
Rounds to an integer.

`to_sci_string(x)`
Converts a number to a string using scientific notation.

9.4.4 Signals

Signals represent conditions that arise during computation. Each corresponds to one context flag and one context trap enabler.

The context flag is set whenever the condition is encountered. After the computation, flags may be checked for informational purposes (for instance, to determine whether a computation was exact). After checking the flags, be sure to clear all flags before starting the next computation.

If the context's trap enabler is set for the signal, then the condition causes a Python exception to be raised. For example, if the *DivisionByZero* trap is set, then a *DivisionByZero* exception is raised upon encountering the condition.

class decimal.Clamped
Altered an exponent to fit representation constraints.
Typically, clamping occurs when an exponent falls outside the context's *Emin* and *Emax* limits. If possible, the exponent is reduced to fit by adding zeros to the coefficient.

class decimal.DecimalException
Base class for other signals and a subclass of *ArithmeticError*.

class decimal.DivisionByZero
Signals the division of a non-infinite number by zero.
Can occur with division, modulo division, or when raising a number to a negative power. If this signal is not trapped, returns *Infinity* or *-Infinity* with the sign determined by the inputs to the calculation.

class decimal.Inexact
Indicates that rounding occurred and the result is not exact.
Signals when non-zero digits were discarded during rounding. The rounded result is returned. The signal flag or trap is used to detect when results are inexact.

class decimal.InvalidOperation
An invalid operation was performed.
Indicates that an operation was requested that does not make sense. If not trapped, returns *NaN*. Possible causes include :

```
Infinity - Infinity
0 * Infinity
Infinity / Infinity
x % 0
Infinity % x
x._rescale( non-integer )
sqrt(-x) and x > 0
0 ** 0
x ** (non-integer)
x ** Infinity
```

class decimal.Overflow
Numerical overflow.
Indicates the exponent is larger than *Emax* after rounding has occurred. If not trapped, the result depends on the rounding mode, either pulling inward to the largest representable finite number or rounding outward to *Infinity*. In either case, *Inexact* and *Rounded* are also signaled.

class decimal.Rounded

Rounding occurred though possibly no information was lost.

Signaled whenever rounding discards digits; even if those digits are zero (such as rounding 5.00 to 5.0). If not trapped, returns the result unchanged. This signal is used to detect loss of significant digits.

class decimal.Subnormal

Exponent was lower than `Emin` prior to rounding.

Occurs when an operation result is subnormal (the exponent is too small). If not trapped, returns the result unchanged.

class decimal.Underflow

Numerical underflow with result rounded to zero.

Occurs when a subnormal result is pushed to zero by rounding. *Inexact* and *Subnormal* are also signaled.

The following table summarizes the hierarchy of signals :

```
exceptions.ArithmeticError(exceptions.StandardError)
    DecimalException
        Clamped
        DivisionByZero(DecimalException, exceptions.ZeroDivisionError)
        Inexact
            Overflow(Inexact, Rounded)
            Underflow(Inexact, Rounded, Subnormal)
        InvalidOperation
        Rounded
        Subnormal
```

9.4.5 Floating Point Notes

Mitigating round-off error with increased precision

The use of decimal floating point eliminates decimal representation error (making it possible to represent 0.1 exactly); however, some operations can still incur round-off error when non-zero digits exceed the fixed precision.

The effects of round-off error can be amplified by the addition or subtraction of nearly offsetting quantities resulting in loss of significance. Knuth provides two instructive examples where rounded floating point arithmetic with insufficient precision causes the breakdown of the associative and distributive properties of addition :

```
# Examples from Seminumerical Algorithms, Section 4.2.2.
>>> from decimal import Decimal, getcontext
>>> getcontext().prec = 8

>>> u, v, w = Decimal(11111113), Decimal(-11111111), Decimal('7.51111111')
>>> (u + v) + w
Decimal('9.5111111')
>>> u + (v + w)
Decimal('10')

>>> u, v, w = Decimal(20000), Decimal(-6), Decimal('6.0000003')
>>> (u*v) + (u*w)
Decimal('0.01')
>>> u * (v+w)
Decimal('0.0060000')
```

The `decimal` module makes it possible to restore the identities by expanding the precision sufficiently to avoid loss of significance :

```
>>> getcontext().prec = 20
>>> u, v, w = Decimal(11111113), Decimal(-11111111), Decimal('7.51111111')
>>> (u + v) + w
Decimal('9.51111111')
>>> u + (v + w)
Decimal('9.51111111')
>>>
>>> u, v, w = Decimal(20000), Decimal(-6), Decimal('6.0000003')
>>> (u*v) + (u*w)
Decimal('0.0060000')
>>> u * (v+w)
Decimal('0.0060000')
```

Special values

The number system for the `decimal` module provides special values including NaN, sNaN, -Infinity, Infinity, and two zeros, +0 and -0.

Infinities can be constructed directly with : `Decimal('Infinity')`. Also, they can arise from dividing by zero when the `DivisionByZero` signal is not trapped. Likewise, when the `Overflow` signal is not trapped, infinity can result from rounding beyond the limits of the largest representable number.

The infinities are signed (affine) and can be used in arithmetic operations where they get treated as very large, indeterminate numbers. For instance, adding a constant to infinity gives another infinite result.

Some operations are indeterminate and return NaN, or if the `InvalidOperation` signal is trapped, raise an exception. For example, `0/0` returns NaN which means « not a number ». This variety of NaN is quiet and, once created, will flow through other computations always resulting in another NaN. This behavior can be useful for a series of computations that occasionally have missing inputs — it allows the calculation to proceed while flagging specific results as invalid.

A variant is sNaN which signals rather than remaining quiet after every operation. This is a useful return value when an invalid result needs to interrupt a calculation for special handling.

The behavior of Python's comparison operators can be a little surprising where a NaN is involved. A test for equality where one of the operands is a quiet or signaling NaN always returns `False` (even when doing `Decimal('NaN')==Decimal('NaN')`), while a test for inequality always returns `True`. An attempt to compare two Decimals using any of the `<`, `<=`, `>` or `>=` operators will raise the `InvalidOperation` signal if either operand is a NaN, and return `False` if this signal is not trapped. Note that the General Decimal Arithmetic specification does not specify the behavior of direct comparisons ; these rules for comparisons involving a NaN were taken from the IEEE 854 standard (see Table 3 in section 5.7). To ensure strict standards-compliance, use the `compare()` and `compare-signal()` methods instead.

The signed zeros can result from calculations that underflow. They keep the sign that would have resulted if the calculation had been carried out to greater precision. Since their magnitude is zero, both positive and negative zeros are treated as equal and their sign is informational.

In addition to the two signed zeros which are distinct yet equal, there are various representations of zero with differing precisions yet equivalent in value. This takes a bit of getting used to. For an eye accustomed to normalized floating point representations, it is not immediately obvious that the following calculation returns a value equal to zero :

```
>>> 1 / Decimal('Infinity')
Decimal('0E-10000000026')
```

9.4.6 Working with threads

The `getcontext()` function accesses a different *Context* object for each thread. Having separate thread contexts means that threads may make changes (such as `getcontext().prec=10`) without interfering with other threads.

Likewise, the `setcontext()` function automatically assigns its target to the current thread.

If `setcontext()` has not been called before `getcontext()`, then `getcontext()` will automatically create a new context for use in the current thread.

The new context is copied from a prototype context called *DefaultContext*. To control the defaults so that each thread will use the same values throughout the application, directly modify the *DefaultContext* object. This should be done *before* any threads are started so that there won't be a race condition between threads calling `getcontext()`. For example :

```
# Set applicationwide defaults for all threads about to be launched
DefaultContext.prec = 12
DefaultContext.rounding = ROUND_DOWN
DefaultContext.traps = ExtendedContext.traps.copy()
DefaultContext.traps[InvalidOperation] = 1
setcontext(DefaultContext)

# Afterwards, the threads can be started
t1.start()
t2.start()
t3.start()
. . .
```

9.4.7 Cas pratiques

Here are a few recipes that serve as utility functions and that demonstrate ways to work with the *Decimal* class :

```
def moneyfmt(value, places=2, curr='', sep=',', dp='.',
             pos='', neg='-', trailneg=''):
    """Convert Decimal to a money formatted string.

    places:  required number of places after the decimal point
    curr:    optional currency symbol before the sign (may be blank)
    sep:     optional grouping separator (comma, period, space, or blank)
    dp:      decimal point indicator (comma or period)
             only specify as blank when places is zero
    pos:     optional sign for positive numbers: '+', space or blank
    neg:     optional sign for negative numbers: '-', '(', space or blank
    trailneg: optional trailing minus indicator:  '-', ')', space or blank

    >>> d = Decimal('-1234567.8901')
    >>> moneyfmt(d, curr='$')
    '-$1,234,567.89'
    >>> moneyfmt(d, places=0, sep='.', dp='', neg='', trailneg='-')
    '1.234.568-'
    >>> moneyfmt(d, curr='$', neg='(', trailneg=')')
    '($1,234,567.89)'
    >>> moneyfmt(Decimal(123456789), sep=' ')
```

(suite sur la page suivante)

(suite de la page précédente)

```

'123 456 789.00'
>>> moneyfmt(Decimal('-0.02'), neg='<', trailneg='>')
'<0.02>'

"""
q = Decimal(10) ** -places      # 2 places --> '0.01'
sign, digits, exp = value.quantize(q).as_tuple()
result = []
digits = map(str, digits)
build, next = result.append, digits.pop
if sign:
    build(trailneg)
for i in range(places):
    build(next() if digits else '0')
build(dp)
if not digits:
    build('0')
i = 0
while digits:
    build(next())
    i += 1
    if i == 3 and digits:
        i = 0
        build(sep)
build(curr)
build(neg if sign else pos)
return ''.join(reversed(result))

def pi():
    """Compute Pi to the current precision.

    >>> print pi()
    3.141592653589793238462643383

    """
    getcontext().prec += 2 # extra digits for intermediate steps
    three = Decimal(3)     # substitute "three=3.0" for regular floats
    lasts, t, s, n, na, d, da = 0, three, 3, 1, 0, 0, 24
    while s != lasts:
        lasts = s
        n, na = n+na, na+8
        d, da = d+da, da+32
        t = (t * n) / d
        s += t
    getcontext().prec -= 2
    return +s              # unary plus applies the new precision

def exp(x):
    """Return e raised to the power of x. Result type matches input type.

    >>> print exp(Decimal(1))
    2.718281828459045235360287471

```

(suite sur la page suivante)

(suite de la page précédente)

```

>>> print exp(Decimal(2))
7.389056098930650227230427461
>>> print exp(2.0)
7.38905609893
>>> print exp(2+0j)
(7.38905609893+0j)

"""
getcontext().prec += 2
i, lasts, s, fact, num = 0, 0, 1, 1, 1
while s != lasts:
    lasts = s
    i += 1
    fact *= i
    num *= x
    s += num / fact
getcontext().prec -= 2
return +s

def cos(x):
    """Return the cosine of x as measured in radians.

    >>> print cos(Decimal('0.5'))
    0.8775825618903727161162815826
    >>> print cos(0.5)
    0.87758256189
    >>> print cos(0.5+0j)
    (0.87758256189+0j)

    """
    getcontext().prec += 2
    i, lasts, s, fact, num, sign = 0, 0, 1, 1, 1, 1
    while s != lasts:
        lasts = s
        i += 2
        fact *= i * (i-1)
        num *= x * x
        sign *= -1
        s += num / fact * sign
    getcontext().prec -= 2
    return +s

def sin(x):
    """Return the sine of x as measured in radians.

    >>> print sin(Decimal('0.5'))
    0.4794255386042030002732879352
    >>> print sin(0.5)
    0.479425538604
    >>> print sin(0.5+0j)
    (0.479425538604+0j)

```

(suite sur la page suivante)

(suite de la page précédente)

```

"""
getcontext().prec += 2
i, lasts, s, fact, num, sign = 1, 0, x, 1, x, 1
while s != lasts:
    lasts = s
    i += 2
    fact *= i * (i-1)
    num *= x * x
    sign *= -1
    s += num / fact * sign
getcontext().prec -= 2
return +s

```

9.4.8 FAQ *decimal*

Q. C'est fastidieux de taper `decimal.Decimal('1234.5')`. Y a-t-il un moyen de réduire la frappe quand on utilise l'interpréteur interactif ?

R. Certains utilisateurs abrègent le constructeur en une seule lettre :

```

>>> D = decimal.Decimal
>>> D('1.23') + D('3.45')
Decimal('4.68')

```

Q. In a fixed-point application with two decimal places, some inputs have many places and need to be rounded. Others are not supposed to have excess digits and need to be validated. What methods should be used ?

A. The `quantize()` method rounds to a fixed number of decimal places. If the *Inexact* trap is set, it is also useful for validation :

```

>>> TWOPLACES = Decimal(10) ** -2      # same as Decimal('0.01')

```

```

>>> # Round to two places
>>> Decimal('3.214').quantize(TWOPLACES)
Decimal('3.21')

```

```

>>> # Validate that a number does not exceed two places
>>> Decimal('3.21').quantize(TWOPLACES, context=Context(traps=[Inexact]))
Decimal('3.21')

```

```

>>> Decimal('3.214').quantize(TWOPLACES, context=Context(traps=[Inexact]))
Traceback (most recent call last):
...
Inexact: None

```

Q. Once I have valid two place inputs, how do I maintain that invariant throughout an application ?

A. Some operations like addition, subtraction, and multiplication by an integer will automatically preserve fixed point. Others operations, like division and non-integer multiplication, will change the number of decimal places and need to be followed-up with a `quantize()` step :


```

>>> a = Decimal('102.72')           # Initial fixed-point values
>>> b = Decimal('3.17')
>>> a + b                             # Addition preserves fixed-point
Decimal('105.89')
>>> a - b
Decimal('99.55')
>>> a * 42                             # So does integer multiplication
Decimal('4314.24')
>>> (a * b).quantize(TWOPLACES)       # Must quantize non-integer multiplication
Decimal('325.62')
>>> (b / a).quantize(TWOPLACES)       # And quantize division
Decimal('0.03')

```

In developing fixed-point applications, it is convenient to define functions to handle the `quantize()` step :

```

>>> def mul(x, y, fp=TWOPLACES):
...     return (x * y).quantize(fp)
>>> def div(x, y, fp=TWOPLACES):
...     return (x / y).quantize(fp)

```

```

>>> mul(a, b)                         # Automatically preserve fixed-point
Decimal('325.62')
>>> div(b, a)
Decimal('0.03')

```

Q. There are many ways to express the same value. The numbers 200, 200.000, 2E2, and 02E+4 all have the same value at various precisions. Is there a way to transform them to a single recognizable canonical value?

A. The `normalize()` method maps all equivalent values to a single representative :

```

>>> values = map(Decimal, '200 200.000 2E2 .02E+4'.split())
>>> [v.normalize() for v in values]
[Decimal('2E+2'), Decimal('2E+2'), Decimal('2E+2'), Decimal('2E+2')]

```

Q. Some decimal values always print with exponential notation. Is there a way to get a non-exponential representation?

A. For some values, exponential notation is the only way to express the number of significant places in the coefficient. For example, expressing 5.0E+3 as 5000 keeps the value constant but cannot show the original's two-place significance.

If an application does not care about tracking significance, it is easy to remove the exponent and trailing zeros, losing significance, but keeping the value unchanged :

```

def remove_exponent(d):
    '''Remove exponent and trailing zeros.

    >>> remove_exponent(Decimal('5E+3'))
    Decimal('5000')

    '''
    return d.quantize(Decimal(1)) if d == d.to_integral() else d.normalize()

```

Q. Is there a way to convert a regular float to a *Decimal*?

A. Yes, any binary floating point number can be exactly expressed as a Decimal though an exact conversion may take more precision than intuition would suggest :

```
>>> Decimal(math.pi)
Decimal('3.141592653589793115997963468544185161590576171875')
```

Q. Within a complex calculation, how can I make sure that I haven't gotten a spurious result because of insufficient precision or rounding anomalies.

A. The decimal module makes it easy to test results. A best practice is to re-run calculations using greater precision and with various rounding modes. Widely differing results indicate insufficient precision, rounding mode issues, ill-conditioned inputs, or a numerically unstable algorithm.

Q. I noticed that context precision is applied to the results of operations but not to the inputs. Is there anything to watch out for when mixing values of different precisions ?

A. Yes. The principle is that all values are considered to be exact and so is the arithmetic on those values. Only the results are rounded. The advantage for inputs is that « what you type is what you get ». A disadvantage is that the results can look odd if you forget that the inputs haven't been rounded :

```
>>> getcontext().prec = 3
>>> Decimal('3.104') + Decimal('2.104')
Decimal('5.21')
>>> Decimal('3.104') + Decimal('0.000') + Decimal('2.104')
Decimal('5.20')
```

The solution is either to increase precision or to force rounding of inputs using the unary plus operation :

```
>>> getcontext().prec = 3
>>> +Decimal('1.23456789')      # unary plus triggers rounding
Decimal('1.23')
```

Alternatively, inputs can be rounded upon creation using the `Context.create_decimal()` method :

```
>>> Context(prec=5, rounding=ROUND_DOWN).create_decimal('1.2345678')
Decimal('1.2345')
```

9.5 fractions — Nombres rationnels

Nouveau dans la version 2.6.

Code source : [Lib/fractions.py](#)

Le module `fractions` fournit un support de l'arithmétique des nombres rationnels.

Une instance de `Fraction` peut être construite depuis une paire d'entiers, depuis un autre nombre rationnel, ou depuis une chaîne de caractères.

```
class fractions.Fraction(numerator=0, denominator=1)
class fractions.Fraction(other_fraction)
class fractions.Fraction(float)
class fractions.Fraction(decimal)
class fractions.Fraction(string)
```

La première version demande que `numerator` et `denominator` soient des instance de `numbers.Rational` et renvoie une instance de `Fraction` valant `numerator/denominator`. Si `denominator` vaut 0, une

`ZeroDivisionError` est levée. La seconde version demande que `other_fraction` soit une instance de `numbers.Rational` et renvoie une instance de `Fraction` avec la même valeur. Les deux versions suivantes acceptent un `float` ou une instance de `decimal.Decimal`, et renvoient une instance de `Fraction` avec exactement la même valeur. Notez que les problèmes usuels des virgules flottantes binaires (voir `tut-fp-issues`) font que `Fraction(1.1)` n'est pas exactement égal à $11/10$, et donc `Fraction(1.1)` ne renvoie pas `Fraction(11, 10)` comme on pourrait le penser. (Mais référez-vous à la documentation de la méthode `limit_denominator()` ci-dessous.) La dernière version du constructeur attend une chaîne de caractères ou Unicode. La représentation habituelle de cette forme est :

[sign] numerator ['/' denominator]

où le `sign` optionnel peut être soit `+` soit `-`, et `numerator` et `denominator` (si présent) sont des chaînes de chiffres décimaux. De plus, toute chaîne qui représente une valeur finie et acceptée par le constructeur de `float` est aussi acceptée par celui de `Fraction`. Dans ces deux formes, la chaîne d'entrée peut aussi contenir des espaces en début ou en fin de chaîne. Voici quelques exemples :

```
>>> from fractions import Fraction
>>> Fraction(16, -10)
Fraction(-8, 5)
>>> Fraction(123)
Fraction(123, 1)
>>> Fraction()
Fraction(0, 1)
>>> Fraction('3/7')
Fraction(3, 7)
>>> Fraction(' -3/7 ')
Fraction(-3, 7)
>>> Fraction('1.414213 \t\n')
Fraction(1414213, 1000000)
>>> Fraction('-.125')
Fraction(-1, 8)
>>> Fraction('7e-6')
Fraction(7, 1000000)
>>> Fraction(2.25)
Fraction(9, 4)
>>> Fraction(1.1)
Fraction(2476979795053773, 2251799813685248)
>>> from decimal import Decimal
>>> Fraction(Decimal('1.1'))
Fraction(11, 10)
```

The `Fraction` class inherits from the abstract base class `numbers.Rational`, and implements all of the methods and operations from that class. `Fraction` instances are hashable, and should be treated as immutable. In addition, `Fraction` has the following methods :

Modifié dans la version 2.7 : Le constructeur de `Fraction` accepte maintenant des instances de `float` et `decimal.Decimal`.

`from_float(flt)`

Cette méthode de classe construit un objet `Fraction` représentant la valeur exacte de `flt`, qui doit être de type `float`. Attention, `Fraction.from_float(0.3)` n'est pas la même valeur que `Fraction(3, 10)`.

Note : From Python 2.7 onwards, you can also construct a `Fraction` instance directly from a `float`.

`from_decimal(dec)`

This class method constructs a *Fraction* representing the exact value of *dec*, which must be a *decimal.Decimal*.

Note : From Python 2.7 onwards, you can also construct a *Fraction* instance directly from a *decimal.Decimal* instance.

`limit_denominator(max_denominator=1000000)`

Trouve et renvoie la *Fraction* la plus proche de `self` qui a au plus *max_denominator* comme dénominateur. Cette méthode est utile pour trouver des approximations rationnelles de nombres flottants donnés :

```
>>> from fractions import Fraction
>>> Fraction('3.1415926535897932').limit_denominator(1000)
Fraction(355, 113)
```

ou pour retrouver un nombre rationnel représenté par un flottant :

```
>>> from math import pi, cos
>>> Fraction(cos(pi/3))
Fraction(4503599627370497, 9007199254740992)
>>> Fraction(cos(pi/3)).limit_denominator()
Fraction(1, 2)
>>> Fraction(1.1).limit_denominator()
Fraction(11, 10)
```

`fractions.gcd(a, b)`

Renvoie le plus grand diviseur commun (PGCD) des entiers *a* et *b*. Si *a* et *b* sont tous deux non nuls, alors la valeur absolue de `gcd(a, b)` est le plus grand entier qui divise à la fois *a* et *b*. `gcd(a,b)` a le même signe que *b* si *b* n'est pas nul ; autrement il prend le signe de *a*. `gcd(0, 0)` renvoie 0.

Voir aussi :

Module *numbers* Les classes abstraites représentant la hiérarchie des nombres.

9.6 random — Generate pseudo-random numbers

Code source : [Lib/random.py](#)

This module implements pseudo-random number generators for various distributions.

For integers, uniform selection from a range. For sequences, uniform selection of a random element, a function to generate a random permutation of a list in-place, and a function for random sampling without replacement.

On the real line, there are functions to compute uniform, normal (Gaussian), lognormal, negative exponential, gamma, and beta distributions. For generating distributions of angles, the von Mises distribution is available.

Almost all module functions depend on the basic function `random()`, which generates a random float uniformly in the semi-open range [0.0, 1.0). Python uses the Mersenne Twister as the core generator. It produces 53-bit precision floats and has a period of $2^{19937}-1$. The underlying implementation in C is both fast and threadsafe. The Mersenne Twister is one of the most extensively tested random number generators in existence. However, being completely deterministic, it is not suitable for all purposes, and is completely unsuitable for cryptographic purposes.

The functions supplied by this module are actually bound methods of a hidden instance of the `random.Random` class. You can instantiate your own instances of `Random` to get generators that don't share state.

This is especially useful for multi-threaded programs, creating a different instance of `Random` for each thread, and using the `jumpahead()` method to make it likely that the generated sequences seen by each thread don't overlap.

Class `Random` can also be subclassed if you want to use a different basic generator of your own devising : in that case, override the `random()`, `seed()`, `getstate()`, `setstate()` and `jumpahead()` methods. Optionally, a new generator can supply a `getrandbits()` method — this allows `randrange()` to produce selections over an arbitrarily large range.

Nouveau dans la version 2.4 : the `getrandbits()` method.

As an example of subclassing, the `random` module provides the `WichmannHill` class that implements an alternative generator in pure Python. The class provides a backward compatible way to reproduce results from earlier versions of Python, which used the Wichmann-Hill algorithm as the core generator. Note that this Wichmann-Hill generator can no longer be recommended : its period is too short by contemporary standards, and the sequence generated is known to fail some stringent randomness tests. See the references below for a recent variant that repairs these flaws.

Modifié dans la version 2.3 : MersenneTwister replaced Wichmann-Hill as the default generator.

The `random` module also provides the `SystemRandom` class which uses the system function `os.urandom()` to generate random numbers from sources provided by the operating system.

Avertissement : The pseudo-random generators of this module should not be used for security purposes. Use `os.urandom()` or `SystemRandom` if you require a cryptographically secure pseudo-random number generator.

Bookkeeping functions :

`random.seed(a=None)`

Initialize internal state of the random number generator.

`None` or no argument seeds from current time or from an operating system specific randomness source if available (see the `os.urandom()` function for details on availability).

If `a` is not `None` or an `int` or a `long`, then `hash(a)` is used instead. Note that the hash values for some types are nondeterministic when `PYTHONHASHSEED` is enabled.

Modifié dans la version 2.4 : formerly, operating system resources were not used.

`random.getstate()`

Return an object capturing the current internal state of the generator. This object can be passed to `setstate()` to restore the state.

Nouveau dans la version 2.1.

Modifié dans la version 2.6 : State values produced in Python 2.6 cannot be loaded into earlier versions.

`random.setstate(state)`

`state` should have been obtained from a previous call to `getstate()`, and `setstate()` restores the internal state of the generator to what it was at the time `getstate()` was called.

Nouveau dans la version 2.1.

`random.jumpahead(n)`

Change the internal state to one different from and likely far away from the current state. `n` is a non-negative integer which is used to scramble the current state vector. This is most useful in multi-threaded programs, in conjunction with multiple instances of the `Random` class : `setstate()` or `seed()` can be used to force all instances into the same internal state, and then `jumpahead()` can be used to force the instances' states far apart.

Nouveau dans la version 2.1.

Modifié dans la version 2.3 : Instead of jumping to a specific state, *n* steps ahead, `jumpahead(n)` jumps to another state likely to be separated by many steps.

`random.getrandbits(k)`

Returns a python *long* int with *k* random bits. This method is supplied with the MersenneTwister generator and some other generators may also provide it as an optional part of the API. When available, `getrandbits()` enables `randrange()` to handle arbitrarily large ranges.

Nouveau dans la version 2.4.

Functions for integers :

`random.randrange(stop)`

`random.randrange(start, stop[, step])`

Return a randomly selected element from `range(start, stop, step)`. This is equivalent to `choice(range(start, stop, step))`, but doesn't actually build a range object.

Nouveau dans la version 1.5.2.

`random.randint(a, b)`

Return a random integer *N* such that `a <= N <= b`.

Functions for sequences :

`random.choice(seq)`

Return a random element from the non-empty sequence *seq*. If *seq* is empty, raises *IndexError*.

`random.shuffle(x[, random])`

Shuffle the sequence *x* in place. The optional argument *random* is a 0-argument function returning a random float in [0.0, 1.0) ; by default, this is the function `random()`.

Note that for even rather small `len(x)`, the total number of permutations of *x* is larger than the period of most random number generators ; this implies that most permutations of a long sequence can never be generated.

`random.sample(population, k)`

Return a *k* length list of unique elements chosen from the population sequence. Used for random sampling without replacement.

Nouveau dans la version 2.3.

Returns a new list containing elements from the population while leaving the original population unchanged. The resulting list is in selection order so that all sub-slices will also be valid random samples. This allows raffle winners (the sample) to be partitioned into grand prize and second place winners (the subslices).

Members of the population need not be *hashable* or unique. If the population contains repeats, then each occurrence is a possible selection in the sample.

To choose a sample from a range of integers, use an `xrange()` object as an argument. This is especially fast and space efficient for sampling from a large population : `sample(xrange(10000000), 60)`.

The following functions generate specific real-valued distributions. 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.

`random.random()`

Return the next random floating point number in the range [0.0, 1.0).

`random.uniform(a, b)`

Return a random floating point number *N* such that `a <= N <= b` for `a <= b` and `b <= N <= a` for `b < a`.

The end-point value *b* may or may not be included in the range depending on floating-point rounding in the equation `a + (b-a) * random()`.

`random.triangular(low, high, mode)`

Return a random floating point number N such that $\text{low} \leq N \leq \text{high}$ and with the specified *mode* between those bounds. The *low* and *high* bounds default to zero and one. The *mode* argument defaults to the midpoint between the bounds, giving a symmetric distribution.

Nouveau dans la version 2.6.

`random.betavariate(alpha, beta)`

Beta distribution. Conditions on the parameters are $\alpha > 0$ and $\beta > 0$. Returned values range between 0 and 1.

`random.expovariate(lambd)`

Exponential distribution. *lambd* is 1.0 divided by the desired mean. It should be nonzero. (The parameter would be called « *lambda* », but that is a reserved word in Python.) Returned values range from 0 to positive infinity if *lambd* is positive, and from negative infinity to 0 if *lambd* is negative.

`random.gammavariate(alpha, beta)`

Gamma distribution. (Not the gamma function!) Conditions on the parameters are $\alpha > 0$ and $\beta > 0$.

The probability distribution function is :

$$\text{pdf}(x) = \frac{x^{(\alpha - 1)} * \text{math.exp}(-x / \beta)}{\text{math.gamma}(\alpha) * \beta^{\alpha}}$$

`random.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.

`random.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.

`random.normalvariate(mu, sigma)`

Normal distribution. *mu* is the mean, and *sigma* is the standard deviation.

`random.vonmisesvariate(mu, kappa)`

mu is the mean angle, expressed in radians between 0 and 2π , and *kappa* is the concentration parameter, which must be greater than or equal to zero. If *kappa* is equal to zero, this distribution reduces to a uniform random angle over the range 0 to 2π .

`random.paretovariate(alpha)`

Pareto distribution. *alpha* is the shape parameter.

`random.weibullvariate(alpha, beta)`

Weibull distribution. *alpha* is the scale parameter and *beta* is the shape parameter.

Alternative Generators :

`class random.WichmannHill([seed])`

Class that implements the Wichmann-Hill algorithm as the core generator. Has all of the same methods as `Random` plus the `whseed()` method described below. Because this class is implemented in pure Python, it is not threadsafe and may require locks between calls. The period of the generator is 6,953,607,871,644 which is small enough to require care that two independent random sequences do not overlap.

`random.whseed([x])`

This is obsolete, supplied for bit-level compatibility with versions of Python prior to 2.1. See `seed()`

for details. `whseed()` does not guarantee that distinct integer arguments yield distinct internal states, and can yield no more than about 2^{24} distinct internal states in all.

class `random.SystemRandom([seed])`

Class that uses the `os.urandom()` function for generating random numbers from sources provided by the operating system. Not available on all systems. Does not rely on software state and sequences are not reproducible. Accordingly, the `seed()` and `jumpahead()` methods have no effect and are ignored. The `getstate()` and `setstate()` methods raise `NotImplementedError` if called.

Nouveau dans la version 2.4.

Examples of basic usage :

```
>>> random.random()           # Random float x, 0.0 <= x < 1.0
0.37444887175646646
>>> random.uniform(1, 10)     # Random float x, 1.0 <= x < 10.0
1.1800146073117523
>>> random.randint(1, 10)     # Integer from 1 to 10, endpoints included
7
>>> random.randrange(0, 101, 2) # Even integer from 0 to 100
26
>>> random.choice('abcdefghij') # Choose a random element
'c'

>>> items = [1, 2, 3, 4, 5, 6, 7]
>>> random.shuffle(items)
>>> items
[7, 3, 2, 5, 6, 4, 1]

>>> random.sample([1, 2, 3, 4, 5], 3) # Choose 3 elements
[4, 1, 5]
```

Voir aussi :

M. Matsumoto and T. Nishimura, « Mersenne Twister : A 623-dimensionally equidistributed uniform pseudorandom number generator », ACM Transactions on Modeling and Computer Simulation Vol. 8, No. 1, January pp.3–30 1998.

Wichmann, B. A. & Hill, I. D., « Algorithm AS 183 : An efficient and portable pseudo-random number generator », Applied Statistics 31 (1982) 188-190.

[Complementary-Multiply-with-Carry](#) recipe for a compatible alternative random number generator with a long period and comparatively simple update operations.

9.7 itertools — Fonctions créant des itérateurs pour boucler efficacement.

Nouveau dans la version 2.3.

Ce module implémente de nombreuses briques *d'itérateurs* inspirées par des constructions de APL, Haskell et SML. Toutes ont été retravaillées dans un format adéquat pour Python.

Ce module standardise un noyau d'outils rapide, efficaces en mémoire qui sont utiles d'eux-mêmes ou en les combinant. Ensemble, ils forment une « algèbre d'itérateurs » rendant possible la construction succincte et efficace d'outils spécialisés en Python seulement.

For instance, SML provides a tabulation tool : `tabulate(f)` which produces a sequence `f(0), f(1), ...`. The same effect can be achieved in Python by combining `imap()` and `count()` to form `imap(f, count())`.

These tools and their built-in counterparts also work well with the high-speed functions in the `operator` module. For example, the multiplication operator can be mapped across two vectors to form an efficient dot-product : `sum(imap(operator.mul, vector1, vector2))`.

Itérateurs infinis :

Itérateur	Argu-ments	Résultats	Exemple
<code>count()</code>	start, [step]	start, start+step, start+2*step, ...	<code>count(10) --> 10 11 12 13 14 ...</code>
<code>cycle()</code>	p	p0, p1, ... plast, p0, p1, ...	<code>cycle('ABCD') --> A B C D A B C D ...</code>
<code>repeat()</code>	elem [n]	<i>elem, elem, elem, ...</i> à l'infini ou jusqu'à n fois	<code>repeat(10, 3) --> 10 10 10</code>

Itérateurs se terminant par la séquence d'entrée la plus courte :

Itérateur	Arguments	Résultats	Exemple
<code>chain()</code>	p, q, ...	p0, p1, ... plast, q0, q1, ...	<code>chain('ABC', 'DEF') --> A B C D E F</code>
<code>compress()</code>	data, selectors	(d[0] if s[0]), (d[1] if s[1]), ...	<code>compress('ABCDEF', [1,0,1,0,1,1]) --> A C E F</code>
<code>dropwhile()</code>	pred, seq	<code>seq[n]</code> , <code>seq[n+1]</code> , commençant quand <i>pred</i> échoue	<code>dropwhile(lambda x: x<5, [1,4,6,4,1]) --> 6 4 1</code>
<code>groupby()</code>	iterable[, key-func]	sous-itérateurs groupés par la valeur de <i>keyfunc(v)</i>	
<code>ifilter()</code>	pred, seq	elements of seq where <i>pred(elem)</i> is true	<code>ifilter(lambda x: x%2, range(10)) --> 1 3 5 7 9</code>
<code>ifilterfalse()</code>	pred, seq	éléments de <i>seq</i> quand <i>pred(elem)</i> est faux	<code>ifilterfalse(lambda x: x%2, range(10)) --> 0 2 4 6 8</code>
<code>islice()</code>	seq, [start,] stop [, step]	éléments de <code>seq[start:stop:step]</code>	<code>islice('ABCDEFGH', 2, None) --> C D E F G</code>
<code>imap()</code>	func, p, q, ...	<code>func(p0, q0)</code> , <code>func(p1, q1)</code> , ...	<code>imap(pow, (2,3,10), (5,2,3)) --> 32 9 1000</code>
<code>starmap()</code>	func, seq	<code>func(*seq[0])</code> , <code>func(*seq[1])</code> , ...	<code>starmap(pow, [(2,5), (3,2), (10,3)]) --> 32 9 1000</code>
<code>tee()</code>	it, n	<i>it1</i> , <i>it2</i> , ... <i>itn</i> sépare un itérateur en <i>n</i>	
<code>takewhile()</code>	pred, seq	<code>seq[0]</code> , <code>seq[1]</code> , jusqu'à ce que <i>pred</i> échoue	<code>takewhile(lambda x: x<5, [1,4,6,4,1]) --> 1 4</code>
<code>izip()</code>	p, q, ...	(p[0], q[0]), (p[1], q[1]), ...	<code>izip('ABCD', 'xy') --> Ax By</code>
<code>izip_longest()</code>	p, q, ...	(p[0], q[0]), (p[1], q[1]), ...	<code>izip_longest('ABCD', 'xy', fillvalue='-') --> Ax By C- D-</code>

Générateurs combinatoires :

Itérateur	Arguments	Résultats
<code>product()</code>	<code>p, q, ... [repeat=1]</code>	produit cartésien, équivalent à une boucle <i>for</i> imbriquée
<code>permutations()</code>	<code>p[, r]</code>	<i>tuples</i> de longueur <i>r</i> , tous les ré-arrangements possibles, sans répétition d'éléments
<code>combinations()</code>	<code>p, r</code>	tuples de longueur <i>r</i> , triés, sans répétition d'éléments
<code>combinations_with_replacement()</code>	<code>p, r</code>	tuples de longueur <i>r</i> , triés, avec répétition d'éléments
<code>product('ABCD', repeat=2)</code>		AA AB AC AD BA BB BC BD CA CB CC CD DA DB DC DD
<code>permutations('ABCD', 2)</code>		AB AC AD BA BC BD CA CB CD DA DB DC
<code>combinations('ABCD', 2)</code>		AB AC AD BC BD CD
<code>combinations_with_replacement('ABCD', 2)</code>		AA AB AC AD BB BC BD CC CD DD

9.7.1 Fonctions d'*itertools*

Toutes les fonctions de module qui suivent construisent et renvoient des itérateurs. Certaines fournissent des flux de longueur infinie, elles devraient seulement être accédées par des fonctions ou boucles qui tronquent le flux.

`itertools.chain(*iterables)`

Créer un itérateur qui renvoie les éléments du premier itérable jusqu'à son épuisement, puis continue avec l'itérable suivant jusqu'à ce que tous les itérables soient épuisés. Utilisée pour traiter des séquences consécutives comme une seule séquence. Sensiblement équivalente à :

```
def chain(*iterables):
    # chain('ABC', 'DEF') --> A B C D E F
    for it in iterables:
        for element in it:
            yield element
```

`classmethod chain.from_iterable(iterable)`

Constructeur alternatif pour `chain()`. Récupère des entrées chaînées d'un unique argument itérable qui est évalué de manière paresseuse. Sensiblement équivalente à :

```
def from_iterable(iterables):
    # chain.from_iterable(['ABC', 'DEF']) --> A B C D E F
    for it in iterables:
        for element in it:
            yield element
```

Nouveau dans la version 2.6.

`itertools.combinations(iterable, r)`

Renvoyer les sous-séquences de longueur *r* de l'itérable *iterable*.

Les combinaisons sont émises dans l'ordre lexicographique. Ainsi, si l'itérable *iterable* est trié, les *tuples* de combinaison seront produits dans l'ordre.

Les éléments sont considérés comme uniques en fonction de leur position, et non pas de leur valeur. Ainsi, si les éléments en entrée sont uniques, il n'y aura pas de valeurs répétées dans chaque combinaison. Sensiblement équivalent à :

```
def combinations(iterable, r):
    # combinations('ABCD', 2) --> AB AC AD BC BD CD
    # combinations(range(4), 3) --> 012 013 023 123
```

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```

pool = tuple(iterable)
n = len(pool)
if r > n:
    return
indices = range(r)
yield tuple(pool[i] for i in indices)
while True:
    for i in reversed(range(r)):
        if indices[i] != i + n - r:
            break
    else:
        return
    indices[i] += 1
    for j in range(i+1, r):
        indices[j] = indices[j-1] + 1
    yield tuple(pool[i] for i in indices)

```

Le code de `combinations()` peut aussi être exprimé comme une sous-séquence de `permutations()` après avoir filtré les entrées dont les éléments ne sont pas triés (selon leur position dans le *pool* d'entrée) :

```

def combinations(iterable, r):
    pool = tuple(iterable)
    n = len(pool)
    for indices in permutations(range(n), r):
        if sorted(indices) == list(indices):
            yield tuple(pool[i] for i in indices)

```

Le nombre d'éléments renvoyés est $n! / r! / (n-r)!$ quand $0 \leq r \leq n$ ou zéro quand $r > n$.
Nouveau dans la version 2.6.

`itertools.combinations_with_replacement(iterable, r)`

Renvoyer les sous-séquences de longueur *r* des éléments de l'itérable *iterable* d'entrée, permettant aux éléments individuels d'être répétés plus d'une fois.

Les combinaisons sont émises dans l'ordre lexicographique. Ainsi, si l'itérable *iterable* est trié, les *tuples* de combinaison seront produits dans l'ordre.

Les éléments sont considérés comme uniques en fonction de leur position, et non pas de leur valeur. Ainsi si les éléments d'entrée sont uniques, les combinaisons générées seront aussi uniques.

Sensiblement équivalent à :

```

def combinations_with_replacement(iterable, r):
    # combinations_with_replacement('ABC', 2) --> AA AB AC BB BC CC
    pool = tuple(iterable)
    n = len(pool)
    if not n and r:
        return
    indices = [0] * r
    yield tuple(pool[i] for i in indices)
    while True:
        for i in reversed(range(r)):
            if indices[i] != n - 1:
                break
        else:
            return
        indices[i] += 1

```

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```
indices[i:] = [indices[i] + 1] * (r - i)
yield tuple(pool[i] for i in indices)
```

Le code pour `combinations_with_replacement()` peut aussi être exprimé comme une sous-séquence de `product()` après avoir filtré les entrées où les éléments ne sont pas dans triés (selon leur position dans le *pool* d'entrée) :

```
def combinations_with_replacement(iterable, r):
    pool = tuple(iterable)
    n = len(pool)
    for indices in product(range(n), repeat=r):
        if sorted(indices) == list(indices):
            yield tuple(pool[i] for i in indices)
```

Le nombre d'éléments renvoyés est $(n+r-1)! / r! / (n-1)!$ quand $n > 0$.

Nouveau dans la version 2.7.

`itertools.compress(data, selectors)`

Créer un itérateur qui filtre les éléments de *data*, renvoyant seulement ceux qui ont un élément correspondant dans *selectors* qui évalue à `True`. S'arrête quand l'itérable *data* ou *selectors* a été épuisé. Sensiblement équivalent à :

```
def compress(data, selectors):
    # compress('ABCDEF', [1,0,1,0,1,1]) --> A C E F
    return (d for d, s in izip(data, selectors) if s)
```

Nouveau dans la version 2.7.

`itertools.count(start=0, step=1)`

Make an iterator that returns evenly spaced values starting with *n*. Often used as an argument to `imap()` to generate consecutive data points. Also, used with `izip()` to add sequence numbers. Equivalent to :

```
def count(start=0, step=1):
    # count(10) --> 10 11 12 13 14 ...
    # count(2.5, 0.5) -> 2.5 3.0 3.5 ...
    n = start
    while True:
        yield n
        n += step
```

Quand on compte avec des nombres à virgule flottante, il est parfois possible d'obtenir une meilleure précision en substituant du code multiplicateur comme : `(start + step * i for i in count())`.

Modifié dans la version 2.7 : added *step* argument and allowed non-integer arguments.

`itertools.cycle(iterable)`

Créer un itérateur qui renvoie les éléments de l'itérable et qui sauvegarde une copie de chaque. Quand l'itérable est épuisé, renvoyer les éléments depuis la copie sauvegardée. Répète à l'infini. Sensiblement équivalent à :

```
def cycle(iterable):
    # cycle('ABCD') --> A B C D A B C D A B C D ...
    saved = []
    for element in iterable:
        yield element
        saved.append(element)
```

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```

while saved:
    for element in saved:
        yield element

```

Note, cette fonction pourrait avoir besoin d'un stockage auxiliaire important (en fonction de la longueur de l'itérable).

`itertools.dropwhile(predicate, iterable)`

Créer un itérateur qui saute les éléments de l'itérable tant que le prédicat est vrai ; ensuite, renvoyer chaque élément. Note, l'itérateur ne produit *aucune* sortie avant que le prédicat ne devienne faux, il peut donc avoir un temps de démarrage long. Sensiblement équivalent à :

```

def dropwhile(predicate, iterable):
    # dropwhile(lambda x: x<5, [1,4,6,4,1]) --> 6 4 1
    iterable = iter(iterable)
    for x in iterable:
        if not predicate(x):
            yield x
            break
    for x in iterable:
        yield x

```

`itertools.groupby(iterable[, key])`

Créer un itérateur qui renvoie les clés et les groupes de l'itérable *iterable*. La clé *key* est une fonction qui génère une clé pour chaque élément. Si *key* n'est pas spécifié ou est `None`, elle vaut par défaut une fonction d'identité qui renvoie l'élément sans le modifier. Généralement, l'itérable a besoin d'être déjà trié selon cette même fonction de clé.

L'opération de `groupby()` est similaire au filtre `uniq` dans Unix. Elle génère un nouveau groupe à chaque fois que la valeur de la fonction *key* change (ce pourquoi il est souvent nécessaire d'avoir trié les données selon la même fonction de clé). Ce comportement est différent de celui de GROUP BY de SQL qui agrège les éléments sans prendre compte de leur ordre d'entrée.

Le groupe renvoyé est lui-même un itérateur qui partage l'itérable sous-jacent avec `groupby()`. Puisque que la source est partagée, quand l'objet `groupby()` est avancé, le groupe précédent n'est plus visible. Ainsi, si cette donnée doit être utilisée plus tard, elle devrait être stockée comme une liste :

```

groups = []
uniquekeys = []
data = sorted(data, key=keyfunc)
for k, g in groupby(data, keyfunc):
    groups.append(list(g))      # Store group iterator as a list
    uniquekeys.append(k)

```

`groupby()` est sensiblement équivalent à :

```

class groupby(object):
    # [k for k, g in groupby('AAAABBBCCDAABBB')] --> A B C D A B
    # [list(g) for k, g in groupby('AAAABBBCCD')] --> AAAA BBB CC D
    def __init__(self, iterable, key=None):
        if key is None:
            key = lambda x: x
        self.keyfunc = key
        self.it = iter(iterable)
        self.tgtkey = self.currkey = self.currvalue = object()

```

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```

def __iter__(self):
    return self
def next(self):
    while self.currkey == self.tgtkey:
        self.currvalue = next(self.it)      # Exit on StopIteration
        self.currkey = self.keyfunc(self.currvalue)
    self.tgtkey = self.currkey
    return (self.currkey, self._grouper(self.tgtkey))
def _grouper(self, tgtkey):
    while self.currkey == tgtkey:
        yield self.currvalue
        self.currvalue = next(self.it)      # Exit on StopIteration
        self.currkey = self.keyfunc(self.currvalue)

```

Nouveau dans la version 2.4.

`itertools.ifilter(predicate, iterable)`

Make an iterator that filters elements from *iterable* returning only those for which the predicate is True. If *predicate* is None, return the items that are true. Roughly equivalent to :

```

def ifilter(predicate, iterable):
    # ifilter(lambda x: x%2, range(10)) --> 1 3 5 7 9
    if predicate is None:
        predicate = bool
    for x in iterable:
        if predicate(x):
            yield x

```

`itertools.ifilterfalse(predicate, iterable)`

Créer un itérateur qui filtre les éléments de *iterable*, ne renvoyant seulement ceux pour lesquels le prédicat est Faux. Si *predicate* vaut None, renvoyer les éléments qui sont faux. Sensiblement équivalent à :

```

def ifilterfalse(predicate, iterable):
    # ifilterfalse(lambda x: x%2, range(10)) --> 0 2 4 6 8
    if predicate is None:
        predicate = bool
    for x in iterable:
        if not predicate(x):
            yield x

```

`itertools.imap(function, *iterables)`

Make an iterator that computes the function using arguments from each of the iterables. If *function* is set to None, then *imap()* returns the arguments as a tuple. Like *map()* but stops when the shortest iterable is exhausted instead of filling in None for shorter iterables. The reason for the difference is that infinite iterator arguments are typically an error for *map()* (because the output is fully evaluated) but represent a common and useful way of supplying arguments to *imap()*. Roughly equivalent to :

```

def imap(function, *iterables):
    # imap(pow, (2,3,10), (5,2,3)) --> 32 9 1000
    iterables = map(iter, iterables)
    while True:
        args = [next(it) for it in iterables]

```

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```

if function is None:
    yield tuple(args)
else:
    yield function(*args)

```

`itertools.islice(iterable, stop)`

`itertools.islice(iterable, start, stop[, step])`

Créer un itérateur qui renvoie les éléments sélectionnés de l'itérable. Si *start* est non-nul, alors les éléments de l'itérable sont sautés jusqu'à ce que *start* soit atteint. Ensuite, les éléments sont renvoyés consécutivement sauf si *step* est plus grand que 1, auquel cas certains éléments seront sautés. Si *stop* est `None`, alors l'itération continue jusqu'à ce que l'itérateur soit épuisé s'il ne l'est pas déjà ; sinon, il s'arrête à la position spécifiée. À la différence du *slicing* standard, `slice()` ne supporte pas les valeurs négatives pour *start*, *stop* ou *step*. Peut être utilisée pour extraire les champs apparentés depuis des données dont la structure interne a été aplatie (par exemple, un rapport multi-ligne pourrait lister un nom de champ toutes les trois lignes). Sensiblement similaire à :

```

def islice(iterable, *args):
    # islice('ABCDEFGH', 2) --> A B
    # islice('ABCDEFGH', 2, 4) --> C D
    # islice('ABCDEFGH', 2, None) --> C D E F G
    # islice('ABCDEFGH', 0, None, 2) --> A C E G
    s = slice(*args)
    start, stop, step = s.start or 0, s.stop or sys.maxint, s.step or 1
    it = iter(xrange(start, stop, step))
    try:
        nexti = next(it)
    except StopIteration:
        # Consume *iterable* up to the *start* position.
        for i, element in izip(xrange(start), iterable):
            pass
        return
    try:
        for i, element in enumerate(iterable):
            if i == nexti:
                yield element
                nexti = next(it)
    except StopIteration:
        # Consume to *stop*.
        for i, element in izip(xrange(i + 1, stop), iterable):
            pass

```

Si *start* vaut `None`, alors l'itération commence à zéro. Si *step* vaut `None`, alors le pas est à 1 par défaut. Modifié dans la version 2.5 : accept `None` values for default *start* and *step*.

`itertools.izip(*iterables)`

Make an iterator that aggregates elements from each of the iterables. Like `zip()` except that it returns an iterator instead of a list. Used for lock-step iteration over several iterables at a time. Roughly equivalent to :

```

def izip(*iterables):
    # izip('ABCD', 'xy') --> Ax By
    iterators = map(iter, iterables)
    while iterators:

```

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```
yield tuple(map(next, iterators))
```

Modifié dans la version 2.4 : When no iterables are specified, returns a zero length iterator instead of raising a *TypeError* exception.

The left-to-right evaluation order of the iterables is guaranteed. This makes possible an idiom for clustering a data series into n-length groups using `izip(*[iter(s)]*n)`.

`izip()` should only be used with unequal length inputs when you don't care about trailing, unmatched values from the longer iterables. If those values are important, use `izip_longest()` instead.

`itertools.izip_longest(*iterables[, fillvalue])`

Créer un itérateur qui agrège les éléments de chacun des itérables. Si les itérables sont de longueurs différentes, les valeurs manquantes sont remplacées par *fillvalue*. L'itération continue jusqu'à ce que l'itérable le plus long soit épuisé. Sensiblement équivalent à :

```
class ZipExhausted(Exception):
    pass

def izip_longest(*args, **kwargs):
    # izip_longest('ABCD', 'xy', fillvalue='-') --> Ax By C- D-
    fillvalue = kwargs.get('fillvalue')
    counter = [len(args) - 1]
    def sentinel():
        if not counter[0]:
            raise ZipExhausted
        counter[0] -= 1
        yield fillvalue
    fillers = repeat(fillvalue)
    iterators = [chain(it, sentinel(), fillers) for it in args]
    try:
        while iterators:
            yield tuple(map(next, iterators))
    except ZipExhausted:
        pass
```

If one of the iterables is potentially infinite, then the `izip_longest()` function should be wrapped with something that limits the number of calls (for example `islice()` or `takewhile()`). If not specified, *fillvalue* defaults to `None`.

Nouveau dans la version 2.6.

`itertools.permutations(iterable[, r])`

Renvoyer les permutations successives de longueur *r* des éléments de *iterable*.

Si *r* n'est pas spécifié ou vaut `None`, alors *r* a pour valeur la longueur de *iterable* et toutes les permutations de longueur *r* possibles sont générées.

Les permutations sont émises dans l'ordre lexicographique. Ainsi, si l'itérable d'entrée *iterable* est trié, les *tuples* de permutation seront produits dans l'ordre.

Les éléments sont considérés comme uniques en fonction de leur position, et non pas de leur valeur. Ainsi, si l'élément est unique, il n'y aura pas de valeurs répétées dans chaque permutation.

Sensiblement équivalent à :

```
def permutations(iterable, r=None):
    # permutations('ABCD', 2) --> AB AC AD BA BC BD CA CB CD DA DB DC
    # permutations(range(3)) --> 012 021 102 120 201 210
    pool = tuple(iterable)
```

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```

n = len(pool)
r = n if r is None else r
if r > n:
    return
indices = range(n)
cycles = range(n, n-r, -1)
yield tuple(pool[i] for i in indices[:r])
while n:
    for i in reversed(range(r)):
        cycles[i] -= 1
        if cycles[i] == 0:
            indices[i:] = indices[i+1:] + indices[i:i+1]
            cycles[i] = n - i
        else:
            j = cycles[i]
            indices[i], indices[-j] = indices[-j], indices[i]
            yield tuple(pool[i] for i in indices[:r])
            break
    else:
        return

```

Le code pour `permutations()` peut aussi être exprimé comme une sous-séquence de `product()`, filtré pour exclure les entrées avec des éléments répétés (celles de la même position dans la *pool* d'entrée) :

```

def permutations(iterable, r=None):
    pool = tuple(iterable)
    n = len(pool)
    r = n if r is None else r
    for indices in product(range(n), repeat=r):
        if len(set(indices)) == r:
            yield tuple(pool[i] for i in indices)

```

Le nombre d'éléments renvoyés est $n! / (n-r)!$ quand $0 \leq r \leq n$ ou zéro quand $r > n$.

Nouveau dans la version 2.6.

`itertools.product(*iterables[, repeat])`

Produit cartésien des itérables d'entrée.

Sensiblement équivalent à des boucles *for* imbriquées dans une expression de générateur. Par exemple `product(A, B)` renvoie la même chose que `((x, y) for x in A for y in B)`.

Les boucles imbriquées tournent comme un compteur kilométrique avec l'élément le plus à droite avançant à chaque itération. ce motif crée un tri lexicographique afin que si les itérables de l'entrée sont triés, les *tuples* de produit sont émis dans l'ordre.

Pour générer le produit d'un itérable avec lui-même, spécifier le nombre de répétitions avec le paramètre nommé optionnel *repeat*. Par exemple, `product(A, repeat=4)` veut dire la même chose que `product(A, A, A, A)`.

Cette fonction est sensiblement équivalente au code suivant, sauf que la vraie implémentation ne crée pas les résultats intermédiaires en mémoire :

```

def product(*args, **kwargs):
    # product('ABCD', 'xy') --> Ax Ay Bx By Cx Cy Dx Dy
    # product(range(2), repeat=3) --> 000 001 010 011 100 101 110 111
    pools = map(tuple, args) * kwargs.get('repeat', 1)
    result = [[]]

```

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```

for pool in pools:
    result = [x+[y] for x in result for y in pool]
for prod in result:
    yield tuple(prod)

```

Nouveau dans la version 2.6.

`itertools.repeat(object[, times])`

Make an iterator that returns *object* over and over again. Runs indefinitely unless the *times* argument is specified. Used as argument to *imap()* for invariant function parameters. Also used with *izip()* to create constant fields in a tuple record. Roughly equivalent to :

```

def repeat(object, times=None):
    # repeat(10, 3) --> 10 10 10
    if times is None:
        while True:
            yield object
    else:
        for i in xrange(times):
            yield object

```

A common use for *repeat* is to supply a stream of constant values to *imap* or *zip* :

```

>>> list(imap(pow, xrange(10), repeat(2)))
[0, 1, 4, 9, 16, 25, 36, 49, 64, 81]

```

`itertools.starmap(function, iterable)`

Make an iterator that computes the function using arguments obtained from the iterable. Used instead of *imap()* when argument parameters are already grouped in tuples from a single iterable (the data has been « pre-zipped »). The difference between *imap()* and *starmap()* parallels the distinction between *function(a,b)* and *function(*c)*. Roughly equivalent to :

```

def starmap(function, iterable):
    # starmap(pow, [(2,5), (3,2), (10,3)]) --> 32 9 1000
    for args in iterable:
        yield function(*args)

```

Modifié dans la version 2.6 : Previously, *starmap()* required the function arguments to be tuples. Now, any iterable is allowed.

`itertools.takewhile(predicate, iterable)`

Créer un itérateur qui renvoie les éléments d'un itérable tant que le prédicat est vrai. Sensiblement équivalent à :

```

def takewhile(predicate, iterable):
    # takewhile(lambda x: x<5, [1,4,6,4,1]) --> 1 4
    for x in iterable:
        if predicate(x):
            yield x
        else:
            break

```

`itertools.tee(iterable[, n=2])`

Return *n* independent iterators from a single iterable. Roughly equivalent to :

```
def tee(iterable, n=2):
    it = iter(iterable)
    deques = [collections.deque() for i in range(n)]
    def gen(mydeque):
        while True:
            if not mydeque:          # when the local deque is empty
                newval = next(it)    # fetch a new value and
                for d in deques:    # load it to all the deques
                    d.append(newval)
            yield mydeque.popleft()
    return tuple(gen(d) for d in deques)
```

Une fois que `tee()` a créé un branchement, l'itérable *iterable* ne devrait être utilisé nulle part ailleurs ; sinon, *iterable* pourrait être avancé sans que les objets *tee* soient informés.

Cet outil pourrait avoir besoin d'un stockage auxiliaire important (en fonction de la taille des données temporaires nécessaires). En général, si un itérateur utilise la majorité ou toute la donnée avant qu'un autre itérateur ne commence, il est plus rapide d'utiliser `list()` à la place de `tee()`.

Nouveau dans la version 2.4.

9.7.2 Cas pratiques

Cette section montre des recettes pour créer une boîte à outil étendue en se servant des *itertools* existants comme de briques.

Ces outils dérivés offrent la même bonne performance que les outils sous-jacents. La performance mémoire supérieure est gardée en traitant les éléments un à la fois plutôt que de charger tout l'itérable en mémoire en même temps. Le volume de code reste bas grâce à un chaînage de style fonctionnel qui aide à éliminer des variables temporaires. La grande vitesse est gardée en préférant les briques « vectorisées » plutôt que les boucles *for* et les *générateurs* qui engendrent du sur-coût de traitement.

```
def take(n, iterable):
    "Return first n items of the iterable as a list"
    return list(islice(iterable, n))

def tabulate(function, start=0):
    "Return function(0), function(1), ..."
    return imap(function, count(start))

def consume(iterator, n=None):
    "Advance the iterator n-steps ahead. If n is None, consume entirely."
    # Use functions that consume iterators at C speed.
    if n is None:
        # feed the entire iterator into a zero-length deque
        collections.deque(iterator, maxlen=0)
    else:
        # advance to the empty slice starting at position n
        next(islice(iterator, n, n), None)

def nth(iterable, n, default=None):
    "Returns the nth item or a default value"
    return next(islice(iterable, n, None), default)

def all_equal(iterable):
    "Returns True if all the elements are equal to each other"
```

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```

g = groupby(iterable)
return next(g, True) and not next(g, False)

def quantify(iterable, pred=bool):
    "Count how many times the predicate is true"
    return sum(imap(pred, iterable))

def padnone(iterable):
    """Returns the sequence elements and then returns None indefinitely.

    Useful for emulating the behavior of the built-in map() function.
    """
    return chain(iterable, repeat(None))

def ncycles(iterable, n):
    "Returns the sequence elements n times"
    return chain.from_iterable(repeat(tuple(iterable), n))

def dotproduct(vec1, vec2):
    return sum(imap(operator.mul, vec1, vec2))

def flatten(listOfLists):
    "Flatten one level of nesting"
    return chain.from_iterable(listOfLists)

def repeatfunc(func, times=None, *args):
    """Repeat calls to func with specified arguments.

    Example:  repeatfunc(random.random)
    """
    if times is None:
        return starmap(func, repeat(args))
    return starmap(func, repeat(args, times))

def pairwise(iterable):
    "s -> (s0,s1), (s1,s2), (s2, s3), ..."
    a, b = tee(iterable)
    next(b, None)
    return izip(a, b)

def grouper(iterable, n, fillvalue=None):
    "Collect data into fixed-length chunks or blocks"
    # grouper('ABCDEFG', 3, 'x') --> ABC DEF Gxx
    args = [iter(iterable)] * n
    return izip_longest(fillvalue=fillvalue, *args)

def roundrobin(*iterables):
    "roundrobin('ABC', 'D', 'EF') --> A D E B F C"
    # Recipe credited to George Sakkis
    pending = len(iterables)
    nexts = cycle(iter(it).next for it in iterables)
    while pending:

```

(suite sur la page suivante)

(suite de la page précédente)

```

    try:
        for next in nexts:
            yield next()
    except StopIteration:
        pending -= 1
        nexts = cycle(islice(nexts, pending))

def powerset(iterable):
    "powerset([1,2,3]) --> () (1,) (2,) (3,) (1,2) (1,3) (2,3) (1,2,3)"
    s = list(iterable)
    return chain.from_iterable(combinations(s, r) for r in range(len(s)+1))

def unique_everseen(iterable, key=None):
    "List unique elements, preserving order. Remember all elements ever seen."
    # unique_everseen('AAAABBBCCDAABBB') --> A B C D
    # unique_everseen('ABBCcAD', str.lower) --> A B C D
    seen = set()
    seen_add = seen.add
    if key is None:
        for element in ifilterfalse(seen.__contains__, iterable):
            seen_add(element)
            yield element
    else:
        for element in iterable:
            k = key(element)
            if k not in seen:
                seen_add(k)
                yield element

def unique_justseen(iterable, key=None):
    "List unique elements, preserving order. Remember only the element just seen."
    # unique_justseen('AAAABBBCCDAABBB') --> A B C D A B
    # unique_justseen('ABBCcAD', str.lower) --> A B C A D
    return imap(next, imap(itemgetter(1), groupby(iterable, key)))

def iter_except(func, exception, first=None):
    """ Call a function repeatedly until an exception is raised.

    Converts a call-until-exception interface to an iterator interface.
    Like __builtin__.iter(func, sentinel) but uses an exception instead
    of a sentinel to end the loop.

    Examples:
    bsddbiter = iter_except(db.next, bsddb.error, db.first)
    heapiter = iter_except(functools.partial(heapop, h), IndexError)
    dictiter = iter_except(d.popitem, KeyError)
    dequeiter = iter_except(d.popleft, IndexError)
    queueiter = iter_except(q.get_nowait, Queue.Empty)
    setiter = iter_except(s.pop, KeyError)

    """
    try:

```

(suite sur la page suivante)

(suite de la page précédente)

```

        if first is not None:
            yield first()
        while 1:
            yield func()
    except exception:
        pass

def random_product(*args, **kwargs):
    "Random selection from itertools.product(*args, **kwargs)"
    pools = map(tuple, args) * kwargs.get('repeat', 1)
    return tuple(random.choice(pool) for pool in pools)

def random_permutation(iterable, r=None):
    "Random selection from itertools.permutations(iterable, r)"
    pool = tuple(iterable)
    r = len(pool) if r is None else r
    return tuple(random.sample(pool, r))

def random_combination(iterable, r):
    "Random selection from itertools.combinations(iterable, r)"
    pool = tuple(iterable)
    n = len(pool)
    indices = sorted(random.sample(xrange(n), r))
    return tuple(pool[i] for i in indices)

def random_combination_with_replacement(iterable, r):
    "Random selection from itertools.combinations_with_replacement(iterable, r)"
    pool = tuple(iterable)
    n = len(pool)
    indices = sorted(random.randrange(n) for i in xrange(r))
    return tuple(pool[i] for i in indices)

def tee_lookahead(t, i):
    """Inspect the i-th upcoming value from a tee object
       while leaving the tee object at its current position.

       Raise an IndexError if the underlying iterator doesn't
       have enough values.

    """
    for value in islice(t.__copy__(), i, None):
        return value
    raise IndexError(i)

```

Note, beaucoup des recettes ci-dessus peuvent être optimisées en remplaçant les recherches globales par des recherches locales avec des variables locales définies comme des valeurs par défaut. Par exemple, la recette *dotproduct* peut être écrite comme :

```

def dotproduct(vec1, vec2, sum=sum, imap=imap, mul=operator.mul):
    return sum(imap(mul, vec1, vec2))

```

9.8 functools — Fonctions de haut niveau et opérations sur des objets appelables

Nouveau dans la version 2.5.

Code source : [Lib/functools.py](#)

Le module *functools* est utilisé pour des fonctions de haut niveau : des fonctions qui agissent sur ou renvoient d'autres fonctions. En général, tout objet callable peut être utilisé comme une fonction pour les besoins de ce module.

Le module *functools* définit les fonctions suivantes :

functools.cmp_to_key(func)

Transform an old-style comparison function to a *key function*. Used with tools that accept key functions (such as *sorted()*, *min()*, *max()*, *heapq.nlargest()*, *heapq.nsmallest()*, *itertools.groupby()*). This function is primarily used as a transition tool for programs being converted to Python 3 where comparison functions are no longer supported.

Une fonction de comparaison est un callable qui prend deux arguments, les compare, et renvoie un nombre négatif pour l'infériorité, zéro pour l'égalité ou un nombre positif pour la supériorité. Une fonction de clé est un callable qui prend un argument et retourne une autre valeur qui sera utilisée comme clé de tri.

Exemple :

```
sorted(iterable, key=cmp_to_key(locale.strcoll)) # locale-aware sort order
```

Pour des exemples de tris et un bref tutoriel, consultez [sortinghowto](#).

Nouveau dans la version 2.7.

functools.total_ordering(cls)

A partir d'une classe définissant une ou plusieurs méthodes de comparaison riches, ce décorateur de classe fournit le reste. Ceci simplifie l'effort à fournir dans la spécification de toutes les opérations de comparaison riche :

La classe doit définir au moins une de ces méthodes *__lt__()*, *__le__()*, *__gt__()*, or *__ge__()*. De plus, la classe doit fournir une méthode *__eq__()*.

Par exemple :

```
@total_ordering
class Student:
    def __eq__(self, other):
        return ((self.lastname.lower(), self.firstname.lower()) ==
                (other.lastname.lower(), other.firstname.lower()))
    def __lt__(self, other):
        return ((self.lastname.lower(), self.firstname.lower()) <
                (other.lastname.lower(), other.firstname.lower()))
```

Nouveau dans la version 2.7.

functools.reduce(function, iterable[, initializer])

This is the same function as *reduce()*. It is made available in this module to allow writing code more forward-compatible with Python 3.

Nouveau dans la version 2.6.

functools.partial(func[, *args][, **keywords])

Return a new *partial object* which when called will behave like *func* called with the positional arguments

args and keyword arguments *keywords*. If more arguments are supplied to the call, they are appended to *args*. If additional keyword arguments are supplied, they extend and override *keywords*. Roughly equivalent to :

```
def partial(func, *args, **keywords):
    def newfunc(*fargs, **fkeywords):
        newkeywords = keywords.copy()
        newkeywords.update(fkeywords)
        return func(*(args + fargs), **newkeywords)
    newfunc.func = func
    newfunc.args = args
    newfunc.keywords = keywords
    return newfunc
```

partial() est utilisé pour une application de fonction partielle qui « gèle » une portion des arguments et/ou mots-clés d'une fonction donnant un nouvel objet avec une signature simplifiée. Par exemple, *partial()* peut être utilisé pour créer un callable qui se comporte comme la fonction *int()* ou l'argument *base* est deux par défaut :

```
>>> from functools import partial
>>> basetwo = partial(int, base=2)
>>> basetwo.__doc__ = 'Convert base 2 string to an int.'
>>> basetwo('10010')
18
```

functools.update_wrapper(wrapper, wrapped[, assigned][, updated])

Update a *wrapper* function to look like the *wrapped* function. The optional arguments are tuples to specify which attributes of the original function are assigned directly to the matching attributes on the wrapper function and which attributes of the wrapper function are updated with the corresponding attributes from the original function. The default values for these arguments are the module level constants *WRAPPER_ASSIGNMENTS* (which assigns to the wrapper function's *__name__*, *__module__* and *__doc__*, the documentation string) and *WRAPPER_UPDATES* (which updates the wrapper function's *__dict__*, i.e. the instance dictionary).

La principale utilisation de cette fonction est dans les *décorateurs* qui renvoient une nouvelle fonction. Si la fonction créée n'est pas mise à jour, ses métadonnées reflèteront sa définition dans le décorateur, au lieu de la définition originale, métadonnées souvent bien moins utiles.

functools.wraps(wrapped[, assigned][, updated])

Ceci est une fonction d'aide pour appeler *update_wrapper()* comme décorateur de fonction lors de la définition d'une fonction englobante. C'est équivalent à *partial(update_wrapper, wrapped=wrapped, assigned=assigned, updated=updated)*. Par exemple :

```
>>> from functools import wraps
>>> def my_decorator(f):
...     @wraps(f)
...     def wrapper(*args, **kwds):
...         print 'Calling decorated function'
...         return f(*args, **kwds)
...     return wrapper
...
>>> @my_decorator
... def example():
...     """Docstring"""
...     print 'Called example function'
... 
```

(suite sur la page suivante)

(suite de la page précédente)

```
>>> example()
Calling decorated function
Called example function
>>> example.__name__
'example'
>>> example.__doc__
'Docstring'
```

Sans l'utilisation de cette usine à décorateur, le nom de la fonction d'exemple aurait été `'wrapper'`, et la chaîne de documentation de la fonction `example()` originale aurait été perdue.

9.8.1 Objets *partial*

Les objets *partial* sont des objets appelables créés par *partial()*. Ils ont trois attributs en lecture seule :

partial.func

Un objet ou une fonction callable. Les appels à l'objet *partial* seront transmis à *func* avec les nouveaux arguments et mots-clés.

partial.args

Les arguments positionnels qui seront ajoutés avant les arguments fournis lors de l'appel d'un objet *partial*.

partial.keywords

Les arguments nommés qui seront fournis quand l'objet *partial* est appelé.

Les objets *partial* sont comme des objets *function* de par le fait qu'il sont appelables, référençables, et peuvent avoir des attributs. Il y a cependant des différences importantes. Par exemple, les attributs `__name__` et `__doc__` ne sont pas créés automatiquement. De plus, les objets *partial* définis dans les classes se comportent comme des méthodes statiques et ne se transforment pas en méthodes liées durant la recherche d'attributs dans l'instance.

9.9 operator — Standard operators as functions

The *operator* module exports a set of efficient functions 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 functions fall into categories that perform object comparisons, logical operations, mathematical operations, sequence operations, and abstract type tests.

The object comparison functions are useful for all objects, and are named after the rich comparison operators they support :

```
operator.lt(a, b)
operator.le(a, b)
operator.eq(a, b)
operator.ne(a, b)
operator.ge(a, b)
operator.gt(a, b)
operator.__lt__(a, b)
operator.__le__(a, b)
operator.__eq__(a, b)
operator.__ne__(a, b)
operator.__ge__(a, b)
```

`operator.__gt__(a, b)`

Perform « rich comparisons » between *a* and *b*. Specifically, `lt(a, b)` is equivalent to `a < b`, `le(a, b)` is equivalent to `a <= b`, `eq(a, b)` is equivalent to `a == b`, `ne(a, b)` is equivalent to `a != b`, `gt(a, b)` is equivalent to `a > b` and `ge(a, b)` is equivalent to `a >= b`. Note that unlike the built-in `cmp()`, these functions can return any value, which may or may not be interpretable as a Boolean value. See comparisons for more information about rich comparisons.

Nouveau dans la version 2.2.

The logical operations are also generally applicable to all objects, and support truth tests, identity tests, and boolean operations :

`operator.not_(obj)`

`operator.__not__(obj)`

Return the outcome of `not obj`. (Note that there is no `__not__()` method for object instances; only the interpreter core defines this operation. The result is affected by the `__nonzero__()` and `__len__()` methods.)

`operator.truth(obj)`

Return *True* if *obj* is true, and *False* otherwise. This is equivalent to using the *bool* constructor.

`operator.is_(a, b)`

Return `a is b`. Tests object identity.

Nouveau dans la version 2.3.

`operator.is_not(a, b)`

Return `a is not b`. Tests object identity.

Nouveau dans la version 2.3.

The mathematical and bitwise operations are the most numerous :

`operator.abs(obj)`

`operator.__abs__(obj)`

Renvoie la valeur absolue de *obj*.

`operator.add(a, b)`

`operator.__add__(a, b)`

Return `a + b`, for *a* and *b* numbers.

`operator.and_(a, b)`

`operator.__and__(a, b)`

Return the bitwise and of *a* and *b*.

`operator.div(a, b)`

`operator.__div__(a, b)`

Return `a / b` when `__future__.division` is not in effect. This is also known as « classic » division.

`operator.floordiv(a, b)`

`operator.__floordiv__(a, b)`

Return `a // b`.

Nouveau dans la version 2.2.

`operator.index(a)`

`operator.__index__(a)`

Return *a* converted to an integer. Equivalent to `a.__index__()`.

Nouveau dans la version 2.5.

`operator.inv(obj)`

`operator.invert(obj)`

`operator.__inv__(obj)`

`operator.__invert__(obj)`

Return the bitwise inverse of the number *obj*. This is equivalent to `~obj`.

Nouveau dans la version 2.0 : The names `invert()` and `__invert__()`.

`operator.lshift(a, b)`

`operator.__lshift__(a, b)`

Return *a* shifted left by *b*.

`operator.mod(a, b)`

`operator.__mod__(a, b)`

Return *a* % *b*.

`operator.mul(a, b)`

`operator.__mul__(a, b)`

Return *a* * *b*, for *a* and *b* numbers.

`operator.neg(obj)`

`operator.__neg__(obj)`

Return *obj* negated (`-obj`).

`operator.or_(a, b)`

`operator.__or__(a, b)`

Return the bitwise or of *a* and *b*.

`operator.pos(obj)`

`operator.__pos__(obj)`

Return *obj* positive (`+obj`).

`operator.pow(a, b)`

`operator.__pow__(a, b)`

Return *a* ** *b*, for *a* and *b* numbers.

Nouveau dans la version 2.3.

`operator.rshift(a, b)`

`operator.__rshift__(a, b)`

Return *a* shifted right by *b*.

`operator.sub(a, b)`

`operator.__sub__(a, b)`

Return *a* - *b*.

`operator.truediv(a, b)`

`operator.__truediv__(a, b)`

Return *a* / *b* when `__future__.division` is in effect. This is also known as « true » division.

Nouveau dans la version 2.2.

`operator.xor(a, b)`

`operator.__xor__(a, b)`

Return the bitwise exclusive or of *a* and *b*.

Operations which work with sequences (some of them with mappings too) include :

`operator.concat(a, b)`

`operator.__concat__(a, b)`

Return *a* + *b* for *a* and *b* sequences.

`operator.contains(a, b)`

`operator.__contains__(a, b)`

Return the outcome of the test *b* in *a*. Note the reversed operands.

Nouveau dans la version 2.0 : The name `__contains__()`.

`operator.countOf(a, b)`

Return the number of occurrences of *b* in *a*.

`operator.delitem(a, b)`

`operator.__delitem__(a, b)`

Remove the value of *a* at index *b*.

`operator.delslice(a, b, c)`

`operator.__delslice__(a, b, c)`

Delete the slice of *a* from index *b* to index *c-1*.

Obsolète depuis la version 2.6 : This function is removed in Python 3.x. Use `delitem()` with a slice index.

`operator.getitem(a, b)`

`operator.__getitem__(a, b)`

Return the value of *a* at index *b*.

`operator.getslice(a, b, c)`

`operator.__getslice__(a, b, c)`

Return the slice of *a* from index *b* to index *c-1*.

Obsolète depuis la version 2.6 : This function is removed in Python 3.x. Use `getitem()` with a slice index.

`operator.indexOf(a, b)`

Return the index of the first of occurrence of *b* in *a*.

`operator.repeat(a, b)`

`operator.__repeat__(a, b)`

Obsolète depuis la version 2.7 : Use `__mul__()` instead.

Return *a* * *b* where *a* is a sequence and *b* is an integer.

`operator.sequenceIncludes(...)`

Obsolète depuis la version 2.0 : Use `contains()` instead.

Alias for `contains()`.

`operator.setitem(a, b, c)`

`operator.__setitem__(a, b, c)`

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

`operator.setslice(a, b, c, v)`

`operator.__setslice__(a, b, c, v)`

Set the slice of *a* from index *b* to index *c-1* to the sequence *v*.

Obsolète depuis la version 2.6 : This function is removed in Python 3.x. Use `setitem()` with a slice index.

Example use of operator functions :

```
>>> # Elementwise multiplication
>>> map(mul, [0, 1, 2, 3], [10, 20, 30, 40])
[0, 20, 60, 120]

>>> # Dot product
>>> sum(map(mul, [0, 1, 2, 3], [10, 20, 30, 40]))
200
```

Many operations have an « in-place » version. The following functions provide a more primitive access to in-place operators than the usual syntax does; for example, the *statement* `x += y` is equivalent to `x = operator.iadd(x, y)`. Another way to put it is to say that `z = operator.iadd(x, y)` is equivalent to the compound statement `z = x; z += y`.

`operator.iadd(a, b)`
`operator.__iadd__(a, b)`
`a = iadd(a, b)` is equivalent to `a += b`.
 Nouveau dans la version 2.5.

`operator.iand(a, b)`
`operator.__iand__(a, b)`
`a = iand(a, b)` is equivalent to `a &= b`.
 Nouveau dans la version 2.5.

`operator.iconcat(a, b)`
`operator.__iconcat__(a, b)`
`a = iconcat(a, b)` is equivalent to `a += b` for *a* and *b* sequences.
 Nouveau dans la version 2.5.

`operator.idiv(a, b)`
`operator.__idiv__(a, b)`
`a = idiv(a, b)` is equivalent to `a /= b` when `__future__.division` is not in effect.
 Nouveau dans la version 2.5.

`operator.ifloordiv(a, b)`
`operator.__ifloordiv__(a, b)`
`a = ifloordiv(a, b)` is equivalent to `a //= b`.
 Nouveau dans la version 2.5.

`operator.ilshift(a, b)`
`operator.__ilshift__(a, b)`
`a = ilshift(a, b)` is equivalent to `a <<= b`.
 Nouveau dans la version 2.5.

`operator.imod(a, b)`
`operator.__imod__(a, b)`
`a = imod(a, b)` is equivalent to `a %= b`.
 Nouveau dans la version 2.5.

`operator.imul(a, b)`
`operator.__imul__(a, b)`
`a = imul(a, b)` is equivalent to `a *= b`.
 Nouveau dans la version 2.5.

`operator.ior(a, b)`
`operator.__ior__(a, b)`
`a = ior(a, b)` is equivalent to `a |= b`.
 Nouveau dans la version 2.5.

`operator.ipow(a, b)`
`operator.__ipow__(a, b)`
`a = ipow(a, b)` is equivalent to `a **= b`.
 Nouveau dans la version 2.5.

`operator.irepeat(a, b)`
`operator.__irepeat__(a, b)`
 Obsolète depuis la version 2.7 : Use `__imul__()` instead.
`a = irepeat(a, b)` is equivalent to `a *= b` where *a* is a sequence and *b* is an integer.
 Nouveau dans la version 2.5.

`operator.irshift(a, b)`

`operator.irshift(a, b)`
 `a = irshift(a, b)` is equivalent to `a >>= b`.
Nouveau dans la version 2.5.

`operator.isub(a, b)`
`operator.__isub__(a, b)`
 `a = isub(a, b)` is equivalent to `a -= b`.
Nouveau dans la version 2.5.

`operator.itruediv(a, b)`
`operator.__itruediv__(a, b)`
 `a = itruediv(a, b)` is equivalent to `a /= b` when `__future__.division` is in effect.
Nouveau dans la version 2.5.

`operator.ior(a, b)`
`operator.__ior__(a, b)`
 `a = ior(a, b)` is equivalent to `a ^= b`.
Nouveau dans la version 2.5.

The `operator` module also defines a few predicates to test the type of objects; however, these are not all reliable. It is preferable to test abstract base classes instead (see `collections` and `numbers` for details).

`operator.isCallable(obj)`
 Obsolète depuis la version 2.0 : Use `isinstance(x, collections.Callable)` instead.
 Returns true if the object `obj` can be called like a function, otherwise it returns false. True is returned for functions, bound and unbound methods, class objects, and instance objects which support the `__call__()` method.

`operator.isMappingType(obj)`
 Obsolète depuis la version 2.7 : Use `isinstance(x, collections.Mapping)` instead.
 Returns true if the object `obj` supports the mapping interface. This is true for dictionaries and all instance objects defining `__getitem__()`.

`operator.isNumberType(obj)`
 Obsolète depuis la version 2.7 : Use `isinstance(x, numbers.Number)` instead.
 Returns true if the object `obj` represents a number. This is true for all numeric types implemented in C.

`operator.isSequenceType(obj)`
 Obsolète depuis la version 2.7 : Use `isinstance(x, collections.Sequence)` instead.
 Returns true if the object `obj` supports the sequence protocol. This returns true for all objects which define sequence methods in C, and for all instance objects defining `__getitem__()`.

The `operator` module also defines tools for generalized attribute and item lookups. These are useful for making fast field extractors as arguments for `map()`, `sorted()`, `itertools.groupby()`, or other functions that expect a function argument.

`operator.attrgetter(attr)`
`operator.attrgetter(*attrs)`
 Return a callable object that fetches `attr` from its operand. If more than one attribute is requested, returns a tuple of attributes. The attribute names can also contain dots. For example :
 — After `f = attrgetter('name')`, the call `f(b)` returns `b.name`.
 — After `f = attrgetter('name', 'date')`, the call `f(b)` returns `(b.name, b.date)`.
 — After `f = attrgetter('name.first', 'name.last')`, the call `f(b)` returns `(b.name.first, b.name.last)`.
 Équivalent à :

```
def attrgetter(*items):
    if len(items) == 1:
        attr = items[0]
        def g(obj):
            return resolve_attr(obj, attr)
    else:
        def g(obj):
            return tuple(resolve_attr(obj, attr) for attr in items)
    return g

def resolve_attr(obj, attr):
    for name in attr.split("."):
        obj = getattr(obj, name)
    return obj
```

Nouveau dans la version 2.4.

Modifié dans la version 2.5 : Added support for multiple attributes.

Modifié dans la version 2.6 : Added support for dotted attributes.

`operator.itemgetter(item)`

`operator.itemgetter(*items)`

Return a callable object that fetches *item* from its operand using the operand's `__getitem__()` method.

If multiple items are specified, returns a tuple of lookup values. For example :

— After `f = itemgetter(2)`, the call `f(r)` returns `r[2]`.

— After `g = itemgetter(2, 5, 3)`, the call `g(r)` returns `(r[2], r[5], r[3])`.

Équivalent à :

```
def itemgetter(*items):
    if len(items) == 1:
        item = items[0]
        def g(obj):
            return obj[item]
    else:
        def g(obj):
            return tuple(obj[item] for item in items)
    return g
```

The items can be any type accepted by the operand's `__getitem__()` method. Dictionaries accept any hashable value. Lists, tuples, and strings accept an index or a slice :

```
>>> itemgetter(1)('ABCDEFGH')
'B'
>>> itemgetter(1,3,5)('ABCDEFGH')
('B', 'D', 'F')
>>> itemgetter(slice(2,None))('ABCDEFGH')
'CDEFG'
```

Nouveau dans la version 2.4.

Modifié dans la version 2.5 : Added support for multiple item extraction.

Example of using `itemgetter()` to retrieve specific fields from a tuple record :

```
>>> inventory = [('apple', 3), ('banana', 2), ('pear', 5), ('orange', 1)]
>>> getcount = itemgetter(1)
>>> map(getcount, inventory)
```

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```
[3, 2, 5, 1]
>>> sorted(inventory, key=getcount)
[('orange', 1), ('banana', 2), ('apple', 3), ('pear', 5)]
```

`operator.methodcaller(name[, args...])`

Return a callable object that calls the method *name* on its operand. If additional arguments and/or keyword arguments are given, they will be given to the method as well. For example :

- After `f = methodcaller('name')`, the call `f(b)` returns `b.name()`.
 - After `f = methodcaller('name', 'foo', bar=1)`, the call `f(b)` returns `b.name('foo', bar=1)`.
- Équivalent à :

```
def methodcaller(name, *args, **kwargs):
    def caller(obj):
        return getattr(obj, name)(*args, **kwargs)
    return caller
```

Nouveau dans la version 2.6.

9.9.1 Mapping Operators to Functions

This table shows how abstract operations correspond to operator symbols in the Python syntax and the functions in the `operator` module.

Opération	Syntax	Fonction
Addition	<code>a + b</code>	<code>add(a, b)</code>
Concatenation	<code>seq1 + seq2</code>	<code>concat(seq1, seq2)</code>
Containment Test	<code>obj in seq</code>	<code>contains(seq, obj)</code>
Division	<code>a / b</code>	<code>div(a, b)</code> (without <code>__future__.division</code>)
Division	<code>a / b</code>	<code>truediv(a, b)</code> (with <code>__future__.division</code>)
Division	<code>a // b</code>	<code>floordiv(a, b)</code>
Bitwise And	<code>a & b</code>	<code>and_(a, b)</code>
Bitwise Exclusive Or	<code>a ^ b</code>	<code>xor(a, b)</code>
Bitwise Inversion	<code>~ a</code>	<code>invert(a)</code>
Bitwise Or	<code>a b</code>	<code>or_(a, b)</code>
Exponentiation	<code>a ** b</code>	<code>pow(a, b)</code>
Identity	<code>a is b</code>	<code>is_(a, b)</code>
Identity	<code>a is not b</code>	<code>is_not(a, b)</code>
Indexed Assignment	<code>obj[k] = v</code>	<code>setitem(obj, k, v)</code>
Indexed Deletion	<code>del obj[k]</code>	<code>delitem(obj, k)</code>
Indexing	<code>obj[k]</code>	<code>getitem(obj, k)</code>
Left Shift	<code>a << b</code>	<code>lshift(a, b)</code>
Modulo	<code>a % b</code>	<code>mod(a, b)</code>
Multiplication	<code>a * b</code>	<code>mul(a, b)</code>
Negation (Arithmetic)	<code>- a</code>	<code>neg(a)</code>
Negation (Logical)	<code>not a</code>	<code>not_(a)</code>
Positive	<code>+ a</code>	<code>pos(a)</code>
Right Shift	<code>a >> b</code>	<code>rshift(a, b)</code>
Sequence Repetition	<code>seq * i</code>	<code>repeat(seq, i)</code>
Slice Assignment	<code>seq[i:j] = values</code>	<code>setitem(seq, slice(i, j), values)</code>
Slice Deletion	<code>del seq[i:j]</code>	<code>delitem(seq, slice(i, j))</code>
Slicing	<code>seq[i:j]</code>	<code>getitem(seq, slice(i, j))</code>

Suite sur la page suivante

Tableau 1 – suite de la page précédente

Opération	Syntax	Fonction
String Formatting	<code>s % obj</code>	<code>mod(s, obj)</code>
Subtraction	<code>a - b</code>	<code>sub(a, b)</code>
Truth Test	<code>obj</code>	<code>truth(obj)</code>
Ordering	<code>a < b</code>	<code>lt(a, b)</code>
Ordering	<code>a <= b</code>	<code>le(a, b)</code>
Equality	<code>a == b</code>	<code>eq(a, b)</code>
Différence	<code>a != b</code>	<code>ne(a, b)</code>
Ordering	<code>a >= b</code>	<code>ge(a, b)</code>
Ordering	<code>a > b</code>	<code>gt(a, b)</code>

Les modules décrits dans ce chapitre servent à accéder aux fichiers et aux dossiers. Des modules, par exemple, pour lire les propriétés des fichiers, manipuler des chemins de manière portable, et créer des fichiers temporaires. La liste exhaustive des modules de ce chapitre est :

10.1 `os.path` — Common pathname manipulations

This module implements some useful functions on pathnames. To read or write files see `open()`, and for accessing the filesystem see the `os` module.

Note : On Windows, many of these functions do not properly support UNC pathnames. `splitunc()` and `ismount()` do handle them correctly.

Unlike a unix shell, Python does not do any *automatic* path expansions. Functions such as `expanduser()` and `expandvars()` can be invoked explicitly when an application desires shell-like path expansion. (See also the `glob` module.)

Note : Since different operating systems have different path name conventions, there are several versions of this module in the standard library. The `os.path` module is always the path module suitable for the operating system Python is running on, and therefore usable for local paths. However, you can also import and use the individual modules if you want to manipulate a path that is *always* in one of the different formats. They all have the same interface :

- `posixpath` for UNIX-style paths
 - `ntpath` for Windows paths
 - `macpath` for old-style MacOS paths
 - `os2emxpath` for OS/2 EMX paths
-

`os.path.abspath(path)`

Return a normalized absolutized version of the pathname `path`. On most platforms, this is equivalent to calling the function `normpath(join(os.getcwd(), path))`.

Nouveau dans la version 1.5.2.

os.path.basename(*path*)

Return the base name of pathname *path*. This is the second element of the pair returned by passing *path* to the function `split()`. Note that the result of this function is different from the Unix **basename** program ; where **basename** for `'/foo/bar/'` returns `'bar'`, the `basename()` function returns an empty string `''`.

os.path.commonprefix(*list*)

Return the longest path prefix (taken character-by-character) that is a prefix of all paths in *list*. If *list* is empty, return the empty string `''`. Note that this may return invalid paths because it works a character at a time.

os.path.dirname(*path*)

Return the directory name of pathname *path*. This is the first element of the pair returned by passing *path* to the function `split()`.

os.path.exists(*path*)

Return **True** if *path* refers to an existing path. Returns **False** for broken symbolic links. On some platforms, this function may return **False** if permission is not granted to execute `os.stat()` on the requested file, even if the *path* physically exists.

os.path.lexists(*path*)

Return **True** if *path* refers to an existing path. Returns **True** for broken symbolic links. Equivalent to `exists()` on platforms lacking `os.lstat()`.

Nouveau dans la version 2.4.

os.path.expanduser(*path*)

On Unix and Windows, return the argument with an initial component of `~` or `~user` replaced by that *user*'s home directory.

On Unix, an initial `~` is replaced by the environment variable `HOME` if it is set ; otherwise the current user's home directory is looked up in the password directory through the built-in module `pwd`. An initial `~user` is looked up directly in the password directory.

On Windows, `HOME` and `USERPROFILE` will be used if set, otherwise a combination of `HOMEPATH` and `HOMEDRIVE` will be used. An initial `~user` is handled by stripping the last directory component from the created user path derived above.

If the expansion fails or if the path does not begin with a tilde, the path is returned unchanged.

os.path.expandvars(*path*)

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.

On Windows, `%name%` expansions are supported in addition to `$name` and `${name}`.

os.path.getatime(*path*)

Return the time of last access of *path*. The return value is a number giving the number of seconds since the epoch (see the `time` module). Raise `os.error` if the file does not exist or is inaccessible.

Nouveau dans la version 1.5.2.

Modifié dans la version 2.3 : If `os.stat_float_times()` returns **True**, the result is a floating point number.

os.path.getmtime(*path*)

Return the time of last modification of *path*. The return value is a number giving the number of seconds since the epoch (see the `time` module). Raise `os.error` if the file does not exist or is inaccessible.

Nouveau dans la version 1.5.2.

Modifié dans la version 2.3 : If `os.stat_float_times()` returns **True**, the result is a floating point number.

os.path.getctime(*path*)

Return the system's ctime which, on some systems (like Unix) is the time of the last metadata change, and, on others (like Windows), is the creation time for *path*. The return value is a number giving the number of seconds since the epoch (see the *time* module). Raise *os.error* if the file does not exist or is inaccessible.

Nouveau dans la version 2.3.

os.path.getsize(*path*)

Return the size, in bytes, of *path*. Raise *os.error* if the file does not exist or is inaccessible.

Nouveau dans la version 1.5.2.

os.path.isabs(*path*)

Return *True* if *path* is an absolute pathname. On Unix, that means it begins with a slash, on Windows that it begins with a (back)slash after chopping off a potential drive letter.

os.path.isfile(*path*)

Return *True* if *path* is an existing regular file. This follows symbolic links, so both *islink()* and *isfile()* can be true for the same path.

os.path.isdir(*path*)

Return *True* if *path* is an existing directory. This follows symbolic links, so both *islink()* and *isdir()* can be true for the same path.

os.path.islink(*path*)

Return *True* if *path* refers to a directory entry that is a symbolic link. Always *False* if symbolic links are not supported by the Python runtime.

os.path.ismount(*path*)

Return *True* if pathname *path* is a *mount point* : a point in a file system where a different file system has been mounted. The function checks whether *path*'s parent, *path/..*, is on a different device than *path*, or whether *path/..* and *path* point to the same i-node on the same device — this should detect mount points for all Unix and POSIX variants.

os.path.join(*path*, **paths*)

Join one or more path components intelligently. The return value is the concatenation of *path* and any members of **paths* with exactly one directory separator (*os.sep*) following each non-empty part except the last, meaning that the result will only end in a separator if the last part is empty. If a component is an absolute path, all previous components are thrown away and joining continues from the absolute path component.

On Windows, the drive letter is not reset when an absolute path component (e.g., *r'\foo'*) is encountered. If a component contains a drive letter, all previous components are thrown away and the drive letter is reset. Note that since there is a current directory for each drive, *os.path.join("c:", "foo")* represents a path relative to the current directory on drive C: (*c:foo*), not *c:\foo*.

os.path.normcase(*path*)

Normalize the case of a pathname. On Unix and Mac OS X, this returns the path unchanged; on case-insensitive filesystems, it converts the path to lowercase. On Windows, it also converts forward slashes to backward slashes.

os.path.normpath(*path*)

Normalize a pathname by collapsing redundant separators and up-level references so that *A//B*, *A/B/*, *A/./B* and *A/foo/../B* all become *A/B*. This string manipulation may change the meaning of a path that contains symbolic links. On Windows, it converts forward slashes to backward slashes. To normalize case, use *normcase()*.

os.path.realpath(*path*)

Return the canonical path of the specified filename, eliminating any symbolic links encountered in the path (if they are supported by the operating system).

Nouveau dans la version 2.2.

`os.path.relpath(path[, start])`

Return a relative filepath to *path* either from the current directory or from an optional *start* directory. This is a path computation : the filesystem is not accessed to confirm the existence or nature of *path* or *start*.

start defaults to `os.curdir`.

Availability : Windows, Unix.

Nouveau dans la version 2.6.

`os.path.samefile(path1, path2)`

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 an `os.stat()` call on either pathname fails.

Disponibilité : Unix.

`os.path.sameopenfile(fp1, fp2)`

Return `True` if the file descriptors *fp1* and *fp2* refer to the same file.

Disponibilité : Unix.

`os.path.samestat(stat1, stat2)`

Return `True` if the stat tuples *stat1* and *stat2* refer to the same file. These structures may have been returned by `os.fstat()`, `os.lstat()`, or `os.stat()`. This function implements the underlying comparison used by `samefile()` and `sameopenfile()`.

Disponibilité : Unix.

`os.path.split(path)`

Split the pathname *path* into 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 *path* ends in a slash, *tail* will be empty. If there is no slash in *path*, *head* will be empty. If *path* 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 all cases, `join(head, tail)` returns a path to the same location as *path* (but the strings may differ). Also see the functions `dirname()` and `basename()`.

`os.path.splitdrive(path)`

Split the pathname *path* into a pair (*drive*, *tail*) where *drive* is either a drive specification or the empty string. On systems which do not use drive specifications, *drive* will always be the empty string. In all cases, *drive* + *tail* will be the same as *path*.

Nouveau dans la version 1.3.

`os.path.splitext(path)`

Split the pathname *path* into a pair (*root*, *ext*) such that *root* + *ext* == *path*, and *ext* is empty or begins with a period and contains at most one period. Leading periods on the basename are ignored; `splitext('.cshrc')` returns `('cshrc', '')`.

Modifié dans la version 2.6 : Earlier versions could produce an empty root when the only period was the first character.

`os.path.splitunc(path)`

Split the pathname *path* into a pair (*unc*, *rest*) so that *unc* is the UNC mount point (such as `r'\\host\mount'`), if present, and *rest* the rest of the path (such as `r'\path\file.ext'`). For paths containing drive letters, *unc* will always be the empty string.

Disponibilité : Windows.

`os.path.walk(path, visit, arg)`

Calls the function *visit* with arguments (*arg*, *dirname*, *names*) for each directory in the directory tree rooted at *path* (including *path* itself, if it is a directory). The argument *dirname* specifies the visited directory, the argument *names* lists the files in the directory (gotten from `os.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.)

Note : Symbolic links to directories are not treated as subdirectories, and that `walk()` therefore will not visit them. To visit linked directories you must identify them with `os.path.islink(file)` and `os.path.isdir(file)`, and invoke `walk()` as necessary.

Note : This function is deprecated and has been removed in Python 3 in favor of `os.walk()`.

`os.path.supports_unicode_filenames`

True if arbitrary Unicode strings can be used as file names (within limitations imposed by the file system).

Nouveau dans la version 2.3.

10.2 fileinput — Iterate over lines from multiple input streams

Code source : [Lib/fileinput.py](#)

This module implements a helper class and functions to quickly write a loop over standard input or a list of files. If you just want to read or write one file see `open()`.

The typical use is :

```
import fileinput
for line in fileinput.input():
    process(line)
```

This iterates over the lines of all files listed in `sys.argv[1:]`, defaulting to `sys.stdin` if the list is empty. If a filename is '-', it is also replaced by `sys.stdin`. To specify an alternative list of filenames, pass it as the first argument to `input()`. A single file name is also allowed.

All files are opened in text mode by default, but you can override this by specifying the `mode` parameter in the call to `input()` or `FileInput()`. If an I/O error occurs during opening or reading a file, `IOError` is raised.

If `sys.stdin` is used more than once, the second and further use will return no lines, except perhaps for interactive use, or if it has been explicitly reset (e.g. using `sys.stdin.seek(0)`).

Empty files are opened and immediately closed; the only time their presence in the list of filenames is noticeable at all is when the last file opened is empty.

Lines are returned with any newlines intact, which means that the last line in a file may not have one.

You can control how files are opened by providing an opening hook via the `openhook` parameter to `fileinput.input()` or `FileInput()`. The hook must be a function that takes two arguments, `filename` and `mode`, and returns an accordingly opened file-like object. Two useful hooks are already provided by this module.

The following function is the primary interface of this module :

```
fileinput.input([files[, inplace[, backup[, bufsize[, mode[, openhook]]]]]])
```

Create an instance of the `FileInput` class. The instance will be used as global state for the functions of this module, and is also returned to use during iteration. The parameters to this function will be passed along to the constructor of the `FileInput` class.

Modifié dans la version 2.5 : Added the `mode` and `openhook` parameters.

Modifié dans la version 2.7.12 : Le paramètre `bufsize` n'est plus utilisé.

The following functions use the global state created by `fileinput.input()`; if there is no active state, `RuntimeError` is raised.

`fileinput.filename()`

Return the name of the file currently being read. Before the first line has been read, returns `None`.

`fileinput.fileno()`

Return the integer « file descriptor » for the current file. When no file is opened (before the first line and between files), returns `-1`.

Nouveau dans la version 2.5.

`fileinput.lineno()`

Return the cumulative line number of the line that has just been read. Before the first line has been read, returns `0`. After the last line of the last file has been read, returns the line number of that line.

`fileinput.filelineno()`

Return the line number in the current file. Before the first line has been read, returns `0`. After the last line of the last file has been read, returns the line number of that line within the file.

`fileinput.isfirstline()`

Returns true if the line just read is the first line of its file, otherwise returns false.

`fileinput.isstdin()`

Returns true if the last line was read from `sys.stdin`, otherwise returns false.

`fileinput.nextfile()`

Close the current file so that the next iteration will read the first line from the next file (if any); lines not read from the file will not count towards the cumulative line count. The filename is not changed until after the first line of the next file has been read. Before the first line has been read, this function has no effect; it cannot be used to skip the first file. After the last line of the last file has been read, this function has no effect.

`fileinput.close()`

Close the sequence.

The class which implements the sequence behavior provided by the module is available for subclassing as well :

`class fileinput.FileInput([files[, inplace[, backup[, bufsize[, mode[, openhook]]]]])`

Class `FileInput` is the implementation; its methods `filename()`, `fileno()`, `lineno()`, `filelineno()`, `isfirstline()`, `isstdin()`, `nextfile()` and `close()` correspond to the functions of the same name in the module. In addition it has a `readline()` method which returns the next input line, and a `__getitem__()` method which implements the sequence behavior. The sequence must be accessed in strictly sequential order; random access and `readline()` cannot be mixed.

With `mode` you can specify which file mode will be passed to `open()`. It must be one of `'r'`, `'rU'`, `'U'` and `'rb'`.

The `openhook`, when given, must be a function that takes two arguments, `filename` and `mode`, and returns an accordingly opened file-like object. You cannot use `inplace` and `openhook` together.

Modifié dans la version 2.5 : Added the `mode` and `openhook` parameters.

Modifié dans la version 2.7.12 : Le paramètre `bufsize` n'est plus utilisé.

Optional in-place filtering : if the keyword argument `inplace=1` is passed to `fileinput.input()` or to the `FileInput` constructor, the file is moved to a backup file and standard output is directed to the input file (if a file of the same name as the backup file already exists, it will be replaced silently). This makes it possible to write a filter that rewrites its input file in place. If the `backup` parameter is given (typically as `backup='.<some extension>'`), it specifies the extension for the backup file, and the backup file remains around; by default, the extension is `'.bak'` and it is deleted when the output file is closed. In-place filtering is disabled when standard input is read.

Note : The current implementation does not work for MS-DOS 8+3 filesystems.

The two following opening hooks are provided by this module :

`fileinput.hook_compressed(filename, mode)`

Transparently opens files compressed with gzip and bzip2 (recognized by the extensions `'.gz'` and `'.bz2'`) using the `gzip` and `bz2` modules. If the filename extension is not `'.gz'` or `'.bz2'`, the file is opened normally (ie, using `open()` without any decompression).

Usage example : `fi = fileinput.FileInput(openhook=fileinput.hook_compressed)`

Nouveau dans la version 2.5.

`fileinput.hook_encoded(encoding)`

Returns a hook which opens each file with `io.open()`, using the given `encoding` to read the file.

Usage example : `fi = fileinput.FileInput(openhook=fileinput.hook_encoded("iso-8859-1"))`

Note : With this hook, `FileInput` might return Unicode strings depending on the specified `encoding`.

Nouveau dans la version 2.5.

10.3 stat — Interpreting stat() results

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

The `stat` module defines constants and functions for interpreting the results of `os.stat()`, `os.fstat()` and `os.lstat()` (if they exist). For complete details about the `stat()`, `fstat()` and `lstat()` calls, consult the documentation for your system.

The `stat` module defines the following functions to test for specific file types :

`stat.S_ISDIR(mode)`

Return non-zero if the mode is from a directory.

`stat.S_ISCHR(mode)`

Return non-zero if the mode is from a character special device file.

`stat.S_ISBLK(mode)`

Return non-zero if the mode is from a block special device file.

`stat.S_ISREG(mode)`

Return non-zero if the mode is from a regular file.

`stat.S_ISFIFO(mode)`

Return non-zero if the mode is from a FIFO (named pipe).

`stat.S_ISLNK(mode)`

Return non-zero if the mode is from a symbolic link.

`stat.S_ISSOCK(mode)`

Return non-zero if the mode is from a socket.

Two additional functions are defined for more general manipulation of the file's mode :

`stat.S_IMODE(mode)`

Return the portion of the file's mode that can be set by `os.chmod()`—that is, the file's permission bits, plus the sticky bit, set-group-id, and set-user-id bits (on systems that support them).

`stat.S_IFMT(mode)`

Return the portion of the file's mode that describes the file type (used by the `S_IS*()` functions above).

Normally, you would use the `os.path.is*()` functions for testing the type of a file; the functions here are useful when you are doing multiple tests of the same file and wish to avoid the overhead of the `stat()` system call for each test. These are also useful when checking for information about a file that isn't handled by *os.path*, like the tests for block and character devices.

Exemple :

```
import os, sys
from stat import *

def walktree(top, callback):
    '''recursively descend the directory tree rooted at top,
        calling the callback function for each regular file'''

    for f in os.listdir(top):
        pathname = os.path.join(top, f)
        mode = os.stat(pathname).st_mode
        if S_ISDIR(mode):
            # It's a directory, recurse into it
            walktree(pathname, callback)
        elif S_ISREG(mode):
            # It's a file, call the callback function
            callback(pathname)
        else:
            # Unknown file type, print a message
            print 'Skipping %s' % pathname

def visitfile(file):
    print 'visiting', file

if __name__ == '__main__':
    walktree(sys.argv[1], visitfile)
```

All the variables below are simply symbolic indexes into the 10-tuple returned by `os.stat()`, `os.fstat()` or `os.lstat()`.

`stat.ST_MODE`

Inode protection mode.

`stat.ST_INO`

Numéro d'inode.

`stat.ST_DEV`

Device inode resides on.

`stat.ST_NLINK`

Number of links to the inode.

`stat.ST_UID`

User id of the owner.

`stat.ST_GID`

Group id of the owner.

`stat.ST_SIZE`

Size in bytes of a plain file; amount of data waiting on some special files.

`stat.ST_ATIME`

Time of last access.

`stat.ST_MTIME`

Time of last modification.

`stat.ST_CTIME`

The « ctime » as reported by the operating system. On some systems (like Unix) is the time of the last metadata change, and, on others (like Windows), is the creation time (see platform documentation for details).

The interpretation of « file size » changes according to the file type. For plain files this is the size of the file in bytes. For FIFOs and sockets under most flavors of Unix (including Linux in particular), the « size » is the number of bytes waiting to be read at the time of the call to `os.stat()`, `os.fstat()`, or `os.lstat()`; this can sometimes be useful, especially for polling one of these special files after a non-blocking open. The meaning of the size field for other character and block devices varies more, depending on the implementation of the underlying system call.

The variables below define the flags used in the `ST_MODE` field.

Use of the functions above is more portable than use of the first set of flags :

`stat.S_IFSOCK`

Socket.

`stat.S_IFLNK`

Symbolic link.

`stat.S_IFREG`

Regular file.

`stat.S_IFBLK`

Block device.

`stat.S_IFDIR`

Dossier.

`stat.S_IFCHR`

Character device.

`stat.S_IFIFO`

FIFO.

The following flags can also be used in the *mode* argument of `os.chmod()` :

`stat.S_ISUID`

Set UID bit.

`stat.S_ISGID`

Set-group-ID bit. This bit has several special uses. For a directory it indicates that BSD semantics is to be used for that directory : files created there inherit their group ID from the directory, not from the effective group ID of the creating process, and directories created there will also get the `S_ISGID` bit set. For a file that does not have the group execution bit (`S_IXGRP`) set, the set-group-ID bit indicates mandatory file/record locking (see also `S_ENFMT`).

`stat.S_ISVTX`

Sticky bit. When this bit is set on a directory it means that a file in that directory can be renamed or deleted only by the owner of the file, by the owner of the directory, or by a privileged process.

`stat.S_IRWXU`

Mask for file owner permissions.

`stat.S_IRUSR`
Owner has read permission.

`stat.S_IWUSR`
Owner has write permission.

`stat.S_IXUSR`
Owner has execute permission.

`stat.S_IRWXG`
Mask for group permissions.

`stat.S_IRGRP`
Group has read permission.

`stat.S_IWGRP`
Group has write permission.

`stat.S_IXGRP`
Group has execute permission.

`stat.S_IRWXO`
Mask for permissions for others (not in group).

`stat.S_IROTH`
Others have read permission.

`stat.S_IWOTH`
Others have write permission.

`stat.S_IXOTH`
Others have execute permission.

`stat.S_ENFMT`
System V file locking enforcement. This flag is shared with `S_ISGID` : file/record locking is enforced on files that do not have the group execution bit (`S_IXGRP`) set.

`stat.S_IREAD`
Unix V7 synonym for `S_IRUSR`.

`stat.S_IWRITE`
Unix V7 synonym for `S_IWUSR`.

`stat.S_IEXEC`
Unix V7 synonym for `S_IXUSR`.

The following flags can be used in the *flags* argument of `os.chflags()` :

`stat.UF_NODUMP`
Do not dump the file.

`stat.UF_IMMUTABLE`
The file may not be changed.

`stat.UF_APPEND`
The file may only be appended to.

`stat.UF_OPAQUE`
The directory is opaque when viewed through a union stack.

`stat.UF_NOUNLINK`
The file may not be renamed or deleted.

`stat.UF_COMPRESSED`

The file is stored compressed (Mac OS X 10.6+).

`stat.UF_HIDDEN`

The file should not be displayed in a GUI (Mac OS X 10.5+).

`stat.SF_ARCHIVED`

The file may be archived.

`stat.SF_IMMUTABLE`

The file may not be changed.

`stat.SF_APPEND`

The file may only be appended to.

`stat.SF_NOUNLINK`

The file may not be renamed or deleted.

`stat.SF_SNAPSHOT`

The file is a snapshot file.

See the *BSD or Mac OS systems man page *chflags(2)* for more information.

10.4 statvfs — Constants used with `os.statvfs()`

Obsolète depuis la version 2.6 : The *statvfs* module has been removed in Python 3.

The *statvfs* module defines constants so interpreting the result if *os.statvfs()*, which returns a tuple, can be made without remembering « magic numbers. » Each of the constants defined in this module is the *index* of the entry in the tuple returned by *os.statvfs()* that contains the specified information.

`statvfs.F_BSIZE`

Preferred file system block size.

`statvfs.F_FRSIZE`

Fundamental file system block size.

`statvfs.F_BLOCKS`

Total number of blocks in the filesystem.

`statvfs.F_BFREE`

Total number of free blocks.

`statvfs.F_BAVAIL`

Free blocks available to non-super user.

`statvfs.F_FILES`

Total number of file nodes.

`statvfs.F_FFREE`

Total number of free file nodes.

`statvfs.F_FAVAIL`

Free nodes available to non-super user.

`statvfs.F_FLAG`

Flags. System dependent : see *statvfs()* man page.

`statvfs.F_NAMEMAX`

Maximum file name length.

10.5 filecmp — File and Directory Comparisons

Code source : [Lib/filecmp.py](#)

The *filecmp* module defines functions to compare files and directories, with various optional time/correctness trade-offs. For comparing files, see also the *difflib* module.

The *filecmp* module defines the following functions :

`filecmp.cmp(f1, f2[, shallow])`

Compare the files named *f1* and *f2*, returning **True** if they seem equal, **False** otherwise.

Unless *shallow* is given and is false, files with identical *os.stat()* signatures are taken to be equal.

Files that were compared using this function will not be compared again unless their *os.stat()* signature changes.

Note that no external programs are called from this function, giving it portability and efficiency.

`filecmp.cmpfiles(dir1, dir2, common[, shallow])`

Compare the files in the two directories *dir1* and *dir2* whose names are given by *common*.

Returns three lists of file names : *match*, *mismatch*, *errors*. *match* contains the list of files that match, *mismatch* contains the names of those that don't, and *errors* lists the names of files which could not be compared. Files are listed in *errors* if they don't exist in one of the directories, the user lacks permission to read them or if the comparison could not be done for some other reason.

The *shallow* parameter has the same meaning and default value as for *filecmp.cmp()*.

For example, `cmpfiles('a', 'b', ['c', 'd/e'])` will compare *a/c* with *b/c* and *a/d/e* with *b/d/e*. 'c' and 'd/e' will each be in one of the three returned lists.

Exemple :

```
>>> import filecmp
>>> filecmp.cmp('undoc.rst', 'undoc.rst')
True
>>> filecmp.cmp('undoc.rst', 'index.rst')
False
```

10.5.1 The dircmp class

dircmp instances are built using this constructor :

`class filecmp.dircmp(a, b[, ignore[, hide]])`

Construct a new directory comparison object, to compare the directories *a* and *b*. *ignore* is a list of names to ignore, and defaults to ['RCS', 'CVS', 'tags']. *hide* is a list of names to hide, and defaults to [os.curdir, os.pardir].

The *dircmp* class compares files by doing *shallow* comparisons as described for *filecmp.cmp()*.

The *dircmp* class provides the following methods :

report()

Print (to *sys.stdout*) a comparison between *a* and *b*.

report_partial_closure()

Print a comparison between *a* and *b* and common immediate subdirectories.

report_full_closure()

Print a comparison between *a* and *b* and common subdirectories (recursively).

The *dircmp* class offers a number of interesting attributes that may be used to get various bits of information about the directory trees being compared.

Note that via *__getattr__()* hooks, all attributes are computed lazily, so there is no speed penalty if only those attributes which are lightweight to compute are used.

left
The directory *a*.

right
The directory *b*.

left_list
Files and subdirectories in *a*, filtered by *hide* and *ignore*.

right_list
Files and subdirectories in *b*, filtered by *hide* and *ignore*.

common
Files and subdirectories in both *a* and *b*.

left_only
Files and subdirectories only in *a*.

right_only
Files and subdirectories only in *b*.

common_dirs
Subdirectories in both *a* and *b*.

common_files
Files in both *a* and *b*

common_funny
Names in both *a* and *b*, such that the type differs between the directories, or names for which *os.stat()* reports an error.

same_files
Files which are identical in both *a* and *b*, using the class's file comparison operator.

diff_files
Files which are in both *a* and *b*, whose contents differ according to the class's file comparison operator.

funny_files
Files which are in both *a* and *b*, but could not be compared.

subdirs
A dictionary mapping names in *common_dirs* to *dircmp* objects.

Here is a simplified example of using the **subdirs** attribute to search recursively through two directories to show common different files :

```
>>> from filecmp import dircmp
>>> def print_diff_files(dcmp):
...     for name in dcmp.diff_files:
...         print "diff_file %s found in %s and %s" % (name, dcmp.left,
...             dcmp.right)
...     for sub_dcmp in dcmp.subdirs.values():
...         print_diff_files(sub_dcmp)
...
>>> dcmp = dircmp('dir1', 'dir2')
>>> print_diff_files(dcmp)
```

10.6 tempfile — Generate temporary files and directories

Code source : [Lib/tempfile.py](#)

This module generates temporary files and directories. It works on all supported platforms.

In version 2.3 of Python, this module was overhauled for enhanced security. It now provides three new functions, `NamedTemporaryFile()`, `mkstemp()`, and `mkdtemp()`, which should eliminate all remaining need to use the insecure `mktemp()` function. Temporary file names created by this module no longer contain the process ID; instead a string of six random characters is used.

Also, all the user-callable functions now take additional arguments which allow direct control over the location and name of temporary files. It is no longer necessary to use the global `tempdir` and `template` variables. To maintain backward compatibility, the argument order is somewhat odd; it is recommended to use keyword arguments for clarity.

The module defines the following user-callable functions :

```
tempfile.TemporaryFile([mode='w+b', bufsize=-1, suffix='', prefix='tmp', dir=None])
```

Return a file-like object that can be used as a temporary storage area. The file is created using `mkstemp()`. It will be destroyed as soon as it is closed (including an implicit close when the object is garbage collected). Under Unix, the directory entry for the file is removed immediately after the file is created. Other platforms do not support this; your code should not rely on a temporary file created using this function having or not having a visible name in the file system.

The `mode` parameter defaults to `'w+b'` so that the file created can be read and written without being closed. Binary mode is used so that it behaves consistently on all platforms without regard for the data that is stored. `bufsize` defaults to `-1`, meaning that the operating system default is used.

The `dir`, `prefix` and `suffix` parameters are passed to `mkstemp()`.

The returned object is a true file object on POSIX platforms. On other platforms, it is a file-like object whose `file` attribute is the underlying true file object. This file-like object can be used in a `with` statement, just like a normal file.

```
tempfile.NamedTemporaryFile([mode='w+b', bufsize=-1, suffix='', prefix='tmp', dir=None, delete=True])
```

This function operates exactly as `TemporaryFile()` does, except that the file is guaranteed to have a visible name in the file system (on Unix, the directory entry is not unlinked). That name can be retrieved from the `name` attribute of the returned file-like object. Whether the name can be used to open the file a second time, while the named temporary file is still open, varies across platforms (it can be so used on Unix; it cannot on Windows NT or later). If `delete` is true (the default), the file is deleted as soon as it is closed.

The returned object is always a file-like object whose `file` attribute is the underlying true file object. This file-like object can be used in a `with` statement, just like a normal file.

Nouveau dans la version 2.3.

Nouveau dans la version 2.6 : The `delete` parameter.

```
tempfile.SpooledTemporaryFile([max_size=0, mode='w+b', bufsize=-1, suffix='', prefix='tmp', dir=None])
```

This function operates exactly as `TemporaryFile()` does, except that data is spooled in memory until the file size exceeds `max_size`, or until the file's `fileno()` method is called, at which point the contents are written to disk and operation proceeds as with `TemporaryFile()`. Also, its `truncate` method does not accept a `size` argument.

The resulting file has one additional method, `rollover()`, which causes the file to roll over to an on-disk file regardless of its size.

The returned object is a file-like object whose `_file` attribute is either a `StringIO` object or a true file object, depending on whether `rollover()` has been called. This file-like object can be used in a `with` statement, just like a normal file.

Nouveau dans la version 2.6.

```
tempfile.mkstemp([suffix='', prefix='tmp', dir=None, text=False])
```

Creates a temporary file in the most secure manner possible. There are no race conditions in the file's creation, assuming that the platform properly implements the `os.O_EXCL` flag for `os.open()`. The file

is readable and writable only by the creating user ID. If the platform uses permission bits to indicate whether a file is executable, the file is executable by no one. The file descriptor is not inherited by child processes.

Unlike `TemporaryFile()`, the user of `mkstemp()` is responsible for deleting the temporary file when done with it.

If `suffix` is specified, the file name will end with that suffix, otherwise there will be no suffix. `mkstemp()` does not put a dot between the file name and the suffix; if you need one, put it at the beginning of `suffix`.

If `prefix` is specified, the file name will begin with that prefix; otherwise, a default prefix is used.

If `dir` is specified, the file will be created in that directory; otherwise, a default directory is used. The default directory is chosen from a platform-dependent list, but the user of the application can control the directory location by setting the `TMPDIR`, `TEMP` or `TMP` environment variables. There is thus no guarantee that the generated filename will have any nice properties, such as not requiring quoting when passed to external commands via `os.popen()`.

If `text` is specified, it indicates whether to open the file in binary mode (the default) or text mode. On some platforms, this makes no difference.

`mkstemp()` returns a tuple containing an OS-level handle to an open file (as would be returned by `os.open()`) and the absolute pathname of that file, in that order.

Nouveau dans la version 2.3.

```
tempfile.mkdtemp([suffix="", prefix='tmp', dir=None]))
```

Creates a temporary directory in the most secure manner possible. There are no race conditions in the directory's creation. The directory is readable, writable, and searchable only by the creating user ID.

The user of `mkdtemp()` is responsible for deleting the temporary directory and its contents when done with it.

The `prefix`, `suffix`, and `dir` arguments are the same as for `mkstemp()`.

`mkdtemp()` returns the absolute pathname of the new directory.

Nouveau dans la version 2.3.

```
tempfile.mktemp([suffix="", prefix='tmp', dir=None]))
```

Obsolète depuis la version 2.3 : Use `mkstemp()` instead.

Return an absolute pathname of a file that did not exist at the time the call is made. The `prefix`, `suffix`, and `dir` arguments are the same as for `mkstemp()`.

Avertissement : Use of this function may introduce a security hole in your program. By the time you get around to doing anything with the file name it returns, someone else may have beaten you to the punch. `mktemp()` usage can be replaced easily with `NamedTemporaryFile()`, passing it the `delete=False` parameter :

```
>>> f = NamedTemporaryFile(delete=False)
>>> f
<open file '<fdopen>', mode 'w+b' at 0x384698>
>>> f.name
'/var/folders/5q/5qTPn6xq2RaWqk+1Ytw3-U+++TI/-Tmp-/tmpG7V1Y0'
>>> f.write("Hello World!\n")
>>> f.close()
>>> os.unlink(f.name)
>>> os.path.exists(f.name)
False
```

The module uses a global variable that tell it how to construct a temporary name. They are initialized at the first call to any of the functions above. The caller may change them, but this is discouraged; use the appropriate function arguments, instead.

tempfile.tempdir

When set to a value other than `None`, this variable defines the default value for the *dir* argument to all the functions defined in this module.

If `tempdir` is unset or `None` at any call to any of the above functions, Python searches a standard list of directories and sets *tempdir* to the first one which the calling user can create files in. The list is :

1. The directory named by the `TMPDIR` environment variable.
2. The directory named by the `TEMP` environment variable.
3. The directory named by the `TMP` environment variable.
4. A platform-specific location :
 - On RiscOS, the directory named by the `Wimp$ScrapDir` environment variable.
 - On Windows, the directories `C:\TEMP`, `C:\TMP`, `\TEMP`, and `\TMP`, in that order.
 - On all other platforms, the directories `/tmp`, `/var/tmp`, and `/usr/tmp`, in that order.
5. As a last resort, the current working directory.

tempfile.gettempdir()

Return the directory currently selected to create temporary files in. If *tempdir* is not `None`, this simply returns its contents; otherwise, the search described above is performed, and the result returned.

Nouveau dans la version 2.3.

tempfile.template

Obsolète depuis la version 2.0 : Use *gettempprefix()* instead.

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 six random letters and digits is appended to the prefix to make the filename unique. The default prefix is `tmp`.

Older versions of this module used to require that `template` be set to `None` after a call to *os.fork()*; this has not been necessary since version 1.5.2.

tempfile.gettempprefix()

Return the filename prefix used to create temporary files. This does not contain the directory component. Using this function is preferred over reading the *template* variable directly.

Nouveau dans la version 1.5.2.

10.7 glob — Recherche de chemins de style Unix selon certains motifs

Code source : [Lib/glob.py](#)

The *glob* module finds all the pathnames matching a specified pattern according to the rules used by the Unix shell, although results are returned in arbitrary order. 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. Note that unlike *fnmatch.fnmatch()*, *glob* treats filenames beginning with a dot (`.`) as special cases. (For tilde and shell variable expansion, use *os.path.expanduser()* and *os.path.expandvars()*.)

Pour une correspondance littérale, il faut entourer le métacaractère par des crochets. Par exemple, `'[?]'` reconnaît le caractère `'?'`.

glob.glob(pathname)

Renvoie une liste, potentiellement vide, de chemins correspondant au motif *pathname*, qui doit être une chaîne de caractères contenant la spécification du chemin. *pathname* peut être soit absolu (comme `/usr/src/Python-1.5/Makefile`) soit relatif (comme `../Tools/**/*.gif`), et contenir un caractère de remplacement de style shell. Les liens symboliques cassés sont aussi inclus dans les résultats (comme pour le shell).

`glob.iglob(pathname)`

Renvoie un *iterator* qui produit les mêmes valeurs que `glob()`, sans toutes les charger en mémoire simultanément.

Nouveau dans la version 2.5.

For example, consider a directory containing only the following files : `1.gif`, `2.txt`, and `card.gif`. `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']
```

Si le répertoire contient des fichiers commençant par `.`, ils ne sont pas reconnus par défaut. Par exemple, considérons un répertoire contenant `card.gif` et `.card.gif` :

```
>>> import glob
>>> glob.glob('*.gif')
['card.gif']
>>> glob.glob('.c*')
['.card.gif']
```

Voir aussi :

Module `fnmatch` Recherche de noms de fichiers de style shell (ne concerne pas les chemins)

10.8 fnmatch — Filtrage par motif des noms de fichiers Unix

Code source : [Lib/fnmatch.py](#)

Ce module fournit la gestion des caractères de remplacement de style shell Unix, qui ne sont *pas* identiques à ceux utilisés dans les expressions régulières (documentés dans le module `re`). Les caractères spéciaux utilisés comme caractères de remplacement de style shell sont :

Motif	Signification
<code>*</code>	reconnaît n'importe quoi
<code>?</code>	reconnaît n'importe quel caractère unique
<code>[seq]</code>	reconnaît n'importe quel caractère dans <i>seq</i>
<code>[!seq]</code>	reconnaît n'importe quel caractère qui n'est pas dans <i>seq</i>

Pour une correspondance littérale, il faut entourer le métacaractère par des crochets. Par exemple, `'[?]` reconnaît le caractère `'?'`.

Note that the filename separator (`'/'` on Unix) is *not* special to this module. See module `glob` for pathname expansion (`glob` uses `filter()` to match pathname segments). Similarly, filenames starting with a period are not special for this module, and are matched by the `*` and `?` patterns.

`fnmatch.fnmatch(filename, pattern)`

Test whether the *filename* string matches the *pattern* string, returning `True` or `False`. Both parameters are case-normalized using `os.path.normcase()`. `fnmatchcase()` can be used to perform a case-sensitive comparison, regardless of whether that's standard for the operating system.

Cet exemple affiche tous les noms de fichiers du répertoire courant ayant pour extension `.txt` :

```
import fnmatch
import os

for file in os.listdir('.'):
    if fnmatch.fnmatch(file, '*.txt'):
        print file
```

`fnmatch.fnmatchcase(filename, pattern)`

Test whether *filename* matches *pattern*, returning *True* or *False*; the comparison is case-sensitive and does not apply `os.path.normcase()`.

`fnmatch.filter(names, pattern)`

Renvoie un sous-ensemble de la liste *names* correspondant au motif *pattern*. Similaire à `[n for n in names if fnmatch(n, pattern)]`, mais implémenté plus efficacement.

Nouveau dans la version 2.2.

`fnmatch.translate(pattern)`

Return the shell-style *pattern* converted to a regular expression for using with `re.match()`.

Exemple :

```
>>> import fnmatch, re
>>>
>>> regex = fnmatch.translate('*.txt')
>>> regex
'.*\\.txt\\Z(?ms)'
>>> reobj = re.compile(regex)
>>> reobj.match('foobar.txt')
<_sre.SRE_Match object at 0x...>
```

Voir aussi :

Module `glob` Recherche de chemins de style shell Unix

10.9 linecache — Accès direct aux lignes d'un texte

Code source : `Lib/linecache.py`

The `linecache` module allows one to get any line from any file, while attempting to optimize internally, using a cache, the common case where many lines are read from a single file. This is used by the `traceback` module to retrieve source lines for inclusion in the formatted traceback.

Le module `linecache` définit les fonctions suivantes :

`linecache.getline(filename, lineno[, module_globals])`

Récupère la ligne *lineno* du fichier *filename*. Cette fonction ne lèvera jamais d'exception, elle préférera renvoyer `' '` en cas d'erreur (le caractère de retour à la ligne sera inclus pour les lignes existantes).

Si le fichier *filename* n'est pas trouvé, la fonction le cherchera dans les chemins de recherche de modules, `sys.path`, après avoir vérifié si un `__loader__` (de la [PEP 302](#)) se trouve dans *module_globals*, dans le cas où le module a été importé depuis un fichier zip, ou une autre source hors du système de fichier.

Nouveau dans la version 2.5 : The *module_globals* parameter was added.

`linecache.clearcache()`

Nettoie le cache. Utilisez cette fonction si vous n'avez plus besoin des lignes des fichiers précédemment lus via `getline()`.

`linecache.checkcache([filename])`

Vérifie la validité du cache. Utilisez cette fonction si les fichiers du cache pourraient avoir changé sur le disque, et que vous en voudriez une version à jour. Sans *filename*, toutes les entrées du cache seront vérifiées.

Exemple :

```
>>> import linecache
>>> linecache.getline('/etc/passwd', 4)
'sys:x:3:3:sys:/dev:/bin/sh\n'
```

10.10 shutil — High-level file operations

Code source : [Lib/shutil.py](#)

The *shutil* module offers a number of high-level operations on files and collections of files. In particular, functions are provided which support file copying and removal. For operations on individual files, see also the *os* module.

Avertissement : Even the higher-level file copying functions (*shutil.copy()*, *shutil.copy2()*) can't copy all file metadata.

On POSIX platforms, this means that file owner and group are lost as well as ACLs. On Mac OS, the resource fork and other metadata are not used. This means that resources will be lost and file type and creator codes will not be correct. On Windows, file owners, ACLs and alternate data streams are not copied.

10.10.1 Directory and files operations

`shutil.copyfileobj(fsrc, fdst[, length])`

Copy the contents of the file-like object *fsrc* to the file-like object *fdst*. The integer *length*, if given, is the buffer size. In particular, a negative *length* value means to copy the data without looping over the source data in chunks; by default the data is read in chunks to avoid uncontrolled memory consumption. Note that if the current file position of the *fsrc* object is not 0, only the contents from the current file position to the end of the file will be copied.

`shutil.copyfile(src, dst)`

Copy the contents (no metadata) of the file named *src* to a file named *dst*. *dst* must be the complete target file name; look at *shutil.copy()* for a copy that accepts a target directory path. If *src* and *dst* are the same files, *Error* is raised. The destination location must be writable; otherwise, an *IOError* exception will be raised. If *dst* already exists, it will be replaced. Special files such as character or block devices and pipes cannot be copied with this function. *src* and *dst* are path names given as strings.

`shutil.copymode(src, dst)`

Copy the permission bits from *src* to *dst*. The file contents, owner, and group are unaffected. *src* and *dst* are path names given as strings.

`shutil.copystat(src, dst)`

Copy the permission bits, last access time, last modification time, and flags from *src* to *dst*. The file contents, owner, and group are unaffected. *src* and *dst* are path names given as strings.

`shutil.copy(src, dst)`

Copy the file *src* to the file or directory *dst*. If *dst* is a directory, a file with the same basename as *src* is created (or overwritten) in the directory specified. Permission bits are copied. *src* and *dst* are path names given as strings.

`shutil.copy2(src, dst)`

Identical to `copy()` except that `copy2()` also attempts to preserve file metadata.

`copy2()` uses `copystat()` to copy the file metadata. Please see `copystat()` for more information.

`shutil.ignore_patterns(*patterns)`

This factory function creates a function that can be used as a callable for `copytree()`'s *ignore* argument, ignoring files and directories that match one of the glob-style *patterns* provided. See the example below.

Nouveau dans la version 2.6.

`shutil.copytree(src, dst, symlinks=False, ignore=None)`

Recursively copy an entire directory tree rooted at *src*. The destination directory, named by *dst*, must not already exist; it will be created as well as missing parent directories. Permissions and times of directories are copied with `copystat()`, individual files are copied using `shutil.copy2()`.

If *symlinks* is true, symbolic links in the source tree are represented as symbolic links in the new tree, but the metadata of the original links is NOT copied; if false or omitted, the contents and metadata of the linked files are copied to the new tree.

If *ignore* is given, it must be a callable that will receive as its arguments the directory being visited by `copytree()`, and a list of its contents, as returned by `os.listdir()`. Since `copytree()` is called recursively, the *ignore* callable will be called once for each directory that is copied. The callable must return a sequence of directory and file names relative to the current directory (i.e. a subset of the items in its second argument); these names will then be ignored in the copy process. `ignore_patterns()` can be used to create such a callable that ignores names based on glob-style patterns.

If exception(s) occur, an `Error` is raised with a list of reasons.

The source code for this should be considered an example rather than the ultimate tool.

Modifié dans la version 2.3 : `Error` is raised if any exceptions occur during copying, rather than printing a message.

Modifié dans la version 2.5 : Create intermediate directories needed to create *dst*, rather than raising an error. Copy permissions and times of directories using `copystat()`.

Modifié dans la version 2.6 : Added the *ignore* argument to be able to influence what is being copied.

`shutil.rmtree(path[, ignore_errors[, onerror]])`

Delete an entire directory tree; *path* must point to a directory (but not a symbolic link to a directory).

If *ignore_errors* is true, errors resulting from failed removals will be ignored; if false or omitted, such errors are handled by calling a handler specified by *onerror* or, if that is omitted, they raise an exception.

If *onerror* is provided, it must be a callable that accepts three parameters : *function*, *path*, and *excinfo*. The first parameter, *function*, is the function which raised the exception; it will be `os.path.islink()`, `os.listdir()`, `os.remove()` or `os.rmdir()`. The second parameter, *path*, will be the path name passed to *function*. The third parameter, *excinfo*, will be the exception information return by `sys.exc_info()`. Exceptions raised by *onerror* will not be caught.

Modifié dans la version 2.6 : Explicitly check for *path* being a symbolic link and raise `OSError` in that case.

`shutil.move(src, dst)`

Recursively move a file or directory (*src*) to another location (*dst*).

If the destination is an existing directory, then *src* is moved inside that directory. If the destination already exists but is not a directory, it may be overwritten depending on `os.rename()` semantics.

If the destination is on the current filesystem, then `os.rename()` is used. Otherwise, *src* is copied (using `shutil.copy2()`) to *dst* and then removed.

Nouveau dans la version 2.3.

exception `shutil.Error`

This exception collects exceptions that are raised during a multi-file operation. For `copytree()`, the exception argument is a list of 3-tuples (*srcname*, *dstname*, *exception*).

Nouveau dans la version 2.3.

copytree example

This example is the implementation of the `copytree()` function, described above, with the docstring omitted. It demonstrates many of the other functions provided by this module.

```
def copytree(src, dst, symlinks=False, ignore=None):
    names = os.listdir(src)
    if ignore is not None:
        ignored_names = ignore(src, names)
    else:
        ignored_names = set()

    os.makedirs(dst)
    errors = []
    for name in names:
        if name in ignored_names:
            continue
        srcname = os.path.join(src, name)
        dstname = os.path.join(dst, name)
        try:
            if symlinks and os.path.islink(srcname):
                linkto = os.readlink(srcname)
                os.symlink(linkto, dstname)
            elif os.path.isdir(srcname):
                copytree(srcname, dstname, symlinks, ignore)
            else:
                copy2(srcname, dstname)
                # XXX What about devices, sockets etc.?
        except (IOError, os.error) as why:
            errors.append((srcname, dstname, str(why)))
        # catch the Error from the recursive copytree so that we can
        # continue with other files
        except Error as err:
            errors.extend(err.args[0])
    try:
        copystat(src, dst)
    except WindowsError:
        # can't copy file access times on Windows
        pass
    except OSError as why:
        errors.extend((src, dst, str(why)))
    if errors:
        raise Error(errors)
```


Another example that uses the `ignore_patterns()` helper :

```
from shutil import copytree, ignore_patterns

copytree(source, destination, ignore=ignore_patterns('*.pyc', 'tmp*'))
```

This will copy everything except `.pyc` files and files or directories whose name starts with `tmp`.

Another example that uses the `ignore` argument to add a logging call :

```
from shutil import copytree
import logging

def _logpath(path, names):
    logging.info('Working in %s' % path)
    return [] # nothing will be ignored

copytree(source, destination, ignore=_logpath)
```

10.10.2 Archiving operations

High-level utilities to create and read compressed and archived files are also provided. They rely on the `zipfile` and `tarfile` modules.

```
shutil.make_archive(base_name, format[, root_dir[, base_dir[, verbose[, dry_run[, owner[, group[,
                                                                    logger]]]]]])
```

Create an archive file (eg. zip or tar) and returns its name.

`base_name` is the name of the file to create, including the path, minus any format-specific extension.
`format` is the archive format : one of « zip » (if the `zlib` module or external `zip` executable is available), « tar », « gztar » (if the `zlib` module is available), or « bztar » (if the `bz2` module is available).

`root_dir` is a directory that will be the root directory of the archive ; ie. we typically `chdir` into `root_dir` before creating the archive.

`base_dir` is the directory where we start archiving from ; ie. `base_dir` will be the common prefix of all files and directories in the archive.

`root_dir` and `base_dir` both default to the current directory.

`owner` and `group` are used when creating a tar archive. By default, uses the current owner and group.

`logger` must be an object compatible with **PEP 282**, usually an instance of `logging.Logger`.

Nouveau dans la version 2.7.

```
shutil.get_archive_formats()
```

Return a list of supported formats for archiving. Each element of the returned sequence is a tuple (name, description).

By default `shutil` provides these formats :

- `zip` : ZIP file (if the `zlib` module or external `zip` executable is available).
- `tar` : uncompressed tar file.
- `gztar` : gzip'ed tar-file (if the `zlib` module is available).
- `bztar` : bzip2'ed tar-file (if the `bz2` module is available).

You can register new formats or provide your own archiver for any existing formats, by using `register_archive_format()`.

Nouveau dans la version 2.7.

```
shutil.register_archive_format(name, function[, extra_args[, description]])
```

Register an archiver for the format `name`. `function` is a callable that will be used to invoke the archiver.

If given, `extra_args` is a sequence of (name, value) that will be used as extra keywords arguments when the archiver callable is used.

description is used by `get_archive_formats()` which returns the list of archivers. Defaults to an empty list.

Nouveau dans la version 2.7.

`shutil.unregister_archive_format(name)`

Remove the archive format *name* from the list of supported formats.

Nouveau dans la version 2.7.

Archiving example

In this example, we create a gzip'ed tar-file archive containing all files found in the `.ssh` directory of the user :

```
>>> from shutil import make_archive
>>> import os
>>> archive_name = os.path.expanduser(os.path.join('~', 'myarchive'))
>>> root_dir = os.path.expanduser(os.path.join('~', '.ssh'))
>>> make_archive(archive_name, 'gztar', root_dir)
'/Users/tarek/myarchive.tar.gz'
```

The resulting archive contains :

```
$ tar -tzvf /Users/tarek/myarchive.tar.gz
drwx----- tarek/staff      0 2010-02-01 16:23:40 ./
-rw-r--r-- tarek/staff    609 2008-06-09 13:26:54 ./authorized_keys
-rwxr-xr-x tarek/staff     65 2008-06-09 13:26:54 ./config
-rwx----- tarek/staff    668 2008-06-09 13:26:54 ./id_dsa
-rwxr-xr-x tarek/staff    609 2008-06-09 13:26:54 ./id_dsa.pub
-rw----- tarek/staff   1675 2008-06-09 13:26:54 ./id_rsa
-rw-r--r-- tarek/staff    397 2008-06-09 13:26:54 ./id_rsa.pub
-rw-r--r-- tarek/staff  37192 2010-02-06 18:23:10 ./known_hosts
```

10.11 dircache — Cached directory listings

Obsolète depuis la version 2.6 : The *dircache* module has been removed in Python 3.

The *dircache* module defines a function for reading directory listing using a cache, and cache invalidation using the *mtime* of the directory. Additionally, it defines a function to annotate directories by appending a slash.

The *dircache* module defines the following functions :

`dircache.reset()`

Resets the directory cache.

`dircache.listdir(path)`

Return a directory listing of *path*, as gotten from `os.listdir()`. Note that unless *path* changes, further call to `listdir()` will not re-read the directory structure.

Note that the list returned should be regarded as read-only. (Perhaps a future version should change it to return a tuple?)

`dircache.opendir(path)`

Same as `listdir()`. Defined for backwards compatibility.

`dircache.annotate(head, list)`

Assume *list* is a list of paths relative to *head*, and append, in place, a `'/'` to each path which points to a directory.

```
>>> import dircache
>>> a = dircache.listdir('/')
>>> a = a[:] # Copy the return value so we can change 'a'
>>> a
['bin', 'boot', 'cdrom', 'dev', 'etc', 'floppy', 'home', 'initrd', 'lib', 'lost+
found', 'mnt', 'proc', 'root', 'sbin', 'tmp', 'usr', 'var', 'vmlinuz']
>>> dircache.annotate('/', a)
>>> a
['bin/', 'boot/', 'cdrom/', 'dev/', 'etc/', 'floppy/', 'home/', 'initrd/', 'lib/
', 'lost+found/', 'mnt/', 'proc/', 'root/', 'sbin/', 'tmp/', 'usr/', 'var/', 'vm
linuz']
```

10.12 macpath — Fonctions de manipulation de chemins pour Mac OS 9

Ce module est une implémentation du module *os.path* pour Mac OS 9 (ou plus ancien). Il peut être utilisé pour manipuler des chemins dans l'ancien style Macintosh sur Mac OS X (ou n'importe quelle autre plateforme).

Les fonctions suivantes sont disponibles dans ce module : *normcase()*, *normpath()*, *isabs()*, *join()*, *split()*, *isdir()*, *isfile()*, *walk()*, *exists()*. Toutes les autres fonctions d'*os.path* sont aussi disponibles, mais vides, pour garder la compatibilité.

Voir aussi :

Section *Objets fichiers* A description of Python's built-in file objects.

Module *os* Operating system interfaces, including functions to work with files at a lower level than the built-in file object.

The modules described in this chapter support storing Python data in a persistent form on disk. The *pickle* and *marshal* modules can turn many Python data types into a stream of bytes and then recreate the objects from the bytes. The various DBM-related modules support a family of hash-based file formats that store a mapping of strings to other strings. The *bsddb* module also provides such disk-based string-to-string mappings based on hashing, and also supports B-Tree and record-based formats.

La liste des modules documentés dans ce chapitre est :

11.1 pickle — Python object serialization

The *pickle* module implements a fundamental, but powerful algorithm for serializing and de-serializing a Python object structure. « Pickling » is the process whereby a Python object hierarchy is converted into a byte stream, and « unpickling » is the inverse operation, whereby a byte stream is converted back into an object hierarchy. Pickling (and unpickling) is alternatively known as « serialization », « marshallng, »¹ or « flattening », however, to avoid confusion, the terms used here are « pickling » and « unpickling ».

This documentation describes both the *pickle* module and the *cPickle* module.

Avertissement : The *pickle* module is not secure against erroneous or maliciously constructed data. Never unpickle data received from an untrusted or unauthenticated source.

11.1.1 Relationship to other Python modules

The *pickle* module has an optimized cousin called the *cPickle* module. As its name implies, *cPickle* is written in C, so it can be up to 1000 times faster than *pickle*. However it does not support subclassing of the *Pickler()* and *Unpickler()* classes, because in *cPickle* these are functions, not classes. Most applications have no need for this functionality, and can benefit from the improved performance of *cPickle*. Other than that, the interfaces of the two modules are nearly identical; the common interface is described in this manual and differences are pointed out where necessary. In the following discussions, we use the term « pickle » to collectively describe the *pickle* and *cPickle* modules.

1. Don't confuse this with the *marshal* module

The data streams the two modules produce are guaranteed to be interchangeable.

Python has a more primitive serialization module called *marshal*, but in general *pickle* should always be the preferred way to serialize Python objects. *marshal* exists primarily to support Python's *.pyc* files.

The *pickle* module differs from *marshal* in several significant ways :

- The *pickle* module keeps track of the objects it has already serialized, so that later references to the same object won't be serialized again. *marshal* doesn't do this.
This has implications both for recursive objects and object sharing. Recursive objects are objects that contain references to themselves. These are not handled by *marshal*, and in fact, attempting to marshal recursive objects will crash your Python interpreter. Object sharing happens when there are multiple references to the same object in different places in the object hierarchy being serialized. *pickle* stores such objects only once, and ensures that all other references point to the master copy. Shared objects remain shared, which can be very important for mutable objects.
- *marshal* cannot be used to serialize user-defined classes and their instances. *pickle* can save and restore class instances transparently, however the class definition must be importable and live in the same module as when the object was stored.
- The *marshal* serialization format is not guaranteed to be portable across Python versions. Because its primary job in life is to support *.pyc* files, the Python implementers reserve the right to change the serialization format in non-backwards compatible ways should the need arise. The *pickle* serialization format is guaranteed to be backwards compatible across Python releases.

Note that serialization is a more primitive notion than persistence; although *pickle* reads and writes file objects, it does not handle the issue of naming persistent objects, nor the (even more complicated) issue 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. Perhaps 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.

11.1.2 Data stream format

The data format used by *pickle* is Python-specific. This has the advantage that there are no restrictions imposed by external standards such as XDR (which can't represent pointer sharing); 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.

There are currently 3 different protocols which can be used for pickling.

- Protocol version 0 is the original ASCII protocol and is backwards compatible with earlier versions of Python.
- Protocol version 1 is the old binary format which is also compatible with earlier versions of Python.
- Protocol version 2 was introduced in Python 2.3. It provides much more efficient pickling of *new-style classes*.

Refer to **PEP 307** for more information.

If a *protocol* is not specified, protocol 0 is used. If *protocol* is specified as a negative value or *HIGHEST_PROTOCOL*, the highest protocol version available will be used.

Modifié dans la version 2.3 : Introduced the *protocol* parameter.

A binary format, which is slightly more efficient, can be chosen by specifying a *protocol* version ≥ 1 .

11.1.3 Usage

To serialize an object hierarchy, you first create a pickler, then you call the pickler's `dump()` method. To de-serialize a data stream, you first create an unpickler, then you call the unpickler's `load()` method. The `pickle` module provides the following constant :

`pickle.HIGHEST_PROTOCOL`

The highest protocol version available. This value can be passed as a *protocol* value.
Nouveau dans la version 2.3.

Note : Be sure to always open pickle files created with protocols ≥ 1 in binary mode. For the old ASCII-based pickle protocol 0 you can use either text mode or binary mode as long as you stay consistent.

A pickle file written with protocol 0 in binary mode will contain lone linefeeds as line terminators and therefore will look « funny » when viewed in Notepad or other editors which do not support this format.

The `pickle` module provides the following functions to make the pickling process more convenient :

`pickle.dump(obj, file[, protocol])`

Write a pickled representation of *obj* to the open file object *file*. This is equivalent to `Pickler(file, protocol).dump(obj)`.

If the *protocol* parameter is omitted, protocol 0 is used. If *protocol* is specified as a negative value or `HIGHEST_PROTOCOL`, the highest protocol version will be used.

Modifié dans la version 2.3 : Introduced the *protocol* parameter.

file must have a `write()` method that accepts a single string argument. It can thus be a file object opened for writing, a `StringIO` object, or any other custom object that meets this interface.

`pickle.load(file)`

Read a string from the open file object *file* and interpret it as a pickle data stream, reconstructing and returning the original object hierarchy. This is equivalent to `Unpickler(file).load()`.

file must have two methods, a `read()` method that takes an integer argument, and a `readline()` method that requires no arguments. Both methods should return a string. Thus *file* can be a file object opened for reading, a `StringIO` object, or any other custom object that meets this interface.

This function automatically determines whether the data stream was written in binary mode or not.

`pickle.dumps(obj[, protocol])`

Return the pickled representation of the object as a string, instead of writing it to a file.

If the *protocol* parameter is omitted, protocol 0 is used. If *protocol* is specified as a negative value or `HIGHEST_PROTOCOL`, the highest protocol version will be used.

Modifié dans la version 2.3 : The *protocol* parameter was added.

`pickle.loads(string)`

Read a pickled object hierarchy from a string. Characters in the string past the pickled object's representation are ignored.

The `pickle` module also defines three exceptions :

exception `pickle.PickleError`

A common base class for the other exceptions defined below. This inherits from `Exception`.

exception `pickle.PicklingError`

This exception is raised when an unpicklable object is passed to the `dump()` method.

exception `pickle.UnpicklingError`

This exception is raised when there is a problem unpickling an object. Note that other exceptions may also be raised during unpickling, including (but not necessarily limited to) `AttributeError`, `EOFError`, `ImportError`, and `IndexError`.

The `pickle` module also exports two callables², `Pickler` and `Unpickler` :

```
class pickle.Pickler(file[, protocol])
```

This takes a file-like object to which it will write a pickle data stream.

If the `protocol` parameter is omitted, protocol 0 is used. If `protocol` is specified as a negative value or `HIGHEST_PROTOCOL`, the highest protocol version will be used.

Modifié dans la version 2.3 : Introduced the `protocol` parameter.

`file` must have a `write()` method that accepts a single string argument. It can thus be an open file object, a `StringIO` object, or any other custom object that meets this interface.

`Pickler` objects define one (or two) public methods :

```
dump(obj)
```

Write a pickled representation of `obj` to the open file object given in the constructor. Either the binary or ASCII format will be used, depending on the value of the `protocol` argument passed to the constructor.

```
clear_memo()
```

Clears the pickler's « memo ». The memo is the data structure that remembers which objects the pickler has already seen, so that shared or recursive objects pickled by reference and not by value. This method is useful when re-using picklers.

Note : Prior to Python 2.3, `clear_memo()` was only available on the picklers created by `cPickle`. In the `pickle` module, picklers have an instance variable called `memo` which is a Python dictionary. So to clear the memo for a `pickle` module pickler, you could do the following :

```
mypickler.memo.clear()
```

Code that does not need to support older versions of Python should simply use `clear_memo()`.

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()` method 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.³

`Unpickler` objects are defined as :

```
class pickle.Unpickler(file)
```

This takes a file-like object from which it will read a pickle data stream. This class automatically determines whether the data stream was written in binary mode or not, so it does not need a flag as in the `Pickler` factory.

`file` must have two methods, a `read()` method that takes an integer argument, and a `readline()` method that requires no arguments. Both methods should return a string. Thus `file` can be a file object opened for reading, a `StringIO` object, or any other custom object that meets this interface.

`Unpickler` objects have one (or two) public methods :

```
load()
```

Read a pickled object representation from the open file object given in the constructor, and return the reconstituted object hierarchy specified therein.

This method automatically determines whether the data stream was written in binary mode or not.

```
noload()
```

This is just like `load()` except that it doesn't actually create any objects. This is useful primarily

2. In the `pickle` module these callables are classes, which you could subclass to customize the behavior. However, in the `cPickle` module these callables are factory functions and so cannot be subclassed. One common reason to subclass is to control what objects can actually be unpickled. See section *Subclassing Unpicklers* for more details.

3. *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 : (1) detecting changes, and (2) marshalling a minimal set of changes. Garbage Collection may also become a problem here.

for finding what's called « persistent ids » that may be referenced in a pickle data stream. See section *The pickle protocol* below for more details.

Note : the `noload()` method is currently only available on *Unpickler* objects created with the *cPickle* module. *pickle* module *Unpicklers* do not have the `noload()` method.

11.1.4 What can be pickled and unpickled ?

The following types can be pickled :

- `None`, `True`, and `False`
- integers, long integers, floating point numbers, complex numbers
- normal and Unicode strings
- tuples, lists, sets, and dictionaries containing only picklable objects
- functions defined at the top level of a module
- built-in functions defined at the top level of a module
- classes that are defined at the top level of a module
- instances of such classes whose `__dict__` or the result of calling `__getstate__()` is picklable (see section *The pickle protocol* for details).

Attempts to pickle unpicklable objects will raise the *PicklingError* exception; when this happens, an unspecified number of bytes may have already been written to the underlying file. Trying to pickle a highly recursive data structure may exceed the maximum recursion depth, a *RuntimeError* will be raised in this case. You can carefully raise this limit with `sys.setrecursionlimit()`.

Note that functions (built-in and user-defined) are pickled by « fully qualified » name reference, not by value. This means that only the function name is pickled, along with the name of the module the function is defined in. Neither the function's code, nor any of its function attributes are pickled. Thus the defining module must be importable in the unpickling environment, and the module must contain the named object, otherwise an exception will be raised.⁴

Similarly, classes are pickled by named reference, so the same restrictions in the unpickling environment apply. Note that none of the class's code or data is pickled, so in the following example the class attribute `attr` is not restored in the unpickling environment :

```
class Foo:
    attr = 'a class attr'

picklestring = pickle.dumps(Foo)
```

These restrictions are why picklable functions and classes must be defined in the top level of a module.

Similarly, 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 to the class 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.

11.1.5 The pickle protocol

This section describes the « pickling protocol » that defines the interface between the pickler/unpickler and the objects that are being serialized. This protocol provides a standard way for you to define, customize, and control how your objects are serialized and de-serialized. The description in this section doesn't cover specific customizations that you can employ to make the unpickling environment slightly safer from untrusted pickle data streams; see section *Subclassing Unpicklers* for more details.

4. The exception raised will likely be an *ImportError* or an *AttributeError* but it could be something else.

Pickling and unpickling normal class instances

`object.__getinitargs__()`

When a pickled class instance is unpickled, its `__init__()` method is normally *not* invoked. If it is desirable that the `__init__()` method be called on unpickling, an old-style class can define a method `__getinitargs__()`, which should return a *tuple* of positional arguments to be passed to the class constructor (`__init__()` for example). Keyword arguments are not supported. The `__getinitargs__()` method is called at pickle time; the tuple it returns is incorporated in the pickle for the instance.

`object.__getnewargs__()`

New-style types can provide a `__getnewargs__()` method that is used for protocol 2. Implementing this method is needed if the type establishes some internal invariants when the instance is created, or if the memory allocation is affected by the values passed to the `__new__()` method for the type (as it is for tuples and strings). Instances of a *new-style class* `C` are created using

```
obj = C.__new__(C, *args)
```

where *args* is the result of calling `__getnewargs__()` on the original object; if there is no `__getnewargs__()`, an empty tuple is assumed.

`object.__getstate__()`

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, instead of the contents of the instance's dictionary. If there is no `__getstate__()` method, the instance's `__dict__` is pickled.

`object.__setstate__(state)`

Upon unpickling, if the class also defines the method `__setstate__()`, it is called with the unpickled state.⁵ If there is no `__setstate__()` method, the pickled state 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 and these methods can do what they want.⁶

Note : For *new-style classes*, if `__getstate__()` returns a false value, the `__setstate__()` method will not be called.

Note : At unpickling time, some methods like `__getattr__()`, `__getattribute__()`, or `__setattr__()` may be called upon the instance. In case those methods rely on some internal invariant being true, the type should implement either `__getinitargs__()` or `__getnewargs__()` to establish such an invariant; otherwise, neither `__new__()` nor `__init__()` will be called.

Pickling and unpickling extension types

`object.__reduce__()`

When the `Pickler` encounters an object of a type it knows nothing about — such as an extension type — it looks in two places for a hint of how to pickle it. One alternative is for the object to implement a `__reduce__()` method. If provided, at pickling time `__reduce__()` will be called with no arguments, and it must return either a string or a tuple.

If a string is returned, it names a global variable whose contents are pickled as normal. The string returned by `__reduce__()` should be the object's local name relative to its module; the pickle module searches the module namespace to determine the object's module.

5. These methods can also be used to implement copying class instances.

6. This protocol is also used by the shallow and deep copying operations defined in the `copy` module.

When a tuple is returned, it must be between two and five elements long. Optional elements can either be omitted, or `None` can be provided as their value. The contents of this tuple are pickled as normal and used to reconstruct the object at unpickling time. The semantics of each element are :

- A callable object that will be called to create the initial version of the object. The next element of the tuple will provide arguments for this callable, and later elements provide additional state information that will subsequently be used to fully reconstruct the pickled data.
In the unpickling environment this object must be either a class, a callable registered as a « safe constructor » (see below), or it must have an attribute `__safe_for_unpickling__` with a true value. Otherwise, an `UnpicklingError` will be raised in the unpickling environment. Note that as usual, the callable itself is pickled by name.
- A tuple of arguments for the callable object.
Modifié dans la version 2.5 : Formerly, this argument could also be `None`.
- Optionally, the object's state, which will be passed to the object's `__setstate__()` method as described in section *Pickling and unpickling normal class instances*. If the object has no `__setstate__()` method, then, as above, the value must be a dictionary and it will be added to the object's `__dict__`.
- Optionally, an iterator (and not a sequence) yielding successive list items. These list items will be pickled, and appended to the object using either `obj.append(item)` or `obj.extend(list_of_items)`. This is primarily used for list subclasses, but may be used by other classes as long as they have `append()` and `extend()` methods with the appropriate signature. (Whether `append()` or `extend()` is used depends on which pickle protocol version is used as well as the number of items to append, so both must be supported.)
- Optionally, an iterator (not a sequence) yielding successive dictionary items, which should be tuples of the form `(key, value)`. These items will be pickled and stored to the object using `obj[key] = value`. This is primarily used for dictionary subclasses, but may be used by other classes as long as they implement `__setitem__()`.

`object.__reduce_ex__(protocol)`

It is sometimes useful to know the protocol version when implementing `__reduce__()`. This can be done by implementing a method named `__reduce_ex__()` instead of `__reduce__()`. `__reduce_ex__()`, when it exists, is called in preference over `__reduce__()` (you may still provide `__reduce__()` for backwards compatibility). The `__reduce_ex__()` method will be called with a single integer argument, the protocol version.

The `object` class implements both `__reduce__()` and `__reduce_ex__()`; however, if a subclass overrides `__reduce__()` but not `__reduce_ex__()`, the `__reduce_ex__()` implementation detects this and calls `__reduce__()`.

An alternative to implementing a `__reduce__()` method on the object to be pickled, is to register the callable with the `copy_reg` module. This module provides a way for programs to register « reduction functions » and constructors for user-defined types. Reduction functions have the same semantics and interface as the `__reduce__()` method described above, except that they are called with a single argument, the object to be pickled.

The registered constructor is deemed a « safe constructor » for purposes of unpickling as described above.

Pickling and unpickling external objects

For the benefit of object persistence, the `pickle` module supports the notion of a reference to an object outside the pickled data stream. Such objects are referenced by a « persistent id », which is just an arbitrary string of printable ASCII characters. The resolution of such names is not defined by the `pickle` module; it will delegate this resolution to user defined functions on the pickler and unpickler.⁷

To define external persistent id resolution, you need to set the `persistent_id` attribute of the pickler object and the `persistent_load` attribute of the unpickler object.

7. The actual mechanism for associating these user defined functions is slightly different for `pickle` and `cPickle`. The description given here works the same for both implementations. Users of the `pickle` module could also use subclassing to effect the same results, overriding the `persistent_id()` and `persistent_load()` methods in the derived classes.

To pickle objects that have an external persistent id, the pickler must have a custom `persistent_id()` method that takes an object as an argument and returns either `None` or the persistent id for that object. When `None` is returned, the pickler simply pickles the object as normal. When a persistent id string is returned, the pickler will pickle that string, along with a marker so that the unpickler will recognize the string as a persistent id.

To unpickle external objects, the unpickler must have a custom `persistent_load()` function that takes a persistent id string and returns the referenced object.

Here's a silly example that *might* shed more light :

```
import pickle
from cStringIO import StringIO

src = StringIO()
p = pickle.Pickler(src)

def persistent_id(obj):
    if hasattr(obj, 'x'):
        return 'the value %d' % obj.x
    else:
        return None

p.persistent_id = persistent_id

class Integer:
    def __init__(self, x):
        self.x = x
    def __str__(self):
        return 'My name is integer %d' % self.x

i = Integer(7)
print i
p.dump(i)

datastream = src.getvalue()
print repr(datastream)
dst = StringIO(datastream)

up = pickle.Unpickler(dst)

class FancyInteger(Integer):
    def __str__(self):
        return 'I am the integer %d' % self.x

def persistent_load(persid):
    if persid.startswith('the value '):
        value = int(persid.split()[2])
        return FancyInteger(value)
    else:
        raise pickle.UnpicklingError, 'Invalid persistent id'

up.persistent_load = persistent_load
```

(suite sur la page suivante)

(suite de la page précédente)

```
j = up.load()
print j
```

In the `cPickle` module, the unpickler's `persistent_load` attribute can also be set to a Python list, in which case, when the unpickler reaches a persistent id, the persistent id string will simply be appended to this list. This functionality exists so that a pickle data stream can be « sniffed » for object references without actually instantiating all the objects in a pickle.⁸ Setting `persistent_load` to a list is usually used in conjunction with the `noload()` method on the Unpickler.

11.1.6 Subclassing Unpicklers

By default, unpickling will import any class that it finds in the pickle data. You can control exactly what gets unpickled and what gets called by customizing your unpickler. Unfortunately, exactly how you do this is different depending on whether you're using `pickle` or `cPickle`.⁹

In the `pickle` module, you need to derive a subclass from `Unpickler`, overriding the `load_global()` method. `load_global()` should read two lines from the pickle data stream where the first line will be the name of the module containing the class and the second line will be the name of the instance's class. It then looks up the class, possibly importing the module and digging out the attribute, then it appends what it finds to the unpickler's stack. Later on, this class will be assigned to the `__class__` attribute of an empty class, as a way of magically creating an instance without calling its class's `__init__()`. Your job (should you choose to accept it), would be to have `load_global()` push onto the unpickler's stack, a known safe version of any class you deem safe to unpickle. It is up to you to produce such a class. Or you could raise an error if you want to disallow all unpickling of instances. If this sounds like a hack, you're right. Refer to the source code to make this work.

Things are a little cleaner with `cPickle`, but not by much. To control what gets unpickled, you can set the unpickler's `find_global` attribute to a function or `None`. If it is `None` then any attempts to unpickle instances will raise an `UnpicklingError`. If it is a function, then it should accept a module name and a class name, and return the corresponding class object. It is responsible for looking up the class and performing any necessary imports, and it may raise an error to prevent instances of the class from being unpickled.

The moral of the story is that you should be really careful about the source of the strings your application unpickles.

11.1.7 Example

For the simplest code, use the `dump()` and `load()` functions. Note that a self-referencing list is pickled and restored correctly.

```
import pickle

data1 = {'a': [1, 2.0, 3, 4+6j],
        'b': ('string', u'Unicode string'),
        'c': None}

selfref_list = [1, 2, 3]
selfref_list.append(selfref_list)

output = open('data.pkl', 'wb')
```

(suite sur la page suivante)

8. We'll leave you with the image of Guido and Jim sitting around sniffing pickles in their living rooms.

9. A word of caution : the mechanisms described here use internal attributes and methods, which are subject to change in future versions of Python. We intend to someday provide a common interface for controlling this behavior, which will work in either `pickle` or `cPickle`.

(suite de la page précédente)

```
# Pickle dictionary using protocol 0.
pickle.dump(data1, output)

# Pickle the list using the highest protocol available.
pickle.dump(selfref_list, output, -1)

output.close()
```

The following example reads the resulting pickled data. When reading a pickle-containing file, you should open the file in binary mode because you can't be sure if the ASCII or binary format was used.

```
import pprint, pickle

pkl_file = open('data.pkl', 'rb')

data1 = pickle.load(pkl_file)
pprint.pprint(data1)

data2 = pickle.load(pkl_file)
pprint.pprint(data2)

pkl_file.close()
```

Here's a larger example that shows how to modify pickling behavior for a class. The `TextReader` class opens a text file, and returns the line number and line contents each time its `readline()` method is called. If a `TextReader` instance is pickled, all attributes *except* the file object member are saved. When the instance is unpickled, the file is reopened, and reading resumes from the last location. The `__setstate__()` and `__getstate__()` methods are used to implement this behavior.

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

class TextReader:
    """Print and number lines in a text file."""
    def __init__(self, file):
        self.file = file
        self.fh = open(file)
        self.lineno = 0

    def readline(self):
        self.lineno = self.lineno + 1
        line = self.fh.readline()
        if not line:
            return None
        if line.endswith("\n"):
            line = line[:-1]
        return "%d: %s" % (self.lineno, line)

    def __getstate__(self):
        odict = self.__dict__.copy() # copy the dict since we change it
        del odict['fh']               # remove filehandle entry
        return odict
```

(suite sur la page suivante)

(suite de la page précédente)

```
def __setstate__(self, dict):
    fh = open(dict['file'])          # reopen file
    count = dict['lineno']           # read from file...
    while count:                     # until line count is restored
        fh.readline()
        count = count - 1
    self.__dict__.update(dict)       # update attributes
    self.fh = fh                     # save the file object
```

A sample usage might be something like this :

```
>>> import TextReader
>>> obj = TextReader.TextReader("TextReader.py")
>>> obj.readline()
'1: #!/usr/local/bin/python'
>>> obj.readline()
'2: '
>>> obj.readline()
'3: class TextReader:'
>>> import pickle
>>> pickle.dump(obj, open('save.p', 'wb'))
```

If you want to see that `pickle` works across Python processes, start another Python session, before continuing. What follows can happen from either the same process or a new process.

```
>>> import pickle
>>> reader = pickle.load(open('save.p', 'rb'))
>>> reader.readline()
'4:      """Print and number lines in a text file."""'
```

Voir aussi :

Module `copy_reg` Pickle interface constructor registration for extension types.

Module `shelve` Indexed databases of objects; uses `pickle`.

Module `copy` Shallow and deep object copying.

Module `marshal` High-performance serialization of built-in types.

11.2 cPickle — A faster pickle

The `cPickle` module supports serialization and de-serialization of Python objects, providing an interface and functionality nearly identical to the `pickle` module. There are several differences, the most important being performance and subclassability.

First, `cPickle` can be up to 1000 times faster than `pickle` because the former is implemented in C. Second, in the `cPickle` module the callables `Pickler()` and `Unpickler()` are functions, not classes. This means that you cannot use them to derive custom pickling and unpickling subclasses. Most applications have no need for this functionality and should benefit from the greatly improved performance of the `cPickle` module.

The pickle data stream produced by `pickle` and `cPickle` are identical, so it is possible to use `pickle` and `cPickle` interchangeably with existing pickles.¹⁰

10. Since the pickle data format is actually a tiny stack-oriented programming language, and some freedom is taken in the

There are additional minor differences in API between `cPickle` and `pickle`, however for most applications, they are interchangeable. More documentation is provided in the `pickle` module documentation, which includes a list of the documented differences.

Notes

11.3 copy_reg — Register pickle support functions

Note : The `copy_reg` module has been renamed to `copyreg` in Python 3. The `2to3` tool will automatically adapt imports when converting your sources to Python 3.

The `copy_reg` module offers a way to define functions used while pickling specific objects. The `pickle`, `cPickle`, and `copy` modules use those functions when pickling/copying those objects. The module provides configuration information about object constructors which are not classes. Such constructors may be factory functions or class instances.

`copy_reg.constructor(object)`

Declares *object* to be a valid constructor. If *object* is not callable (and hence not valid as a constructor), raises `TypeError`.

`copy_reg.pickle(type, function[, constructor])`

Declares that *function* should be used as a « reduction » function for objects of type *type*; *type* must not be a « classic » class object. (Classic classes are handled differently; see the documentation for the `pickle` module for details.) *function* should return either a string or a tuple containing two or three elements.

The optional *constructor* parameter, if provided, is a callable object which can be used to reconstruct the object when called with the tuple of arguments returned by *function* at pickling time. `TypeError` will be raised if *object* is a class or *constructor* is not callable.

See the `pickle` module for more details on the interface expected of *function* and *constructor*.

11.3.1 Example

The example below would like to show how to register a pickle function and how it will be used :

```
>>> import copy_reg, copy, pickle
>>> class C(object):
...     def __init__(self, a):
...         self.a = a
...
>>> def pickle_c(c):
...     print("pickling a C instance...")
...     return C, (c.a,)
...
>>> copy_reg.pickle(C, pickle_c)
>>> c = C(1)
>>> d = copy.copy(c)
pickling a C instance...
>>> p = pickle.dumps(c)
pickling a C instance...
```

encodings of certain objects, it is possible that the two modules produce different data streams for the same input objects. However it is guaranteed that they will always be able to read each other's data streams.

11.4 `shelve` — Objet Python persistant

Code source : [Lib/shelve.py](#)

Un *shelf* est un objet persistant, dictionnaire-compatible. La différence avec les bases de données *dbm* est que les valeurs (pas les clés!) dans un *shelf* peuvent être des objets Python arbitraires — n'importe quoi que le module *pickle* peut gérer. Cela inclut la plupart des instances de classe, des types de données récursives, et les objets contenant beaucoup de sous-objets partagés. Les clés sont des chaînes de caractères ordinaires.

`shelve.open(filename, flag='c', protocol=None, writeback=False)`

Open a persistent dictionary. The filename specified is the base filename for the underlying database. As a side-effect, an extension may be added to the filename and more than one file may be created. By default, the underlying database file is opened for reading and writing. The optional *flag* parameter has the same interpretation as the *flag* parameter of *anydbm.open()*.

By default, version 0 pickles are used to serialize values. The version of the pickle protocol can be specified with the *protocol* parameter.

Modifié dans la version 2.3 : The *protocol* parameter was added.

À cause de la sémantique Python, un *shelf* ne peut pas savoir lorsqu'une entrée modifiable de dictionnaire persistant est modifiée. Par défaut les objets modifiés sont écrits *seulement* lorsqu'ils sont assignés à une *shelf* (voir *Exemple*). Si le paramètre optionnel *writeback* est mis à *True*, toutes les entrées déjà accédées sont aussi mises en cache en mémoire, et ré-écrites sur *sync()* et *close()*; cela peut faciliter la modification des entrées modifiables dans le dictionnaire persistant, mais, si vous accédez à beaucoup d'entrées, cela peut consommer beaucoup de mémoire cache, et cela peut rendre l'opération de fermeture très lente puisque toutes les entrées déjà accédées sont ré-écrites (il n'y a aucun moyen de savoir quelles entrées déjà accédées sont mutables, ni lesquelles ont été vraiment modifiées).

Like file objects, shelve objects should be closed explicitly to ensure that the persistent data is flushed to disk.

Avertissement : Puisque le module *shelve* utilise en arrière plan *pickle*, il n'est pas sûr de charger un *shelf* depuis une source non fiable. Comme avec *pickle*, charger un *shelf* peut exécuter du code arbitraire.

Shelf objects support most of the methods supported by dictionaries. This eases the transition from dictionary based scripts to those requiring persistent storage.

Note, the Python 3 transition methods (*viewkeys()*, *viewvalues()*, and *viewitems()*) are not supported.

Deux méthodes supplémentaires sont supportées :

`Shelf.sync()`

Réécrit toutes les entrées dans le cache si le *shelf* a été ouvert avec *writeback* passé à *True*. Vide le cache et synchronise le dictionnaire persistant sur le disque, si faisable. Elle est appelée automatiquement quand le *shelf* est fermé avec *close()*.

`Shelf.close()`

Synchronise et ferme l'objet *dict* persistant. Les opérations sur un *shelf* fermé échouent avec une *ValueError*.

Voir aussi :

[Recette pour un dictionnaire persistant](#) avec un large panel de formats de stockage et ayant la vitesse des dictionnaires natifs.

11.4.1 Limites

- The choice of which database package will be used (such as *dbm*, *gdbm* or *bsddb*) depends on which interface is available. Therefore it is not 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.
- Le module *shelve* ne gère pas l'accès *concurrent* en lecture/écriture sur les objets stockés (les accès simultanés en lecture sont sûrs). Lorsqu'un programme a un *shelf* ouvert en écriture, aucun autre programme ne doit l'avoir ouvert en écriture ou lecture. Le verrouillage des fichier Unix peut être utilisé pour résoudre ce problème, mais cela dépend de la version Unix et nécessite des connaissances à propos de l'implémentation de la base de données utilisée.

class shelve.Shelf(*dict*, *protocol=None*, *writeback=False*)

A subclass of *UserDict.DictMixin* which stores pickled values in the *dict* object.

By default, version 0 pickles are used to serialize values. The version of the pickle protocol can be specified with the *protocol* parameter. See the *pickle* documentation for a discussion of the pickle protocols.

Modifié dans la version 2.3 : The *protocol* parameter was added.

Si le paramètre *writeback* est *True*, l'objet garde en cache toutes les entrées accédées et les écrit dans le *dict* aux moments de synchronisation et de fermeture. Cela permet des opérations naturelles sur les entrées modifiables, mais peut consommer beaucoup plus de mémoire et rendre les temps de synchronisation et de fermeture très longs.

class shelve.BsdDbShelf(*dict*, *protocol=None*, *writeback=False*)

A subclass of *Shelf* which exposes *first()*, *next()*, *previous()*, *last()* and *set_location()* which are available in the *bsddb* module but not in other database modules. The *dict* object passed to the constructor must support those methods. This is generally accomplished by calling one of *bsddb.hashopen()*, *bsddb.btopen()* or *bsddb.rnopen()*. The optional *protocol* and *writeback* parameters have the same interpretation as for the *Shelf* class.

class shelve.DbfilenameShelf(*filename*, *flag='c'*, *protocol=None*, *writeback=False*)

A subclass of *Shelf* which accepts a *filename* instead of a dict-like object. The underlying file will be opened using *anydbm.open()*. By default, the file will be created and opened for both read and write. The optional *flag* parameter has the same interpretation as for the *open()* function. The optional *protocol* and *writeback* parameters have the same interpretation as for the *Shelf* class.

11.4.2 Exemple

Pour résumer l'interface (*key* est une chaîne de caractère, *data* est un objet arbitraire)

```
import shelve

d = shelve.open(filename) # open -- file may get suffix added by low-level
                           # library

d[key] = data             # store data at key (overwrites old data if
                           # using an existing key)
data = d[key]             # retrieve a COPY of 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
klist = d.keys()         # a list of all existing keys (slow!)
```

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```
# as d was opened WITHOUT writeback=True, beware:
d['xx'] = range(4) # this works as expected, but...
d['xx'].append(5)  # *this doesn't!* -- d['xx'] is STILL range(4)!

# having opened d without writeback=True, you need to code carefully:
temp = d['xx']      # extracts the copy
temp.append(5)      # mutates the copy
d['xx'] = temp      # stores the copy right back, to persist it

# or, d=shelve.open(filename,writeback=True) would let you just code
# d['xx'].append(5) and have it work as expected, BUT it would also
# consume more memory and make the d.close() operation slower.

d.close()          # close it
```

Voir aussi :

Module `anydbm` Generic interface to dbm-style databases.

Module `bsddb` BSD db database interface.

Module `dbhash` Thin layer around the `bsddb` which provides an `open()` function like the other database modules.

Module `dbm` Standard Unix database interface.

Module `dumbdbm` Portable implementation of the dbm interface.

Module `gdbm` GNU database interface, based on the dbm interface.

Module `pickle` Sérialisation d'objet utilisé par `shelve`.

Module `cPickle` High-performance version of `pickle`.

11.5 marshal — Internal Python object serialization

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 « persistence » module. For general persistence 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. Therefore, the Python maintainers reserve the right to modify the marshal format in backward incompatible ways should the need arise. If you're serializing and de-serializing Python objects, use the `pickle` module instead – the performance is comparable, version independence is guaranteed, and pickle supports a substantially wider range of objects than marshal.

Avertissement : The `marshal` module is not intended to be secure against erroneous or maliciously constructed data. Never unmarshal data received from an untrusted or unauthenticated source.

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.

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 : booleans, integers, long integers, floating point numbers, complex numbers, strings, Unicode objects, tuples, lists, sets, frozensets, dictionaries, and code objects, where it should be understood that tuples, lists, sets, frozensets and dictionaries are only supported as long as the values contained therein are themselves supported ; and recursive lists, sets and dictionaries should not be written (they will cause infinite loops). The singletons *None*, *Ellipsis* and *StopIteration* can also be marshalled and unmarshalled.

Avertissement : 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. If such an integer is marshaled and read back in on a machine where C's `long int` type has only 32 bits, a Python long integer object is returned instead. While of a different type, the numeric value is the same. (This behavior is new in Python 2.2. In earlier versions, all but the least-significant 32 bits of the value were lost, and a warning message was printed.)

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

The module defines these functions :

`marshal.dump(value, file[, version])`

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 `os.popen()`. It may not be a wrapper such as `TemporaryFile` on Windows. It must be opened in binary mode ('wb' or 'w+b').

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()`.

Nouveau dans la version 2.4 : The *version* argument indicates the data format that `dump` should use (see below).

`marshal.load(file)`

Read one value from the open file and return it. If no valid value is read (e.g. because the data has a different Python version's incompatible marshal format), raise `EOFError`, `ValueError` or `TypeError`. The file must be an open file object opened in binary mode ('rb' or 'r+b').

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

`marshal.dumps(value[, version])`

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.

Nouveau dans la version 2.4 : The *version* argument indicates the data format that `dumps` should use (see below).

`marshal.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.

In addition, the following constants are defined :

`marshal.version`

Indicates the format that the module uses. Version 0 is the historical format, version 1 (added in Python 2.4) shares interned strings and version 2 (added in Python 2.5) uses a binary format for floating point numbers. The current version is 2.

Nouveau dans la version 2.4.

Notes

11.6 anydbm — Generic access to DBM-style databases

Note : The `anydbm` module has been renamed to `dbm` in Python 3. The `2to3` tool will automatically adapt imports when converting your sources to Python 3.

`anydbm` is a generic interface to variants of the DBM database — `dbhash` (requires `bsddb`), `gdbm`, or `dbm`. If none of these modules is installed, the slow-but-simple implementation in module `dumbdbm` will be used.

`anydbm.open(filename[, flag[, mode]])`

Open the database file `filename` and return a corresponding object.

If the database file already exists, the `whichdb` module is used to determine its type and the appropriate module is used ; if it does not exist, the first module listed above that can be imported is used.

The optional `flag` argument must be one of these values :

Valeur	Signification
'r'	Open existing database for reading only (default)
'w'	Open existing database for reading and writing
'c'	Open database for reading and writing, creating it if it doesn't exist
'n'	Always create a new, empty database, open for reading and writing

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).

exception anydbm.error

A tuple containing the exceptions that can be raised by each of the supported modules, with a unique exception also named `anydbm.error` as the first item — the latter is used when `anydbm.error` is raised.

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.

The following example records some hostnames and a corresponding title, and then prints out the contents of the database :

```
import anydbm

# Open database, creating it if necessary.
db = anydbm.open('cache', 'c')

# Record some values
db['www.python.org'] = 'Python Website'
db['www.cnn.com'] = 'Cable News Network'

# Loop through contents. Other dictionary methods
# such as .keys(), .values() also work.
for k, v in db.iteritems():
    print k, '\t', v

# Storing a non-string key or value will raise an exception (most
# likely a TypeError).
```

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```
db['www.yahoo.com'] = 4

# Close when done.
db.close()
```

In addition to the dictionary-like methods, **anydbm** objects provide the following method :

anydbm.close()
Close the **anydbm** database.

Voir aussi :

Module **dbhash** BSD db database interface.

Module **dbm** Standard Unix database interface.

Module **dumbdbm** Portable implementation of the **dbm** interface.

Module **gdbm** GNU database interface, based on the **dbm** interface.

Module **shelve** General object persistence built on top of the Python **dbm** interface.

Module **whichdb** Utility module used to determine the type of an existing database.

11.7 whichdb — Guess which DBM module created a database

Note : The **whichdb** module's only function has been put into the **dbm** module in Python 3. The **2to3** tool will automatically adapt imports when converting your sources to Python 3.

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.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'**.

11.8 dbm — Simple « database » interface

Note : The **dbm** module has been renamed to **dbm.ndbm** in Python 3. The **2to3** tool will automatically adapt imports when converting your sources to Python 3.

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.

This module can be used with the « classic » ndbm interface, the BSD DB compatibility interface, or the GNU GDBM compatibility interface. On Unix, the **configure** script will attempt to locate the appropriate header file to simplify building this module.

Le module définit :

exception dbm.error

Raised on dbm-specific errors, such as I/O errors. **KeyError** is raised for general mapping errors like specifying an incorrect key.

dbm.library

Name of the `ndbm` implementation library used.

dbm.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; note that the BSD DB implementation of the interface will append the extension `.db` and only create one file).

The optional *flag* argument must be one of these values :

Valeur	Signification
'r'	Open existing database for reading only (default)
'w'	Open existing database for reading and writing
'c'	Open database for reading and writing, creating it if it doesn't exist
'n'	Always create a new, empty database, open for reading and writing

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).

In addition to the dictionary-like methods, `dbm` objects provide the following method :

dbm.close()

Close the `dbm` database.

Voir aussi :

Module `anydbm` Generic interface to `dbm`-style databases.

Module `gdbm` Similar interface to the GNU GDBM library.

Module `whichdb` Utility module used to determine the type of an existing database.

11.9 gdbm — GNU's reinterpretation of dbm

Note : The `gdbm` module has been renamed to `dbm.gnu` in Python 3. The `2to3` tool will automatically adapt imports when converting your sources to Python 3.

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 :

exception gdbm.error

Raised on `gdbm`-specific errors, such as I/O errors. `KeyError` is raised for general mapping errors like specifying an incorrect key.

gdbm.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 :

Valeur	Signification
'r'	Open existing database for reading only (default)
'w'	Open existing database for reading and writing
'c'	Open database for reading and writing, creating it if it doesn't exist
'n'	Always create a new, empty database, open for reading and writing

The following additional characters may be appended to the flag to control how the database is opened :

Valeur	Signification
'f'	Open the database in fast mode. Writes to the database will not be synchronized.
's'	Synchronized mode. This will cause changes to the database to be immediately written to the file.
'u'	Do not lock database.

Not all flags are valid for all versions of `gdbm`. The module constant `open_flags` is a string of supported flag characters. The exception `error` is raised if an invalid flag is specified.

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 :

`gdbm.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.

`gdbm.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)
```

`gdbm.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.

`gdbm.sync()`

When the database has been opened in fast mode, this method forces any unwritten data to be written to the disk.

`gdbm.close()`

Close the `gdbm` database.

Voir aussi :

Module `anydbm` Generic interface to `dbm`-style databases.

Module `whichdb` Utility module used to determine the type of an existing database.

11.10 dbhash — DBM-style interface to the BSD database library

Obsolète depuis la version 2.6 : The `dbhash` module has been removed in Python 3.

The `dbhash` module provides a function to open databases using the BSD `db` library. This module mirrors the interface of the other Python database modules that provide access to DBM-style databases. The `bsddb` module is required to use `dbhash`.

This module provides an exception and a function :

exception `dbhash.error`

Exception raised on database errors other than [*KeyError*](#). It is a synonym for `bsddb.error`.

`dbhash.open(path[, flag[, mode]])`

Open a `db` database and return the database object. The *path* argument is the name of the database file.

The *flag* argument can be :

Valeur	Signification
'r'	Open existing database for reading only (default)
'w'	Open existing database for reading and writing
'c'	Open database for reading and writing, creating it if it doesn't exist
'n'	Always create a new, empty database, open for reading and writing

For platforms on which the BSD `db` library supports locking, an `'l'` can be appended to indicate that locking should be used.

The optional *mode* parameter is used to indicate the Unix permission bits that should be set if a new database must be created; this will be masked by the current `umask` value for the process.

Voir aussi :

Module [anydbm](#) Generic interface to `dbm`-style databases.

Module [bsddb](#) Lower-level interface to the BSD `db` library.

Module [whichdb](#) Utility module used to determine the type of an existing database.

11.10.1 Database Objects

The database objects returned by [*open\(\)*](#) provide the methods common to all the DBM-style databases and mapping objects. The following methods are available in addition to the standard methods.

`dbhash.first()`

It's possible to loop over every key/value pair in the database using this method and the [*next\(\)*](#) method. The traversal is ordered by the databases internal hash values, and won't be sorted by the key values. This method returns the starting key.

`dbhash.last()`

Return the last key/value pair in a database traversal. This may be used to begin a reverse-order traversal; see [*previous\(\)*](#).

`dbhash.next()`

Returns the key next key/value pair in a database traversal. The following code prints every key in the database `db`, without having to create a list in memory that contains them all :

```
print db.first()
for i in xrange(1, len(db)):
    print db.next()
```

`dbhash.previous()`

Returns the previous key/value pair in a forward-traversal of the database. In conjunction with [*last\(\)*](#), this may be used to implement a reverse-order traversal.

`dbhash.sync()`

This method forces any unwritten data to be written to the disk.

11.11 bsddb — Interface to Berkeley DB library

Obsolète depuis la version 2.6 : The `bsddb` module has been removed in Python 3.

The `bsddb` module provides an interface to the Berkeley DB library. Users can create hash, btree or record based library files using the appropriate open call. Bsddb objects behave generally like dictionaries. Keys and values must be strings, however, so to use other objects as keys or to store other kinds of objects the user must serialize them somehow, typically using `marshal.dumps()` or `pickle.dumps()`.

The `bsddb` module requires a Berkeley DB library version from 4.0 thru 4.7.

Voir aussi :

<http://www.jcea.es/programacion/pybsddb.htm> The website with documentation for the `bsddb.db` Python Berkeley DB interface that closely mirrors the object oriented interface provided in Berkeley DB 4.x itself.

<http://www.oracle.com/database/berkeley-db/> The Berkeley DB library.

A more modern DB, DBEnv and DBSequence object interface is available in the `bsddb.db` module which closely matches the Berkeley DB C API documented at the above URLs. Additional features provided by the `bsddb.db` API include fine tuning, transactions, logging, and multiprocess concurrent database access.

The following is a description of the legacy `bsddb` interface compatible with the old Python `bsddb` module. Starting in Python 2.5 this interface should be safe for multithreaded access. The `bsddb.db` API is recommended for threading users as it provides better control.

The `bsddb` module defines the following functions that create objects that access the appropriate type of Berkeley DB file. The first two arguments of each function are the same. For ease of portability, only the first two arguments should be used in most instances.

```
bsddb.hashopen(filename[, flag[, mode[, pgsz[, ffactor[, nelem[, cachesize[, lorder[, hflags]]]]]]])
```

Open the hash format file named *filename*. Files never intended to be preserved on disk may be created by passing `None` as the *filename*. The optional *flag* identifies the mode used to open the file. It may be 'r' (read only), 'w' (read-write), 'c' (read-write - create if necessary; the default) or 'n' (read-write - truncate to zero length). The other arguments are rarely used and are just passed to the low-level `dbopen()` function. Consult the Berkeley DB documentation for their use and interpretation.

```
bsddb.btopen(filename[, flag[, mode[, btflags[, cachesize[, maxkeypage[, minkeypage[, pgsz[, lorder]]]]]]])
```

Open the btree format file named *filename*. Files never intended to be preserved on disk may be created by passing `None` as the *filename*. The optional *flag* identifies the mode used to open the file. It may be 'r' (read only), 'w' (read-write), 'c' (read-write - create if necessary; the default) or 'n' (read-write - truncate to zero length). The other arguments are rarely used and are just passed to the low-level `dbopen` function. Consult the Berkeley DB documentation for their use and interpretation.

```
bsddb.rnopen(filename[, flag[, mode[, rnflags[, cachesize[, pgsz[, lorder[, rlen[, delim[, source[, pad]]]]]]]]])
```

Open a DB record format file named *filename*. Files never intended to be preserved on disk may be created by passing `None` as the *filename*. The optional *flag* identifies the mode used to open the file. It may be 'r' (read only), 'w' (read-write), 'c' (read-write - create if necessary; the default) or 'n' (read-write - truncate to zero length). The other arguments are rarely used and are just passed to the low-level `dbopen` function. Consult the Berkeley DB documentation for their use and interpretation.

Note : Beginning in 2.3 some Unix versions of Python may have a `bsddb185` module. This is present *only* to allow backwards compatibility with systems which ship with the old Berkeley DB 1.85 database library.

The `bsddb185` module should never be used directly in new code. The module has been removed in Python 3. If you find you still need it look in PyPI.

Voir aussi :

Module `dbhash` DBM-style interface to the `bsddb`

11.11.1 Hash, BTree and Record Objects

Once instantiated, hash, btree and record objects support the same methods as dictionaries. In addition, they support the methods listed below.

Modifié dans la version 2.3.1 : Added dictionary methods.

`bsddbobject.close()`

Close the underlying file. The object can no longer be accessed. Since there is no open `open()` method for these objects, to open the file again a new `bsddb` module open function must be called.

`bsddbobject.keys()`

Return the list of keys contained in the DB file. The order of the list is unspecified and should not be relied on. In particular, the order of the list returned is different for different file formats.

`bsddbobject.has_key(key)`

Return 1 if the DB file contains the argument as a key.

`bsddbobject.set_location(key)`

Set the cursor to the item indicated by `key` and return a tuple containing the key and its value. For binary tree databases (opened using `btopen()`), if `key` does not actually exist in the database, the cursor will point to the next item in sorted order and return that key and value. For other databases, `KeyError` will be raised if `key` is not found in the database.

`bsddbobject.first()`

Set the cursor to the first item in the DB file and return it. The order of keys in the file is unspecified, except in the case of B-Tree databases. This method raises `bsddb.error` if the database is empty.

`bsddbobject.next()`

Set the cursor to the next item in the DB file and return it. The order of keys in the file is unspecified, except in the case of B-Tree databases.

`bsddbobject.previous()`

Set the cursor to the previous item in the DB file and return it. The order of keys in the file is unspecified, except in the case of B-Tree databases. This is not supported on hashtable databases (those opened with `hashopen()`).

`bsddbobject.last()`

Set the cursor to the last item in the DB file and return it. The order of keys in the file is unspecified. This is not supported on hashtable databases (those opened with `hashopen()`). This method raises `bsddb.error` if the database is empty.

`bsddbobject.sync()`

Synchronize the database on disk.

Exemple :

```
>>> import bsddb
>>> db = bsddb.btopen('spam.db', 'c')
>>> for i in range(10): db['%d%i'] = '%d%' (i*i)
...

```

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```
>>> db['3']
'9'
>>> db.keys()
['0', '1', '2', '3', '4', '5', '6', '7', '8', '9']
>>> db.first()
('0', '0')
>>> db.next()
('1', '1')
>>> db.last()
('9', '81')
>>> db.set_location('2')
('2', '4')
>>> db.previous()
('1', '1')
>>> for k, v in db.iteritems():
...     print k, v
0 0
1 1
2 4
3 9
4 16
5 25
6 36
7 49
8 64
9 81
>>> '8' in db
True
>>> db.sync()
0
```

11.12 dumbdbm — Portable DBM implementation

Note : The `dumbdbm` module has been renamed to `dbm.dumb` in Python 3. The `2to3` tool will automatically adapt imports when converting your sources to Python 3.

Note : The `dumbdbm` module is intended as a last resort fallback for the `anydbm` module when no more robust module is available. The `dumbdbm` module is not written for speed and is not nearly as heavily used as the other database modules.

The `dumbdbm` module provides a persistent dictionary-like interface which is written entirely in Python. Unlike other modules such as `gdbm` and `bsddb`, no external library is required. As with other persistent mappings, the keys and values must always be strings.

Le module définit :

exception `dumbdbm.error`

Raised on dumbdbm-specific errors, such as I/O errors. `KeyError` is raised for general mapping errors like specifying an incorrect key.

```
dumbdbm.open(filename[, flag[, mode]])
```

Open a dumbdbm database and return a dumbdbm object. The *filename* argument is the basename of the database file (without any specific extensions). When a dumbdbm database is created, files with *.dat* and *.dir* extensions are created.

The optional *flag* argument is currently ignored; the database is always opened for update, and will be created if it does not exist.

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).

Modifié dans la version 2.2 : The *mode* argument was ignored in earlier versions.

In addition to the dictionary-like methods, **dumbdbm** objects provide the following method :

```
dumbdbm.close()
```

Close the dumbdbm database.

Voir aussi :

Module **anydbm** Generic interface to dbm-style databases.

Module **dbm** Similar interface to the DBM/NDBM library.

Module **gdbm** Similar interface to the GNU GDBM library.

Module **shelve** Persistence module which stores non-string data.

Module **whichdb** Utility module used to determine the type of an existing database.

11.12.1 Dumbdbm Objects

In addition to the methods provided by the *UserDict.DictMixin* class, **dumbdbm** objects provide the following methods.

```
dumbdbm.sync()
```

Synchronize the on-disk directory and data files. This method is called by the *sync()* method of **Shelve** objects.

11.13 sqlite3 — DB-API 2.0 interface for SQLite databases

Nouveau dans la version 2.5.

SQLite is a C library that provides a lightweight disk-based database that doesn't require a separate server process and allows accessing the database using a nonstandard variant of the SQL query language. Some applications can use SQLite for internal data storage. It's also possible to prototype an application using SQLite and then port the code to a larger database such as PostgreSQL or Oracle.

The **sqlite3** module was written by Gerhard Häring. It provides a SQL interface compliant with the DB-API 2.0 specification described by **PEP 249**.

To use the module, you must first create a *Connection* object that represents the database. Here the data will be stored in the **example.db** file :

```
import sqlite3
conn = sqlite3.connect('example.db')
```

You can also supply the special name **:memory:** to create a database in RAM.

Once you have a *Connection*, you can create a *Cursor* object and call its *execute()* method to perform SQL commands :

```
c = conn.cursor()

# Create table
c.execute('CREATE TABLE stocks
          (date text, trans text, symbol text, qty real, price real)')

# Insert a row of data
c.execute("INSERT INTO stocks VALUES ('2006-01-05','BUY','RHAT',100,35.14)")

# Save (commit) the changes
conn.commit()

# We can also close the connection if we are done with it.
# Just be sure any changes have been committed or they will be lost.
conn.close()
```

The data you've saved is persistent and is available in subsequent sessions :

```
import sqlite3
conn = sqlite3.connect('example.db')
c = conn.cursor()
```

Usually your SQL operations will need to use values from Python variables. You shouldn't assemble your query using Python's string operations because doing so is insecure; it makes your program vulnerable to an SQL injection attack (see <https://xkcd.com/327/> for humorous example of what can go wrong).

Instead, use the DB-API's parameter substitution. Put `?` as a placeholder wherever you want to use a value, and then provide a tuple of values as the second argument to the cursor's `execute()` method. (Other database modules may use a different placeholder, such as `%s` or `:1`.) For example :

```
# Never do this -- insecure!
symbol = 'RHAT'
c.execute("SELECT * FROM stocks WHERE symbol = '%s'" % symbol)

# Do this instead
t = ('RHAT',)
c.execute('SELECT * FROM stocks WHERE symbol=?', t)
print c.fetchone()

# Larger example that inserts many records at a time
purchases = [('2006-03-28', 'BUY', 'IBM', 1000, 45.00),
              ('2006-04-05', 'BUY', 'MSFT', 1000, 72.00),
              ('2006-04-06', 'SELL', 'IBM', 500, 53.00),
              ]
c.executemany('INSERT INTO stocks VALUES (?, ?, ?, ?, ?)', purchases)
```

To retrieve data after executing a `SELECT` statement, you can either treat the cursor as an *iterator*, call the cursor's `fetchone()` method to retrieve a single matching row, or call `fetchall()` to get a list of the matching rows.

This example uses the iterator form :

```
>>> for row in c.execute('SELECT * FROM stocks ORDER BY price'):
      print row
```

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```
(u'2006-01-05', u'BUY', u'RHAT', 100, 35.14)
(u'2006-03-28', u'BUY', u'IBM', 1000, 45.0)
(u'2006-04-06', u'SELL', u'IBM', 500, 53.0)
(u'2006-04-05', u'BUY', u'MSFT', 1000, 72.0)
```

Voir aussi :

<https://github.com/ghaering/pysqlite> The pysqlite web page – sqlite3 is developed externally under the name « pysqlite ».

<https://www.sqlite.org> The SQLite web page; the documentation describes the syntax and the available data types for the supported SQL dialect.

<http://www.w3schools.com/sql/> Tutorial, reference and examples for learning SQL syntax.

PEP 249 - Database API Specification 2.0 PEP written by Marc-André Lemburg.

11.13.1 Module functions and constants

sqlite3.version

The version number of this module, as a string. This is not the version of the SQLite library.

sqlite3.version_info

The version number of this module, as a tuple of integers. This is not the version of the SQLite library.

sqlite3.sqlite_version

The version number of the run-time SQLite library, as a string.

sqlite3.sqlite_version_info

The version number of the run-time SQLite library, as a tuple of integers.

sqlite3.PARSE_DECLTYPES

This constant is meant to be used with the *detect_types* parameter of the *connect()* function.

Setting it makes the *sqlite3* module parse the declared type for each column it returns. It will parse out the first word of the declared type, i. e. for « integer primary key », it will parse out « integer », or for « number(10) » it will parse out « number ». Then for that column, it will look into the converters dictionary and use the converter function registered for that type there.

sqlite3.PARSE_COLNAMES

This constant is meant to be used with the *detect_types* parameter of the *connect()* function.

Setting this makes the SQLite interface parse the column name for each column it returns. It will look for a string formed [mytype] in there, and then decide that “mytype” is the type of the column. It will try to find an entry of “mytype” in the converters dictionary and then use the converter function found there to return the value. The column name found in *Cursor.description* is only the first word of the column name, i. e. if you use something like 'as "x [datetime]"' in your SQL, then we will parse out everything until the first blank for the column name : the column name would simply be « x ».

sqlite3.connect(*database*, [*timeout*, *detect_types*, *isolation_level*, *check_same_thread*, *factory*, *cached_statements*])

Opens a connection to the SQLite database file *database*. You can use `":memory:"` to open a database connection to a database that resides in RAM instead of on disk.

When a database is accessed by multiple connections, and one of the processes modifies the database, the SQLite database is locked until that transaction is committed. The *timeout* parameter specifies how long the connection should wait for the lock to go away until raising an exception. The default for the timeout parameter is 5.0 (five seconds).

For the *isolation_level* parameter, please see the *Connection.isolation_level* property of *Connection* objects.

SQLite natively supports only the types TEXT, INTEGER, REAL, BLOB and NULL. If you want to use other types you must add support for them yourself. The *detect_types* parameter and the using custom **converters** registered with the module-level *register_converter()* function allow you to easily do that.

detect_types defaults to 0 (i. e. off, no type detection), you can set it to any combination of *PARSE_DECLTYPES* and *PARSE_COLNAMES* to turn type detection on.

By default, the *sqlite3* module uses its *Connection* class for the connect call. You can, however, subclass the *Connection* class and make *connect()* use your class instead by providing your class for the *factory* parameter.

Consult the section *SQLite and Python types* of this manual for details.

The *sqlite3* module internally uses a statement cache to avoid SQL parsing overhead. If you want to explicitly set the number of statements that are cached for the connection, you can set the *cached_statements* parameter. The currently implemented default is to cache 100 statements.

sqlite3.register_converter(*typename*, *callable*)

Registers a callable to convert a bytestring from the database into a custom Python type. The callable will be invoked for all database values that are of the type *typename*. Confer the parameter *detect_types* of the *connect()* function for how the type detection works. Note that *typename* and the name of the type in your query are matched in case-insensitive manner.

sqlite3.register_adapter(*type*, *callable*)

Registers a callable to convert the custom Python type *type* into one of SQLite's supported types. The callable *callable* accepts as single parameter the Python value, and must return a value of the following types : int, long, float, str (UTF-8 encoded), unicode or buffer.

sqlite3.complete_statement(*sql*)

Returns *True* if the string *sql* contains one or more complete SQL statements terminated by semicolons. It does not verify that the SQL is syntactically correct, only that there are no unclosed string literals and the statement is terminated by a semicolon.

This can be used to build a shell for SQLite, as in the following example :

```
# A minimal SQLite shell for experiments

import sqlite3

con = sqlite3.connect(":memory:")
con.isolation_level = None
cur = con.cursor()

buffer = ""

print "Enter your SQL commands to execute in sqlite3."
print "Enter a blank line to exit."

while True:
    line = raw_input()
    if line == "":
        break
    buffer += line
    if sqlite3.complete_statement(buffer):
        try:
            buffer = buffer.strip()
```

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```

        cur.execute(buffer)

        if buffer.lstrip().upper().startswith("SELECT"):
            print cur.fetchall()
        except sqlite3.Error as e:
            print "An error occurred:", e.args[0]
        buffer = ""

con.close()

```

sqlite3.enable_callback_tracebacks(flag)

By default you will not get any tracebacks in user-defined functions, aggregates, converters, authorizer callbacks etc. If you want to debug them, you can call this function with *flag* set to **True**. Afterwards, you will get tracebacks from callbacks on `sys.stderr`. Use **False** to disable the feature again.

11.13.2 Connection Objects**class sqlite3.Connection**

A SQLite database connection has the following attributes and methods :

isolation_level

Get or set the current isolation level. *None* for autocommit mode or one of « DEFERRED », « IMMEDIATE » or « EXCLUSIVE ». See section *Controlling Transactions* for a more detailed explanation.

cursor(factory=Cursor)

The cursor method accepts a single optional parameter *factory*. If supplied, this must be a callable returning an instance of *Cursor* or its subclasses.

commit()

This method commits the current transaction. If you don't call this method, anything you did since the last call to `commit()` is not visible from other database connections. If you wonder why you don't see the data you've written to the database, please check you didn't forget to call this method.

rollback()

This method rolls back any changes to the database since the last call to `commit()`.

close()

This closes the database connection. Note that this does not automatically call `commit()`. If you just close your database connection without calling `commit()` first, your changes will be lost !

execute(sql[, parameters])

This is a nonstandard shortcut that creates an intermediate cursor object by calling the cursor method, then calls the cursor's `execute` method with the parameters given.

executemany(sql[, parameters])

This is a nonstandard shortcut that creates an intermediate cursor object by calling the cursor method, then calls the cursor's `executemany` method with the parameters given.

executescript(sql_script)

This is a nonstandard shortcut that creates an intermediate cursor object by calling the cursor method, then calls the cursor's `executescript` method with the parameters given.

create_function(name, num_params, func)

Creates a user-defined function that you can later use from within SQL statements under the function name *name*. *num_params* is the number of parameters the function accepts, and *func* is a Python callable that is called as the SQL function.

The function can return any of the types supported by SQLite : unicode, str, int, long, float, buffer and None.

Exemple :

```
import sqlite3
import md5

def md5sum(t):
    return md5.md5(t).hexdigest()

con = sqlite3.connect(":memory:")
con.create_function("md5", 1, md5sum)
cur = con.cursor()
cur.execute("select md5(?)", ("foo",))
print cur.fetchone()[0]
```

create_aggregate(*name*, *num_params*, *aggregate_class*)

Creates a user-defined aggregate function.

The aggregate class must implement a **step** method, which accepts the number of parameters *num_params*, and a **finalize** method which will return the final result of the aggregate.

The **finalize** method can return any of the types supported by SQLite : unicode, str, int, long, float, buffer and None.

Exemple :

```
import sqlite3

class MySum:
    def __init__(self):
        self.count = 0

    def step(self, value):
        self.count += value

    def finalize(self):
        return self.count

con = sqlite3.connect(":memory:")
con.create_aggregate("mysum", 1, MySum)
cur = con.cursor()
cur.execute("create table test(i)")
cur.execute("insert into test(i) values (1)")
cur.execute("insert into test(i) values (2)")
cur.execute("select mysum(i) from test")
print cur.fetchone()[0]
```

create_collation(*name*, *callable*)

Creates a collation with the specified *name* and *callable*. The callable will be passed two string arguments. It should return -1 if the first is ordered lower than the second, 0 if they are ordered equal and 1 if the first is ordered higher than the second. Note that this controls sorting (ORDER BY in SQL) so your comparisons don't affect other SQL operations.

Note that the callable will get its parameters as Python bytestrings, which will normally be encoded in UTF-8.

The following example shows a custom collation that sorts « the wrong way » :

```
import sqlite3
```

(suite sur la page suivante)

(suite de la page précédente)

```
def collate_reverse(string1, string2):
    return -cmp(string1, string2)

con = sqlite3.connect(":memory:")
con.create_collation("reverse", collate_reverse)

cur = con.cursor()
cur.execute("create table test(x)")
cur.executemany("insert into test(x) values (?)", [("a",), ("b",)])
cur.execute("select x from test order by x collate reverse")
for row in cur:
    print row
con.close()
```

To remove a collation, call `create_collation` with `None` as callable :

```
con.create_collation("reverse", None)
```

`interrupt()`

You can call this method from a different thread to abort any queries that might be executing on the connection. The query will then abort and the caller will get an exception.

`set_authorizer(authorizer_callback)`

This routine registers a callback. The callback is invoked for each attempt to access a column of a table in the database. The callback should return `SQLITE_OK` if access is allowed, `SQLITE_DENY` if the entire SQL statement should be aborted with an error and `SQLITE_IGNORE` if the column should be treated as a NULL value. These constants are available in the `sqlite3` module.

The first argument to the callback signifies what kind of operation is to be authorized. The second and third argument will be arguments or `None` depending on the first argument. The 4th argument is the name of the database (« main », « temp », etc.) if applicable. The 5th argument is the name of the inner-most trigger or view that is responsible for the access attempt or `None` if this access attempt is directly from input SQL code.

Please consult the SQLite documentation about the possible values for the first argument and the meaning of the second and third argument depending on the first one. All necessary constants are available in the `sqlite3` module.

`set_progress_handler(handler, n)`

This routine registers a callback. The callback is invoked for every *n* instructions of the SQLite virtual machine. This is useful if you want to get called from SQLite during long-running operations, for example to update a GUI.

If you want to clear any previously installed progress handler, call the method with `None` for *handler*.

Nouveau dans la version 2.6.

`enable_load_extension(enabled)`

This routine allows/disallows the SQLite engine to load SQLite extensions from shared libraries. SQLite extensions can define new functions, aggregates or whole new virtual table implementations. One well-known extension is the fulltext-search extension distributed with SQLite.

Loadable extensions are disabled by default. See ¹.

Nouveau dans la version 2.7.

1. The `sqlite3` module is not built with loadable extension support by default, because some platforms (notably Mac OS X) have SQLite libraries which are compiled without this feature. To get loadable extension support, you must modify `setup.py` and remove the line that sets `SQLITE_OMIT_LOAD_EXTENSION`.

```

import sqlite3

con = sqlite3.connect(":memory:")

# enable extension loading
con.enable_load_extension(True)

# Load the fulltext search extension
con.execute("select load_extension('./fts3.so')")

# alternatively you can load the extension using an API call:
# con.load_extension("./fts3.so")

# disable extension loading again
con.enable_load_extension(False)

# example from SQLite wiki
con.execute("create virtual table recipe using fts3(name, ingredients)")
con.executescript("""
    insert into recipe (name, ingredients) values ('broccoli stew', 'broccoli
↪peppers cheese tomatoes');
    insert into recipe (name, ingredients) values ('pumpkin stew', 'pumpkin
↪onions garlic celery');
    insert into recipe (name, ingredients) values ('broccoli pie', 'broccoli
↪cheese onions flour');
    insert into recipe (name, ingredients) values ('pumpkin pie', 'pumpkin
↪sugar flour butter');
""")
for row in con.execute("select rowid, name, ingredients from recipe where name
↪match 'pie'"):
    print row

```

load_extension(path)

This routine loads a SQLite extension from a shared library. You have to enable extension loading with `enable_load_extension()` before you can use this routine.

Loadable extensions are disabled by default. See¹.

Nouveau dans la version 2.7.

row_factory

You can change this attribute to a callable that accepts the cursor and the original row as a tuple and will return the real result row. This way, you can implement more advanced ways of returning results, such as returning an object that can also access columns by name.

Exemple :

```

import sqlite3

def dict_factory(cursor, row):
    d = {}
    for idx, col in enumerate(cursor.description):
        d[col[0]] = row[idx]
    return d

con = sqlite3.connect(":memory:")
con.row_factory = dict_factory

```

(suite sur la page suivante)

(suite de la page précédente)

```

cur = con.cursor()
cur.execute("select 1 as a")
print cur.fetchone()["a"]

```

If returning a tuple doesn't suffice and you want name-based access to columns, you should consider setting `row_factory` to the highly-optimized `sqlite3.Row` type. `Row` provides both index-based and case-insensitive name-based access to columns with almost no memory overhead. It will probably be better than your own custom dictionary-based approach or even a `db_row` based solution.

text_factory

Using this attribute you can control what objects are returned for the TEXT data type. By default, this attribute is set to `unicode` and the `sqlite3` module will return Unicode objects for TEXT. If you want to return bytestrings instead, you can set it to `str`.

For efficiency reasons, there's also a way to return Unicode objects only for non-ASCII data, and bytestrings otherwise. To activate it, set this attribute to `sqlite3.OptimizedUnicode`.

You can also set it to any other callable that accepts a single bytestring parameter and returns the resulting object.

See the following example code for illustration :

```

import sqlite3

con = sqlite3.connect(":memory:")
cur = con.cursor()

AUSTRIA = u"\xd6sterreich"

# by default, rows are returned as Unicode
cur.execute("select ?", (AUSTRIA,))
row = cur.fetchone()
assert row[0] == AUSTRIA

# but we can make sqlite3 always return bytestrings ...
con.text_factory = str
cur.execute("select ?", (AUSTRIA,))
row = cur.fetchone()
assert type(row[0]) is str
# the bytestrings will be encoded in UTF-8, unless you stored garbage in the
# database ...
assert row[0] == AUSTRIA.encode("utf-8")

# we can also implement a custom text_factory ...
# here we implement one that will ignore Unicode characters that cannot be
# decoded from UTF-8
con.text_factory = lambda x: unicode(x, "utf-8", "ignore")
cur.execute("select ?", ("this is latin1 and would normally create errors" +
                        u"\xe4\xfc\xfc".encode("latin1"),))
row = cur.fetchone()
assert type(row[0]) is unicode

# sqlite3 offers a built-in optimized text_factory that will return bytestring
# objects, if the data is in ASCII only, and otherwise return unicode objects
con.text_factory = sqlite3.OptimizedUnicode

```

(suite sur la page suivante)

(suite de la page précédente)

```

cur.execute("select ?", (AUSTRIA,))
row = cur.fetchone()
assert type(row[0]) is unicode

cur.execute("select ?", ("Germany",))
row = cur.fetchone()
assert type(row[0]) is str

```

total_changes

Returns the total number of database rows that have been modified, inserted, or deleted since the database connection was opened.

iterdump

Returns an iterator to dump the database in an SQL text format. Useful when saving an in-memory database for later restoration. This function provides the same capabilities as the `.dump` command in the `sqlite3` shell.

Nouveau dans la version 2.6.

Exemple :

```

# Convert file existing_db.db to SQL dump file dump.sql
import sqlite3, os

con = sqlite3.connect('existing_db.db')
with open('dump.sql', 'w') as f:
    for line in con.iterdump():
        f.write('%s\n' % line)

```

11.13.3 Cursor Objects

class sqlite3.Cursor

A *Cursor* instance has the following attributes and methods.

execute(sql[, parameters])

Executes an SQL statement. The SQL statement may be parameterized (i. e. placeholders instead of SQL literals). The `sqlite3` module supports two kinds of placeholders : question marks (qmark style) and named placeholders (named style).

Here's an example of both styles :

```

import sqlite3

con = sqlite3.connect(":memory:")
cur = con.cursor()
cur.execute("create table people (name_last, age)")

who = "Yeltsin"
age = 72

# This is the qmark style:
cur.execute("insert into people values (?, ?)", (who, age))

# And this is the named style:
cur.execute("select * from people where name_last=:who and age=:age", {"who": who,
↵:who, "age": age})

```

(suite sur la page suivante)

(suite de la page précédente)

```
print cur.fetchone()
```

`execute()` will only execute a single SQL statement. If you try to execute more than one statement with it, it will raise a `Warning`. Use `executescript()` if you want to execute multiple SQL statements with one call.

executemany(*sql*, *seq_of_parameters*)

Executes an SQL command against all parameter sequences or mappings found in the sequence *sql*. The `sqlite3` module also allows using an *iterator* yielding parameters instead of a sequence.

```
import sqlite3

class IterChars:
    def __init__(self):
        self.count = ord('a')

    def __iter__(self):
        return self

    def next(self):
        if self.count > ord('z'):
            raise StopIteration
        self.count += 1
        return (chr(self.count - 1),) # this is a 1-tuple

con = sqlite3.connect(":memory:")
cur = con.cursor()
cur.execute("create table characters(c)")

theIter = IterChars()
cur.executemany("insert into characters(c) values (?)", theIter)

cur.execute("select c from characters")
print cur.fetchall()
```

Here's a shorter example using a *generator* :

```
import sqlite3
import string

def char_generator():
    for c in string.lowercase:
        yield (c,)

con = sqlite3.connect(":memory:")
cur = con.cursor()
cur.execute("create table characters(c)")

cur.executemany("insert into characters(c) values (?)", char_generator())

cur.execute("select c from characters")
print cur.fetchall()
```

executescript(*sql_script*)

This is a nonstandard convenience method for executing multiple SQL statements at once. It

issues a `COMMIT` statement first, then executes the SQL script it gets as a parameter.

`sql_script` can be a bytestring or a Unicode string.

Exemple :

```
import sqlite3

con = sqlite3.connect(":memory:")
cur = con.cursor()
cur.executescript("""
    create table person(
        firstname,
        lastname,
        age
    );

    create table book(
        title,
        author,
        published
    );

    insert into book(title, author, published)
    values (
        'Dirk Gently's Holistic Detective Agency',
        'Douglas Adams',
        1987
    );
""")
```

fetchone()

Fetches the next row of a query result set, returning a single sequence, or *None* when no more data is available.

fetchmany([size=cursor.arraysize])

Fetches the next set of rows of a query result, returning a list. An empty list is returned when no more rows are available.

The number of rows to fetch per call is specified by the *size* parameter. If it is not given, the cursor's *arraysize* determines the number of rows to be fetched. The method should try to fetch as many rows as indicated by the *size* parameter. If this is not possible due to the specified number of rows not being available, fewer rows may be returned.

Note there are performance considerations involved with the *size* parameter. For optimal performance, it is usually best to use the *arraysize* attribute. If the *size* parameter is used, then it is best for it to retain the same value from one *fetchmany()* call to the next.

fetchall()

Fetches all (remaining) rows of a query result, returning a list. Note that the cursor's *arraysize* attribute can affect the performance of this operation. An empty list is returned when no rows are available.

rowcount

Although the *Cursor* class of the *sqlite3* module implements this attribute, the database engine's own support for the determination of « rows affected »/ « rows selected » is quirky.

For *executemany()* statements, the number of modifications are summed up into *rowcount*.

As required by the Python DB API Spec, the *rowcount* attribute « is -1 in case no *executeXX()* has been performed on the cursor or the rowcount of the last operation is not determinable by the interface ». This includes `SELECT` statements because we cannot determine the number of rows a query produced until all rows were fetched.

With SQLite versions before 3.6.5, *rowcount* is set to 0 if you make a `DELETE FROM table` without any condition.

lastrowid

This read-only attribute provides the rowid of the last modified row. It is only set if you issued an `INSERT` statement using the *execute()* method. For operations other than `INSERT` or when *executemany()* is called, *lastrowid* is set to *None*.

description

This read-only attribute provides the column names of the last query. To remain compatible with the Python DB API, it returns a 7-tuple for each column where the last six items of each tuple are *None*.

It is set for `SELECT` statements without any matching rows as well.

connection

This read-only attribute provides the SQLite database *Connection* used by the *Cursor* object. A *Cursor* object created by calling *con.cursor()* will have a *connection* attribute that refers to *con* :

```
>>> con = sqlite3.connect(":memory:")
>>> cur = con.cursor()
>>> cur.connection == con
True
```

11.13.4 Row Objects

class sqlite3.Row

A *Row* instance serves as a highly optimized *row_factory* for *Connection* objects. It tries to mimic a tuple in most of its features.

It supports mapping access by column name and index, iteration, representation, equality testing and *len()*.

If two *Row* objects have exactly the same columns and their members are equal, they compare equal.

Modifié dans la version 2.6 : Added iteration and equality (hashability).

keys()

This method returns a list of column names. Immediately after a query, it is the first member of each tuple in *Cursor.description*.

Nouveau dans la version 2.6.

Let's assume we initialize a table as in the example given above :

```
conn = sqlite3.connect(":memory:")
c = conn.cursor()
c.execute('create table stocks
(date text, trans text, symbol text,
 qty real, price real)')
c.execute("""insert into stocks
          values ('2006-01-05','BUY','RHAT',100,35.14)""")
conn.commit()
c.close()
```

Now we plug *Row* in :

```
>>> conn.row_factory = sqlite3.Row
>>> c = conn.cursor()
>>> c.execute('select * from stocks')
<sqlite3.Cursor object at 0x7f4e7dd8fa80>
```

(suite sur la page suivante)

(suite de la page précédente)

```

>>> r = c.fetchone()
>>> type(r)
<type 'sqlite3.Row'>
>>> r
(u'2006-01-05', u'BUY', u'RHAT', 100.0, 35.14)
>>> len(r)
5
>>> r[2]
u'RHAT'
>>> r.keys()
['date', 'trans', 'symbol', 'qty', 'price']
>>> r['qty']
100.0
>>> for member in r:
...     print member
...
2006-01-05
BUY
RHAT
100.0
35.14

```

11.13.5 SQLite and Python types

Introduction

SQLite natively supports the following types : NULL, INTEGER, REAL, TEXT, BLOB.

The following Python types can thus be sent to SQLite without any problem :

Type Python	SQLite type
<i>None</i>	NULL
<i>int</i>	INTEGER
<i>long</i>	INTEGER
<i>float</i>	REAL
<i>str</i> (UTF8-encoded)	TEXT
<i>unicode</i>	TEXT
<i>buffer</i>	BLOB

This is how SQLite types are converted to Python types by default :

SQLite type	Type Python
NULL	<i>None</i>
INTEGER	<i>int</i> or <i>long</i> , depending on size
REAL	<i>float</i>
TEXT	depends on <i>text_factory</i> , <i>unicode</i> by default
BLOB	<i>buffer</i>

The type system of the *sqlite3* module is extensible in two ways : you can store additional Python types in a SQLite database via object adaptation, and you can let the *sqlite3* module convert SQLite types to different Python types via converters.

Using adapters to store additional Python types in SQLite databases

As described before, SQLite supports only a limited set of types natively. To use other Python types with SQLite, you must **adapt** them to one of the `sqlite3` module's supported types for SQLite : one of `NoneType`, `int`, `long`, `float`, `str`, `unicode`, `buffer`.

There are two ways to enable the `sqlite3` module to adapt a custom Python type to one of the supported ones.

Letting your object adapt itself

This is a good approach if you write the class yourself. Let's suppose you have a class like this :

```
class Point(object):
    def __init__(self, x, y):
        self.x, self.y = x, y
```

Now you want to store the point in a single SQLite column. First you'll have to choose one of the supported types first to be used for representing the point. Let's just use `str` and separate the coordinates using a semicolon. Then you need to give your class a method `__conform__(self, protocol)` which must return the converted value. The parameter `protocol` will be `PrepareProtocol`.

```
import sqlite3

class Point(object):
    def __init__(self, x, y):
        self.x, self.y = x, y

    def __conform__(self, protocol):
        if protocol is sqlite3.PrepareProtocol:
            return "%f;%f" % (self.x, self.y)

con = sqlite3.connect(":memory:")
cur = con.cursor()

p = Point(4.0, -3.2)
cur.execute("select ?", (p,))
print cur.fetchone()[0]
```

Registering an adapter callable

The other possibility is to create a function that converts the type to the string representation and register the function with `register_adapter()`.

Note : The type/class to adapt must be a *new-style class*, i. e. it must have `object` as one of its bases.

```
import sqlite3

class Point(object):
    def __init__(self, x, y):
        self.x, self.y = x, y

def adapt_point(point):
```

(suite sur la page suivante)

(suite de la page précédente)

```
    return "%f;%f" % (point.x, point.y)

sqlite3.register_adapter(Point, adapt_point)

con = sqlite3.connect(":memory:")
cur = con.cursor()

p = Point(4.0, -3.2)
cur.execute("select ?", (p,))
print cur.fetchone()[0]
```

The `sqlite3` module has two default adapters for Python's built-in `datetime.date` and `datetime.datetime` types. Now let's suppose we want to store `datetime.datetime` objects not in ISO representation, but as a Unix timestamp.

```
import sqlite3
import datetime, time

def adapt_datetime(ts):
    return time.mktime(ts.timetuple())

sqlite3.register_adapter(datetime.datetime, adapt_datetime)

con = sqlite3.connect(":memory:")
cur = con.cursor()

now = datetime.datetime.now()
cur.execute("select ?", (now,))
print cur.fetchone()[0]
```

Converting SQLite values to custom Python types

Writing an adapter lets you send custom Python types to SQLite. But to make it really useful we need to make the Python to SQLite to Python roundtrip work.

Enter converters.

Let's go back to the `Point` class. We stored the `x` and `y` coordinates separated via semicolons as strings in SQLite.

First, we'll define a converter function that accepts the string as a parameter and constructs a `Point` object from it.

Note : Converter functions **always** get called with a string, no matter under which data type you sent the value to SQLite.

```
def convert_point(s):
    x, y = map(float, s.split(";"))
    return Point(x, y)
```

Now you need to make the `sqlite3` module know that what you select from the database is actually a point. There are two ways of doing this :

- Implicitly via the declared type

— Explicitly via the column name

Both ways are described in section *Module functions and constants*, in the entries for the constants `PARSE_DECLTYPES` and `PARSE_COLNAMES`.

The following example illustrates both approaches.

```
import sqlite3

class Point(object):
    def __init__(self, x, y):
        self.x, self.y = x, y

    def __repr__(self):
        return "(%f;%f)" % (self.x, self.y)

def adapt_point(point):
    return "%f;%f" % (point.x, point.y)

def convert_point(s):
    x, y = map(float, s.split(";"))
    return Point(x, y)

# Register the adapter
sqlite3.register_adapter(Point, adapt_point)

# Register the converter
sqlite3.register_converter("point", convert_point)

p = Point(4.0, -3.2)

#####
# 1) Using declared types
con = sqlite3.connect(":memory:", detect_types=sqlite3.PARSE_DECLTYPES)
cur = con.cursor()
cur.execute("create table test(p point)")

cur.execute("insert into test(p) values (?)", (p,))
cur.execute("select p from test")
print "with declared types:", cur.fetchone()[0]
cur.close()
con.close()

#####
# 1) Using column names
con = sqlite3.connect(":memory:", detect_types=sqlite3.PARSE_COLNAMES)
cur = con.cursor()
cur.execute("create table test(p)")

cur.execute("insert into test(p) values (?)", (p,))
cur.execute('select p as "p [point]" from test')
print "with column names:", cur.fetchone()[0]
cur.close()
con.close()
```

Default adapters and converters

There are default adapters for the date and datetime types in the `datetime` module. They will be sent as ISO dates/ISO timestamps to SQLite.

The default converters are registered under the name « `date` » for `datetime.date` and under the name « `timestamp` » for `datetime.datetime`.

This way, you can use date/timestamps from Python without any additional fiddling in most cases. The format of the adapters is also compatible with the experimental SQLite date/time functions.

The following example demonstrates this.

```
import sqlite3
import datetime

con = sqlite3.connect(":memory:", detect_types=sqlite3.PARSE_DECLTYPES|sqlite3.PARSE_
    ↳COLNAMES)
cur = con.cursor()
cur.execute("create table test(d date, ts timestamp)")

today = datetime.date.today()
now = datetime.datetime.now()

cur.execute("insert into test(d, ts) values (?, ?)", (today, now))
cur.execute("select d, ts from test")
row = cur.fetchone()
print today, ">", row[0], type(row[0])
print now, ">", row[1], type(row[1])

cur.execute('select current_date as "d [date]", current_timestamp as "ts [timestamp]"')
row = cur.fetchone()
print "current_date", row[0], type(row[0])
print "current_timestamp", row[1], type(row[1])
```

If a timestamp stored in SQLite has a fractional part longer than 6 numbers, its value will be truncated to microsecond precision by the timestamp converter.

11.13.6 Controlling Transactions

By default, the `sqlite3` module opens transactions implicitly before a Data Modification Language (DML) statement (i.e. `INSERT/UPDATE/DELETE/REPLACE`), and commits transactions implicitly before a non-DML, non-query statement (i. e. anything other than `SELECT` or the aforementioned).

So if you are within a transaction and issue a command like `CREATE TABLE ...`, `VACUUM`, `PRAGMA`, the `sqlite3` module will commit implicitly before executing that command. There are two reasons for doing that. The first is that some of these commands don't work within transactions. The other reason is that `sqlite3` needs to keep track of the transaction state (if a transaction is active or not).

You can control which kind of `BEGIN` statements `sqlite3` implicitly executes (or none at all) via the `isolation_level` parameter to the `connect()` call, or via the `isolation_level` property of connections.

If you want **autocommit mode**, then set `isolation_level` to `None`.

Otherwise leave it at its default, which will result in a plain « `BEGIN` » statement, or set it to one of SQLite's supported isolation levels : « `DEFERRED` », « `IMMEDIATE` » or « `EXCLUSIVE` ».

11.13.7 Using `sqlite3` efficiently

Using shortcut methods

Using the nonstandard `execute()`, `executemany()` and `executescript()` methods of the *Connection* object, your code can be written more concisely because you don't have to create the (often superfluous) *Cursor* objects explicitly. Instead, the *Cursor* objects are created implicitly and these shortcut methods return the cursor objects. This way, you can execute a `SELECT` statement and iterate over it directly using only a single call on the *Connection* object.

```
import sqlite3

persons = [
    ("Hugo", "Boss"),
    ("Calvin", "Klein")
]

con = sqlite3.connect(":memory:")

# Create the table
con.execute("create table person(firstname, lastname)")

# Fill the table
con.executemany("insert into person(firstname, lastname) values (?, ?)", persons)

# Print the table contents
for row in con.execute("select firstname, lastname from person"):
    print row

print "I just deleted", con.execute("delete from person").rowcount, "rows"
```

Accessing columns by name instead of by index

One useful feature of the *sqlite3* module is the built-in *sqlite3.Row* class designed to be used as a row factory.

Rows wrapped with this class can be accessed both by index (like tuples) and case-insensitively by name :

```
import sqlite3

con = sqlite3.connect(":memory:")
con.row_factory = sqlite3.Row

cur = con.cursor()
cur.execute("select 'John' as name, 42 as age")
for row in cur:
    assert row[0] == row["name"]
    assert row["name"] == row["nAmE"]
    assert row[1] == row["age"]
    assert row[1] == row["AgE"]
```

Using the connection as a context manager

Nouveau dans la version 2.6.

Connection objects can be used as context managers that automatically commit or rollback transactions. In the event of an exception, the transaction is rolled back; otherwise, the transaction is committed :

```
import sqlite3

con = sqlite3.connect(":memory:")
con.execute("create table person (id integer primary key, firstname varchar unique)")

# Successful, con.commit() is called automatically afterwards
with con:
    con.execute("insert into person(firstname) values (?)", ("Joe",))

# con.rollback() is called after the with block finishes with an exception, the
# exception is still raised and must be caught
try:
    with con:
        con.execute("insert into person(firstname) values (?)", ("Joe",))
except sqlite3.IntegrityError:
    print "couldn't add Joe twice"
```

11.13.8 Common issues

Fils d'exécution

Older SQLite versions had issues with sharing connections between threads. That's why the Python module disallows sharing connections and cursors between threads. If you still try to do so, you will get an exception at runtime.

The only exception is calling the *interrupt()* method, which only makes sense to call from a different thread.

Notes

Compression de donnée et archivage

The modules described in this chapter support data compression with the `zlib`, `gzip`, and `bzip2` algorithms, and the creation of ZIP- and tar-format archives. See also *Archiving operations* provided by the `shutil` module.

12.1 `zlib` — Compression compatible avec `gzip`

Pour des applications nécessitant de compresser des données, les fonctions de ce module permettent la compression et la décompression via la bibliothèque `zlib`. La bibliothèque `zlib` a sa propre page web sur <http://www.zlib.net>. Il existe des incompatibilités connues entre le module Python et les versions de la bibliothèque `zlib` plus anciennes que la 1.1.3; 1.1.3 contient des failles de sécurité et nous recommandons d'utiliser plutôt la version 1.14 ou plus récente.

les fonctions `zlib` recèlent de nombreuses options et il est nécessaire de suivre un ordre précis. Cette documentation n'a pas pour but de couvrir la globalité des possibilités. Aussi, veuillez consulter le manuel `zlib` en ligne sur <http://www.zlib.net/manual.html> pour compléter davantage son utilisation.

Pour lire ou écrire des fichiers `.gz` veuillez consulter le module `gzip`.

Les exceptions et fonctions disponibles dans ce module sont :

exception `zlib.error`

Exception levée lors d'erreurs de compression et de décompression.

`zlib.adler32(data[, value])`

Computes an Adler-32 checksum of *data*. (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 inputs. The algorithm is not cryptographically strong, and should not be used for authentication or digital signatures. Since the algorithm is designed for use as a checksum algorithm, it is not suitable for use as a general hash algorithm.

This function always returns an integer object.

Note : To generate the same numeric value across all Python versions and platforms use `adler32(data) &`

0xffffffff. If you are only using the checksum in packed binary format this is not necessary as the return value is the correct 32bit binary representation regardless of sign.

Modifié dans la version 2.6 : The return value is in the range $[-2^{31}, 2^{31}-1]$ regardless of platform. In older versions the value is signed on some platforms and unsigned on others.

Modifié dans la version 3.0 : The return value is unsigned and in the range $[0, 2^{32}-1]$ regardless of platform.

`zlib.compress(string[, level])`

Compresses the data in *string*, returning a string contained compressed data. *level* is an integer from 0 to 9 controlling the level of compression; 1 is fastest and produces the least compression, 9 is slowest and produces the most. 0 is no compression. The default value is 6. Raises the *error* exception if any error occurs.

`zlib.compressobj([level[, method[, wbits[, memlevel[, strategy]]]])`

Returns a compression object, to be used for compressing data streams that won't fit into memory at once. *level* is an integer from 0 to 9 or -1, controlling the level of compression; 1 is fastest and produces the least compression, 9 is slowest and produces the most. 0 is no compression. The default value is -1 (Z_DEFAULT_COMPRESSION). Z_DEFAULT_COMPRESSION represents a default compromise between speed and compression (currently equivalent to level 6).

method is the compression algorithm. Currently, the only supported value is DEFLATED.

The *wbits* argument controls the size of the history buffer (or the « window size ») used when compressing data, and whether a header and trailer is included in the output. It can take several ranges of values. The default is 15.

- De +9 à +15 : le logarithme binaire de la taille du tampon, par conséquent compris entre 512 et 32768. Des valeurs plus grandes produisent de meilleures compressions au dépens d'une utilisation mémoire plus grande. Le résultat final inclus des en-tête et des blocs spécifiques à *zlib*.
- De -9 à -15 : utilise la valeur absolue de *wbits* comme logarithme binaire de la taille du tampon, et ne produit pas d'entêtes ni de bloc final.
- De +25 à +31 = 16 + (9 à 15) : utilise les 4 bits de poids faible comme logarithme binaire de la taille du tampon, tout en incluant une entête **gzip** et une somme de contrôle finale.

memlevel controls the amount of memory used for internal compression state. Valid values range from 1 to 9. Higher values using more memory, but are faster and produce smaller output. The default is 8.

strategy is used to tune the compression algorithm. Possible values are Z_DEFAULT_STRATEGY, Z_FILTERED, and Z_HUFFMAN_ONLY. The default is Z_DEFAULT_STRATEGY.

`zlib.crc32(data[, value])`

Computes a CRC (Cyclic Redundancy Check) checksum of *data*. 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 inputs. The algorithm is not cryptographically strong, and should not be used for authentication or digital signatures. Since the algorithm is designed for use as a checksum algorithm, it is not suitable for use as a general hash algorithm.

This function always returns an integer object.

Note : To generate the same numeric value across all Python versions and platforms use `crc32(data) & 0xffffffff`. If you are only using the checksum in packed binary format this is not necessary as the return value is the correct 32bit binary representation regardless of sign.

Modifié dans la version 2.6 : The return value is in the range $[-2^{31}, 2^{31}-1]$ regardless of platform. In older versions the value would be signed on some platforms and unsigned on others.

Modifié dans la version 3.0 : The return value is unsigned and in the range $[0, 2^{32}-1]$ regardless of platform.

`zlib.decompress(string[, wbits[, bufsize]])`

Decompresses the data in *string*, returning a string containing the uncompressed data. The *wbits* parameter depends on the format of *string*, and is discussed further below. If *bufsize* is given, it is used as the initial size of the output buffer. Raises the *error* exception if any error occurs.

L'argument *wbits* contrôle la taille du tampon d'historique (« *window size* ») utilisé lors de la compression, et si un en-tête et un bloc final sont attendus. Similaire au paramètre de *compressobj()*, mais accepte une gamme plus large de valeurs :

- De +8 à +15 : logarithme binaire pour la taille du tampon. L'entrée doit contenir un en-tête et un bloc *zlib*.
- 0 : détermine automatiquement la taille du tampon à partir de l'en-tête *zlib*. Géré uniquement depuis *zlib* 1.2.3.5.
- De -8 à -15 : utilise la valeur absolue de *wbits* comme logarithme binaire pour la taille du tampon. L'entrée doit être un flux brut, sans en-tête ni bloc final.
- De +24 à +31 = 16 + (8 à 15) : utilise les 4 de poids faible comme logarithme binaire pour la taille du tampon. L'entrée doit contenir un en-tête *gzip* et son bloc final.
- De +40 à +47 = 32 + (8 à 15) : utilise les 4 bits de poids faible comme logarithme binaire pour la taille du tampon, et accepte automatiquement les formats *zlib* ou *gzip*.

When decompressing a stream, the window size must not be smaller than the size originally used to compress the stream; using a too-small value may result in an *error* exception. The default *wbits* value is 15, which corresponds to the largest window size and requires a *zlib* header and trailer to be included.

bufsize is the initial size of the buffer used to hold decompressed data. If more space is required, the buffer size will be increased as needed, so you don't have to get this value exactly right; tuning it will only save a few calls to `malloc()`. The default size is 16384.

`zlib.decompressobj([wbits])`

Renvoie un objet « décompresseur », à utiliser pour décompresser des flux de données qui ne rentrent pas entièrement en mémoire.

Le paramètre *wbits* contrôle la taille du tampon, et détermine quel format d'en-tête et de bloc sont prévus. Il a la même signification que *décrit pour decompress()*.

Les objets de compression gèrent les méthodes suivantes :

`Compress.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.

`Compress.flush([mode])`

All pending input is processed, and a string containing the remaining compressed output is returned. *mode* can be selected from the constants `Z_SYNC_FLUSH`, `Z_FULL_FLUSH`, or `Z_FINISH`, defaulting to `Z_FINISH`. `Z_SYNC_FLUSH` and `Z_FULL_FLUSH` allow compressing further strings of data, while `Z_FINISH` finishes the compressed stream and prevents compressing any more data. After calling *flush()* with *mode* set to `Z_FINISH`, the *compress()* method cannot be called again; the only realistic action is to delete the object.

`Compress.copy()`

Renvoie une copie de l'objet « compresseur ». Utile pour compresser efficacement un ensemble de données qui partagent un préfixe initial commun.

Nouveau dans la version 2.5.

Decompression objects support the following methods, and two attributes :

`Decompress.unused_data`

A string which contains any bytes past the end of the compressed data. That is, this remains "" until the last byte that contains compression data is available. If the whole string turned out to contain compressed data, this is "", the empty string.

The only way to determine where a string of compressed data ends is by actually decompressing it. This means that when compressed data is contained part of a larger file, you can only find the end of it by reading data and feeding it followed by some non-empty string into a decompression object's `decompress()` method until the `unused_data` attribute is no longer the empty string.

`Decompress.unconsumed_tail`

A string that contains any data that was not consumed by the last `decompress()` call because it exceeded the limit for the uncompressed data buffer. This data has not yet been seen by the zlib machinery, so you must feed it (possibly with further data concatenated to it) back to a subsequent `decompress()` method call in order to get correct output.

`Decompress.decompress(string[, max_length])`

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.

If the optional parameter *max_length* is non-zero then the return value will be no longer than *max_length*. This may mean that not all of the compressed input can be processed; and unconsumed data will be stored in the attribute `unconsumed_tail`. This string must be passed to a subsequent call to `decompress()` if decompression is to continue. If *max_length* is not supplied then the whole input is decompressed, and `unconsumed_tail` is an empty string.

`Decompress.flush([length])`

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.

Le paramètre optionnel *length* définit la taille initiale du tampon de sortie.

`Decompress.copy()`

Renvoie une copie du décompresseur. Vous pouvez l'utiliser pour sauvegarder l'état de la décompression en cours, afin de pouvoir revenir rapidement à cet endroit plus tard.

Nouveau dans la version 2.5.

Voir aussi :

Module `gzip` Lire et écrire des fichiers au format `gzip`.

<http://www.zlib.net> Page officielle de la bibliothèque `zlib`.

<http://www.zlib.net/manual.html> La documentation de `zlib` explique le sens et l'utilisation des nombreuses fonctions fournies par la bibliothèque.

12.2 gzip — Support pour les fichiers gzip

Code source : [Lib/gzip.py](#)

Ce module fournit une interface simple pour compresser et décompresser des fichiers tout comme le font les programmes GNU `gzip` et `gunzip`.

La compression de données est fournie par le module `zlib`.

The `gzip` module provides the `GzipFile` class which is modeled after Python's File Object. The `GzipFile` class reads and writes `gzip`-format files, automatically compressing or decompressing the data so that it looks like an ordinary file object.

Notez que les formats de fichier supplémentaires qui peuvent être décompressés par les programmes `gzip` et `gunzip`, comme ceux produits par les programmes `compress` et `pack`, ne sont pas gérés par ce module.

Le module définit les éléments suivants :

```
class gzip.GzipFile([filename[, mode[, compresslevel[, fileobj[, mtime]]]]])
```

Constructor for the *GzipFile* class, which simulates most of the methods of a file object, with the exception of the *readinto()* and *truncate()* methods. At least one of *fileobj* and *filename* must be given a non-trivial value.

The new class instance is based on *fileobj*, which can be a regular file, a *StringIO* object, or any other object which simulates a file. It defaults to *None*, in which case *filename* is opened to provide a file object.

Quand *fileobj* n'est pas à *None*, l'argument *filename* est uniquement utilisé pour être inclus dans l'entête du fichier *gzip*, qui peut inclure le nom original du fichier décompressé. Il est par défaut défini avec le nom de fichier de *fileobj* s'il est discernable, sinon il est par défaut défini à une chaîne de caractères vide et dans ce cas le nom du fichier original n'est pas inclus dans l'entête.

The *mode* argument can be any of 'r', 'rb', 'a', 'ab', 'w', or 'wb', depending on whether the file will be read or written. The default is the mode of *fileobj* if discernible; otherwise, the default is 'rb'. If not given, the "b" flag will be added to the mode to ensure the file is opened in binary mode for cross-platform portability.

L'argument *compresslevel* est un entier de 0 à 9 contrôlant le niveau de compression, "1" est le plus rapide et produit la compression la plus faible et 9 est le plus rapide et produit la compression la plus élevée. 0 désactive la compression. Par défaut à 9.

The *mtime* argument is an optional numeric timestamp to be written to the stream when compressing. All *gzip* compressed streams are required to contain a timestamp. If omitted or *None*, the current time is used. This module ignores the timestamp when decompressing; however, some programs, such as *gunzip*, make use of it. The format of the timestamp is the same as that of the return value of *time.time()* and of the *st_mtime* attribute of the object returned by *os.stat()*.

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.

GzipFile supports iteration and the *with* statement.

Modifié dans la version 2.7 : Support for the *with* statement was added.

Modifié dans la version 2.7 : Support for zero-padded files was added.

Nouveau dans la version 2.7 : The *mtime* argument.

```
gzip.open(filename[, mode[, compresslevel]])
```

This is a shorthand for *GzipFile(filename, mode, compresslevel)*. The *filename* argument is required; *mode* defaults to 'rb' and *compresslevel* defaults to 9.

12.2.1 Exemples d'utilisation

Exemple montrant comment lire un fichier compressé :

```
import gzip
with gzip.open('file.txt.gz', 'rb') as f:
    file_content = f.read()
```

Exemple montrant comment créer un fichier GZIP :

```
import gzip
content = "Lots of content here"
with gzip.open('file.txt.gz', 'wb') as f:
    f.write(content)
```

Exemple montrant comment compresser dans un GZIP un fichier existant :

```
import gzip
import shutil
with open('file.txt', 'rb') as f_in, gzip.open('file.txt.gz', 'wb') as f_out:
    shutil.copyfileobj(f_in, f_out)
```

Voir aussi :

Module `zlib` Le module de compression de données de base nécessaire pour gérer le format de fichier `gzip`.

12.3 bz2 — Compression compatible with bzip2

Nouveau dans la version 2.3.

This module provides a comprehensive interface for the bz2 compression library. It implements a complete file interface, one-shot (de)compression functions, and types for sequential (de)compression.

Here is a summary of the features offered by the bz2 module :

- `BZ2File` class implements a complete file interface, including `readline()`, `readlines()`, `writelines()`, `seek()`, etc;
- `BZ2File` class implements emulated `seek()` support;
- `BZ2File` class implements universal newline support;
- `BZ2File` class offers an optimized line iteration using the readahead algorithm borrowed from file objects;
- Sequential (de)compression supported by `BZ2Compressor` and `BZ2Decompressor` classes;
- One-shot (de)compression supported by `compress()` and `decompress()` functions;
- Thread safety uses individual locking mechanism.

Note : Handling of multi-stream bzip2 files is not supported. Modules such as `bz2file` let you overcome this.

12.3.1 (Dé)compression de fichiers

Handling of compressed files is offered by the `BZ2File` class.

```
class bz2.BZ2File(filename[, mode[, buffering[, compresslevel]]])
```

Open a bz2 file. Mode can be either 'r' or 'w', for reading (default) or writing. When opened for writing, the file will be created if it doesn't exist, and truncated otherwise. If *buffering* is given, 0 means unbuffered, and larger numbers specify the buffer size; the default is 0. If *compresslevel* is given, it must be a number between 1 and 9; the default is 9. Add a 'U' to mode to open the file for input in *universal newlines* mode. Any line ending in the input file will be seen as a '\n' in Python. Also, a file so opened gains the attribute `newlines`; the value for this attribute is one of `None` (no newline read yet), '\r', '\n', '\r\n' or a tuple containing all the newline types seen. Universal newlines are available only when reading. Instances support iteration in the same way as normal *file* instances.

`BZ2File` supports the `with` statement.

Modifié dans la version 2.7 : Support for the `with` statement was added.

Note : This class does not support input files containing multiple streams (such as those produced by the `pzip2` tool). When reading such an input file, only the first stream will be accessible. If you require support for multi-stream files, consider using the third-party `bz2file` module (available from PyPI). This module provides a backport of Python 3.3's `BZ2File` class, which does support multi-stream files.

close()
Close the file. Sets data attribute `closed` to true. A closed file cannot be used for further I/O operations. `close()` may be called more than once without error.

read(*[size]*)
Read at most *size* uncompressed bytes, returned as a string. If the *size* argument is negative or omitted, read until EOF is reached.

readline(*[size]*)
Return the next line from the file, as a string, retaining newline. A non-negative *size* argument limits the maximum number of bytes to return (an incomplete line may be returned then). Return an empty string at EOF.

readlines(*[size]*)
Return a list of lines read. The optional *size* argument, if given, is an approximate bound on the total number of bytes in the lines returned.

xreadlines()
For backward compatibility. `BZ2File` objects now include the performance optimizations previously implemented in the `xreadlines` module.
Obsolète depuis la version 2.3 : This exists only for compatibility with the method by this name on `file` objects, which is deprecated. Use `for line in file` instead.

seek(*offset*, *whence*)
Move to new file position. Argument *offset* is a byte count. Optional argument *whence* defaults to `os.SEEK_SET` or 0 (offset from start of file; offset should be ≥ 0); other values are `os.SEEK_CUR` or 1 (move relative to current position; offset can be positive or negative), and `os.SEEK_END` or 2 (move relative to end of file; offset is usually negative, although many platforms allow seeking beyond the end of a file).
Note that seeking of bz2 files is emulated, and depending on the parameters the operation may be extremely slow.

tell()
Return the current file position, an integer (may be a long integer).

write(*data*)
Write string *data* to file. Note that due to buffering, `close()` may be needed before the file on disk reflects the data written.

writelines(*sequence_of_strings*)
Write the sequence of strings to the file. Note that newlines are not added. The sequence can be any iterable object producing strings. This is equivalent to calling `write()` for each string.

12.3.2 Sequential (de)compression

Sequential compression and decompression is done using the classes `BZ2Compressor` and `BZ2Decompressor`.

class bz2.BZ2Compressor(*[compresslevel]*)
Create a new compressor object. This object may be used to compress data sequentially. If you want to compress data in one shot, use the `compress()` function instead. The *compresslevel* parameter, if given, must be a number between 1 and 9; the default is 9.

compress(*data*)
Provide more data to the compressor object. It will return chunks of compressed data whenever possible. When you've finished providing data to compress, call the `flush()` method to finish the compression process, and return what is left in internal buffers.

flush()
Finish the compression process and return what is left in internal buffers. You must not use the compressor object after calling this method.

class bz2.BZ2Decompressor

Create a new decompressor object. This object may be used to decompress data sequentially. If you want to decompress data in one shot, use the [*decompress\(\)*](#) function instead.

decompress(data)

Provide more data to the decompressor object. It will return chunks of decompressed data whenever possible. If you try to decompress data after the end of stream is found, [*EOFError*](#) will be raised. If any data was found after the end of stream, it'll be ignored and saved in `unused_data` attribute.

12.3.3 (Dé)compression en une fois

One-shot compression and decompression is provided through the [*compress\(\)*](#) and [*decompress\(\)*](#) functions.

bz2.compress(data[, compresslevel])

Compress *data* in one shot. If you want to compress data sequentially, use an instance of [*BZ2Compressor*](#) instead. The *compresslevel* parameter, if given, must be a number between 1 and 9; the default is 9.

bz2.decompress(data)

Decompress *data* in one shot. If you want to decompress data sequentially, use an instance of [*BZ2Decompressor*](#) instead.

12.4 zipfile — Work with ZIP archives

Nouveau dans la version 1.6.

Code source : [Lib/zipfile.py](#)

The ZIP file format is a common archive and compression standard. This module provides tools to create, read, write, append, and list a ZIP file. Any advanced use of this module will require an understanding of the format, as defined in [PKZIP Application Note](#).

This module does not currently handle multi-disk ZIP files. It can handle ZIP files that use the ZIP64 extensions (that is ZIP files that are more than 4 GByte in size). It supports decryption of encrypted files in ZIP archives, but it currently cannot create an encrypted file. Decryption is extremely slow as it is implemented in native Python rather than C.

Le module définit les éléments suivants :

exception zipfile.BadZipfile

The error raised for bad ZIP files (old name : `zipfile.error`).

exception zipfile.LargeZipFile

The error raised when a ZIP file would require ZIP64 functionality but that has not been enabled.

class zipfile.ZipFile

The class for reading and writing ZIP files. See section [ZipFile Objects](#) for constructor details.

class zipfile.PyZipFile

Class for creating ZIP archives containing Python libraries.

class zipfile.ZipInfo([filename[, date_time]])

Class used to represent information about a member of an archive. Instances of this class are returned by the [*getinfo\(\)*](#) and [*infolist\(\)*](#) methods of [*ZipFile*](#) objects. Most users of the *zipfile* module will not need to create these, but only use those created by this module. *filename* should be the full name of the archive member, and *date_time* should be a tuple containing six fields which describe the time of the last modification to the file; the fields are described in section [ZipInfo Objects](#).

`zipfile.is_zipfile(filename)`

Returns `True` if *filename* is a valid ZIP file based on its magic number, otherwise returns `False`. *filename* may be a file or file-like object too.

Modifié dans la version 2.7 : Support for file and file-like objects.

`zipfile.ZIP_STORED`

The numeric constant for an uncompressed archive member.

`zipfile.ZIP_DEFLATED`

The numeric constant for the usual ZIP compression method. This requires the `zlib` module. No other compression methods are currently supported.

Voir aussi :

PKZIP Application Note Documentation on the ZIP file format by Phil Katz, the creator of the format and algorithms used.

Info-ZIP Home Page Information about the Info-ZIP project's ZIP archive programs and development libraries.

12.4.1 ZipFile Objects

`class zipfile.ZipFile(file[, mode[, compression[, allowZip64]]])`

Open a ZIP file, where *file* can be either a path to a file (a string) or a file-like object. The *mode* parameter should be `'r'` to read an existing file, `'w'` to truncate and write a new file, or `'a'` to append to an existing file. If *mode* is `'a'` and *file* refers to an existing ZIP file, then additional files are added to it. If *file* does not refer to a ZIP file, then a new ZIP archive is appended to the file. This is meant for adding a ZIP archive to another file (such as `python.exe`).

Modifié dans la version 2.6 : If *mode* is `a` and the file does not exist at all, it is created.

compression is the ZIP compression method to use when writing the archive, and should be `ZIP_STORED` or `ZIP_DEFLATED`; unrecognized values will cause `RuntimeError` to be raised. If `ZIP_DEFLATED` is specified but the `zlib` module is not available, `RuntimeError` is also raised. The default is `ZIP_STORED`. If *allowZip64* is `True` `zipfile` will create ZIP files that use the ZIP64 extensions when the zipfile is larger than 2 GB. If it is false (the default) `zipfile` will raise an exception when the ZIP file would require ZIP64 extensions. ZIP64 extensions are disabled by default because the default `zip` and `unzip` commands on Unix (the InfoZIP utilities) don't support these extensions.

Modifié dans la version 2.7.1 : If the file is created with mode `'a'` or `'w'` and then `closed` without adding any files to the archive, the appropriate ZIP structures for an empty archive will be written to the file.

`ZipFile` is also a context manager and therefore supports the `with` statement. In the example, *myzip* is closed after the `with` statement's suite is finished—even if an exception occurs :

```
with ZipFile('spam.zip', 'w') as myzip:
    myzip.write('eggs.txt')
```

Nouveau dans la version 2.7 : Added the ability to use `ZipFile` as a context manager.

`ZipFile.close()`

Close the archive file. You must call `close()` before exiting your program or essential records will not be written.

`ZipFile.getinfo(name)`

Return a `ZipInfo` object with information about the archive member *name*. Calling `getinfo()` for a name not currently contained in the archive will raise a `KeyError`.

`ZipFile.infolist()`

Return a list containing a `ZipInfo` object for each member of the archive. The objects are in the same order as their entries in the actual ZIP file on disk if an existing archive was opened.

`ZipFile.namelist()`

Return a list of archive members by name.

`ZipFile.open(name[, mode[, pwd]])`

Extract a member from the archive as a file-like object (`ZipExtFile`). *name* is the name of the file in the archive, or a `ZipInfo` object. The *mode* parameter, if included, must be one of the following : 'r' (the default), 'U', or 'rU'. Choosing 'U' or 'rU' will enable *universal newline* support in the read-only object. *pwd* is the password used for encrypted files. Calling `open()` on a closed `ZipFile` will raise a `RuntimeError`.

Note : The file-like object is read-only and provides the following methods : `read()`, `readline()`, `readlines()`, `__iter__()`, `next()`.

Note : If the `ZipFile` was created by passing in a file-like object as the first argument to the constructor, then the object returned by `open()` shares the `ZipFile`'s file pointer. Under these circumstances, the object returned by `open()` should not be used after any additional operations are performed on the `ZipFile` object. If the `ZipFile` was created by passing in a string (the filename) as the first argument to the constructor, then `open()` will create a new file object that will be held by the `ZipExtFile`, allowing it to operate independently of the `ZipFile`.

Note : The `open()`, `read()` and `extract()` methods can take a filename or a `ZipInfo` object. You will appreciate this when trying to read a ZIP file that contains members with duplicate names.

Nouveau dans la version 2.6.

`ZipFile.extract(member[, path[, pwd]])`

Extract a member from the archive to the current working directory ; *member* must be its full name or a `ZipInfo` object). Its file information is extracted as accurately as possible. *path* specifies a different directory to extract to. *member* can be a filename or a `ZipInfo` object. *pwd* is the password used for encrypted files.

Returns the normalized path created (a directory or new file).

Nouveau dans la version 2.6.

Note : If a member filename is an absolute path, a drive/UNC sharepoint and leading (back)slashes will be stripped, e.g. : `///foo/bar` becomes `foo/bar` on Unix, and `C:\foo\bar` becomes `foo\bar` on Windows. And all `".."` components in a member filename will be removed, e.g. : `../../foo../.. /ba..r` becomes `foo../ba..r`. On Windows illegal characters (`:`, `<`, `>`, `|`, `"`, `?`, and `*`) replaced by underscore (`_`).

`ZipFile.extractall([path[, members[, pwd]]])`

Extract all members from the archive to the current working directory. *path* specifies a different directory to extract to. *members* is optional and must be a subset of the list returned by `namelist()`. *pwd* is the password used for encrypted files.

Avertissement : Never extract archives from untrusted sources without prior inspection. It is possible that files are created outside of *path*, e.g. members that have absolute filenames starting with `"/` or filenames with two dots `".."`.

Modifié dans la version 2.7.4 : The zipfile module attempts to prevent that. See `extract()` note.

Nouveau dans la version 2.6.

`ZipFile.printdir()`

Print a table of contents for the archive to `sys.stdout`.

`ZipFile.setpassword(pwd)`

Set *pwd* as default password to extract encrypted files.

Nouveau dans la version 2.6.

`ZipFile.read(name[, pwd])`

Return the bytes of the file *name* in the archive. *name* is the name of the file in the archive, or a *ZipInfo* object. The archive must be open for read or append. *pwd* is the password used for encrypted files and, if specified, it will override the default password set with *setpassword()*. Calling *read()* on a closed *ZipFile* will raise a *RuntimeError*.

Modifié dans la version 2.6 : *pwd* was added, and *name* can now be a *ZipInfo* object.

`ZipFile.testzip()`

Read all the files in the archive and check their CRC's and file headers. Return the name of the first bad file, or else return `None`. Calling *testzip()* on a closed *ZipFile* will raise a *RuntimeError*.

`ZipFile.write(filename[, arcname[, compress_type]])`

Write the file named *filename* to the archive, giving it the archive name *arcname* (by default, this will be the same as *filename*, but without a drive letter and with leading path separators removed). If given, *compress_type* overrides the value given for the *compression* parameter to the constructor for the new entry. The archive must be open with mode 'w' or 'a' – calling *write()* on a *ZipFile* created with mode 'r' will raise a *RuntimeError*. Calling *write()* on a closed *ZipFile* will raise a *RuntimeError*.

Note : There is no official file name encoding for ZIP files. If you have unicode file names, you must convert them to byte strings in your desired encoding before passing them to *write()*. WinZip interprets all file names as encoded in CP437, also known as DOS Latin.

Note : Archive names should be relative to the archive root, that is, they should not start with a path separator.

Note : If *arcname* (or *filename*, if *arcname* is not given) contains a null byte, the name of the file in the archive will be truncated at the null byte.

`ZipFile.writestr(zinfo_or_arcname, bytes[, compress_type])`

Write the string *bytes* to the archive; *zinfo_or_arcname* is either the file name it will be given in the archive, or a *ZipInfo* instance. If it's an instance, at least the filename, date, and time must be given. If it's a name, the date and time is set to the current date and time. The archive must be opened with mode 'w' or 'a' – calling *writestr()* on a *ZipFile* created with mode 'r' will raise a *RuntimeError*. Calling *writestr()* on a closed *ZipFile* will raise a *RuntimeError*.

If given, *compress_type* overrides the value given for the *compression* parameter to the constructor for the new entry, or in the *zinfo_or_arcname* (if that is a *ZipInfo* instance).

Note : When passing a *ZipInfo* instance as the *zinfo_or_arcname* parameter, the compression method used will be that specified in the *compress_type* member of the given *ZipInfo* instance. By default, the *ZipInfo* constructor sets this member to *ZIP_STORED*.

Modifié dans la version 2.7 : The *compress_type* argument.

The following data attributes are also available :

`ZipFile.debug`

The level of debug output to use. This may be set from 0 (the default, no output) to 3 (the most output). Debugging information is written to `sys.stdout`.

ZipFile.comment

The comment text associated with the ZIP file. If assigning a comment to a *ZipFile* instance created with mode “a” or “w”, this should be a string no longer than 65535 bytes. Comments longer than this will be truncated in the written archive when *close()* is called.

12.4.2 PyZipFile Objects

The *PyZipFile* constructor takes the same parameters as the *ZipFile* constructor. Instances have one method in addition to those of *ZipFile* objects.

PyZipFile.writepy(pathname[, basename])

Search for files `*.py` and add the corresponding file to the archive. The corresponding file is a `*.pyo` file if available, else a `*.pyc` file, compiling if necessary. If the pathname is a file, the filename must end with `.py`, and just the (corresponding `*.py[co]`) file is added at the top level (no path information). If the pathname is a file that does not end with `.py`, a *RuntimeError* will be raised. If it is a directory, and the directory is not a package directory, then all the files `*.py[co]` are added at the top level. If the directory is a package directory, then all `*.py[co]` are added under the package name as a file path, and if any subdirectories are package directories, all of these are added recursively. *basename* is intended for internal use only. The *writepy()* method makes archives with file names like this :

<code>string.pyc</code>	<i># Top level name</i>
<code>test/__init__.pyc</code>	<i># Package directory</i>
<code>test/test_support.pyc</code>	<i># Module test.test_support</i>
<code>test/bogus/__init__.pyc</code>	<i># Subpackage directory</i>
<code>test/bogus/myfile.pyc</code>	<i># Submodule test.bogus.myfile</i>

12.4.3 ZipInfo Objects

Instances of the *ZipInfo* class are returned by the *getinfo()* and *infolist()* methods of *ZipFile* objects. Each object stores information about a single member of the ZIP archive.

Instances have the following attributes :

ZipInfo.filename

Name of the file in the archive.

ZipInfo.date_time

The time and date of the last modification to the archive member. This is a tuple of six values :

Index	Valeur
0	Year (≥ 1980)
1	Month (one-based)
2	Day of month (one-based)
3	Hours (zero-based)
4	Minutes (zero-based)
5	Seconds (zero-based)

Note : The ZIP file format does not support timestamps before 1980.

ZipInfo.compress_type

Type of compression for the archive member.

ZipInfo.comment
Comment for the individual archive member.

ZipInfo.extra
Expansion field data. The [PKZIP Application Note](#) contains some comments on the internal structure of the data contained in this string.

ZipInfo.create_system
System which created ZIP archive.

ZipInfo.create_version
PKZIP version which created ZIP archive.

ZipInfo.extract_version
PKZIP version needed to extract archive.

ZipInfo.reserved
Must be zero.

ZipInfo.flag_bits
ZIP flag bits.

ZipInfo.volume
Volume number of file header.

ZipInfo.internal_attr
Internal attributes.

ZipInfo.external_attr
External file attributes.

ZipInfo.header_offset
Byte offset to the file header.

ZipInfo.CRC
CRC-32 of the uncompressed file.

ZipInfo.compress_size
Size of the compressed data.

ZipInfo.file_size
Size of the uncompressed file.

12.4.4 Command-Line Interface

The *zipfile* module provides a simple command-line interface to interact with ZIP archives.

If you want to create a new ZIP archive, specify its name after the `-c` option and then list the filename(s) that should be included :

```
$ python -m zipfile -c monty.zip spam.txt eggs.txt
```

Passing a directory is also acceptable :

```
$ python -m zipfile -c monty.zip life-of-brian_1979/
```

If you want to extract a ZIP archive into the specified directory, use the `-e` option :

```
$ python -m zipfile -e monty.zip target-dir/
```

For a list of the files in a ZIP archive, use the `-l` option :

```
$ python -m zipfile -l monty.zip
```

Command-line options

- l** <zipfile>
List files in a zipfile.
- c** <zipfile> <source1> ... <sourceN>
Create zipfile from source files.
- e** <zipfile> <output_dir>
Extract zipfile into target directory.
- t** <zipfile>
Test whether the zipfile is valid or not.

12.5 tarfile — Read and write tar archive files

Nouveau dans la version 2.3.

Code source : [Lib/tarfile.py](#)

The *tarfile* module makes it possible to read and write tar archives, including those using gzip or bz2 compression. Use the *zipfile* module to read or write .zip files, or the higher-level functions in *shutil*.

Some facts and figures :

- reads and writes *gzip* and *bz2* compressed archives if the respective modules are available.
- read/write support for the POSIX.1-1988 (ustar) format.
- read/write support for the GNU tar format including *longname* and *longlink* extensions, read-only support for the *sparse* extension.
- read/write support for the POSIX.1-2001 (pax) format.
Nouveau dans la version 2.6.
- handles directories, regular files, hardlinks, symbolic links, fifos, character devices and block devices and is able to acquire and restore file information like timestamp, access permissions and owner.

Note : Handling of multi-stream bzip2 files is not supported. Modules such as *bz2file* let you overcome this.

tarfile.open(name=None, mode='r', fileobj=None, bufsize=10240, **kwargs)

Return a *TarFile* object for the pathname *name*. For detailed information on *TarFile* objects and the keyword arguments that are allowed, see *TarFile Objects*.

mode has to be a string of the form 'filemode[:compression]', it defaults to 'r'. Here is a full list of mode combinations :

mode	action
'r' ou 'r:*	Open for reading with transparent compression (recommended).
'r: '	Open for reading exclusively without compression.
'r:gz'	Open for reading with gzip compression.
'r:bz2'	Open for reading with bzip2 compression.
'a' ou 'a: '	Open for appending with no compression. The file is created if it does not exist.
'w' ou 'w: '	Open for uncompressed writing.
'w:gz'	Open for gzip compressed writing.
'w:bz2'	Open for bzip2 compressed writing.

Note that `'a:gz'` or `'a:bz2'` is not possible. If *mode* is not suitable to open a certain (compressed) file for reading, `ReadError` is raised. Use *mode* `'r'` to avoid this. If a compression method is not supported, `CompressionError` is raised.

If *fileobj* is specified, it is used as an alternative to a file object opened for *name*. It is supposed to be at position 0.

For modes `'w:gz'`, `'r:gz'`, `'w:bz2'`, `'r:bz2'`, `tarfile.open()` accepts the keyword argument *compresslevel* (default 9) to specify the compression level of the file.

For special purposes, there is a second format for *mode* : `'filemode|[compression]'`. `tarfile.open()` will return a `TarFile` object that processes its data as a stream of blocks. No random seeking will be done on the file. If given, *fileobj* may be any object that has a `read()` or `write()` method (depending on the *mode*). *bufsize* specifies the blocksize and defaults to `20 * 512` bytes. Use this variant in combination with e.g. `sys.stdin`, a socket file object or a tape device. However, such a `TarFile` object is limited in that it does not allow random access, see *Examples*. The currently possible modes :

Mode	Action
<code>'r *'</code>	Open a <i>stream</i> of tar blocks for reading with transparent compression.
<code>'r '</code>	Open a <i>stream</i> of uncompressed tar blocks for reading.
<code>'r gz'</code>	Open a gzip compressed <i>stream</i> for reading.
<code>'r bz2'</code>	Open a bzip2 compressed <i>stream</i> for reading.
<code>'w '</code>	Open an uncompressed <i>stream</i> for writing.
<code>'w gz'</code>	Open a gzip compressed <i>stream</i> for writing.
<code>'w bz2'</code>	Open a bzip2 compressed <i>stream</i> for writing.

class `tarfile.TarFile`

Class for reading and writing tar archives. Do not use this class directly, better use `tarfile.open()` instead. See *TarFile Objects*.

`tarfile.is_tarfile(name)`

Return `True` if *name* is a tar archive file, that the `tarfile` module can read.

class `tarfile.TarFileCompat(filename, mode='r', compression=TAR_PLAIN)`

Class for limited access to tar archives with a *zipfile*-like interface. Please consult the documentation of the *zipfile* module for more details. *compression* must be one of the following constants :

TAR_PLAIN

Constant for an uncompressed tar archive.

TAR_GZIPPED

Constant for a *gzip* compressed tar archive.

Obsolète depuis la version 2.6 : The `TarFileCompat` class has been removed in Python 3.

exception `tarfile.TarError`

Base class for all `tarfile` exceptions.

exception `tarfile.ReadError`

Is raised when a tar archive is opened, that either cannot be handled by the `tarfile` module or is somehow invalid.

exception `tarfile.CompressionError`

Is raised when a compression method is not supported or when the data cannot be decoded properly.

exception `tarfile.StreamError`

Is raised for the limitations that are typical for stream-like `TarFile` objects.

exception `tarfile.ExtractError`

Is raised for *non-fatal* errors when using `TarFile.extract()`, but only if `TarFile.errorlevel== 2`.

The following constants are available at the module level :

tarfile.ENCODING

The default character encoding : 'utf-8' on Windows, the value returned by `sys.getfilesystemencoding()` otherwise.

exception tarfile.HeaderError

Is raised by `TarInfo.frombuf()` if the buffer it gets is invalid.

Nouveau dans la version 2.6.

Each of the following constants defines a tar archive format that the `tarfile` module is able to create. See section *Supported tar formats* for details.

tarfile.USTAR_FORMAT

POSIX.1-1988 (ustar) format.

tarfile.GNU_FORMAT

GNU tar format.

tarfile.PAX_FORMAT

POSIX.1-2001 (pax) format.

tarfile.DEFAULT_FORMAT

The default format for creating archives. This is currently `GNU_FORMAT`.

Voir aussi :

Module `zipfile` Documentation of the `zipfile` standard module.

Archiving operations Documentation of the higher-level archiving facilities provided by the standard `shutil` module.

GNU tar manual, Basic Tar Format Documentation for tar archive files, including GNU tar extensions.

12.5.1 TarFile Objects

The `TarFile` object provides an interface to a tar archive. A tar archive is a sequence of blocks. An archive member (a stored file) is made up of a header block followed by data blocks. It is possible to store a file in a tar archive several times. Each archive member is represented by a `TarInfo` object, see *TarInfo Objects* for details.

A `TarFile` object can be used as a context manager in a `with` statement. It will automatically be closed when the block is completed. Please note that in the event of an exception an archive opened for writing will not be finalized ; only the internally used file object will be closed. See the *Exemples* section for a use case.

Nouveau dans la version 2.7 : Added support for the context management protocol.

```
class tarfile.TarFile(name=None, mode='r', fileobj=None, format=DEFAULT_FORMAT,
                     tarinfo=TarInfo, dereference=False, ignore_zeros=False, encoding=ENCODING,
                     errors=None, pax_headers=None, debug=0, errorlevel=0)
```

All following arguments are optional and can be accessed as instance attributes as well.

`name` is the pathname of the archive. It can be omitted if `fileobj` is given. In this case, the file object's `name` attribute is used if it exists.

`mode` is either `'r'` to read from an existing archive, `'a'` to append data to an existing file or `'w'` to create a new file overwriting an existing one.

If `fileobj` is given, it is used for reading or writing data. If it can be determined, `mode` is overridden by `fileobj`'s mode. `fileobj` will be used from position 0.

Note : `fileobj` is not closed, when `TarFile` is closed.

format controls the archive format. It must be one of the constants `USTAR_FORMAT`, `GNU_FORMAT` or `PAX_FORMAT` that are defined at module level.

Nouveau dans la version 2.6.

The *tarinfo* argument can be used to replace the default `TarInfo` class with a different one.

Nouveau dans la version 2.6.

If *dereference* is `False`, add symbolic and hard links to the archive. If it is `True`, add the content of the target files to the archive. This has no effect on systems that do not support symbolic links.

If *ignore_zeros* is `False`, treat an empty block as the end of the archive. If it is `True`, skip empty (and invalid) blocks and try to get as many members as possible. This is only useful for reading concatenated or damaged archives.

debug can be set from 0 (no debug messages) up to 3 (all debug messages). The messages are written to `sys.stderr`.

If *errorlevel* is 0, all errors are ignored when using `TarFile.extract()`. Nevertheless, they appear as error messages in the debug output, when debugging is enabled. If 1, all *fatal* errors are raised as `OSError` or `IOError` exceptions. If 2, all *non-fatal* errors are raised as `TarError` exceptions as well.

The *encoding* and *errors* arguments control the way strings are converted to unicode objects and vice versa. The default settings will work for most users. See section *Unicode issues* for in-depth information.

Nouveau dans la version 2.6.

The *pax_headers* argument is an optional dictionary of unicode strings which will be added as a pax global header if *format* is `PAX_FORMAT`.

Nouveau dans la version 2.6.

classmethod `TarFile.open(...)`

Alternative constructor. The `tarfile.open()` function is actually a shortcut to this classmethod.

`TarFile.getmember(name)`

Return a `TarInfo` object for member *name*. If *name* can not be found in the archive, `KeyError` is raised.

Note : If a member occurs more than once in the archive, its last occurrence is assumed to be the most up-to-date version.

`TarFile.getmembers()`

Return the members of the archive as a list of `TarInfo` objects. The list has the same order as the members in the archive.

`TarFile.getnames()`

Return the members as a list of their names. It has the same order as the list returned by `getmembers()`.

`TarFile.list(verbose=True)`

Print a table of contents to `sys.stdout`. If *verbose* is `False`, only the names of the members are printed. If it is `True`, output similar to that of `ls -l` is produced.

`TarFile.next()`

Return the next member of the archive as a `TarInfo` object, when `TarFile` is opened for reading. Return `None` if there is no more available.

`TarFile.extractall(path=".", members=None)`

Extract all members from the archive to the current working directory or directory *path*. If optional *members* is given, it must be a subset of the list returned by `getmembers()`. Directory information like owner, modification time and permissions are set after all members have been extracted. This is done to work around two problems : A directory's modification time is reset each time a file is created in it. And, if a directory's permissions do not allow writing, extracting files to it will fail.

Avertissement : Never extract archives from untrusted sources without prior inspection. It is possible that files are created outside of *path*, e.g. members that have absolute filenames starting with "/" or filenames with two dots ". .".

Nouveau dans la version 2.5.

`TarFile.extract(member, path="")`

Extract a member from the archive to the current working directory, using its full name. Its file information is extracted as accurately as possible. *member* may be a filename or a *TarInfo* object. You can specify a different directory using *path*.

Note : The *extract()* method does not take care of several extraction issues. In most cases you should consider using the *extractall()* method.

Avertissement : See the warning for *extractall()*.

`TarFile.extractfile(member)`

Extract a member from the archive as a file object. *member* may be a filename or a *TarInfo* object. If *member* is a regular file, a file-like object is returned. If *member* is a link, a file-like object is constructed from the link's target. If *member* is none of the above, *None* is returned.

Note : The file-like object is read-only. It provides the methods *read()*, *readline()*, *readlines()*, *seek()*, *tell()*, and *close()*, and also supports iteration over its lines.

`TarFile.add(name, arcname=None, recursive=True, exclude=None, filter=None)`

Add the file *name* to the archive. *name* may be any type of file (directory, fifo, symbolic link, etc.). If given, *arcname* specifies an alternative name for the file in the archive. Directories are added recursively by default. This can be avoided by setting *recursive* to *False*. If *exclude* is given it must be a function that takes one filename argument and returns a boolean value. Depending on this value the respective file is either excluded (*True*) or added (*False*). If *filter* is specified it must be a function that takes a *TarInfo* object argument and returns the changed *TarInfo* object. If it instead returns *None* the *TarInfo* object will be excluded from the archive. See *Exemples* for an example.

Modifié dans la version 2.6 : Added the *exclude* parameter.

Modifié dans la version 2.7 : Added the *filter* parameter.

Obsolète depuis la version 2.7 : The *exclude* parameter is deprecated, please use the *filter* parameter instead. For maximum portability, *filter* should be used as a keyword argument rather than as a positional argument so that code won't be affected when *exclude* is ultimately removed.

`TarFile.addfile(tarinfo, fileobj=None)`

Add the *TarInfo* object *tarinfo* to the archive. If *fileobj* is given, *tarinfo.size* bytes are read from it and added to the archive. You can create *TarInfo* objects directly, or by using *gettinfo()*.

Note : On Windows platforms, *fileobj* should always be opened with mode 'rb' to avoid irritation about the file size.

`TarFile.gettarinfo(name=None, arcname=None, fileobj=None)`

Create a *TarInfo* object from the result of *os.stat()* or equivalent on an existing file. The file is either named by *name*, or specified as a file object *fileobj* with a file descriptor. If given, *arcname* specifies an alternative name for the file in the archive, otherwise, the name is taken from *fileobj*'s *name* attribute, or the *name* argument.

You can modify some of the *TarInfo*'s attributes before you add it using *addfile()*. If the file object is not an ordinary file object positioned at the beginning of the file, attributes such as *size* may need modifying. This is the case for objects such as *GzipFile*. The *name* may also be modified, in which case *arcname* could be a dummy string.

TarFile.close()

Close the *TarFile*. In write mode, two finishing zero blocks are appended to the archive.

TarFile.posix

Setting this to *True* is equivalent to setting the *format* attribute to *USTAR_FORMAT*, *False* is equivalent to *GNU_FORMAT*.

Modifié dans la version 2.4 : *posix* defaults to *False*.

Obsolète depuis la version 2.6 : Use the *format* attribute instead.

TarFile.pax_headers

A dictionary containing key-value pairs of pax global headers.

Nouveau dans la version 2.6.

12.5.2 TarInfo Objects

A *TarInfo* object represents one member in a *TarFile*. Aside from storing all required attributes of a file (like file type, size, time, permissions, owner etc.), it provides some useful methods to determine its type. It does *not* contain the file's data itself.

TarInfo objects are returned by *TarFile*'s methods *getmember()*, *getmembers()* and *gettartinfo()*.

class tarfile.TarInfo(name="")

Create a *TarInfo* object.

TarInfo.frombuf(buf)

Create and return a *TarInfo* object from string buffer *buf*.

Nouveau dans la version 2.6 : Raises *HeaderError* if the buffer is invalid..

TarInfo.fromtarfile(tarfile)

Read the next member from the *TarFile* object *tarfile* and return it as a *TarInfo* object.

Nouveau dans la version 2.6.

TarInfo.tobuf(format=DEFAULT_FORMAT, encoding=ENCODING, errors='strict')

Create a string buffer from a *TarInfo* object. For information on the arguments see the constructor of the *TarFile* class.

Modifié dans la version 2.6 : The arguments were added.

A *TarInfo* object has the following public data attributes :

TarInfo.name

Name of the archive member.

TarInfo.size

Size in bytes.

TarInfo.mtime

Time of last modification.

TarInfo.mode

Permission bits.

TarInfo.type

File type. *type* is usually one of these constants : *REGTYPE*, *AREGTYPE*, *LNKTYPE*, *SYMTYPE*, *DIRTYPE*, *FIFOTYPE*, *CONTTYPE*, *CHRTYPE*, *BLKTYPE*, *GNUTYPE_SPARSE*. To determine the type of a *TarInfo* object more conveniently, use the *is*()* methods below.

`TarInfo.linkname`

Name of the target file name, which is only present in *TarInfo* objects of type LNKTYPE and SYMTYPE.

`TarInfo.uid`

User ID of the user who originally stored this member.

`TarInfo.gid`

Group ID of the user who originally stored this member.

`TarInfo.uname`

User name.

`TarInfo.gname`

Group name.

`TarInfo.pax_headers`

A dictionary containing key-value pairs of an associated pax extended header.

Nouveau dans la version 2.6.

A *TarInfo* object also provides some convenient query methods :

`TarInfo.isfile()`

Return *True* if the *Tarinfo* object is a regular file.

`TarInfo.isreg()`

Same as *isfile()*.

`TarInfo.isdir()`

Return *True* if it is a directory.

`TarInfo.issym()`

Return *True* if it is a symbolic link.

`TarInfo.islnk()`

Return *True* if it is a hard link.

`TarInfo.ischr()`

Return *True* if it is a character device.

`TarInfo.isblk()`

Return *True* if it is a block device.

`TarInfo.isfifo()`

Return *True* if it is a FIFO.

`TarInfo.isdev()`

Return *True* if it is one of character device, block device or FIFO.

12.5.3 Exemples

How to extract an entire tar archive to the current working directory :

```
import tarfile
tar = tarfile.open("sample.tar.gz")
tar.extractall()
tar.close()
```

How to extract a subset of a tar archive with *TarFile.extractall()* using a generator function instead of a list :

```
import os
import tarfile

def py_files(members):
    for tarinfo in members:
        if os.path.splitext(tarinfo.name)[1] == ".py":
            yield tarinfo

tar = tarfile.open("sample.tar.gz")
tar.extractall(members=py_files(tar))
tar.close()
```

How to create an uncompressed tar archive from a list of filenames :

```
import tarfile
tar = tarfile.open("sample.tar", "w")
for name in ["foo", "bar", "quux"]:
    tar.add(name)
tar.close()
```

The same example using the `with` statement :

```
import tarfile
with tarfile.open("sample.tar", "w") as tar:
    for name in ["foo", "bar", "quux"]:
        tar.add(name)
```

How to read a gzip compressed tar archive and display some member information :

```
import tarfile
tar = tarfile.open("sample.tar.gz", "r:gz")
for tarinfo in tar:
    print tarinfo.name, "is", tarinfo.size, "bytes in size and is",
    if tarinfo.isreg():
        print "a regular file."
    elif tarinfo.isdir():
        print "a directory."
    else:
        print "something else."
tar.close()
```

How to create an archive and reset the user information using the *filter* parameter in *TarFile.add()* :

```
import tarfile
def reset(tarinfo):
    tarinfo.uid = tarinfo.gid = 0
    tarinfo.uname = tarinfo.gname = "root"
    return tarinfo
tar = tarfile.open("sample.tar.gz", "w:gz")
tar.add("foo", filter=reset)
tar.close()
```

12.5.4 Supported tar formats

There are three tar formats that can be created with the *tarfile* module :

- The POSIX.1-1988 ustar format (*USTAR_FORMAT*). It supports filenames up to a length of at best 256 characters and linknames up to 100 characters. The maximum file size is 8 gigabytes. This is an old and limited but widely supported format.
- The GNU tar format (*GNU_FORMAT*). It supports long filenames and linknames, files bigger than 8 gigabytes and sparse files. It is the de facto standard on GNU/Linux systems. *tarfile* fully supports the GNU tar extensions for long names, sparse file support is read-only.
- The POSIX.1-2001 pax format (*PAX_FORMAT*). It is the most flexible format with virtually no limits. It supports long filenames and linknames, large files and stores pathnames in a portable way. However, not all tar implementations today are able to handle pax archives properly. The *pax* format is an extension to the existing *ustar* format. It uses extra headers for information that cannot be stored otherwise. There are two flavours of pax headers : Extended headers only affect the subsequent file header, global headers are valid for the complete archive and affect all following files. All the data in a pax header is encoded in *UTF-8* for portability reasons.

There are some more variants of the tar format which can be read, but not created :

- The ancient V7 format. This is the first tar format from Unix Seventh Edition, storing only regular files and directories. Names must not be longer than 100 characters, there is no user/group name information. Some archives have miscalculated header checksums in case of fields with non-ASCII characters.
- The SunOS tar extended format. This format is a variant of the POSIX.1-2001 pax format, but is not compatible.

12.5.5 Unicode issues

The tar format was originally conceived to make backups on tape drives with the main focus on preserving file system information. Nowadays tar archives are commonly used for file distribution and exchanging archives over networks. One problem of the original format (that all other formats are merely variants of) is that there is no concept of supporting different character encodings. For example, an ordinary tar archive created on a *UTF-8* system cannot be read correctly on a *Latin-1* system if it contains non-ASCII characters. Names (i.e. filenames, linknames, user/group names) containing these characters will appear damaged. Unfortunately, there is no way to autodetect the encoding of an archive.

The pax format was designed to solve this problem. It stores non-ASCII names using the universal character encoding *UTF-8*. When a pax archive is read, these *UTF-8* names are converted to the encoding of the local file system.

The details of unicode conversion are controlled by the *encoding* and *errors* keyword arguments of the *TarFile* class.

The default value for *encoding* is the local character encoding. It is deduced from *sys.getfilesystemencoding()* and *sys.getdefaultencoding()*. In read mode, *encoding* is used exclusively to convert unicode names from a pax archive to strings in the local character encoding. In write mode, the use of *encoding* depends on the chosen archive format. In case of *PAX_FORMAT*, input names that contain non-ASCII characters need to be decoded before being stored as *UTF-8* strings. The other formats do not make use of *encoding* unless unicode objects are used as input names. These are converted to 8-bit character strings before they are added to the archive.

The *errors* argument defines how characters are treated that cannot be converted to or from *encoding*. Possible values are listed in section *Codec Base Classes*. In read mode, there is an additional scheme '*utf-8*' which means that bad characters are replaced by their *UTF-8* representation. This is the default scheme. In write mode the default value for *errors* is '*strict*' to ensure that name information is not altered unnoticed.

The modules described in this chapter parse various miscellaneous file formats that aren't markup languages or are related to e-mail.

13.1 `csv` — Lecture et écriture de fichiers CSV

Nouveau dans la version 2.3.

The so-called CSV (Comma Separated Values) format is the most common import and export format for spreadsheets and databases. There is no « CSV standard », so the format is operationally defined by the many applications which read and write it. The lack of a standard means that subtle differences often exist in the data produced and consumed by different applications. These differences can make it annoying to process CSV files from multiple sources. Still, while the delimiters and quoting characters vary, the overall format is similar enough that it is possible to write a single module which can efficiently manipulate such data, hiding the details of reading and writing the data from the programmer.

Le module `csv` implémente des classes pour lire et écrire des données tabulaires au format CSV. Il vous permet de dire « écris ces données dans le format préféré par Excel » ou « lis les données de ce fichier généré par Excel », sans connaître les détails précis du format CSV utilisé par Excel. Vous pouvez aussi décrire les formats CSV utilisés par d'autres application ou définir vos propres spécialisations.

Les objets `reader` et `writer` du module `csv` lisent et écrivent des séquences. Vous pouvez aussi lire/écrire les données dans un dictionnaire en utilisant les classes `DictReader` et `DictWriter`.

Note : This version of the `csv` module doesn't support Unicode input. Also, there are currently some issues regarding ASCII NUL characters. Accordingly, all input should be UTF-8 or printable ASCII to be safe ; see the examples in section [Examples](#).

Voir aussi :

PEP 305 – Interface des fichiers CSV La proposition d'amélioration de Python (PEP) qui a proposé cet ajout au langage.

13.1.1 Contenu du module

Le module `csv` définit les fonctions suivantes :

`csv.reader(csvfile, dialect='excel', **fmtparams)`

Return a reader object which will iterate over lines in the given *csvfile*. *csvfile* can be any object which supports the *iterator* protocol and returns a string each time its `next()` method is called — file objects and list objects are both suitable. If *csvfile* is a file object, it must be opened with the “b” flag on platforms where that makes a difference. An optional *dialect* parameter can be given which is used to define a set of parameters specific to a particular CSV dialect. It may be an instance of a subclass of the *Dialect* class or one of the strings returned by the `list_dialects()` function. The other optional *fmtparams* keyword arguments can be given to override individual formatting parameters in the current dialect. For full details about the dialect and formatting parameters, see section *Dialectes et paramètres de formatage*.

Each row read from the csv file is returned as a list of strings. No automatic data type conversion is performed.

Un court exemple d'utilisation :

```
>>> import csv
>>> with open('eggs.csv', 'rb') as csvfile:
...     spamreader = csv.reader(csvfile, delimiter=' ', quotechar='|')
...     for row in spamreader:
...         print ', '.join(row)
Spam, Spam, Spam, Spam, Spam, Baked Beans
Spam, Lovely Spam, Wonderful Spam
```

Modifié dans la version 2.5 : The parser is now stricter with respect to multi-line quoted fields. Previously, if a line ended within a quoted field without a terminating newline character, a newline would be inserted into the returned field. This behavior caused problems when reading files which contained carriage return characters within fields. The behavior was changed to return the field without inserting newlines. As a consequence, if newlines embedded within fields are important, the input should be split into lines in a manner which preserves the newline characters.

`csv.writer(csvfile, dialect='excel', **fmtparams)`

Return a writer object responsible for converting the user's data into delimited strings on the given file-like object. *csvfile* can be any object with a `write()` method. If *csvfile* is a file object, it must be opened with the “b” flag on platforms where that makes a difference. An optional *dialect* parameter can be given which is used to define a set of parameters specific to a particular CSV dialect. It may be an instance of a subclass of the *Dialect* class or one of the strings returned by the `list_dialects()` function. The other optional *fmtparams* keyword arguments can be given to override individual formatting parameters in the current dialect. For full details about the dialect and formatting parameters, see section *Dialectes et paramètres de formatage*. To make it as easy as possible to interface with modules which implement the DB API, the value *None* is written as the empty string. While this isn't a reversible transformation, it makes it easier to dump SQL NULL data values to CSV files without preprocessing the data returned from a `cursor.fetch*` call. Floats are stringified with `repr()` before being written. All other non-string data are stringified with `str()` before being written.

Un court exemple d'utilisation :

```
import csv
with open('eggs.csv', 'wb') as csvfile:
    spamwriter = csv.writer(csvfile, delimiter=' ',
                           quotechar='|', quoting=csv.QUOTE_MINIMAL)
    spamwriter.writerow(['Spam'] * 5 + ['Baked Beans'])
    spamwriter.writerow(['Spam', 'Lovely Spam', 'Wonderful Spam'])
```

`csv.register_dialect(name[, dialect], **fmtparams)`

Associate *dialect* with *name*. *name* must be a string or Unicode object. The dialect can be specified either by passing a sub-class of *Dialect*, or by *fmtparams* keyword arguments, or both, with keyword arguments overriding parameters of the dialect. For full details about the dialect and formatting parameters, see section *Dialectes et paramètres de formatage*.

`csv.unregister_dialect(name)`

Supprime le dialecte associé à *name* depuis le registre des dialectes. Une *Error* est levée si *name* n'est pas un nom de dialecte enregistré.

`csv.get_dialect(name)`

Return the dialect associated with *name*. An *Error* is raised if *name* is not a registered dialect name.

Modifié dans la version 2.5 : This function now returns an immutable *Dialect*. Previously an instance of the requested dialect was returned. Users could modify the underlying class, changing the behavior of active readers and writers.

`csv.list_dialects()`

Renvoie les noms de tous les dialectes enregistrés.

`csv.field_size_limit([new_limit])`

Renvoie la taille de champ maximale courante autorisée par l'analyseur. Si *new_limit* est donnée, elle devient la nouvelle limite.

Nouveau dans la version 2.5.

Le module *csv* définit les classes suivantes :

`class csv.DictReader(f, fieldnames=None, restkey=None, restval=None, dialect='excel', *args, **kws)`

Create an object which operates like a regular reader but maps the information read into a dict whose keys are given by the optional *fieldnames* parameter. The *fieldnames* parameter is a *sequence* whose elements are associated with the fields of the input data in order. These elements become the keys of the resulting dictionary. If the *fieldnames* parameter is omitted, the values in the first row of the file *f* will be used as the fieldnames. If the row read has more fields than the fieldnames sequence, the remaining data is added as a sequence keyed by the value of *restkey*. If the row read has fewer fields than the fieldnames sequence, the remaining keys take the value of the optional *restval* parameter. Any other optional or keyword arguments are passed to the underlying *reader* instance.

Un court exemple d'utilisation :

```
>>> import csv
>>> with open('names.csv') as csvfile:
...     reader = csv.DictReader(csvfile)
...     for row in reader:
...         print(row['first_name'], row['last_name'])
...
Baked Beans
Lovely Spam
Wonderful Spam
```

`class csv.DictWriter(f, fieldnames, restval="", extrasaction='raise', dialect='excel', *args, **kws)`

Create an object which operates like a regular writer but maps dictionaries onto output rows. The *fieldnames* parameter is a *sequence* of keys that identify the order in which values in the dictionary passed to the *writerow()* method are written to the file *f*. The optional *restval* parameter specifies the value to be written if the dictionary is missing a key in *fieldnames*. If the dictionary passed to the *writerow()* method contains a key not found in *fieldnames*, the optional *extrasaction* parameter indicates what action to take. If it is set to 'raise' a *ValueError* is raised. If it is set to 'ignore', extra values in the dictionary are ignored. Any other optional or keyword arguments are passed to the underlying *writer* instance.

Note that unlike the *DictReader* class, the *fieldnames* parameter of the *DictWriter* is not optional. Since Python's *dict* objects are not ordered, there is not enough information available to deduce the order in which the row should be written to the file *f*.

Un court exemple d'utilisation :

```
import csv

with open('names.csv', 'w') as csvfile:
    fieldnames = ['first_name', 'last_name']
    writer = csv.DictWriter(csvfile, fieldnames=fieldnames)

    writer.writeheader()
    writer.writerow({'first_name': 'Baked', 'last_name': 'Beans'})
    writer.writerow({'first_name': 'Lovely', 'last_name': 'Spam'})
    writer.writerow({'first_name': 'Wonderful', 'last_name': 'Spam'})
```

class csv.Dialect

La classe *Dialect* est une classe de conteneurs utilisée principalement pour ses attributs, qui servent à définir des paramètres pour des instances spécifiques de *reader* ou *writer*.

class csv.excel

La classe *excel* définit les propriétés usuelles d'un fichier CSV généré par Excel. Elle est enregistrée avec le nom de dialecte 'excel'.

class csv.excel_tab

La classe *excel_tab* définit les propriétés usuelles d'un fichier CSV généré par Excel avec des tabulations comme séparateurs. Elle est enregistrée avec le nom de dialecte 'excel-tab'.

class csv.Sniffer

La classe *Sniffer* est utilisée pour déduire le format d'un fichier CSV.

La classe *Sniffer* fournit deux méthodes :

sniff(*sample*, *delimiters=None*)

Analyse l'extrait donné (*sample*) et renvoie une sous-classe *Dialect* reflétant les paramètres trouvés. Si le paramètre optionnel *delimiters* est donné, il est interprété comme une chaîne contenant tous les caractères valides de séparation possibles.

has_header(*sample*)

Analyse l'extrait de texte (présupposé être au format CSV) et renvoie *True* si la première ligne semble être une série d'en-têtes de colonnes.

Un exemple d'utilisation de *Sniffer* :

```
with open('example.csv', 'rb') as csvfile:
    dialect = csv.Sniffer().sniff(csvfile.read(1024))
    csvfile.seek(0)
    reader = csv.reader(csvfile, dialect)
    # ... process CSV file contents here ...
```

Le module *csv* définit les constantes suivantes :

csv.QUOTE_ALL

Indique aux objets *writer* de délimiter tous les champs par des guillemets.

csv.QUOTE_MINIMAL

Indique aux objets *writer* de ne délimiter ainsi que les champs contenant un caractère spécial comme *delimiter*, *quotechar* ou n'importe quel caractère de *lineterminator*.

csv.QUOTE_NONNUMERIC

Indique aux objets *writer* de délimiter ainsi tous les champs non-numériques.

Indique au lecteur de convertir tous les champs non délimités par des guillemets vers des *float*.

`csv.QUOTE_NONE`

Indique aux objets *writer* de ne jamais délimiter les champs par des guillemets. Quand le *delimiter* courant apparaît dans les données, il est précédé sur la sortie par un caractère *escapechar*. Si *escapechar* n'est pas précisé, le transcritteur lèvera une *Error* si un caractère nécessitant un échappement est rencontré.

Indique au *reader* de ne pas opérer de traitement spécial sur les guillemets.

Le module *csv* définit les exceptions suivantes :

`exception csv.Error`

Levée par les fonctions du module quand une erreur détectée.

13.1.2 Dialectes et paramètres de formatage

Pour faciliter la spécification du format des entrées et sorties, les paramètres de formatage spécifiques sont regroupés en dialectes. Un dialecte est une sous-classe de *Dialect* avec un ensemble de méthodes spécifiques et une méthode `validate()`. Quand un objet *reader* ou *writer* est créé, vous pouvez spécifier une chaîne ou une sous-classe de *Dialect* comme paramètre *dialect*. En plus du paramètre *dialect*, ou à sa place, vous pouvez aussi préciser des paramètres de formatage individuels, qui ont les mêmes noms que les attributs de *Dialect* définis ci-dessous.

Les dialectes supportent les attributs suivants :

`Dialect.delimiter`

Une chaîne d'un seul caractère utilisée pour séparer les champs. Elle vaut `' '` par défaut.

`Dialect.doublequote`

Contrôle comment les caractères *quotechar* dans le champ doivent être retranscrits. Quand ce paramètre vaut *True*, le caractère est doublé. Quand il vaut *False*, le caractère *escapechar* est utilisé comme préfixe à *quotechar*. Il vaut *True* par défaut.

En écriture, si *doublequote* vaut *False* et qu'aucun *escapechar* n'est précisé, une *Error* est levée si un *quotechar* est trouvé dans le champ.

`Dialect.escapechar`

Une chaîne d'un seul caractère utilisée par le transcritteur pour échapper *delimiter* si *quoting* vaut *QUOTE_NONE*, et pour échapper *quotechar* si *doublequote* vaut *False*. À la lecture, *escapechar* retire toute signification spéciale au caractère qui le suit. Elle vaut par défaut *None*, ce qui désactive l'échappement.

`Dialect.lineterminator`

La chaîne utilisée pour terminer les lignes produites par un *writer*. Elle vaut par défaut `'\r\n'`.

Note : La classe *reader* est codée en dur pour reconnaître `'\r'` et `'\n'` comme marqueurs de fin de ligne, et ignorer *lineterminator*. Ce comportement pourrait changer dans le futur.

`Dialect.quotechar`

Une chaîne d'un seul caractère utilisée pour délimiter les champs contenant des caractères spéciaux, comme *delimiter* ou *quotechar*, ou contenant un caractère de fin de ligne. Elle vaut `'\"'` par défaut.

`Dialect.quoting`

Contrôle quand les guillemets doivent être générés par le transcritteur et reconnus par le lecteur. Il peut prendre comme valeur l'une des constantes `QUOTE_*` (voir la section *Contenu du module*) et vaut par défaut *QUOTE_MINIMAL*.

`Dialect.skipinitialspace`

Quand il vaut *True*, les espaces suivant directement *delimiter* sont ignorés. Il vaut *False* par défaut.

`Dialect.strict`

Quand il vaut `True`, une exception *Error* est levée lors de mauvaises entrées CSV. Il vaut `False` par défaut.

13.1.3 Objets lecteurs

Les objets lecteurs (instances de *DictReader* ou objets renvoyés par la fonction *reader()*) ont les méthodes publiques suivantes :

`csvreader.next()`

Return the next row of the reader's iterable object as a list, parsed according to the current dialect.

Les objets lecteurs ont les attributs publics suivants :

`csvreader.dialect`

Une description en lecture seule du dialecte utilisé par l'analyseur.

`csvreader.line_num`

Le nombre de lignes lues depuis l'itérateur source. Ce n'est pas équivalent au nombre d'enregistrements renvoyés, puisque certains enregistrements peuvent s'étendre sur plusieurs lignes.

Nouveau dans la version 2.5.

Les objets *DictReader* ont les attributs publics suivants :

`csvreader.fieldnames`

S'il n'est pas passé comme paramètre à la création de l'objet, cet attribut est initialisé lors du premier accès ou quand le premier enregistrement est lu depuis le fichier.

Modifié dans la version 2.6.

13.1.4 Objets transpositeurs

Writer objects (*DictWriter* instances and objects returned by the *writer()* function) have the following public methods. A *row* must be a sequence of strings or numbers for *Writer* objects and a dictionary mapping fieldnames to strings or numbers (by passing them through *str()* first) for *DictWriter* objects. Note that complex numbers are written out surrounded by parens. This may cause some problems for other programs which read CSV files (assuming they support complex numbers at all).

`csvwriter.writerow(row)`

Écrit le paramètre *row* vers le fichier associé au transpositeur, formaté selon le dialecte courant.

`csvwriter.writerows(rows)`

Write all elements in *rows* (an iterable of *row* objects as described above) to the writer's file object, formatted according to the current dialect.

Les objets transpositeurs ont les attributs publics suivants :

`csvwriter.dialect`

Une description en lecture seule du dialecte utilisé par le transpositeur.

Les objets *DictWriter* ont les attributs publics suivants :

`DictWriter.writeheader()`

Écrit une ligne contenant les noms de champs (comme spécifiés au constructeur).

Nouveau dans la version 2.7.

13.1.5 Exemples

Le plus simple exemple de lecture d'un fichier CSV :

```
import csv
with open('some.csv', 'rb') as f:
    reader = csv.reader(f)
    for row in reader:
        print row
```

Lire un fichier avec un format alternatif :

```
import csv
with open('passwd', 'rb') as f:
    reader = csv.reader(f, delimiter=':', quoting=csv.QUOTE_NONE)
    for row in reader:
        print row
```

Le plus simple exemple d'écriture correspondant est :

```
import csv
with open('some.csv', 'wb') as f:
    writer = csv.writer(f)
    writer.writerows(someiterable)
```

Enregistrer un nouveau dialecte :

```
import csv
csv.register_dialect('unixpwd', delimiter=':', quoting=csv.QUOTE_NONE)
with open('passwd', 'rb') as f:
    reader = csv.reader(f, 'unixpwd')
```

Un exemple d'utilisation un peu plus avancé du lecteur — attrapant et notifiant les erreurs :

```
import csv, sys
filename = 'some.csv'
with open(filename, 'rb') as f:
    reader = csv.reader(f)
    try:
        for row in reader:
            print row
    except csv.Error as e:
        sys.exit('file %s, line %d: %s' % (filename, reader.line_num, e))
```

Et bien que le module ne permette pas d'analyser directement des chaînes, cela peut être fait facilement :

```
import csv
for row in csv.reader(['one,two,three']):
    print row
```

The `csv` module doesn't directly support reading and writing Unicode, but it is 8-bit-clean save for some problems with ASCII NUL characters. So you can write functions or classes that handle the encoding and decoding for you as long as you avoid encodings like UTF-16 that use NULs. UTF-8 is recommended.

`unicode_csv_reader()` below is a *generator* that wraps `csv.reader` to handle Unicode CSV data (a list of Unicode strings). `utf_8_encoder()` is a *generator* that encodes the Unicode strings as UTF-8, one string (or row) at a time. The encoded strings are parsed by the CSV reader, and `unicode_csv_reader()` decodes the UTF-8-encoded cells back into Unicode :

```
import csv

def unicode_csv_reader(unicode_csv_data, dialect=csv.excel, **kwargs):
    # csv.py doesn't do Unicode; encode temporarily as UTF-8:
    csv_reader = csv.reader(utf_8_encoder(unicode_csv_data),
                            dialect=dialect, **kwargs)
    for row in csv_reader:
        # decode UTF-8 back to Unicode, cell by cell:
        yield [unicode(cell, 'utf-8') for cell in row]

def utf_8_encoder(unicode_csv_data):
    for line in unicode_csv_data:
        yield line.encode('utf-8')
```

For all other encodings the following `UnicodeReader` and `UnicodeWriter` classes can be used. They take an additional *encoding* parameter in their constructor and make sure that the data passes the real reader or writer encoded as UTF-8 :

```
import csv, codecs, cStringIO

class UTF8Recoder:
    """
    Iterator that reads an encoded stream and reencodes the input to UTF-8
    """
    def __init__(self, f, encoding):
        self.reader = codecs.getreader(encoding)(f)

    def __iter__(self):
        return self

    def next(self):
        return self.reader.next().encode("utf-8")

class UnicodeReader:
    """
    A CSV reader which will iterate over lines in the CSV file "f",
    which is encoded in the given encoding.
    """
    def __init__(self, f, dialect=csv.excel, encoding="utf-8", **kwds):
        f = UTF8Recoder(f, encoding)
        self.reader = csv.reader(f, dialect=dialect, **kwds)

    def next(self):
        row = self.reader.next()
        return [unicode(s, "utf-8") for s in row]

    def __iter__(self):
        return self

class UnicodeWriter:
    """
    A CSV writer which will write rows to CSV file "f",
```

(suite sur la page suivante)

(suite de la page précédente)

```

which is encoded in the given encoding.
"""

def __init__(self, f, dialect=csv.excel, encoding="utf-8", **kwds):
    # Redirect output to a queue
    self.queue = cStringIO.StringIO()
    self.writer = csv.writer(self.queue, dialect=dialect, **kwds)
    self.stream = f
    self.encoder = codecs.getincrementalencoder(encoding)()

def writerow(self, row):
    self.writer.writerow([s.encode("utf-8") for s in row])
    # Fetch UTF-8 output from the queue ...
    data = self.queue.getvalue()
    data = data.decode("utf-8")
    # ... and reencode it into the target encoding
    data = self.encoder.encode(data)
    # write to the target stream
    self.stream.write(data)
    # empty queue
    self.queue.truncate(0)

def writerows(self, rows):
    for row in rows:
        self.writerow(row)

```

13.2 ConfigParser — Configuration file parser

Note : The *ConfigParser* module has been renamed to `configparser` in Python 3. The *2to3* tool will automatically adapt imports when converting your sources to Python 3.

This module defines the class *ConfigParser*. The *ConfigParser* class implements a basic configuration file parser language which provides a structure similar to what you would find on Microsoft Windows INI files. You can use this to write Python programs which can be customized by end users easily.

Note : This library does *not* interpret or write the value-type prefixes used in the Windows Registry extended version of INI syntax.

Voir aussi :

Module *shlex* Support for creating Unix shell-like mini-languages which can be used as an alternate format for application configuration files.

Module *json* The `json` module implements a subset of JavaScript syntax which can also be used for this purpose.

The configuration file consists of sections, led by a `[section]` header and followed by `name: value` entries, with continuations in the style of [RFC 822](#) (see section 3.1.1, « LONG HEADER FIELDS »); `name=value` is also accepted. Note that leading whitespace is removed from values. The optional values can contain format strings which refer to other values in the same section, or values in a special `DEFAULT` section. Additional

defaults can be provided on initialization and retrieval. Lines beginning with '#' or ';' are ignored and may be used to provide comments.

Configuration files may include comments, prefixed by specific characters (# and ;). Comments may appear on their own in an otherwise empty line, or may be entered in lines holding values or section names. In the latter case, they need to be preceded by a whitespace character to be recognized as a comment. (For backwards compatibility, only ; starts an inline comment, while # does not.)

On top of the core functionality, *SafeConfigParser* supports interpolation. This means values can contain format strings which refer to other values in the same section, or values in a special DEFAULT section. Additional defaults can be provided on initialization.

Par exemple :

```
[My Section]
foodir: %(dir)s/whatever
dir=frob
long: this value continues
    in the next line
```

would resolve the %(dir)s to the value of dir (frob in this case). All reference expansions are done on demand.

Default values can be specified by passing them into the *ConfigParser* constructor as a dictionary. Additional defaults may be passed into the *get()* method which will override all others.

Sections are normally stored in a built-in dictionary. An alternative dictionary type can be passed to the *ConfigParser* constructor. For example, if a dictionary type is passed that sorts its keys, the sections will be sorted on write-back, as will be the keys within each section.

class *ConfigParser.RawConfigParser*([*defaults*[, *dict_type*[, *allow_no_value*]]])

The basic configuration object. When *defaults* is given, it is initialized into the dictionary of intrinsic defaults. When *dict_type* is given, it will be used to create the dictionary objects for the list of sections, for the options within a section, and for the default values. When *allow_no_value* is true (default : **False**), options without values are accepted; the value presented for these is **None**.

This class does not support the magical interpolation behavior.

All option names are passed through the *optionxform()* method. Its default implementation converts option names to lower case.

Nouveau dans la version 2.3.

Modifié dans la version 2.6 : *dict_type* was added.

Modifié dans la version 2.7 : The default *dict_type* is *collections.OrderedDict*. *allow_no_value* was added.

class *ConfigParser.ConfigParser*([*defaults*[, *dict_type*[, *allow_no_value*]]])

Derived class of *RawConfigParser* that implements the magical interpolation feature and adds optional arguments to the *get()* and *items()* methods. The values in *defaults* must be appropriate for the %()s string interpolation. Note that *__name__* is an intrinsic default; its value is the section name, and will override any value provided in *defaults*.

All option names used in interpolation will be passed through the *optionxform()* method just like any other option name reference. Using the default implementation of *optionxform()*, the values foo %(bar)s and foo %(BAR)s are equivalent.

Nouveau dans la version 2.3.

Modifié dans la version 2.6 : *dict_type* was added.

Modifié dans la version 2.7 : The default *dict_type* is *collections.OrderedDict*. *allow_no_value* was added.

class `ConfigParser.SafeConfigParser([defaults[, dict_type[, allow_no_value]])`

Derived class of `ConfigParser` that implements a more-sane variant of the magical interpolation feature. This implementation is more predictable as well. New applications should prefer this version if they don't need to be compatible with older versions of Python.

Nouveau dans la version 2.3.

Modifié dans la version 2.6 : `dict_type` was added.

Modifié dans la version 2.7 : The default `dict_type` is `collections.OrderedDict`. `allow_no_value` was added.

exception `ConfigParser.Error`

Base class for all other configparser exceptions.

exception `ConfigParser.NoSectionError`

Exception raised when a specified section is not found.

exception `ConfigParser.DuplicateSectionError`

Exception raised if `add_section()` is called with the name of a section that is already present.

exception `ConfigParser.NoOptionError`

Exception raised when a specified option is not found in the specified section.

exception `ConfigParser.InterpolationError`

Base class for exceptions raised when problems occur performing string interpolation.

exception `ConfigParser.InterpolationDepthError`

Exception raised when string interpolation cannot be completed because the number of iterations exceeds `MAX_INTERPOLATION_DEPTH`. Subclass of `InterpolationError`.

exception `ConfigParser.InterpolationMissingOptionError`

Exception raised when an option referenced from a value does not exist. Subclass of `InterpolationError`.

Nouveau dans la version 2.3.

exception `ConfigParser.InterpolationSyntaxError`

Exception raised when the source text into which substitutions are made does not conform to the required syntax. Subclass of `InterpolationError`.

Nouveau dans la version 2.3.

exception `ConfigParser.MissingSectionHeaderError`

Exception raised when attempting to parse a file which has no section headers.

exception `ConfigParser.ParsingError`

Exception raised when errors occur attempting to parse a file.

`ConfigParser.MAX_INTERPOLATION_DEPTH`

The maximum depth for recursive interpolation for `get()` when the `raw` parameter is false. This is relevant only for the `ConfigParser` class.

Voir aussi :

Module `shlex` Support for a creating Unix shell-like mini-languages which can be used as an alternate format for application configuration files.

13.2.1 RawConfigParser Objects

`RawConfigParser` instances have the following methods :

`RawConfigParser.defaults()`

Return a dictionary containing the instance-wide defaults.

`RawConfigParser.sections()`

Return a list of the sections available; `DEFAULT` is not included in the list.

`RawConfigParser.add_section(section)`

Add a section named *section* to the instance. If a section by the given name already exists, `DuplicateSectionError` is raised. If the name `DEFAULT` (or any of its case-insensitive variants) is passed, `ValueError` is raised.

`RawConfigParser.has_section(section)`

Indicates whether the named section is present in the configuration. The `DEFAULT` section is not acknowledged.

`RawConfigParser.options(section)`

Returns a list of options available in the specified *section*.

`RawConfigParser.has_option(section, option)`

If the given section exists, and contains the given option, return `True`; otherwise return `False`.

Nouveau dans la version 1.6.

`RawConfigParser.read(filenames)`

Attempt to read and parse a list of filenames, returning a list of filenames which were successfully parsed. If *filenames* is a string or Unicode string, it is treated as a single filename. If a file named in *filenames* cannot be opened, that file will be ignored. This is designed so that you can specify a list of potential configuration file locations (for example, the current directory, the user's home directory, and some system-wide directory), and all existing configuration files in the list will be read. If none of the named files exist, the `ConfigParser` instance will contain an empty dataset. An application which requires initial values to be loaded from a file should load the required file or files using `readfp()` before calling `read()` for any optional files :

```
import ConfigParser, os

config = ConfigParser.ConfigParser()
config.readfp(open('defaults.cfg'))
config.read(['site.cfg', os.path.expanduser('~/.myapp.cfg')])
```

Modifié dans la version 2.4 : Returns list of successfully parsed filenames.

`RawConfigParser.readfp(fp[, filename])`

Read and parse configuration data from the file or file-like object in *fp* (only the `readline()` method is used). If *filename* is omitted and *fp* has a `name` attribute, that is used for *filename*; the default is `<???`.

`RawConfigParser.get(section, option)`

Get an *option* value for the named *section*.

`RawConfigParser.getint(section, option)`

A convenience method which coerces the *option* in the specified *section* to an integer.

`RawConfigParser.getfloat(section, option)`

A convenience method which coerces the *option* in the specified *section* to a floating point number.

`RawConfigParser.getboolean(section, option)`

A convenience method which coerces the *option* in the specified *section* to a Boolean value. Note that the accepted values for the option are "1", "yes", "true", and "on", which cause this method to return `True`, and "0", "no", "false", and "off", which cause it to return `False`. These string values are checked in a case-insensitive manner. Any other value will cause it to raise `ValueError`.

`RawConfigParser.items(section)`

Return a list of (name, value) pairs for each option in the given *section*.

`RawConfigParser.set(section, option, value)`

If the given section exists, set the given option to the specified value; otherwise raise `NoSectionError`. While it is possible to use `RawConfigParser` (or `ConfigParser` with `raw` parameters set to true) for *internal* storage of non-string values, full functionality (including interpolation and output to files) can only be achieved using string values.

Nouveau dans la version 1.6.

`RawConfigParser.write(fileobject)`

Write a representation of the configuration to the specified file object. This representation can be parsed by a future `read()` call.

Nouveau dans la version 1.6.

`RawConfigParser.remove_option(section, option)`

Remove the specified *option* from the specified *section*. If the section does not exist, raise `NoSectionError`. If the option existed to be removed, return `True`; otherwise return `False`.

Nouveau dans la version 1.6.

`RawConfigParser.remove_section(section)`

Remove the specified *section* from the configuration. If the section in fact existed, return `True`. Otherwise return `False`.

`RawConfigParser.optionxform(option)`

Transforms the option name *option* as found in an input file or as passed in by client code to the form that should be used in the internal structures. The default implementation returns a lower-case version of *option*; subclasses may override this or client code can set an attribute of this name on instances to affect this behavior.

You don't necessarily need to subclass a `ConfigParser` to use this method, you can also re-set it on an instance, to a function that takes a string argument. Setting it to `str`, for example, would make option names case sensitive :

```
cfgparser = ConfigParser()
...
cfgparser.optionxform = str
```

Note that when reading configuration files, whitespace around the option names are stripped before `optionxform()` is called.

13.2.2 ConfigParser Objects

The `ConfigParser` class extends some methods of the `RawConfigParser` interface, adding some optional arguments.

`ConfigParser.get(section, option[, raw[, vars]])`

Get an *option* value for the named *section*. If *vars* is provided, it must be a dictionary. The *option* is looked up in *vars* (if provided), *section*, and in *defaults* in that order.

All the '%' interpolations are expanded in the return values, unless the *raw* argument is true. Values for interpolation keys are looked up in the same manner as the option.

`ConfigParser.items(section[, raw[, vars]])`

Return a list of (*name*, *value*) pairs for each option in the given *section*. Optional arguments have the same meaning as for the `get()` method.

Nouveau dans la version 2.3.

13.2.3 SafeConfigParser Objects

The `SafeConfigParser` class implements the same extended interface as `ConfigParser`, with the following addition :

`SafeConfigParser.set(section, option, value)`

If the given section exists, set the given option to the specified value ; otherwise raise *NoSectionError*. *value* must be a string (*str* or *unicode*) ; if not, *TypeError* is raised.

Nouveau dans la version 2.4.

13.2.4 Exemples

An example of writing to a configuration file :

```
import ConfigParser

config = ConfigParser.RawConfigParser()

# When adding sections or items, add them in the reverse order of
# how you want them to be displayed in the actual file.
# In addition, please note that using RawConfigParser's and the raw
# mode of ConfigParser's respective set functions, you can assign
# non-string values to keys internally, but will receive an error
# when attempting to write to a file or when you get it in non-row
# mode. SafeConfigParser does not allow such assignments to take place.
config.add_section('Section1')
config.set('Section1', 'an_int', '15')
config.set('Section1', 'a_bool', 'true')
config.set('Section1', 'a_float', '3.1415')
config.set('Section1', 'baz', 'fun')
config.set('Section1', 'bar', 'Python')
config.set('Section1', 'foo', '%(bar)s is %(baz)s!')

# Writing our configuration file to 'example.cfg'
with open('example.cfg', 'wb') as configfile:
    config.write(configfile)
```

An example of reading the configuration file again :

```
import ConfigParser

config = ConfigParser.RawConfigParser()
config.read('example.cfg')

# getfloat() raises an exception if the value is not a float
# getint() and getboolean() also do this for their respective types
a_float = config.getfloat('Section1', 'a_float')
an_int = config.getint('Section1', 'an_int')
print a_float + an_int

# Notice that the next output does not interpolate '%(bar)s' or '%(baz)s'.
# This is because we are using a RawConfigParser().
if config.getboolean('Section1', 'a_bool'):
    print config.get('Section1', 'foo')
```

To get interpolation, you will need to use a *ConfigParser* or *SafeConfigParser* :

```
import ConfigParser
```

(suite sur la page suivante)

(suite de la page précédente)

```

config = ConfigParser.ConfigParser()
config.read('example.cfg')

# Set the third, optional argument of get to 1 if you wish to use raw mode.
print config.get('Section1', 'foo', 0) # -> "Python is fun!"
print config.get('Section1', 'foo', 1) # -> "%(bar)s is %(baz)s!"

# The optional fourth argument is a dict with members that will take
# precedence in interpolation.
print config.get('Section1', 'foo', 0, {'bar': 'Documentation',
                                       'baz': 'evil'})

```

Defaults are available in all three types of ConfigParsers. They are used in interpolation if an option used is not defined elsewhere.

```

import ConfigParser

# New instance with 'bar' and 'baz' defaulting to 'Life' and 'hard' each
config = ConfigParser.SafeConfigParser({'bar': 'Life', 'baz': 'hard'})
config.read('example.cfg')

print config.get('Section1', 'foo') # -> "Python is fun!"
config.remove_option('Section1', 'bar')
config.remove_option('Section1', 'baz')
print config.get('Section1', 'foo') # -> "Life is hard!"

```

The function `opt_move` below can be used to move options between sections :

```

def opt_move(config, section1, section2, option):
    try:
        config.set(section2, option, config.get(section1, option, 1))
    except ConfigParser.NoSectionError:
        # Create non-existent section
        config.add_section(section2)
        opt_move(config, section1, section2, option)
    else:
        config.remove_option(section1, option)

```

Some configuration files are known to include settings without values, but which otherwise conform to the syntax supported by `ConfigParser`. The `allow_no_value` parameter to the constructor can be used to indicate that such values should be accepted :

```

>>> import ConfigParser
>>> import io

>>> sample_config = """
... [mysqld]
... user = mysql
... pid-file = /var/run/mysqld/mysqld.pid
... skip-external-locking
... old_passwords = 1
... skip-bdb

```

(suite sur la page suivante)

(suite de la page précédente)

```

... skip-innodb
... """
>>> config = ConfigParser.RawConfigParser(allow_no_value=True)
>>> config.readfp(io.BytesIO(sample_config))

>>> # Settings with values are treated as before:
>>> config.get("mysqld", "user")
'mysql'

>>> # Settings without values provide None:
>>> config.get("mysqld", "skip-bdb")

>>> # Settings which aren't specified still raise an error:
>>> config.get("mysqld", "does-not-exist")
Traceback (most recent call last):
...
ConfigParser.NoOptionError: No option 'does-not-exist' in section: 'mysqld'

```

13.3 robotparser — Parser for robots.txt

Note : The *robotparser* module has been renamed `urllib.robotparser` in Python 3. The *2to3* tool will automatically adapt imports when converting your sources to Python 3.

Ce module fournit une simple classe, *RobotFileParser*, qui permet de savoir si un *user-agent* particulier peut accéder à une URL du site web qui a publié ce fichier `robots.txt`. Pour plus de détails sur la structure des fichiers `robots.txt`, voir <http://www.robotstxt.org/orig.html>.

class `robotparser.RobotFileParser(url=)`

Cette classe fournit des méthodes pour lire, analyser et répondre aux questions à propos du fichier `robots.txt` disponible à l'adresse `url`.

set_url(url)

Modifie l'URL référençant le fichier `robots.txt`.

read()

Lit le fichier `robots.txt` depuis son URL et envoie le contenu à l'analyseur.

parse(lines)

Analyse les lignes données en argument.

can_fetch(useragent, url)

Renvoie `True` si *useragent* est autorisé à accéder à `url` selon les règles contenues dans le fichier `robots.txt` analysé.

mtime()

Renvoie le temps auquel le fichier `robots.txt` a été téléchargé pour la dernière fois. Cela est utile pour des *web spiders* de longue durée qui doivent vérifier périodiquement si le fichier est mis à jour.

modified()

Indique que le fichier `robots.txt` a été téléchargé pour la dernière fois au temps courant.

The following example demonstrates basic use of the `RobotFileParser` class.

```

>>> import robotparser
>>> rp = robotparser.RobotFileParser()

```

(suite sur la page suivante)

(suite de la page précédente)

```
>>> rp.set_url("http://www.musi-cal.com/robots.txt")
>>> rp.read()
>>> rp.can_fetch("*", "http://www.musi-cal.com/cgi-bin/search?city=San+Francisco")
False
>>> rp.can_fetch("*", "http://www.musi-cal.com/")
True
```

13.4 netrc — traitement de fichier *netrc*

Nouveau dans la version 1.5.2.

Code source : [Lib/netrc.py](#)

The *netrc* class parses and encapsulates the netrc file format used by the Unix **ftp** program and other FTP clients.

class netrc.netrc(*[file]*)

A *netrc* instance or subclass instance encapsulates data from a netrc file. The initialization argument, if present, specifies the file to parse. If no argument is given, the file *.netrc* in the user's home directory will be read. Parse errors will raise *NetrcParseError* with diagnostic information including the file name, line number, and terminating token. If no argument is specified on a POSIX system, the presence of passwords in the *.netrc* file will raise a *NetrcParseError* if the file ownership or permissions are insecure (owned by a user other than the user running the process, or accessible for read or write by any other user). This implements security behavior equivalent to that of ftp and other programs that use *.netrc*.

Modifié dans la version 2.7.6 : Added the POSIX permissions check.

exception netrc.NetrcParseError

Exception raised by the *netrc* class when syntactical errors are encountered in source text. Instances of this exception provide three interesting attributes : *msg* is a textual explanation of the error, *filename* is the name of the source file, and *lineno* gives the line number on which the error was found.

13.4.1 Objets *netrc*

A *netrc* instance has the following methods :

netrc.authenticators(*host*)

Renvoie un triplet (*login*, *account*, *password*) pour s'authentifier auprès de l'hôte *host*. Si le fichier *netrc* ne contient pas d'entrée pour l'hôte donné, renvoie le tuple associé à l'entrée par défaut. Si aucun hôte correspondant ni aucune entrée par défaut n'est disponible, renvoie *None*.

netrc.__repr__()

Déverse les données de la classe sous forme de chaîne dans le format d'un fichier *netrc*. (Ceci ignore les commentaires et peut réorganiser les entrées).

Instances of *netrc* have public instance variables :

netrc.hosts

Dictionnaire faisant correspondre les noms d'hôtes dans des tuples (*login*, *account*, *password*). L'entrée par défaut, le cas échéant, est représentée en tant que pseudo-hôte par ce nom.

netrc.macros

Dictionnaire faisant correspondre les noms de macro en listes de chaînes.

Note : Passwords are limited to a subset of the ASCII character set. Versions of this module prior to 2.3 were extremely limited. Starting with 2.3, all ASCII punctuation is allowed in passwords. However, note that whitespace and non-printable characters are not allowed in passwords. This is a limitation of the way the .netrc file is parsed and may be removed in the future.

13.5 xdrlib — Encode and decode XDR data

Code source : [Lib/xdrlib.py](#)

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.

class xdrlib.Packer

Packer is the class for packing data into XDR representation. The *Packer* class is instantiated with no arguments.

class xdrlib.Unpacker(*data*)

Unpacker is the complementary class which unpacks XDR data values from a string buffer. The input buffer is given as *data*.

Voir aussi :

RFC 1014 - XDR : External Data Representation Standard This RFC defined the encoding of data which was XDR at the time this module was originally written. It has apparently been obsoleted by [RFC 1832](#).

RFC 1832 - XDR : External Data Representation Standard Newer RFC that provides a revised definition of XDR.

13.5.1 Packer Objects

Packer instances have the following methods :

Packer.get_buffer()

Returns the current pack buffer as a string.

Packer.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()*.

Packer.pack_float(*value*)

Packs the single-precision floating point number *value*.

Packer.pack_double(*value*)

Packs the double-precision floating point number *value*.

The following methods support packing strings, bytes, and opaque data :

`Packer.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.

`Packer.pack_fopaque(n, data)`

Packs a fixed length opaque data stream, similarly to `pack_fstring()`.

`Packer.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()`.

`Packer.pack_opaque(data)`

Packs a variable length opaque data string, similarly to `pack_string()`.

`Packer.pack_bytes(bytes)`

Packs a variable length byte stream, similarly to `pack_string()`.

The following methods support packing arrays and lists :

`Packer.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.

For example, to pack a list of integers, the code might appear like this :

```
import xdrlib
p = xdrlib.Packer()
p.pack_list([1, 2, 3], p.pack_int)
```

`Packer.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.

`Packer.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.

13.5.2 Unpacker Objects

The `Unpacker` class offers the following methods :

`Unpacker.reset(data)`

Resets the string buffer with the given *data*.

`Unpacker.get_position()`

Returns the current unpack position in the data buffer.

`Unpacker.set_position(position)`

Sets the data buffer unpack position to *position*. You should be careful about using `get_position()` and `set_position()`.

`Unpacker.get_buffer()`

Returns the current unpack data buffer as a string.

`Unpacker.done()`

Indicates unpack completion. Raises an `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.

`Unpacker.unpack_float()`

Unpacks a single-precision floating point number.

`Unpacker.unpack_double()`

Unpacks a double-precision floating point number, similarly to `unpack_float()`.

In addition, the following methods unpack strings, bytes, and opaque data :

`Unpacker.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.

`Unpacker.unpack_fopaque(n)`

Unpacks and returns a fixed length opaque data stream, similarly to `unpack_fstring()`.

`Unpacker.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()`.

`Unpacker.unpack_opaque()`

Unpacks and returns a variable length opaque data string, similarly to `unpack_string()`.

`Unpacker.unpack_bytes()`

Unpacks and returns a variable length byte stream, similarly to `unpack_string()`.

The following methods support unpacking arrays and lists :

`Unpacker.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.

`Unpacker.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.

`Unpacker.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.

13.5.3 Exceptions

Exceptions in this module are coded as class instances :

exception `xdrlib.Error`

The base exception class. *Error* has a single public attribute `msg` containing the description of the error.

exception `xdrlib.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:
```

(suite sur la page suivante)

(suite de la page précédente)

```
p.pack_double(8.01)
except xdrlib.ConversionError as instance:
    print 'packing the double failed:', instance.msg
```

13.6 plistlib — Generate and parse Mac OS X .plist files

Modifié dans la version 2.6 : This module was previously only available in the Mac-specific library, it is now available for all platforms.

Code source : [Lib/plistlib.py](#)

This module provides an interface for reading and writing the « property list » XML files used mainly by Mac OS X.

The property list (`.plist`) file format is a simple XML pickle supporting basic object types, like dictionaries, lists, numbers and strings. Usually the top level object is a dictionary.

Values can be strings, integers, floats, booleans, tuples, lists, dictionaries (but only with string keys), *Data* or *datetime.datetime* objects. String values (including dictionary keys) may be unicode strings – they will be written out as UTF-8.

The `<data>` plist type is supported through the *Data* class. This is a thin wrapper around a Python string. Use *Data* if your strings contain control characters.

Voir aussi :

PList manual page Apple's documentation of the file format.

This module defines the following functions :

plistlib.readPlist(*pathOrFile*)

Read a plist file. *pathOrFile* may either be a file name or a (readable) file object. Return the unpacked root object (which usually is a dictionary).

The XML data is parsed using the Expat parser from *xml.parsers.expat* – see its documentation for possible exceptions on ill-formed XML. Unknown elements will simply be ignored by the plist parser.

plistlib.writePlist(*rootObject*, *pathOrFile*)

Write *rootObject* to a plist file. *pathOrFile* may either be a file name or a (writable) file object.

A *TypeError* will be raised if the object is of an unsupported type or a container that contains objects of unsupported types.

plistlib.readPlistFromString(*data*)

Read a plist from a string. Return the root object.

plistlib.writePlistToString(*rootObject*)

Return *rootObject* as a plist-formatted string.

plistlib.readPlistFromResource(*path*, *restype*='plst', *resid*=0)

Read a plist from the resource with type *restype* from the resource fork of *path*. Availability : Mac OS X.

Note : In Python 3.x, this function has been removed.

`plistlib.writePlistToResource(rootObject, path, restype='plst', resid=0)`

Write *rootObject* as a resource with type *restype* to the resource fork of *path*. Availability : Mac OS X.

Note : In Python 3.x, this function has been removed.

The following class is available :

`class plistlib.Data(data)`

Return a « data » wrapper object around the string *data*. This is used in functions converting from/to plists to represent the <data> type available in plists.

It has one attribute, *data*, that can be used to retrieve the Python string stored in it.

13.6.1 Examples

Generating a plist :

```
pl = dict(
    aString="Doodah",
    aList=["A", "B", 12, 32.1, [1, 2, 3]],
    aFloat = 0.1,
    anInt = 728,
    aDict=dict(
        anotherString="<hello & hi there!>",
        aUnicodeValue=u'M\xe4ssig, Ma\xdf',
        aTrueValue=True,
        aFalseValue=False,
    ),
    someData = Data("<binary gunk>"),
    someMoreData = Data("<lots of binary gunk>" * 10),
    aDate = datetime.datetime.fromtimestamp(time.mktime(time.gmtime()))),
)
# unicode keys are possible, but a little awkward to use:
pl[u'\xc5benraa'] = "That was a unicode key."
writePlist(pl, fileName)
```

Parsing a plist :

```
pl = readPlist(pathOrFile)
print pl["aKey"]
```

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 :

14.1 hashlib — Secure hashes and message digests

Nouveau dans la version 2.5.

Code source : [Lib/hashlib.py](#)

This module implements a common interface to many different secure hash and message digest algorithms. Included are the FIPS secure hash algorithms SHA1, SHA224, SHA256, SHA384, and SHA512 (defined in FIPS 180-2) as well as RSA's MD5 algorithm (defined in Internet [RFC 1321](#)). The terms secure hash and message digest are interchangeable. Older algorithms were called message digests. The modern term is secure hash.

Note : If you want the `adler32` or `crc32` hash functions, they are available in the `zlib` module.

Avertissement : Some algorithms have known hash collision weaknesses, refer to the « See also » section at the end.

There is one constructor method named for each type of *hash*. All return a hash object with the same simple interface. For example : use `sha1()` to create a SHA1 hash object. You can now feed this object with arbitrary strings using the `update()` method. At any point you can ask it for the *digest* of the concatenation of the strings fed to it so far using the `digest()` or `hexdigest()` methods.

Constructors for hash algorithms that are always present in this module are `md5()`, `sha1()`, `sha224()`, `sha256()`, `sha384()`, and `sha512()`. Additional algorithms may also be available depending upon the OpenSSL library that Python uses on your platform.

For example, to obtain the digest of the string 'Nobody inspects the spammish repetition' :

```
>>> import hashlib
>>> m = hashlib.md5()
>>> m.update("Nobody inspects")
>>> m.update(" the spammish repetition")
>>> m.digest()
'\xbbd\x9c\x83\xdd\x1e\xa5\xc9\xd9\xde\xc9\xa1\x8d\xf0\xff\xe9'
>>> m.digest_size
16
>>> m.block_size
64
```

More condensed :

```
>>> hashlib.sha224("Nobody inspects the spammish repetition").hexdigest()
'a4337bc45a8fc544c03f52dc550cd6e1e87021bc896588bd79e901e2'
```

A generic `new()` constructor that takes the string name of the desired algorithm as its first parameter also exists to allow access to the above listed hashes as well as any other algorithms that your OpenSSL library may offer. The named constructors are much faster than `new()` and should be preferred.

Using `new()` with an algorithm provided by OpenSSL :

```
>>> h = hashlib.new('ripemd160')
>>> h.update("Nobody inspects the spammish repetition")
>>> h.hexdigest()
'cc4a5ce1b3df48aec5d22d1f16b894a0b894eccc'
```

This module provides the following constant attribute :

hashlib.algorithms

A tuple providing the names of the hash algorithms guaranteed to be supported by this module.
Nouveau dans la version 2.7.

hashlib.algorithms_guaranteed

A set containing the names of the hash algorithms guaranteed to be supported by this module on all platforms.
Nouveau dans la version 2.7.9.

hashlib.algorithms_available

A set containing the names of the hash algorithms that are available in the running Python interpreter. These names will be recognized when passed to `new()`. *algorithms_guaranteed* will always be a subset. The same algorithm may appear multiple times in this set under different names (thanks to OpenSSL).
Nouveau dans la version 2.7.9.

The following values are provided as constant attributes of the hash objects returned by the constructors :

hash.digest_size

The size of the resulting hash in bytes.

hash.block_size

The internal block size of the hash algorithm in bytes.

A hash object has the following methods :

hash.update(*arg*)

Update the hash object with the string *arg*. Repeated calls are equivalent to a single call with the concatenation of all the arguments : `m.update(a); m.update(b)` is equivalent to `m.update(a+b)`.

Modifié dans la version 2.7 : The Python GIL is released to allow other threads to run while hash updates on data larger than 2048 bytes is taking place when using hash algorithms supplied by OpenSSL.

`hash.digest()`

Return the digest of the strings passed to the `update()` method so far. This is a string of `digest_size` bytes which may contain non-ASCII characters, including null bytes.

`hash.hexdigest()`

Like `digest()` except the digest is returned as a string of double length, containing only hexadecimal digits. This may be used to exchange the value safely in email or other non-binary environments.

`hash.copy()`

Return a copy (« clone ») of the hash object. This can be used to efficiently compute the digests of strings that share a common initial substring.

14.1.1 Key derivation

Key derivation and key stretching algorithms are designed for secure password hashing. Naive algorithms such as `sha1(password)` are not resistant against brute-force attacks. A good password hashing function must be tunable, slow, and include a `salt`.

`hashlib.pbkdf2_hmac(name, password, salt, rounds, dklen=None)`

The function provides PKCS#5 password-based key derivation function 2. It uses HMAC as pseudo-random function.

The string `name` is the desired name of the hash digest algorithm for HMAC, e.g. “sha1” or “sha256”. `password` and `salt` are interpreted as buffers of bytes. Applications and libraries should limit `password` to a sensible value (e.g. 1024). `salt` should be about 16 or more bytes from a proper source, e.g. `os.urandom()`.

The number of `rounds` should be chosen based on the hash algorithm and computing power. As of 2013, at least 100,000 rounds of SHA-256 is suggested.

`dklen` is the length of the derived key. If `dklen` is `None` then the digest size of the hash algorithm `name` is used, e.g. 64 for SHA-512.

```
>>> import hashlib, binascii
>>> dk = hashlib.pbkdf2_hmac('sha256', b'password', b'salt', 100000)
>>> binascii.hexlify(dk)
b'0394a2ede332c9a13eb82e9b24631604c31df978b4e2f0fbd2c549944f9d79a5'
```

Nouveau dans la version 2.7.8.

Note : A fast implementation of `pbkdf2_hmac` is available with OpenSSL. The Python implementation uses an inline version of `hmac`. It is about three times slower and doesn't release the GIL.

Voir aussi :

Module `hmac` A module to generate message authentication codes using hashes.

Module `base64` Another way to encode binary hashes for non-binary environments.

<http://csrc.nist.gov/publications/fips/fips180-2/fips180-2.pdf> The FIPS 180-2 publication on Secure Hash Algorithms.

https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Cryptographic_hash_function#Cryptographic_hash_algorithms Wikipedia article with information on which algorithms have known issues and what that means regarding their use.

14.2 hmac — Keyed-Hashing for Message Authentication

Nouveau dans la version 2.2.

Code source : [Lib/hmac.py](#)

This module implements the HMAC algorithm as described by [RFC 2104](#).

`hmac.new(key[, msg[, digestmod]])`

Return a new hmac object. If *msg* is present, the method call `update(msg)` is made. *digestmod* is the digest constructor or module for the HMAC object to use. It defaults to the `hashlib.md5` constructor.

An HMAC object has the following methods :

`HMAC.update(msg)`

Update the hmac object with the string *msg*. Repeated calls are equivalent to a single call with the concatenation of all the arguments : `m.update(a)` ; `m.update(b)` is equivalent to `m.update(a + b)`.

`HMAC.digest()`

Return the digest of the strings passed to the `update()` method so far. This string will be the same length as the `digest_size` of the digest given to the constructor. It may contain non-ASCII characters, including NUL bytes.

Avertissement : When comparing the output of `digest()` to an externally-supplied digest during a verification routine, it is recommended to use the `compare_digest()` function instead of the `==` operator to reduce the vulnerability to timing attacks.

`HMAC.hexdigest()`

Like `digest()` except the digest is returned as a string twice the length containing only hexadecimal digits. This may be used to exchange the value safely in email or other non-binary environments.

Avertissement : When comparing the output of `hexdigest()` to an externally-supplied digest during a verification routine, it is recommended to use the `compare_digest()` function instead of the `==` operator to reduce the vulnerability to timing attacks.

`HMAC.copy()`

Return a copy (« clone ») of the hmac object. This can be used to efficiently compute the digests of strings that share a common initial substring.

This module also provides the following helper function :

`hmac.compare_digest(a, b)`

Return `a == b`. This function uses an approach designed to prevent timing analysis by avoiding content-based short circuiting behaviour, making it appropriate for cryptography. *a* and *b* must both be of the same type : either *unicode* or a *bytes-like object*.

Note : If *a* and *b* are of different lengths, or if an error occurs, a timing attack could theoretically reveal information about the types and lengths of *a* and *b*—but not their values.

Nouveau dans la version 2.7.7.

Voir aussi :

Module [hashlib](#) The Python module providing secure hash functions.

14.3 md5 — MD5 message digest algorithm

Obsolète depuis la version 2.5 : Use the *hashlib* module instead.

This module implements the interface to RSA's MD5 message digest algorithm (see also Internet [RFC 1321](#)). Its use is quite straightforward : use *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 concatenation 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()
'\xbbd\x9c\x83\xdd\x1e\xa5\xc9\xd9\xde\xc9\xa1\x8d\xf0\xff\xe9'
```

More condensed :

```
>>> md5.new("Nobody inspects the spammish repetition").digest()
'\xbbd\x9c\x83\xdd\x1e\xa5\xc9\xd9\xde\xc9\xa1\x8d\xf0\xff\xe9'
```

The following values are provided as constants in the module and as attributes of the md5 objects returned by *new()* :

md5.digest_size

The size of the resulting digest in bytes. This is always 16.

The md5 module provides the following functions :

md5.new([arg])

Return a new md5 object. If *arg* is present, the method call *update(arg)* is made.

md5.md5([arg])

For backward compatibility reasons, this is an alternative name for the *new()* function.

An md5 object has the following methods :

md5.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 : *m.update(a)* ; *m.update(b)* is equivalent to *m.update(a+b)*.

md5.digest()

Return the digest of the strings passed to the *update()* method so far. This is a 16-byte string which may contain non-ASCII characters, including null bytes.

md5.hexdigest()

Like *digest()* except the digest is returned as a string of length 32, containing only hexadecimal digits. This may be used to exchange the value safely in email or other non-binary environments.

md5.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.

Voir aussi :

Module *sha* Similar module implementing the Secure Hash Algorithm (SHA). The SHA algorithm is considered a more secure hash.

14.4 sha — SHA-1 message digest algorithm

Obsolète depuis la version 2.5 : Use the [*hashlib*](#) module instead.

This module implements the interface to NIST's secure hash algorithm, known as SHA-1. SHA-1 is an improved version of the original SHA hash algorithm. It is used in the same way as the [*md5*](#) module : use [*new\(\)*](#) to create an sha object, then feed this object with arbitrary strings using the [*update\(\)*](#) method, and at any point you can ask it for the *digest* of the concatenation of the strings fed to it so far. SHA-1 digests are 160 bits instead of MD5's 128 bits.

sha.new(*string*)

Return a new sha object. If *string* is present, the method call [*update\(string\)*](#) is made.

The following values are provided as constants in the module and as attributes of the sha objects returned by [*new\(\)*](#) :

sha.blocksize

Size of the blocks fed into the hash function ; this is always 1. This size is used to allow an arbitrary string to be hashed.

sha.digest_size

The size of the resulting digest in bytes. This is always 20.

An sha object has the same methods as md5 objects :

sha.update(*arg*)

Update the sha object with the string *arg*. Repeated calls are equivalent to a single call with the concatenation of all the arguments : [*m.update\(a\)*](#) ; [*m.update\(b\)*](#) is equivalent to [*m.update\(a+b\)*](#).

sha.digest()

Return the digest of the strings passed to the [*update\(\)*](#) method so far. This is a 20-byte string which may contain non-ASCII characters, including null bytes.

sha.hexdigest()

Like [*digest\(\)*](#) except the digest is returned as a string of length 40, containing only hexadecimal digits. This may be used to exchange the value safely in email or other non-binary environments.

sha.copy()

Return a copy (« clone ») of the sha object. This can be used to efficiently compute the digests of strings that share a common initial substring.

Voir aussi :

Secure Hash Standard The Secure Hash Algorithm is defined by NIST document FIPS PUB 180-2 : Secure Hash Standard, published in August 2002.

Cryptographic Toolkit (Secure Hashing) Links from NIST to various information on secure hashing.

Services génériques du système d'exploitation

Les modules documentés dans ce chapitre fournissent des interfaces vers des fonctionnalités communes à la grande majorité des systèmes d'exploitation, telles que les fichiers et l'horloge. Bien que ces interfaces soient classiquement calquées sur les interfaces Unix ou C, elles sont aussi disponibles sur la plupart des autres systèmes. En voici un aperçu.

15.1 `os` — Diverses interfaces pour le système d'exploitation

Ce module fournit une manière portable d'utiliser les fonctionnalités dépendantes du système d'exploitation. Si vous voulez uniquement lire ou écrire dans un fichier, voir `open()`, si vous voulez manipuler des chemins, voir le module `os.path`, et si vous voulez lire toutes les lignes de tous les fichiers listés par l'invite de commande, voir le module `fileinput`. Pour créer des fichiers temporaires, voir le module `tempfile`, et pour une manipulation haut niveau des fichiers et dossiers, voir le module `shutil`.

Notes sur la disponibilité de ces fonctions :

- La conception des modules natifs Python dépendants du système d'exploitation est qu'une même fonctionnalité utilise une même interface. Par exemple, la fonction `os.stat(path)` renvoie des informations sur les statistiques de `path` dans le même format (qui est originaire de l'interface POSIX).
- Les extensions propres à un certain système d'exploitation sont également disponible par le module `os`, mais les utiliser est bien entendu une menace pour la portabilité.
- Une note « Disponibilité : Unix » signifie que cette fonction est communément implémentée dans les systèmes Unix. Une telle note ne prétend pas l'existence de la fonction sur un système d'exploitation particulier.
- Si ce n'est pas mentionné séparément, toutes les fonctions se réclamant « Disponibilité : Unix » sont gérées sur Mac OS X, qui est basé sur Unix.

Note : Toutes les fonctions de ce module lèvent une `OSError` dans le cas d'un chemin ou nom de fichier invalide ou inaccessible, ou si d'autres arguments sont de type correct mais non géré par le système d'exploitation.

exception `os.error`

Un alias pour les exceptions natives `OSError`.

os.name

The name of the operating system dependent module imported. The following names have currently been registered : 'posix', 'nt', 'os2', 'ce', 'java', 'riscos'.

Voir aussi :

sys.platform a une granularité plus fine. *os.uname()* donne des informations de version dépendantes de système.

Le module *platform* fournit des vérifications détaillées pour l'identité du système.

15.1.1 Paramètres de processus

Ces fonctions et valeurs fournissent des informations et agissent sur le processus actuel et sur l'utilisateur.

os.environ

Un objet *mapping* représentant la variable d'environnement. Par exemple `environ['HOME']` est le chemin vers votre répertoire personnel (sur certaines plate-formes), et est équivalent à `getenv("HOME")` en C.

Ce *mapping* est capturé la première fois que le module *os* est importé, typiquement pendant le démarrage de Python, lors de l'exécution de `site.py`. Les changements de l'environnement opérés après cette capture ne sont pas répercutés dans `os.environ`, à part les modifications directes de `os.environ`.

Si la plate-forme prend en charge la fonction *putenv()*, ce *mapping* peut être utilisé pour modifier l'environnement autant que pour l'interroger. *putenv()* sera appelée automatiquement quand le *mapping* sera modifié.

Note : Appeler *putenv()* ne change pas directement `os.environ`, donc il est préférable de modifier `os.environ`.

Note : Sur certaines plate-formes, dont FreeBSD et Mac OS X, procéder à des assignations sur `environ` peut causer des fuites de mémoire. Reférez-vous à la documentation système de *putenv()*.

Si *putenv()* n'est pas fourni, une copie modifiée de ce dictionnaire peut être passé aux fonctions appropriées de création de processus pour forcer l'utilisation d'un environnement modifié pour le processus fils.

Si la plate-forme prend en charge la fonction *unsetenv()*, vous pouvez supprimer des éléments de ce dictionnaire pour supprimer des variables d'environnement. La fonction *unsetenv()* sera appelée automatiquement quand un élément est supprimé de `os.environ`, ou quand l'une des méthodes `pop()` ou `clear()` est appelée.

Modifié dans la version 2.6 : Also unset environment variables when calling `os.environ.clear()` and `os.environ.pop()`.

os.chdir(path)**os.fchdir(fd)****os.getcwd()**

Ces fonctions sont décrites dans *Fichiers et répertoires*.

os.ctermid()

Renvoie l'identifiant de fichier correspondant au terminal contrôlant le processus.

Disponibilité : Unix.

os.getegid()

Renvoie l'identifiant du groupe effectif du processus actuel. Ça correspond au bit « *set id* » du fichier qui s'exécute dans le processus actuel.

Disponibilité : Unix.

os.geteuid()

Renvoie l'identifiant de l'utilisateur effectif du processus actuel.

Disponibilité : Unix.

os.getgid()

Renvoie l'identifiant de groupe réel du processus actuel.

Disponibilité : Unix.

os.getgroups()

Renvoie une liste d'identifiants de groupes additionnels associés au processus actuel.

Disponibilité : Unix.

Note : Sur Mac OS X, le comportement de `getgroups()` diffère légèrement des autres plateformes Unix. Si l'interpréteur Python était compilé avec une cible de déploiement de 10.5 ou moins, `getgroups()` renverrait la liste des identifiants de groupes effectifs associés au processus courant de l'utilisateur ; le nombre d'éléments de cette liste est limité par le système, typiquement 16, et peut être modifié par des appels à `setgroups()` si les privilèges ont été convenablement assignés. Si compilé avec une cible de déploiement supérieure à 10.5, la fonction `getgroups()` renvoie la liste des accès du groupe actuel pour l'utilisateur associé à l'identifiant utilisateur du processus ; la liste d'accès du groupe peut changer durant la vie du processus, elle n'est pas affectée par les appels à `setgroups()` et sa longueur n'est pas limitée à 16. La valeur de la cible de déploiement, `MACOSX_DEPLOYMENT_TARGET`, peut être obtenue par la fonction `sysconfig.get_config_var()`.

os.initgroups(username, gid)

Appelle la fonction système `initgroups` pour initialiser la liste des groupes d'accès des groupes dont `username` est membre, plus le groupe spécifié par `gid`.

Disponibilité : Unix.

Nouveau dans la version 2.7.

os.getlogin()

Return the name of the user logged in on the controlling terminal of the process. For most purposes, it is more useful to use the environment variable `LOGNAME` to find out who the user is, or `pwd.getpwuid(os.getuid())[0]` to get the login name of the process's real user id.

Disponibilité : Unix.

os.getpgid(pid)

Renvoie l'identifiant de groupe de processus du processus de PID `pid`. Si `pid` vaut 0, l'identifiant de groupe de processus du processus actuel est renvoyé.

Disponibilité : Unix.

Nouveau dans la version 2.3.

os.getpgrp()

Renvoie l'identifiant du groupe de processus actuel.

Disponibilité : Unix.

os.getpid()

Renvoie l'identifiant du processus actuel.

Disponibilité : Unix, Windows.

os.getppid()

Return the parent's process id.

Disponibilité : Unix.

os.getresuid()

Renvoie un *tuple* (`ruid`, `euid`, `suid`) dénotant les identifiants de l'utilisateur réel, effectif et sauvé du processus actuel.

Disponibilité : Unix.

Nouveau dans la version 2.7.

`os.getresgid()`

Renvoie un *tuple* (*rgid*, *egid*, *sgid*) dénotant les identifiants des groupes de processus réel effectif, et sauvé du processus actuel.

Disponibilité : Unix.

Nouveau dans la version 2.7.

`os.getuid()`

Renvoie l'identifiant réel du processus actuel.

Disponibilité : Unix.

`os.getenv(varname[, value])`

Return the value of the environment variable *varname* if it exists, or *value* if it doesn't. *value* defaults to `None`.

Disponibilité : la plupart des dérivés Unix, Windows.

`os.putenv(varname, value)`

Set the environment variable named *varname* to the string *value*. Such changes to the environment affect subprocesses started with `os.system()`, `popen()` or `fork()` and `execv()`.

Disponibilité : la plupart des dérivés Unix, Windows.

Note : Sur certaines plate-formes, incluant FreeBSD et Mac OS X, assigner `environ` peut causer des fuites de mémoire. Reférez-vous à la documentation système de `putenv`.

Quand `putenv()` est géré, les assignations d'éléments dans `os.environ` sont automatiquement traduites en appels correspondants à `putenv()`. Cependant, des appels à `putenv()` ne mettent pas `os.environ` à jour. Il est donc préférable d'assigner les éléments de `os.environ`.

`os.setegid(egid)`

Définit l'identifiant du groupe de processus effectif du processus actuel.

Disponibilité : Unix.

`os.seteuid(euid)`

Définit l'identifiant de l'utilisateur effectif du processus actuel.

Disponibilité : Unix.

`os.setgid(gid)`

Définit l'identifiant du groupe de processus actuel.

Disponibilité : Unix.

`os.setgroups(groups)`

Place *groups* dans la liste d'identifiants de groupes additionnels associée. *groups* doit être une séquence, et chaque élément doit être un nombre entier identifiant un groupe. Cette opération est typiquement disponible uniquement pour le super utilisateur.

Disponibilité : Unix.

Nouveau dans la version 2.2.

Note : Sur Mac OS X, la longueur de *groups* ne peut pas dépasser le nombre maximum d'identifiants effectifs de groupes défini par le système, typiquement 16. Voir la documentation de `getgroups()` pour les cas où `getgroups` ne renvoie pas la même liste de groupes que celle définie par l'appel à `setgroups`.

`os.setpgrp()`

Call the system call `setpgrp()` or `setpgrp(0, 0)` depending on which version is implemented (if any). See the Unix manual for the semantics.

Disponibilité : Unix.

os.setpgid(*pid*, *pgrp*)

Produit l'appel système `setpgid()` pour placer l'identifiant du groupe de processus contenant le processus d'identifiant *pid* dans le groupe de processus d'identifiant *pgrp*. Voir le manuel Unix pour la sémantique.

Disponibilité : Unix.

os.setregid(*rgid*, *egid*)

Définit l'identifiant des groupes réel et effectif du processus actuel.

Disponibilité : Unix.

os.setresgid(*rgid*, *egid*, *sgid*)

Définit l'identifiant des groupes réel, effectif et sauvé du processus actuel.

Disponibilité : Unix.

Nouveau dans la version 2.7.

os.setresuid(*ruid*, *euid*, *suid*)

Définit l'identifiant des utilisateurs réel, effectif et sauvé du processus actuel.

Disponibilité : Unix.

Nouveau dans la version 2.7.

os.setreuid(*ruid*, *euid*)

Définit l'identifiant des utilisateurs réel et effectif du processus actuel.

Disponibilité : Unix.

os.getsid(*pid*)

Produit l'appel système `getsid()`. Voir le manuel Unix pour la sémantique.

Disponibilité : Unix.

Nouveau dans la version 2.4.

os.setsid()

Produit l'appel système `setsid()`. Voir le manuel Unix pour la sémantique.

Disponibilité : Unix.

os.setuid(*uid*)

Définit l'identifiant de l'utilisateur du processus actuel.

Disponibilité : Unix.

os.strerror(*code*)

Renvoie le message d'erreur correspondant au code d'erreur *code*. Sur les plate-formes où `strerror()` renvoie NULL quand un numéro d'erreur inconnu est donné, une *ValueError* est levée.

Disponibilité : Unix, Windows.

os.umask(*mask*)

Définit le *umask* actuel et renvoie la valeur précédente.

Disponibilité : Unix, Windows.

os.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 node-name to 8 characters or to the leading component; a better way to get the hostname is `socket.gethostname()` or even `socket.gethostbyaddr(socket.gethostname())`.

Disponibilité : dérivés récents de Unix.

os.unsetenv(*varname*)

Unset (delete) the environment variable named *varname*. Such changes to the environment affect subprocesses started with `os.system()`, `popen()` or `fork()` and `execv()`.

Quand `unsetenv()` est gérée, la suppression d'éléments dans `os.environ` est automatiquement interprétée en un appel correspondant à `unsetenv()`, mais les appels à `unsetenv()` ne mettent pas `os.environ` à jour. Donc il est préférable de supprimer les éléments de `os.environ`.

Disponibilité : la plupart des dérivés Unix, Windows.

15.1.2 Création de fichiers objets

These functions create new file objects. (See also `open()`.)

`os.fopen(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. If `fopen()` raises an exception, it leaves *fd* untouched (unclosed).

Disponibilité : Unix, Windows.

Modifié dans la version 2.3 : When specified, the *mode* argument must now start with one of the letters 'r', 'w', or 'a', otherwise a `ValueError` is raised.

Modifié dans la version 2.5 : On Unix, when the *mode* argument starts with 'a', the `O_APPEND` flag is set on the file descriptor (which the `fopen()` implementation already does on most platforms).

`os.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, except that when the exit status is zero (termination without errors), `None` is returned.

Disponibilité : Unix, Windows.

Obsolète depuis la version 2.6 : This function is obsolete. Use the `subprocess` module. Check especially the *Remplacer les fonctions plus anciennes par le module subprocess* section.

Modifié dans la version 2.0 : This function worked unreliably under Windows in earlier versions of Python. This was due to the use of the `_popen()` function from the libraries provided with Windows. Newer versions of Python do not use the broken implementation from the Windows libraries.

`os.tmpfile()`

Return a new file object opened in update mode (`w+b`). The file has no directory entries associated with it and will be automatically deleted once there are no file descriptors for the file.

Disponibilité : Unix, Windows.

There are a number of different `popen*`() functions that provide slightly different ways to create subprocesses.

Obsolète depuis la version 2.6 : All of the `popen*`() functions are obsolete. Use the `subprocess` module.

For each of the `popen*`() variants, if *bufsize* is specified, it specifies the buffer size for the I/O pipes. *mode*, if provided, should be the string 'b' or 't'; on Windows this is needed to determine whether the file objects should be opened in binary or text mode. The default value for *mode* is 't'.

Also, for each of these variants, on Unix, *cmd* may be a sequence, in which case arguments will be passed directly to the program without shell intervention (as with `os.spawnv()`). If *cmd* is a string it will be passed to the shell (as with `os.system()`).

These methods do not make it possible to retrieve the exit status from the child processes. The only way to control the input and output streams and also retrieve the return codes is to use the `subprocess` module; these are only available on Unix.

For a discussion of possible deadlock conditions related to the use of these functions, see *Flow Control Issues*.

`os.popen2(cmd[, mode[, bufsize]])`

Execute *cmd* as a sub-process and return the file objects (*child_stdin*, *child_stdout*).

Obsolète depuis la version 2.6 : This function is obsolete. Use the *subprocess* module. Check especially the *Remplacer les fonctions plus anciennes par le module subprocess* section.

Disponibilité : Unix, Windows.

Nouveau dans la version 2.0.

`os.popen3(cmd[, mode[, bufsize]])`

Execute *cmd* as a sub-process and return the file objects (*child_stdin*, *child_stdout*, *child_stderr*).

Obsolète depuis la version 2.6 : This function is obsolete. Use the *subprocess* module. Check especially the *Remplacer les fonctions plus anciennes par le module subprocess* section.

Disponibilité : Unix, Windows.

Nouveau dans la version 2.0.

`os.popen4(cmd[, mode[, bufsize]])`

Execute *cmd* as a sub-process and return the file objects (*child_stdin*, *child_stdout_and_stderr*).

Obsolète depuis la version 2.6 : This function is obsolete. Use the *subprocess* module. Check especially the *Remplacer les fonctions plus anciennes par le module subprocess* section.

Disponibilité : Unix, Windows.

Nouveau dans la version 2.0.

(Note that *child_stdin*, *child_stdout*, and *child_stderr* are named from the point of view of the child process, so *child_stdin* is the child's standard input.)

This functionality is also available in the *popen2* module using functions of the same names, but the return values of those functions have a different order.

15.1.3 Opérations sur les descripteurs de fichiers

Ces fonctions opèrent sur des flux d'entrées/sorties référencés par des descripteurs de fichiers.

Les descripteurs de fichiers sont de petits entiers correspondant à un fichier qui a été ouvert par le processus courant. Par exemple, l'entrée standard est habituellement le descripteur de fichier 0, la sortie standard est 1, et le flux standard d'erreur est 2. Les autres fichiers ouverts par un processus vont se voir assigner 3, 4, 5, etc. Le nom « descripteur de fichier » est légèrement trompeur : sur les plate-formes Unix, les *sockets* et les *pipes* sont également référencés par des descripteurs.

The *fileno()* method can be used to obtain the file descriptor associated with a file object when required. Note that using the file descriptor directly will bypass the file object methods, ignoring aspects such as internal buffering of data.

`os.close(fd)`

Ferme le descripteur de fichier *fd*.

Disponibilité : Unix, Windows.

Note : Cette fonction est destinée aux opérations d'entrées/sorties de bas niveau et doit être appliquée à un descripteur de fichier comme ceux donnés par *os.open()* ou *pipe()*. Pour fermer un « fichier objet » renvoyé par la primitive *open()*, *popen()* ou *fdopen()*, il faut utiliser sa méthode *close()*.

`os.closerange(fd_low, fd_high)`

Close all file descriptors from *fd_low* (inclusive) to *fd_high* (exclusive), ignoring errors. Equivalent to :

```
for fd in xrange(fd_low, fd_high):
    try:
```

(suite sur la page suivante)

(suite de la page précédente)

```
os.close(fd)
except OSError:
    pass
```

Disponibilité : Unix, Windows.

Nouveau dans la version 2.6.

os.dup(*fd*)

Return a duplicate of file descriptor *fd*.

Disponibilité : Unix, Windows.

os.dup2(*fd*, *fd2*)

Duplicate file descriptor *fd* to *fd2*, closing the latter first if necessary.

Disponibilité : Unix, Windows.

os.fchmod(*fd*, *mode*)

Change the mode of the file given by *fd* to the numeric *mode*. See the docs for [chmod\(\)](#) for possible values of *mode*.

Disponibilité : Unix.

Nouveau dans la version 2.6.

os.fchown(*fd*, *uid*, *gid*)

Change the owner and group id of the file given by *fd* to the numeric *uid* and *gid*. To leave one of the ids unchanged, set it to -1.

Disponibilité : Unix.

Nouveau dans la version 2.6.

os.fdatasync(*fd*)

Force l'écriture du fichier ayant le descripteur *fd* sur le disque. Ne force pas la mise à jour des méta-données.

Disponibilité : Unix.

Note : Cette fonction n'est pas disponible sur MacOS.

os.fpathconf(*fd*, *name*)

Renvoie les informations de la configuration du système pour un fichier ouvert. *name* spécifie la valeur de la configuration à récupérer, ça peut être une chaîne de caractères avec le nom d'une valeur système définie ; ces valeurs sont spécifiées dans certains standards (POSIX.1, Unix 95, Unix 98, et d'autres). Certaines plate-formes définissent des noms additionnels également. Les noms connus par le système d'exploitation sont donnés dans le dictionnaire `pathconf_names`. Pour les variables de configuration qui ne sont pas incluses dans ce *mapping*, passer un entier pour *name* est également accepté.

Si *name* est une chaîne de caractères et n'est pas connu, une [ValueError](#) est levée. Si une valeur spécifique de *name* n'est pas gérée par le système hôte, même si elle est incluse dans `pathconf_names`, une [OSError](#) est levée avec `errno.EINVAL` pour code d'erreur.

Disponibilité : Unix.

os.fstat(*fd*)

Return status for file descriptor *fd*, like [stat\(\)](#).

Disponibilité : Unix, Windows.

os.fstatvfs(*fd*)

Return information about the filesystem containing the file associated with file descriptor *fd*, like [statvfs\(\)](#).

Disponibilité : Unix.

os.fsync(*fd*)

Force l'écriture du fichier ayant le descripteur *fd* sur le disque. Sur Unix, cet appel appelle la fonction native `fsync()`, sur Windows, la fonction `MS _commit()`.

If you're starting with a Python file object *f*, first do `f.flush()`, and then do `os.fsync(f.fileno())`, to ensure that all internal buffers associated with *f* are written to disk.

Availability : Unix, and Windows starting in 2.2.3.

os.ftruncate(*fd*, *length*)

Truncate the file corresponding to file descriptor *fd*, so that it is at most *length* bytes in size.

Disponibilité : Unix.

os.isatty(*fd*)

Renvoie `True` si le descripteur de fichier *fd* est ouvert et connecté à un périphérique TTY (ou compatible), sinon `False`.

os.lseek(*fd*, *pos*, *how*)

Place la position actuelle du descripteur de fichier *fd* à la position *pos*, modifié par *how* : `SEEK_SET` ou 0 pour placer la position à partir du début du fichier, `SEEK_CUR` ou 1 pour la placer à partir de la position actuelle, et `SEEK_END` ou 2 pour la placer par rapport à la fin du fichier. Renvoie la nouvelle position du curseur en bytes, à partir du début.

Disponibilité : Unix, Windows.

os.SEEK_SET**os.SEEK_CUR****os.SEEK_END**

Paramètres de la fonction `lseek()`. Leur valeur est respectivement 0, 1, et 2.

Availability : Windows, Unix.

Nouveau dans la version 2.5.

os.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 C run-time documentation; flag constants (like `O_RDONLY` and `O_WRONLY`) are defined in this module too (see `open()` *flag constants*). In particular, on Windows adding `O_BINARY` is needed to open files in binary mode.

Disponibilité : Unix, Windows.

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). To wrap a file descriptor in a « file object », use `fdopen()`.

os.openpty()

Open a new pseudo-terminal pair. Return a pair of file descriptors (`master`, `slave`) for the pty and the tty, respectively. For a (slightly) more portable approach, use the `pty` module.

Disponibilité : certains dérivés Unix.

os.pipe()

Create a pipe. Return a pair of file descriptors (`r`, `w`) usable for reading and writing, respectively.

Disponibilité : Unix, Windows.

os.read(*fd*, *n*)

Read at most *n* bytes from file descriptor *fd*. Return a string containing the bytes read. If the end of the file referred to by *fd* has been reached, an empty string is returned.

Disponibilité : Unix, Windows.

Note : Cette fonction est destinée aux E/S bas niveau et doit être appliquée à un descripteur de fichier comme renvoyé par `os.open()` ou `pipe()`. Pour lire dans un « fichier objet » renvoyé par la primitive `open()`, `popen()` ou `fdopen()`, ou par `stdin`, utilisez sa méthode `read()` ou `readline()`.

`os.tcgetpgrp(fd)`

Renvoie le groupe de processus associé au terminal donné par `fd` (un descripteur de fichier ouvert comme renvoyé par `os.open()`).

Disponibilité : Unix.

`os.tcsetpgrp(fd, pg)`

Place `pg` dans le groupe de processus associé au terminal donné par `fd` (un descripteur de fichier ouvert comme renvoyé par `os.open()`).

Disponibilité : Unix.

`os.ttyname(fd)`

Renvoie une chaîne de caractères spécifiant le périphérique terminal associé au descripteur de fichier `fd`. Si `fd` n'est pas associé à un périphérique terminal, une exception est levée.

Disponibilité : Unix.

`os.write(fd, str)`

Write the string `str` to file descriptor `fd`. Return the number of bytes actually written.

Disponibilité : Unix, Windows.

Note : cette fonction est destinée aux E/S bas niveau et doit être appliquée à un descripteur de fichier comme renvoyé par `os.open()` ou `pipe()`. Pour écrire dans un « fichier objet » renvoyé par la primitive `open()`, `popen()`, ou par `fdopen()`, ou par `sys.stdout` ou `sys.stderr`, utilisez sa méthode `write()`.

`open()` flag constants

The following constants are options for the `flags` parameter to the `open()` function. They can be combined using the bitwise OR operator `|`. Some of them are not available on all platforms. For descriptions of their availability and use, consult the `open(2)` manual page on Unix or [the MSDN](#) on Windows.

`os.O_RDONLY`

`os.O_WRONLY`

`os.O_RDWR`

`os.O_APPEND`

`os.O_CREAT`

`os.O_EXCL`

`os.O_TRUNC`

Les constantes ci-dessus sont disponibles sur Unix et Windows.

`os.O_DSYNC`

`os.O_RSYNC`

`os.O_SYNC`

`os.O_NDELAY`

`os.O_NONBLOCK`

`os.O_NOCTTY`

Les constantes ci-dessus sont uniquement disponibles sur Unix.

`os.O_BINARY`

`os.O_NOINHERIT`

`os.O_SHORT_LIVED`

```
os.O_TEMPORARY
os.O_RANDOM
os.O_SEQUENTIAL
os.O_TEXT
```

Les constantes ci-dessus sont uniquement disponibles sur Windows.

```
os.O_ASYNC
os.O_DIRECT
os.O_DIRECTORY
os.O_NOFOLLOW
os.O_NOATIME
os.O_SHLOCK
os.O_EXLOCK
```

Les constantes ci-dessus sont des extensions et ne sont pas présentes si elles ne sont pas définies par la bibliothèque C.

15.1.4 Fichiers et répertoires

`os.access(path, mode)`

Utilise l'*uid/gid* réel pour tester l'accès à *path*. Notez que la plupart des opérations utiliseront l'*uid/gid* effectif, dès lors cette méthode peut être utilisée dans un environnement *suid/sgid* pour tester si l'utilisateur invoquant a les droits d'accès pour accéder à *path*. *mode* devrait être *F_OK* pour tester l'existence de *path*, ou il peut être le OR (OU inclusif) d'une ou plusieurs des constantes suivantes : *R_OK*, *W_OK*, et *X_OK* pour tester les permissions. Renvoie *True* si l'accès est permis, et *False* s'il ne l'est pas. Voir la page de manuel Unix *access(2)* pour plus d'informations.

Disponibilité : Unix, Windows.

Note : Utiliser *access()* pour vérifier si un utilisateur est autorisé (par exemple) à ouvrir un fichier avant d'effectivement le faire en utilisant *open()* crée une faille de sécurité : l'utilisateur peut exploiter le court intervalle de temps entre la vérification et l'ouverture du fichier pour le manipuler. Il est préférable d'utiliser les techniques *EAFP*. Par exemple :

```
if os.access("myfile", os.R_OK):
    with open("myfile") as fp:
        return fp.read()
return "some default data"
```

est mieux écrit comme suit :

```
try:
    fp = open("myfile")
except IOError as e:
    if e.errno == errno.EACCES:
        return "some default data"
    # Not a permission error.
    raise
else:
    with fp:
        return fp.read()
```

Note : Les opérations d'entrées/sorties peuvent échouer même quand *access()* indique qu'elles devraient réussir, particulièrement pour les opérations sur les systèmes de fichiers réseaux qui peuvent avoir une sémantique de permissions au-delà du modèle de bits de permission usuel POSIX.

`os.F_OK`

Value to pass as the *mode* parameter of `access()` to test the existence of *path*.

`os.R_OK`

Value to include in the *mode* parameter of `access()` to test the readability of *path*.

`os.W_OK`

Value to include in the *mode* parameter of `access()` to test the writability of *path*.

`os.X_OK`

Value to include in the *mode* parameter of `access()` to determine if *path* can be executed.

`os.chdir(path)`

Change le répertoire de travail actuel par *path*.

Disponibilité : Unix, Windows.

`os.fchdir(fd)`

Change the current working directory to the directory represented by the file descriptor *fd*. The descriptor must refer to an opened directory, not an open file.

Disponibilité : Unix.

Nouveau dans la version 2.3.

`os.getcwd()`

Renvoie une chaîne de caractères représentant le répertoire de travail actuel.

Disponibilité : Unix, Windows.

`os.getcwdu()`

Return a Unicode object representing the current working directory.

Disponibilité : Unix, Windows.

Nouveau dans la version 2.3.

`os.chflags(path, flags)`

Définit les marqueurs de *path* par la valeur numérique *flags*. *flags* peut prendre une combinaison (OU bit-à-bit) des valeurs suivantes (comme défini dans le module `stat`) :

- `stat.UF_NODUMP`
- `stat.UF_IMMUTABLE`
- `stat.UF_APPEND`
- `stat.UF_OPAQUE`
- `stat.UF_NOUNLINK`
- `stat.UF_COMPRESSED`
- `stat.UF_HIDDEN`
- `stat.SF_ARCHIVED`
- `stat.SF_IMMUTABLE`
- `stat.SF_APPEND`
- `stat.SF_NOUNLINK`
- `stat.SF_SNAPSHOT`

Disponibilité : Unix.

Nouveau dans la version 2.6.

`os.chroot(path)`

Change the root directory of the current process to *path*. Availability : Unix.

Nouveau dans la version 2.2.

`os.chmod(path, mode)`

Change le mode de *path* par la valeur numérique *mode*. *mode* peut prendre une des valeurs suivantes (comme défini dans le module `stat`) ou une combinaison (OU bit-à-bit) de ces valeurs :

- `stat.S_ISUID`
- `stat.S_ISGID`

```

— stat.S_ENFMT
— stat.S_ISVTX
— stat.S_IREAD
— stat.S_IWRITE
— stat.S_IXEXEC
— stat.S_IRWXU
— stat.S_IRUSR
— stat.S_IWUSR
— stat.S_IXUSR
— stat.S_IRWXG
— stat.S_IRGRP
— stat.S_IWGRP
— stat.S_IXGRP
— stat.S_IRWXO
— stat.S_IROTH
— stat.S_IWOTH
— stat.S_IXOTH

```

Disponibilité : Unix, Windows.

Note : Although Windows supports `chmod()`, you can only set the file's read-only flag with it (via the `stat.S_IWRITE` and `stat.S_IREAD` constants or a corresponding integer value). All other bits are ignored.

`os.chown(path, uid, gid)`

Change the owner and group id of *path* to the numeric *uid* and *gid*. To leave one of the ids unchanged, set it to -1.

Disponibilité : Unix.

`os.chflags(path, flags)`

Set the flags of *path* to the numeric *flags*, like `chflags()`, but do not follow symbolic links.

Disponibilité : Unix.

Nouveau dans la version 2.6.

`os.lchmod(path, mode)`

Change the mode of *path* to the numeric *mode*. If *path* is a symlink, this affects the symlink rather than the target. See the docs for `chmod()` for possible values of *mode*.

Disponibilité : Unix.

Nouveau dans la version 2.6.

`os.lchown(path, uid, gid)`

Change the owner and group id of *path* to the numeric *uid* and *gid*. This function will not follow symbolic links.

Disponibilité : Unix.

Nouveau dans la version 2.3.

`os.link(source, link_name)`

Create a hard link pointing to *source* named *link_name*.

Disponibilité : Unix.

`os.listdir(path)`

Return a list containing the names of the entries in the directory given by *path*. The list is in arbitrary order. It does not include the special entries '.' and '..' even if they are present in the directory.

Disponibilité : Unix, Windows.

Modifié dans la version 2.3 : On Windows NT/2k/XP and Unix, if *path* is a Unicode object, the result will be a list of Unicode objects. Undecodable filenames will still be returned as string objects.

os.lstat(*path*)

Perform the equivalent of an `lstat()` system call on the given path. Similar to `stat()`, but does not follow symbolic links. On platforms that do not support symbolic links, this is an alias for `stat()`.

os.mkfifo(*path*[, *mode*])

Create a FIFO (a 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.

Disponibilité : Unix.

Les FIFOs sont des tubes qui peuvent être accédés comme des fichiers normaux. Les FIFOs existent jusqu'à ce qu'ils soient retirés (par exemple, à l'aide de `os.unlink()`). Généralement, les FIFOs sont utilisés comme communication entre des processus de type « client » et « serveur » : le serveur ouvre le FIFO pour le lire, et le client l'ouvre pour écrire dedans. Notez que `mkfifo()` n'ouvre pas le FIFO — il crée juste un point de rendez-vous.

os.mknod(*filename*[, *mode*=0600[, *device*=0]])

Create a filesystem node (file, device special file or named pipe) named *filename*. *mode* specifies both the permissions to use and the type of node to be created, being combined (bitwise OR) with one of `stat.S_IFREG`, `stat.S_IFCHR`, `stat.S_IFBLK`, and `stat.S_IFIFO` (those constants are available in `stat`). For `stat.S_IFCHR` and `stat.S_IFBLK`, *device* defines the newly created device special file (probably using `os.makedev()`), otherwise it is ignored.

Nouveau dans la version 2.3.

os.major(*device*)

Extrait le nombre majeur de périphérique d'un nombre de périphérique brut (habituellement le champ `st_dev` ou `st_rdev` de `stat`).

Nouveau dans la version 2.3.

os.minor(*device*)

Extrait le nombre mineur de périphérique d'un nombre de périphérique brut (habituellement le champ `st_dev` ou `st_rdev` de `stat`).

Nouveau dans la version 2.3.

os.makedev(*major*, *minor*)

Compose un nombre de périphérique brut à partir des nombres de périphérique mineur et majeur.

Nouveau dans la version 2.3.

os.mkdir(*path*[, *mode*])

Create a directory named *path* with numeric mode *mode*. The default *mode* is 0777 (octal). If the directory already exists, `OSError` is raised.

Sous certains systèmes, *mode* est ignoré. Quand il est utilisé, il lui est premièrement appliqué le masque courant *umask*. Si des bits autres que les 9 derniers sont activés (i.e. les 3 derniers chiffres de la représentation octale de *mode*), leur signification sera dépendante de la plate-forme. Sous certaines plate-formes, ils seront ignorés et vous devrez appeler explicitement `chmod()` pour les modifier.

Il est également possible de créer des répertoires temporaires, voir la fonction `tempfile.mkdtemp()` du module `tempfile`.

Disponibilité : Unix, Windows.

os.makedirs(*path*[, *mode*])

Recursive directory creation function. Like `mkdir()`, but makes all intermediate-level directories needed to contain the leaf directory. Raises an `error` exception if the leaf directory already exists or cannot be created. The default *mode* is 0777 (octal).

Le paramètre *mode* est passé à `mkdir()` ; voir la description de `mkdir()` pour comprendre comment cela est interprété.

Note : `makedirs()` will become confused if the path elements to create include `os.pardir`.

Nouveau dans la version 1.5.2.

Modifié dans la version 2.3 : This function now handles UNC paths correctly.

`os.pathconf(path, name)`

Renvoie des informations sur la configurations relatives à un fichier déterminé. *name* spécifie la valeur de configuration à récupérer ; ce peut être une chaîne de caractères qui est le nom d'une valeur système particulière. Ces noms sont spécifiés dans certains standards (POSIX.1, Unix 95, Unix 98, etc). Certaines plate-formes définissent des noms supplémentaires également. Les noms connus du système d'exploitation hôte sont donnés dans le dictionnaire `pathconf_names`. Pour les variables de configuration non incluses dans ce *mapping*, passer un entier pour *name* est également accepté.

Si *name* est une chaîne de caractères et n'est pas connu, une `ValueError` est levée. Si une valeur spécifique de *name* n'est pas gérée par le système hôte, même si elle est incluse dans `pathconf_names`, une `OSError` est levée avec `errno.EINVAL` pour code d'erreur.

Disponibilité : Unix.

`os.pathconf_names`

Dictionary mapping names accepted by `pathconf()` and `fpathconf()` to the integer values defined for those names by the host operating system. This can be used to determine the set of names known to the system. Availability : Unix.

`os.readlink(path)`

Renvoie une chaîne de caractères représentant le chemin vers lequel le lien symbolique pointe. Le résultat peut être soit un chemin relatif, soit un chemin absolu. S'il est relatif, il peut être converti en chemin absolu en utilisant `os.path.join(os.path.dirname(path), result)`.

Modifié dans la version 2.6 : If the *path* is a Unicode object the result will also be a Unicode object.

Disponibilité : Unix.

`os.remove(path)`

Remove (delete) the file *path*. If *path* is a directory, `OSError` is raised ; see `rmdir()` below to remove a directory. This is identical to the `unlink()` function documented below. On Windows, attempting to remove a file that is in use causes an exception to be raised ; on Unix, the directory entry is removed but the storage allocated to the file is not made available until the original file is no longer in use.

Disponibilité : Unix, Windows.

`os.removedirs(path)`

Supprime des répertoires récursivement. Fonctionne comme `rmdir()` si ce n'est que si le répertoire feuille est retiré avec succès, `removedirs()` essaye de supprimer successivement chaque répertoire parent mentionné dans *path* jusqu'à ce qu'un erreur ne soit levée (ce qui est ignoré car la signification générale en est qu'un répertoire parent n'est pas vide). Par exemple, `os.removedirs('foo/bar/baz')` supprimera d'abord le répertoire 'foo/bar/baz', et ensuite supprimera 'foo/bar' et puis 'foo' s'ils sont vides. Lève une `OSError` si le répertoire feuille n'a pas pu être supprimé avec succès.

Nouveau dans la version 1.5.2.

`os.rename(src, dst)`

Rename the file or directory *src* to *dst*. If *dst* is a directory, `OSError` will be raised. On Unix, if *dst* exists and is a file, it will be replaced silently if the user has permission. The operation may fail on some Unix flavors if *src* and *dst* are on different filesystems. If successful, the renaming will be an atomic operation (this is a POSIX requirement). On Windows, if *dst* already exists, `OSError` will be raised even if it is a file ; there may be no way to implement an atomic rename when *dst* names an existing file.

Disponibilité : Unix, Windows.

`os.rename(old, new)`

Fonction récursive de renommage de fichiers ou répertoires. Fonctionne comme `rename()`, si ce n'est que la création d'un répertoire intermédiaire nécessaire pour rendre le nouveau chemin correct est essayé en premier. Après le renommage, les répertoires correspondant aux segments de chemin les plus à droite de l'ancien nom seront élagués en utilisant `removedirs()`.

Nouveau dans la version 1.5.2.

Note : Cette fonction peut échouer avec la nouvelle structure de dictionnaire définie si vous n'avez pas les permissions nécessaires pour supprimer le répertoire ou fichier feuille.

`os.rmdir(path)`

Supprime (retire) le répertoire *path*. Ne fonctionne que lorsque le répertoire est vide, sinon une *OSError* est levée. Afin de supprimer toute la hiérarchie de dossier, la fonction *shutil.rmtree()* peut être utilisée.

Disponibilité : Unix, Windows.

`os.stat(path)`

Perform the equivalent of a `stat()` system call on the given path. (This function follows symlinks; to stat a symlink use *lstat()*.)

The return value is an object whose attributes correspond to the members of the `stat` structure, namely :

- `st_mode` - protection bits,
- `st_ino` - inode number,
- `st_dev` - device,
- `st_nlink` - number of hard links,
- `st_uid` - user id of owner,
- `st_gid` - group id of owner,
- `st_size` - size of file, in bytes,
- `st_atime` - time of most recent access,
- `st_mtime` - time of most recent content modification,
- `st_ctime` - platform dependent; time of most recent metadata change on Unix, or the time of creation on Windows)

Modifié dans la version 2.3 : If *stat_float_times()* returns `True`, the time values are floats, measuring seconds. Fractions of a second may be reported if the system supports that. See *stat_float_times()* for further discussion.

Sur certains systèmes Unix (tels que Linux), les attributs suivants peuvent également être disponibles :

- `st_blocks` - number of 512-byte blocks allocated for file
- `st_blksize` - filesystem blocksize for efficient file system I/O
- `st_rdev` - type of device if an inode device
- `st_flags` - user defined flags for file

Sur d'autres systèmes Unix (tels que FreeBSD), les attributs suivants peuvent être disponibles (mais peuvent être complétés uniquement lorsque le super-utilisateur *root* tente de les utiliser).

- `st_gen` - file generation number
- `st_birthtime` - time of file creation

On RISCOS systems, the following attributes are also available :

- `st_ftype` (file type)
- `st_attrs` (attributes)
- `st_obtype` (object type).

Note : La signification et la précision exacte des attributs `st_atime`, `st_mtime`, et `st_ctime` dépendent du système d'exploitation et du système de fichier. Par exemple sur les systèmes Windows qui utilisent un système de fichier FAT ou FAT32, `st_mtime` a une précision de 2 secondes, et `st_atime` a une précision de 1 jour. Regardez la documentation de votre système d'exploitation pour plus de détails.

For backward compatibility, the return value of *stat()* is also accessible as 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.

Le module standard `stat` définit des fonctions et des constantes qui sont utiles pour l'extraction d'informations d'une structure `stat`. (Sur Windows, certains éléments sont remplis avec des valeurs factices.)

Exemple :

```
>>> import os
>>> statinfo = os.stat('somefile.txt')
>>> statinfo
(33188, 422511, 769, 1, 1032, 100, 926, 1105022698, 1105022732, 1105022732)
>>> statinfo.st_size
926
```

Disponibilité : Unix, Windows.

Modifié dans la version 2.2 : Added access to values as attributes of the returned object.

Modifié dans la version 2.5 : Added `st_gen` and `st_birthtime`.

`os.stat_float_times([newvalue])`

Détermine si `stat_result` représente les horodatages par des objets à virgule flottante. Si *newvalue* vaut `True`, les appels à `stat()` qui suivront renverront des flottants. Si *newvalue* vaut `False`, les appels qui suivront renverront des entiers. Si *newvalue* est omise, la valeur actuelle est renvoyée.

Pour des raisons de compatibilité avec les anciennes versions de Python, accéder un objet de type `stat_result` renvoie toujours des entiers.

Modifié dans la version 2.5 : Python renvoie des valeurs flottantes par défaut maintenant. Les applications qui ne fonctionnent pas correctement avec des horodatages flottants peuvent utiliser cette fonction pour restaurer l'ancien comportement.

La précision des horodatages (qui est la plus petite fraction possible) dépend du système. Certains systèmes supportent uniquement une précision à la seconde ; sur ces systèmes, la fraction sera toujours zéro.

Il est recommandé que cette option ne soit changée qu'au lancement du programme dans le module `__main__`. Les bibliothèques ne devraient jamais changer cette option. Si une application utilise une bibliothèque qui fonctionne mal avec les horodatages en nombres flottants, cette application devrait temporairement retirer cette possibilité jusqu'à ce que la bibliothèque ait été corrigée.

`os.statvfs(path)`

Exécute un appel système `statvfs()` sur le chemin donné par *path*. La valeur de retour est un objet dont les attributs décrivent le système de fichier sur le chemin donné, et correspondent aux membres de la structure `statvfs` nommés : `f_bsize`, `f_frsize`, `f_blocks`, `f_bfree`, `f_bavail`, `f_files`, `f_ffree`, `f_favail`, `f_flag`, `f_namemax`.

For backward compatibility, the return value is also accessible as a tuple whose values correspond to the attributes, in the order given above. The standard module `statvfs` defines constants that are useful for extracting information from a `statvfs` structure when accessing it as a sequence ; this remains useful when writing code that needs to work with versions of Python that don't support accessing the fields as attributes.

Disponibilité : Unix.

Modifié dans la version 2.2 : Added access to values as attributes of the returned object.

`os.symlink(source, link_name)`

Create a symbolic link pointing to *source* named *link_name*.

Disponibilité : Unix.

`os.tempnam(dir, [prefix])`

Return a unique path name that is reasonable for creating a temporary file. This will be an absolute path that names a potential directory entry in the directory *dir* or a common location for temporary files if *dir* is omitted or `None`. If given and not `None`, *prefix* is used to provide a short prefix to the filename. Applications are responsible for properly creating and managing files created using paths

returned by `tempnam()`; no automatic cleanup is provided. On Unix, the environment variable `TMPDIR` overrides `dir`, while on Windows `TMP` is used. The specific behavior of this function depends on the C library implementation; some aspects are underspecified in system documentation.

Avertissement : Use of `tempnam()` is vulnerable to symlink attacks; consider using `tmpfile()` (section *Création de fichiers objets*) instead.

Disponibilité : Unix, Windows.

`os.tempnam()`

Return a unique path name that is reasonable for creating a temporary file. This will be an absolute path that names a potential directory entry in a common location for temporary files. Applications are responsible for properly creating and managing files created using paths returned by `tempnam()`; no automatic cleanup is provided.

Avertissement : Use of `tempnam()` is vulnerable to symlink attacks; consider using `tmpfile()` (section *Création de fichiers objets*) instead.

Availability : Unix, Windows. This function probably shouldn't be used on Windows, though : Microsoft's implementation of `tempnam()` always creates a name in the root directory of the current drive, and that's generally a poor location for a temp file (depending on privileges, you may not even be able to open a file using this name).

`os.TMP_MAX`

The maximum number of unique names that `tempnam()` will generate before reusing names.

`os.unlink(path)`

Remove (delete) the file `path`. This is the same function as `remove()`; the `unlink()` name is its traditional Unix name.

Disponibilité : Unix, Windows.

`os.utime(path, times)`

Set the access and modified times of the file specified by `path`. If `times` is `None`, then the file's access and modified times are set to the current time. (The effect is similar to running the Unix program `touch` on the path.) Otherwise, `times` must be a 2-tuple of numbers, of the form `(atime, mtime)` which is used to set the access and modified times, respectively. Whether a directory can be given for `path` depends on whether the operating system implements directories as files (for example, Windows does not). Note that the exact times you set here may not be returned by a subsequent `stat()` call, depending on the resolution with which your operating system records access and modification times; see `stat()`.

Modifié dans la version 2.0 : Added support for `None` for `times`.

Disponibilité : Unix, Windows.

`os.walk(top, topdown=True, onerror=None, followlinks=False)`

Génère les noms de fichier dans un arbre de répertoire en parcourant l'arbre soit de bas-en-haut, soit de haut-en-bas. Pour chaque répertoire dans l'arbre enraciné en le répertoire `top` (incluant ledit répertoire `top`), fournit un triplet `(dirpath, dirnames, filenames)`.

`dirpath` est une chaîne de caractères contenant le chemin vers le répertoire. `dirnames` est une liste de noms de sous-répertoires dans `dirpath` (en excluant `'.'` et `'..'`). `filenames` est une liste de fichiers (non-répertoires) dans `dirpath`. Notez que les noms dans la liste ne contiennent aucune composante de chemin. Pour récupérer le chemin complet (qui commence à `top`) vers un répertoire dans `dirpath`, faites `os.path.join(dirpath, name)`.

Si l'argument optionnel `topdown` vaut `True` ou n'est pas spécifié, le triplet pour un répertoire est généré avant les triplets de tous ses sous-répertoires (les répertoires sont générés de haut-en-bas). Si `topdown` vaut `False`, le triplet pour un répertoire est généré après les triplets de tous ses sous-répertoires (les

répertoires sont générés de bas-en-haut). Peu importe la valeur de *topdown*, la liste des sous-répertoires est récupérée avant que les tuples pour le répertoire et ses sous-répertoires ne soient générés.

Quand *topdown* vaut **True**, l'appelant peut modifier la liste *dirnames* en place (par exemple en utilisant *del* ou l'assignation par *slicing* (par tranches)) et *walk()* ne fera sa récursion que dans les sous-répertoires dont le nom reste dans *dirnames*; cela peut être utilisé pour élaguer la recherche, imposer un ordre particulier de visite, ou encore pour informer *walk()* des répertoires créés par l'appelant ou renommés avant qu'il quitte *walk()* à nouveau. Modifier *dirnames* quand *topdown* vaut **False** n'a aucun effet sur le comportement du parcours parce qu'en mode bas-en-haut, les répertoires dans *dirnames* sont générés avant que *dirpath* ne soit lui-même généré.

Par défaut, les erreurs d'un appel à *listdir()* sont ignorées. Si l'argument optionnel *onerror* est spécifié, il devrait être une fonction, il sera appelé avec un argument, une instance de *OSError*. Il peut reporter l'erreur ou continuer le parcours, ou lever l'exception pour avorter le parcours. Notez que le nom de fichier est disponible par "attribut *filename* de l'objet exception.

Par défaut, *walk()* ne parcourra pas les liens symboliques qui mènent à un répertoire. Définissez *followlinks* avec **True** pour visiter les répertoires pointés par des liens symboliques sur les systèmes qui le gère.

Nouveau dans la version 2.6 : The *followlinks* parameter.

Note : Soyez au courant que définir *followlinks* avec **True** peut mener à une récursion infinie si un lien pointe vers un répertoire parent de lui-même. *walk()* ne garde pas de trace des répertoires qu'il a déjà visité.

Note : Si vous passez un chemin relatif, ne changez pas le répertoire de travail actuel entre deux exécutions de *walk()*. *walk()* ne change jamais le répertoire actuel, et suppose que l'appelant ne le fait pas non plus.

Cet exemple affiche le nombre de bytes pris par des fichiers non-répertoires dans chaque répertoire à partir du répertoire de départ, si ce n'est qu'il ne cherche pas après un sous-répertoire CSV :

```
import os
from os.path import join, getsize
for root, dirs, files in os.walk('python/Lib/email'):
    print root, "consumes",
    print sum(getsize(join(root, name)) for name in files),
    print "bytes in", len(files), "non-directory files"
    if 'CVS' in dirs:
        dirs.remove('CVS') # don't visit CVS directories
```

Dans le prochain exemple, parcourir l'arbre de bas-en-haut est essentiel : *rmdir()* ne permet pas de supprimer un répertoire avant qu'il ne soit vide :

```
# Delete everything reachable from the directory named in "top",
# assuming there are no symbolic links.
# CAUTION: This is dangerous! For example, if top == '/', it
# could delete all your disk files.
import os
for root, dirs, files in os.walk(top, topdown=False):
    for name in files:
        os.remove(os.path.join(root, name))
    for name in dirs:
        os.rmdir(os.path.join(root, name))
```

Nouveau dans la version 2.3.

15.1.5 Gestion des processus

Ces fonctions peuvent être utilisées pour créer et gérer des processus.

Les variantes des fonctions `exec*` prennent une liste d'arguments pour le nouveau programme chargé dans le processus. Dans tous les cas, le premier de ces arguments est passé au nouveau programme comme son propre nom plutôt que comme un argument qu'un utilisateur peut avoir tapé en ligne de commande. Pour les programmeurs C, c'est l'argument `argv[0]` qui est passé à la fonction `main()` du programme. Par exemple, `os.execv('/bin/echo/', ['foo', 'bar'])` affichera uniquement `bar` sur la sortie standard ; `foo` semblera être ignoré.

`os.abort()`

Génère un signal `SIGABRT` au processus actuel. Sur Linux, le comportement par défaut est de produire un vidage système (*Core Dump*) ; sur Windows, le processus renvoie immédiatement un code d'erreur 3. Attention : appeler cette fonction n'appellera pas le gestionnaire de signal Python enregistré par `SIGABRT` à l'aide de `signal.signal()`.

Disponibilité : Unix, Windows.

`os.execl(path, arg0, arg1, ...)`

`os.execle(path, arg0, arg1, ..., env)`

`os.execlp(file, arg0, arg1, ...)`

`os.execlpe(file, arg0, arg1, ..., env)`

`os.execv(path, args)`

`os.execve(path, args, env)`

`os.execvp(file, args)`

`os.execvpe(file, args, env)`

Ces fonctions exécutent toutes un nouveau programme, remplaçant le processus actuel, elles ne renvoient pas. Sur Unix, le nouvel exécutable est chargé dans le processus actuel, et aura le même identifiant de processus (PID) que l'appelant. Les erreurs seront reportées par des exceptions `OSError`.

Le processus actuel est remplacé immédiatement. Les fichiers objets et descripteurs de fichiers ne sont pas purgés, donc s'il est possible que des données aient été mises en tampon pour ces fichiers, vous devriez les purger manuellement en utilisant `sys.stdout.flush()` ou `os.fsync()` avant d'appeler une fonction `exec*`.

Les variantes « l » et « v » des fonctions `exec*` diffèrent sur la manière de passer les arguments de ligne de commande. Les variantes « l » sont probablement les plus simples à utiliser si le nombre de paramètres est fixé lors de l'écriture du code. Les paramètres individuels deviennent alors des paramètres additionnels aux fonctions `exec*()`. Les variantes « v » sont préférables quand le nombre de paramètres est variable et qu'ils sont passés dans une liste ou un *tuple* dans le paramètre `args`. Dans tous les cas, les arguments aux processus fils devraient commencer avec le nom de la commande à lancer, mais ce n'est pas obligatoire.

Les variantes qui incluent un « p » vers la fin (`execlp()`, `execlpe()`, `execvp()`, et `execvpe()`) utiliseront la variable d'environnement `PATH` pour localiser le programme *file*. Quand l'environnement est remplacé (en utilisant une des variantes `exec*e`, discutées dans le paragraphe suivant), le nouvel environnement est utilisé comme source de la variable d'environnement `PATH`. Les autres variantes `execl()`, `execle()`, `execv()`, et `execve()` n'utiliseront pas la variable d'environnement `PATH` pour localiser l'exécutable. *path* doit contenir un chemin absolu ou relatif approprié.

Pour les fonctions `execle()`, `execlpe()`, `execve()`, et `execvpe()` (notez qu'elles finissent toutes par « e »), le paramètre *env* doit être un *mapping* qui est utilisé pour définir les variables d'environnement du nouveau processus (celles-ci sont utilisées à la place de l'environnement du nouveau processus). Les fonctions `execl()`, `execlp()`, `execv()`, et `execvp()` causent toutes un héritage de l'environnement du processus actuel par le processus fils.

Disponibilité : Unix, Windows.

`os._exit(n)`

Quitte le processus avec le statut *n*, sans appeler les gestionnaires de nettoyage, sans purger les tampons des fichiers, etc.

Disponibilité : Unix, Windows.

Note : La méthode standard pour quitter est `sys.exit(n)`. `_exit()` devrait normalement être utilisé uniquement par le processus fils après un `fork()`.

Les codes de sortie suivants sont définis et peuvent être utilisés avec `_exit()`, mais ils ne sont pas nécessaires. Ils sont typiquement utilisés pour les programmes systèmes écrits en Python, comme un programme de gestion de l'exécution des commandes d'un serveur de mails.

Note : Certaines de ces valeurs peuvent ne pas être disponibles sur toutes les plate-formes Unix étant donné qu'il en existe des variations. Ces constantes sont définies là où elles sont définies par la plate-forme sous-jacente.

os.EX_OK

Code de sortie signifiant qu'aucune erreur n'est arrivée.

Disponibilité : Unix.

Nouveau dans la version 2.3.

os.EX_USAGE

Code de sortie signifiant que les commandes n'ont pas été utilisées correctement, comme quand le mauvais nombre d'arguments a été donné.

Disponibilité : Unix.

Nouveau dans la version 2.3.

os.EX_DATAERR

Code de sortie signifiant que les données en entrées étaient incorrectes.

Disponibilité : Unix.

Nouveau dans la version 2.3.

os.EX_NOINPUT

Code de sortie signifiant qu'un des fichiers d'entrée n'existe pas ou n'est pas lisible.

Disponibilité : Unix.

Nouveau dans la version 2.3.

os.EX_NOUSER

Code de sortie signifiant qu'un utilisateur spécifié n'existe pas.

Disponibilité : Unix.

Nouveau dans la version 2.3.

os.EX_NOHOST

Code de sortie signifiant qu'un hôte spécifié n'existe pas.

Disponibilité : Unix.

Nouveau dans la version 2.3.

os.EX_UNAVAILABLE

Code de sortie signifiant qu'un service requis n'est pas disponible.

Disponibilité : Unix.

Nouveau dans la version 2.3.

os.EX_SOFTWARE

Code de sortie signifiant qu'une erreur interne d'un programme a été détectée.

Disponibilité : Unix.

Nouveau dans la version 2.3.

`os.EX_OSERR`

Code de sortie signifiant qu'une erreur du système d'exploitation a été détectée, comme l'incapacité à réaliser un *fork* ou à créer un tuyau (*pipe*).

Disponibilité : Unix.

Nouveau dans la version 2.3.

`os.EX_OSFILE`

Code de sortie signifiant qu'un fichier n'existe pas, n'a pas pu être ouvert, ou avait une autre erreur.

Disponibilité : Unix.

Nouveau dans la version 2.3.

`os.EX_CANTCREAT`

Code de sortie signifiant qu'un fichier spécifié par l'utilisateur n'a pas pu être créé.

Disponibilité : Unix.

Nouveau dans la version 2.3.

`os.EX_IOERR`

Code de sortie signifiant qu'une erreur est apparue pendant une E/S sur un fichier.

Disponibilité : Unix.

Nouveau dans la version 2.3.

`os.EX_TEMPFAIL`

Code de sortie signifiant qu'un échec temporaire est apparu. Cela indique quelque chose qui pourrait ne pas être une erreur, comme une connexion au réseau qui n'a pas pu être établie pendant une opération réessayable.

Disponibilité : Unix.

Nouveau dans la version 2.3.

`os.EX_PROTOCOL`

Code de sortie signifiant qu'un protocole d'échange est illégal, invalide, ou non-compris.

Disponibilité : Unix.

Nouveau dans la version 2.3.

`os.EX_NOPERM`

Code de sortie signifiant qu'il manque certaines permissions pour réaliser une opération (mais n'est pas destiné aux problèmes de système de fichiers).

Disponibilité : Unix.

Nouveau dans la version 2.3.

`os.EX_CONFIG`

Code de sortie signifiant qu'une erreur de configuration est apparue.

Disponibilité : Unix.

Nouveau dans la version 2.3.

`os.EX_NOTFOUND`

Code de sortie signifiant quelque chose comme « une entrée n'a pas été trouvée ».

Disponibilité : Unix.

Nouveau dans la version 2.3.

`os.fork()`

Fork un processus fils. Renvoie 0 dans le processus fils et le PID du processus fils dans le processus père. Si une erreur apparaît, une *OSError* est levée.

Note that some platforms including FreeBSD <= 6.3, Cygwin and OS/2 EMX have known issues when using `fork()` from a thread.

Avertissement : Voit `ssl` pour les application qui utilisent le module SSL avec `fork()`.

Disponibilité : Unix.

`os.forkpty()`

Fork un processus fils, en utilisant un nouveau pseudo-terminal comme terminal contrôlant le fils. Renvoie une paire (`pid`, `fd`) où `pid` vaut 0 dans le fils et le PID du processus fils dans le parent, et `fd` est le descripteur de fichier de la partie maître du pseudo-terminal. Pour une approche plus portable, utilisez le module `pty`. Si une erreur apparaît, une `OSError` est levée.

Disponibilité : certains dérivés Unix.

`os.kill(pid, sig)`

Envoie le signal `sig` au processus `pid`. Les constantes pour les signaux spécifiques à la plate-forme hôte sont définies dans le module `signal`.

Windows : les signaux `signal.CTRL_C_EVENT` et `signal.CTRL_BREAK_EVENT` sont des signaux spéciaux qui ne peuvent être envoyés qu'aux processus consoles qui partagent une console commune (par exemple, certains sous-processus). Toute autre valeur pour `sig` amènera le processus à être tué sans condition par l'API `TerminateProcess`, et le code de retour sera mis à `sig`. La version Windows de `kill()` prend en plus les identificateurs de processus à tuer.

Nouveau dans la version 2.7 : Windows support

`os.killpg(pgid, sig)`

Envoie le signal `sig` au groupe de processus `pgid`.

Disponibilité : Unix.

Nouveau dans la version 2.3.

`os.nice(increment)`

Ajoute `increment` à la priorité du processus. Renvoie la nouvelle priorité.

Disponibilité : Unix.

`os.plock(op)`

Verrouille les segments du programme en mémoire. La valeur de `op` (définie dans `<sys/lock.h>`) détermine quels segments sont verrouillés.

Disponibilité : Unix.

`os.popen(...)`

`os.popen2(...)`

`os.popen3(...)`

`os.popen4(...)`

Run child processes, returning opened pipes for communications. These functions are described in section *Création de fichiers objets*.

`os.spawnl(mode, path, ...)`

`os.spawnle(mode, path, ..., env)`

`os.spawnlp(mode, file, ...)`

`os.spawnlpe(mode, file, ..., env)`

`os.spawnv(mode, path, args)`

`os.spawnve(mode, path, args, env)`

`os.spawnvp(mode, file, args)`

`os.spawnvpe(mode, file, args, env)`

Exécute le programme `path` dans un nouveau processus.

(Notez que le module `subprocess` fournit des outils plus puissants pour générer de nouveaux processus et récupérer leur valeur de retour. Il est préférable d'utiliser ce module que ces fonctions. Voyez surtout la section *Remplacer les fonctions plus anciennes par le module subprocess*.)

Si `mode` vaut `P_NOWAIT`, cette fonction renvoie le PID du nouveau processus, et si `mode` vaut `P_WAIT`, la fonction renvoie le code de sortie du processus s'il se termine normalement, ou `-signal` où `signal`

est le signal qui a tué le processus. Sur Windows, le PID du processus sera en fait l'identificateur du processus (*process handle*) et peut donc être utilisé avec la fonction `waitpid()`.

Les variantes « l » et « v » des fonctions `spawn*` diffèrent sur la manière de passer les arguments de ligne de commande. Les variantes « l » sont probablement les plus simples à utiliser si le nombre de paramètres est fixé lors de l'écriture du code. Les paramètres individuels deviennent alors des paramètres additionnels aux fonctions `spawn*()`. Les variantes « v » sont préférables quand le nombre de paramètres est variable et qu'ils sont passés dans une liste ou un *tuple* dans le paramètre `args`. Dans tous les cas, les arguments aux processus fils devraient commencer avec le nom de la commande à lancer, mais ce n'est pas obligatoire.

Les variantes qui incluent un « p » vers la fin (`spawnlp()`, `spawnlpe()`, `spawnvp()`, et `spawnvpe()`) utiliseront la variable d'environnement `PATH` pour localiser le programme *file*. Quand l'environnement est remplacé (en utilisant une des variantes `spawn*e`, discutées dans le paragraphe suivant), le nouvel environnement est utilisé comme source de la variable d'environnement `PATH`. Les autres variantes `spawnl()`, `spawnle()`, `spawnv()`, et `spawnve()` n'utiliseront pas la variable d'environnement `PATH` pour localiser l'exécutable. *path* doit contenir un chemin absolue ou relatif approprié.

Pour les fonctions `spawnle()`, `spawnlpe()`, `spawnve()`, et `spawnvpe()` (notez qu'elles finissent toutes par « e »), le paramètre `env` doit être un *mapping* qui est utilisé pour définir les variables d'environnement du nouveau processus (celles-ci sont utilisées à la place de l'environnement du nouveau processus). Les fonctions `spawnl()`, `spawnlp()`, `spawnv()`, et `spawnvp()` causent toutes un héritage de l'environnement du processus actuel par le processus fils. Notez que les clefs et les valeurs du dictionnaire `env` doivent être des chaînes de caractères. Des valeurs invalides pour les clefs ou les valeurs met la fonction en échec et renvoie 127.

Par exemple, les appels suivants à `spawnlp()` et `spawnvpe()` sont équivalents :

```
import os
os.spawnlp(os.P_WAIT, 'cp', 'cp', 'index.html', '/dev/null')

L = ['cp', 'index.html', '/dev/null']
os.spawnvpe(os.P_WAIT, 'cp', L, os.environ)
```

Disponibilité : Unix, Windows. `spawnlp()`, `spawnlpe()`, `spawnvp()`, et `spawnvpe()` ne sont pas disponibles sur Windows. `spawnle()` et `spawnve()` ne sont pas sécurisés pour les appels concurrents (*thread-safe*) sur Windows, il est conseillé d'utiliser le module `subprocess` à la place.

Nouveau dans la version 1.6.

`os.P_NOWAIT`

`os.P_NOWAITO`

Valeurs possibles pour le paramètre *mode* de la famille de fonctions `spawn*`. Si l'une de ces valeurs est donnée, les fonctions `spawn*()` sortiront dès que le nouveau processus est créé, avec le PID du processus comme valeur de retour.

Disponibilité : Unix, Windows.

Nouveau dans la version 1.6.

`os.P_WAIT`

Valeur possible pour le paramètre *mode* de la famille de fonctions `spawn*`. Si *mode* est défini par cette valeur, les fonctions `spawn*` ne se terminent pas tant que le nouveau processus n'a pas été complété et renvoient le code de sortie du processus si l'exécution est effectuée avec succès, ou **-signal** si un signal tue le processus.

Disponibilité : Unix, Windows.

Nouveau dans la version 1.6.

`os.P_DETACH`

`os.P_OVERLAY`

Possible values for the *mode* parameter to the `spawn*` family of functions. These are less portable than those listed above. `P_DETACH` is similar to `P_NOWAIT`, but the new process is detached from the console

of the calling process. If *P_OVERLAY* is used, the current process will be replaced ; the `spawn*()` function will not return.

Disponibilité : Windows.

Nouveau dans la version 1.6.

`os.startfile(path[, operation])`

lance un fichier avec son application associée.

Quand *operation* n'est pas spécifié ou vaut `'open'`, l'effet est le même qu'un double clic sur le fichier dans Windows Explorer, ou que de passer le nom du fichier en argument du programme `start` depuis l'invite de commande interactif : le fichier est ouvert avec l'application associée à l'extension (s'il y en a une).

Quand une autre *operation* est donnée, ce doit être une « commande-verbe » qui spécifie ce qui devrait être fait avec le fichier. Les verbes habituels documentés par Microsoft sont `'print'` et `'edit'` (qui doivent être utilisés sur des fichiers) ainsi que `'explore'` et `'find'` (qui doivent être utilisés sur des répertoires).

`startfile()` termine dès que l'application associée est lancée. Il n'y a aucune option permettant d'attendre que l'application ne se ferme et aucun moyen de récupérer le statu de sortie de l'application. Le paramètre *path* est relatif au répertoire actuel. Si vous voulez utiliser un chemin absolu, assurez-vous que le premier caractère ne soit pas un slash (`'/'`). La fonction Win32 `ShellExecute()` sous-jacente ne fonctionne pas sinon. Utilisez la fonction `os.path.normpath()` pour vous assurer que le chemin est encodé correctement pour Win32.

Disponibilité : Windows.

Nouveau dans la version 2.0.

Nouveau dans la version 2.5 : The *operation* parameter.

`os.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 `sys.stdin`, etc. are not reflected in the environment of the executed command.

Sur Unix, la valeur de retour est le statut de sortie du processus encodé dans le format spécifié pour `wait()`. Notez que POSIX ne spécifie pas le sens de la valeur de retour de la fonction C `system()`, donc la valeur de retour de la fonction Python est dépendante du système.

On Windows, the return value is that returned by the system shell after running *command*, given by the Windows environment variable `COMSPEC` : on `command.com` systems (Windows 95, 98 and ME) this is always 0 ; on `cmd.exe` systems (Windows NT, 2000 and XP) this is the exit status of the command run ; on systems using a non-native shell, consult your shell documentation.

Le module `subprocess` fournit des outils plus puissants pour générer de nouveaux processus et pour récupérer leur résultat. Il est préférable d'utiliser ce module plutôt que d'utiliser cette fonction. Voir la section *Remplacer les fonctions plus anciennes par le module subprocess* de la documentation du module `subprocess` pour des informations plus précises et utiles.

Disponibilité : Unix, Windows.

`os.times()`

Return a 5-tuple of floating point numbers indicating accumulated (processor 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)` or the corresponding Windows Platform API documentation. On Windows, only the first two items are filled, the others are zero.

Disponibilité Unix, Windows

`os.wait()`

Attend qu'un processus fils soit complété, et renvoie un *tuple* contenant son PID et son état de sortie : un nombre de 16 bits dont le *byte* de poids faible est le nombre correspondant au signal qui a tué le processus, et dont le *byte* de poids fort est le statut de sortie (si la signal vaut 0). Le bit de poids fort du *byte* de poids faible est mis à 1 si un (fichier système) *core file* a été produit.

Disponibilité : Unix.

`os.waitpid(pid, options)`

Les détails de cette fonction diffèrent sur Unix et Windows.

Sur Unix : attend qu'un processus fils donné par son id de processus *pid* soit terminé, et renvoie un *tuple* contenant son PID et son statut de sortie (encodé comme pour *wait()*). La sémantique de cet appel est affecté par la valeur de l'argument entier *options*, qui devrait valoir 0 pour les opérations normales.

Si *pid* est plus grand que 0, *waitpid()* introduit une requête pour des informations sur le statut du processus spécifié. Si *pid* vaut 0, la requête est pour le statut de tous les fils dans le groupe de processus du processus actuel. Si *pid* vaut -1, la requête concerne tous les processus fils du processus actuel. Si *pid* est inférieur à -1, une requête est faite pour le statut de chaque processus du groupe de processus donné par *-pid* (la valeur absolue de *pid*).

Une *OSError* est levée avec la valeur de *errno* quand l'appel système renvoie -1.

Sur Windows : attend que qu'un processus donné par l'identificateur de processus (*process handle*) *pid* soit complété, et renvoie un *tuple* contenant *pid* et son statut de sortie décalé de 8 bits vers la gauche (le décalage rend l'utilisation multiplate-forme plus facile). Un *pid* inférieur ou égal à 0 n'a aucune signification particulière sur Windows, et lève une exception. L'argument entier *options* n'a aucun effet. *pid* peut faire référence à tout processus dont l'identifiant est connue pas nécessairement un processus fils. Les fonctions *spawn** appelées avec *P_NOWAIT* renvoient des identificateurs de processus appropriés.

`os.wait3(options)`

Similaire à la fonction *waitpid()*, si ce n'est que qu'aucun argument *id* n'est donné, et qu'un triplet contenant l'identifiant du processus fils, son statut de sortie, et une information sur l'utilisation des ressources est renvoyé. Référez-vous à *resource.getrusage()* pour des détails sur les informations d'utilisation des ressources. L'argument *options* est le même que celui fourni à *waitpid()* et *wait4()*.

Disponibilité : Unix.

Nouveau dans la version 2.5.

`os.wait4(pid, options)`

Similaire à *waitpid()*, si ce n'est qu'un triplet contenant l'identifiant du processus fils, son statut de sortie, et des informations d'utilisation des ressources est renvoyé. Référez-vous à *resource.getrusage()* pour des détails sur les informations d'utilisation des ressources. Les arguments de *wait4()* sont les mêmes que ceux fournis à *waitpid()*.

Disponibilité : Unix.

Nouveau dans la version 2.5.

`os.WNOHANG`

L'option de *waitpid()* pour terminer immédiatement si aucun statut de processus fils n'est disponible dans l'immédiat. La fonction renvoie (0, 0) dans ce cas.

Disponibilité : Unix.

`os.WCONTINUED`

Cette option cause les processus fils à être reportés s'ils ont été continués après un arrêt du *job control* depuis leurs derniers reports de statuts.

Availability : Some Unix systems.

Nouveau dans la version 2.3.

`os.WUNTRACED`

Cette option cause les processus fils à être reportés s'ils ont été stoppés mais que leur état actuel n'a pas été reporté depuis qu'ils ont été stoppés.

Disponibilité : Unix.

Nouveau dans la version 2.3.

Les fonctions suivantes prennent un code de statu tel que renvoyé par `system()`, `wait()`, ou `waitpid()` en paramètre. Ils peuvent être utilisés pour déterminer la disposition d'un processus.

`os.WCOREDUMP(status)`

Renvoie `True` si un vidage système (*core dump*) a été généré pour le processus, sinon, renvoie `False`.

Disponibilité : Unix.

Nouveau dans la version 2.3.

`os.WIFCONTINUED(status)`

Renvoie `True` si le processus a été continué après un arrêt du *job control*, renvoie `False` autrement.

Disponibilité : Unix.

Nouveau dans la version 2.3.

`os.WIFSTOPPED(status)`

Renvoie `True` si le processus a été arrêté, sinon renvoie `False`.

Disponibilité : Unix.

`os.WIFSIGNALED(status)`

Renvoie `True` si le processus s'est terminé à cause d'un signal, sinon, renvoie `False`.

Disponibilité : Unix.

`os.WIFEXITED(status)`

Renvoie `True` si le processus s'est terminé en faisant un appel système `exit(2)`, sinon, renvoie `False`.

Disponibilité : Unix.

`os.WEXITSTATUS(status)`

Si `WIFEXITED(status)` vaut `True`, renvoie le paramètre entier de l'appel système `exit(2)`. Sinon, la valeur de retour n'a pas de signification.

Disponibilité : Unix.

`os.WSTOPSIG(status)`

Renvoie le signal qui a causé l'arrêt du processus.

Disponibilité : Unix.

`os.WTERMSIG(status)`

Renvoie le signal qui a amené le processus à quitter.

Disponibilité : Unix.

15.1.6 Diverses informations sur le système

`os.confstr(name)`

Renvoie les valeurs de configuration en chaînes de caractères. *name* spécifie la valeur de configuration à récupérer. Ce peut être une chaîne de caractères représentant le nom d'une valeur système définie dans un nombre de standards (POSIX, Unix 95, Unix 98, et d'autres). Certaines plate-formes définissent des noms supplémentaires également. Les noms connus par le système d'exploitation hôte sont données dans les clefs du dictionnaire `confstr_names`. Pour les variables de configuration qui ne sont pas incluses dans ce *mapping*, passer un entier pour *name* est également accepté.

Si la valeur de configuration spécifiée par *name* n'est pas définie, `None` est renvoyé.

Si *name* est une chaîne de caractères et n'est pas connue, une `ValueError` est levée. Si une valeur spécifique pour *name* n'est pas gérée par le système hôte, même si elle est incluse dans `confstr_names`, une `OSError` est levée avec `errno.EINVAL` pour numéro d'erreur.

Disponibilité : Unix

`os.confstr_names`

Dictionnaire liant les noms acceptés par `confstr()` aux valeurs entières définies pour ces noms par le système d'exploitation hôte. Cela peut être utilisé pour déterminer l'ensemble des noms connus du système.

Disponibilité : Unix.

os.getloadavg()

Renvoie le nombre de processus dans la file d'exécution du système en moyenne dans les dernières 1, 5, et 15 minutes, ou lève une *OSError* si la charge moyenne est impossible à récupérer.

Disponibilité : Unix.

Nouveau dans la version 2.3.

os.sysconf(name)

Renvoie les valeurs de configuration en nombres entiers. Si la valeur de configuration définie par *name* n'est pas spécifiée, -1 est renvoyé. Les commentaires concernant le paramètre *name* de *confstr()* s'appliquent également ici, le dictionnaire qui fournit les informations sur les noms connus est donné par *sysconf_names*.

Disponibilité : Unix.

os.sysconf_names

Dictionnaire liant les noms acceptés par *sysconf()* aux valeurs entières définies pour ces noms par le système d'exploitation hôte. Cela peut être utilisé pour déterminer l'ensemble des noms connus du système.

Disponibilité : Unix.

Les valeurs suivantes sont utilisées pour gérer les opérations de manipulations de chemins. Elles sont définies pour toutes les plate-formes.

Des opérations de plus haut niveau sur les chemins sont définies dans le module *os.path*.

os.curdir

La chaîne de caractère constante utilisée par le système d'exploitation pour référencer le répertoire actuel. Ça vaut '.' pour Windows et POSIX. Également disponible par *os.path*.

os.pardir

La chaîne de caractère constante utilisée par le système d'exploitation pour référencer le répertoire parent. Ça vaut '..' pour Windows et POSIX. Également disponible par *os.path*.

os.sep

Le caractère utilisé par le système d'exploitation pour séparer les composantes des chemins. C'est '/' pour POSIX, et '\\' pour Windows. Notez que ce n'est pas suffisant pour pouvoir analyser ou concaténer correctement des chemins (utilisez alors *os.path.split()* et *os.path.join()*), mais ça peut s'avérer utile occasionnellement. Également disponible par *os.path*.

os.altsep

Un caractère alternatif utilisé par le système d'exploitation pour séparer les composantes des chemins, ou *None* si un seul séparateur existe. Ça vaut '/' sur Windows où *sep* est un antislash '\\'. Également disponible par *os.path*.

os.extsep

Le caractère qui sépare la base du nom d'un fichier et son extension. Par exemple, le '.' de *os.py*. Également disponible par *os.path*.

Nouveau dans la version 2.2.

os.pathsep

Le caractère conventionnellement utilisé par le système d'exploitation pour séparer la recherche des composantes de chemin (comme dans la variable d'environnement *PATH*). Cela vaut ':' pour POSIX, ou ';' pour Windows. Également disponible par *os.path*.

os.defpath

Le chemin de recherche par défaut utilisé par *exec** et *spawn** si l'environnement n'a pas une clef 'PATH'. Également disponible par *os.path*.

os.linesep

La chaîne de caractères utilisée pour séparer (ou plutôt pour terminer) les lignes sur la plate-forme actuelle. Ce peut être un caractère unique (comme `'\n'` pour POSIX,) ou plusieurs caractères (comme `'\r\n'` pour Windows). N'utilisez pas `os.linesep` comme terminateur de ligne quand vous écrivez dans un fichier ouvert en mode *texte* (par défaut). Utilisez un unique `'\n'` à la place, sur toutes les plate-formes.

os.devnull

Le chemin de fichier du périphérique *null*. Par exemple : `'/dev/null'` pour POSIX, `'nul'` pour Windows. Également disponible par `os.path`.

Nouveau dans la version 2.4.

15.1.7 Diverses fonctions

os.urandom(*n*)

Retourne une chaîne de *n* bytes aléatoires applicables à un usage cryptographique.

This function returns random bytes from an OS-specific randomness source. The returned data should be unpredictable enough for cryptographic applications, though its exact quality depends on the OS implementation. On a UNIX-like system this will query `/dev/urandom`, and on Windows it will use `CryptGenRandom()`. If a randomness source is not found, `NotImplementedError` will be raised.

Pour une interface facile d'utilisation aux générateurs de nombres aléatoires fournis par votre plate-forme, voir `random.SystemRandom`.

Nouveau dans la version 2.4.

15.2 io — Core tools for working with streams

Nouveau dans la version 2.6.

The *io* module provides the Python interfaces to stream handling. Under Python 2.x, this is proposed as an alternative to the built-in *file* object, but in Python 3.x it is the default interface to access files and streams.

Note : Since this module has been designed primarily for Python 3.x, you have to be aware that all uses of « bytes » in this document refer to the *str* type (of which `bytes` is an alias), and all uses of « text » refer to the *unicode* type. Furthermore, those two types are not interchangeable in the *io* APIs.

At the top of the I/O hierarchy is the abstract base class *IOBase*. It defines the basic interface to a stream. Note, however, that there is no separation between reading and writing to streams; implementations are allowed to raise an *IOError* if they do not support a given operation.

Extending *IOBase* is *RawIOBase* which deals simply with the reading and writing of raw bytes to a stream. *FileIO* subclasses *RawIOBase* to provide an interface to files in the machine's file system.

BufferedIOBase deals with buffering on a raw byte stream (*RawIOBase*). Its subclasses, *BufferedWriter*, *BufferedReader*, and *BufferedRWPair* buffer streams that are readable, writable, and both readable and writable. *BufferedRandom* provides a buffered interface to random access streams. *BytesIO* is a simple stream of in-memory bytes.

Another *IOBase* subclass, *TextIOBase*, deals with streams whose bytes represent text, and handles encoding and decoding from and to *unicode* strings. *TextIOWrapper*, which extends it, is a buffered text interface to a buffered raw stream (*BufferedIOBase*). Finally, *StringIO* is an in-memory stream for unicode text.

Argument names are not part of the specification, and only the arguments of `open()` are intended to be used as keyword arguments.

15.2.1 Module Interface

`io.DEFAULT_BUFFER_SIZE`

An int containing the default buffer size used by the module's buffered I/O classes. `open()` uses the file's blksize (as obtained by `os.stat()`) if possible.

`io.open(file, mode='r', buffering=-1, encoding=None, errors=None, newline=None, closefd=True)`

Open *file* and return a corresponding stream. If the file cannot be opened, an `IOError` is raised.

file is either a string giving the pathname (absolute or relative to the current working directory) of the file to be opened or an integer file descriptor of the file to be wrapped. (If a file descriptor is given, it is closed when the returned I/O object is closed, unless *closefd* is set to `False`.)

mode is an optional string that specifies the mode in which the file is opened. It defaults to `'r'` which means open for reading in text mode. Other common values are `'w'` for writing (truncating the file if it already exists), and `'a'` for appending (which on *some* Unix systems, means that *all* writes append to the end of the file regardless of the current seek position). In text mode, if *encoding* is not specified the encoding used is platform dependent. (For reading and writing raw bytes use binary mode and leave *encoding* unspecified.) The available modes are :

Carac- tère	Signification
<code>'r'</code>	ouvre en lecture (par défaut)
<code>'w'</code>	ouvre en écriture, tronquant le fichier
<code>'a'</code>	ouvre en écriture, ajoutant à la fin du fichier s'il existe
<code>'b'</code>	mode binaire
<code>'t'</code>	mode texte (par défaut)
<code>'+'</code>	ouvre un fichier pour le modifier (lire et écrire)
<code>'U'</code>	universal newlines mode (for backwards compatibility ; should not be used in new code)

The default mode is `'rt'` (open for reading text). For binary random access, the mode `'w+b'` opens and truncates the file to 0 bytes, while `'r+b'` opens the file without truncation.

Python distinguishes between files opened in binary and text modes, even when the underlying operating system doesn't. Files opened in binary mode (including `'b'` in the *mode* argument) return contents as `bytes` objects without any decoding. In text mode (the default, or when `'t'` is included in the *mode* argument), the contents of the file are returned as `unicode` strings, the bytes having been first decoded using a platform-dependent encoding or using the specified *encoding* if given.

buffering is an optional integer used to set the buffering policy. Pass 0 to switch buffering off (only allowed in binary mode), 1 to select line buffering (only usable in text mode), and an integer > 1 to indicate the size of a fixed-size chunk buffer. When no *buffering* argument is given, the default buffering policy works as follows :

- Binary files are buffered in fixed-size chunks ; the size of the buffer is chosen using a heuristic trying to determine the underlying device's « block size » and falling back on `DEFAULT_BUFFER_SIZE`. On many systems, the buffer will typically be 4096 or 8192 bytes long.
- « Interactive » text files (files for which `isatty()` returns `True`) use line buffering. Other text files use the policy described above for binary files.

encoding is the name of the encoding used to decode or encode the file. This should only be used in text mode. The default encoding is platform dependent (whatever `locale.getpreferredencoding()` returns), but any encoding supported by Python can be used. See the `codecs` module for the list of supported encodings.

errors is an optional string that specifies how encoding and decoding errors are to be handled—this cannot be used in binary mode. Pass `'strict'` to raise a `ValueError` exception if there is an encoding error (the default of `None` has the same effect), or pass `'ignore'` to ignore errors. (Note that ignoring encoding errors can lead to data loss.) `'replace'` causes a replacement marker (such as `'?'`) to be inserted where there is malformed data. When writing, `'xmlcharrefreplace'` (replace with the appropriate XML character reference) or `'backslashreplace'` (replace with backslashed

escape sequences) can be used. Any other error handling name that has been registered with `codecs.register_error()` is also valid.

`newline` controls how *universal newlines* works (it only applies to text mode). It can be `None`, `''`, `'\n'`, `'\r'`, and `'\r\n'`. It works as follows :

- On input, if `newline` is `None`, universal newlines mode is enabled. Lines in the input can end in `'\n'`, `'\r'`, or `'\r\n'`, and these are translated into `'\n'` before being returned to the caller. If it is `''`, universal newlines mode is enabled, but line endings are returned to the caller untranslating. If it has any of the other legal values, input lines are only terminated by the given string, and the line ending is returned to the caller untranslating.
- On output, if `newline` is `None`, any `'\n'` characters written are translated to the system default line separator, `os.linesep`. If `newline` is `''`, no translation takes place. If `newline` is any of the other legal values, any `'\n'` characters written are translated to the given string.

If `closefd` is `False` and a file descriptor rather than a filename was given, the underlying file descriptor will be kept open when the file is closed. If a filename is given `closefd` has no effect and must be `True` (the default).

The type of file object returned by the `open()` function depends on the mode. When `open()` is used to open a file in a text mode (`'w'`, `'r'`, `'wt'`, `'rt'`, etc.), it returns a subclass of `TextIOBase` (specifically `TextIOWrapper`). When used to open a file in a binary mode with buffering, the returned class is a subclass of `BufferedIOBase`. The exact class varies : in read binary mode, it returns a `BufferedReader`; in write binary and append binary modes, it returns a `BufferedWriter`, and in read/write mode, it returns a `BufferedRandom`. When buffering is disabled, the raw stream, a subclass of `RawIOBase`, `FileIO`, is returned.

It is also possible to use an *unicode* or *bytes* string as a file for both reading and writing. For *unicode* strings `StringIO` can be used like a file opened in text mode, and for *bytes* a `BytesIO` can be used like a file opened in a binary mode.

exception `io.BlockingIOError`

Error raised when blocking would occur on a non-blocking stream. It inherits `IOError`.

In addition to those of `IOError`, `BlockingIOError` has one attribute :

`characters_written`

An integer containing the number of characters written to the stream before it blocked.

exception `io.UnsupportedOperation`

An exception inheriting `IOError` and `ValueError` that is raised when an unsupported operation is called on a stream.

15.2.2 I/O Base Classes

class `io.IOBase`

The abstract base class for all I/O classes, acting on streams of bytes. There is no public constructor. This class provides empty abstract implementations for many methods that derived classes can override selectively; the default implementations represent a file that cannot be read, written or seeked.

Even though `IOBase` does not declare `read()`, `readinto()`, or `write()` because their signatures will vary, implementations and clients should consider those methods part of the interface. Also, implementations may raise an `IOError` when operations they do not support are called.

The basic type used for binary data read from or written to a file is `bytes` (also known as `str`). Method arguments may also be `bytearray` or `memoryview` of arrays of bytes. In some cases, such as `readinto()`, a writable object such as `bytearray` is required. Text I/O classes work with *unicode* data.

Modifié dans la version 2.7 : Implementations should support `memoryview` arguments.

Note that calling any method (even inquiries) on a closed stream is undefined. Implementations may raise `IOError` in this case.

`IOBase` (and its subclasses) support the iterator protocol, meaning that an `IOBase` object can be iterated over yielding the lines in a stream. Lines are defined slightly differently depending on whether the

stream is a binary stream (yielding `bytes`), or a text stream (yielding `unicode` strings). See `readline()` below.

`IOBase` is also a context manager and therefore supports the `with` statement. In this example, `file` is closed after the `with` statement's suite is finished—even if an exception occurs :

```
with io.open('spam.txt', 'w') as file:
    file.write(u'Spam and eggs!')
```

`IOBase` provides these data attributes and methods :

close()

Flush and close this stream. This method has no effect if the file is already closed. Once the file is closed, any operation on the file (e.g. reading or writing) will raise a `ValueError`.

As a convenience, it is allowed to call this method more than once ; only the first call, however, will have an effect.

closed

True if the stream is closed.

fileno()

Return the underlying file descriptor (an integer) of the stream if it exists. An `IOError` is raised if the IO object does not use a file descriptor.

flush()

Flush the write buffers of the stream if applicable. This does nothing for read-only and non-blocking streams.

isatty()

Return `True` if the stream is interactive (i.e., connected to a terminal/tty device).

readable()

Return `True` if the stream can be read from. If `False`, `read()` will raise `IOError`.

readline(*limit=-1*)

Read and return one line from the stream. If *limit* is specified, at most *limit* bytes will be read.

The line terminator is always `b'\n'` for binary files ; for text files, the *newline* argument to `open()` can be used to select the line terminator(s) recognized.

readlines(*hint=-1*)

Read and return a list of lines from the stream. *hint* can be specified to control the number of lines read : no more lines will be read if the total size (in bytes/characters) of all lines so far exceeds *hint*.

Note that it's already possible to iterate on file objects using `for line in file: ...` without calling `file.readlines()`.

seek(*offset*[, *whence*])

Change the stream position to the given byte *offset*. *offset* is interpreted relative to the position indicated by *whence*. The default value for *whence* is `SEEK_SET`. Values for *whence* are :

- `SEEK_SET` or 0 – start of the stream (the default) ; *offset* should be zero or positive
- `SEEK_CUR` or 1 – current stream position ; *offset* may be negative
- `SEEK_END` or 2 – end of the stream ; *offset* is usually negative

Return the new absolute position.

Nouveau dans la version 2.7 : The `SEEK_*` constants

seekable()

Return `True` if the stream supports random access. If `False`, `seek()`, `tell()` and `truncate()` will raise `IOError`.

tell()

Return the current stream position.

truncate(*size=None*)

Resize the stream to the given *size* in bytes (or the current position if *size* is not specified). The current stream position isn't changed. This resizing can extend or reduce the current file size. In

case of extension, the contents of the new file area depend on the platform (on most systems, additional bytes are zero-filled, on Windows they're undetermined). The new file size is returned.

writable()

Return **True** if the stream supports writing. If **False**, **write()** and **truncate()** will raise **IOError**.

writelines(*lines*)

Write a list of lines to the stream. Line separators are not added, so it is usual for each of the lines provided to have a line separator at the end.

__del__()

Prepare for object destruction. **IOBase** provides a default implementation of this method that calls the instance's **close()** method.

class io.RawIOBase

Base class for raw binary I/O. It inherits **IOBase**. There is no public constructor.

Raw binary I/O typically provides low-level access to an underlying OS device or API, and does not try to encapsulate it in high-level primitives (this is left to Buffered I/O and Text I/O, described later in this page).

In addition to the attributes and methods from **IOBase**, **RawIOBase** provides the following methods :

read(*n=-1*)

Read up to *n* bytes from the object and return them. As a convenience, if *n* is unspecified or -1, **readall()** is called. Otherwise, only one system call is ever made. Fewer than *n* bytes may be returned if the operating system call returns fewer than *n* bytes.

If 0 bytes are returned, and *n* was not 0, this indicates end of file. If the object is in non-blocking mode and no bytes are available, **None** is returned.

readall()

Read and return all the bytes from the stream until EOF, using multiple calls to the stream if necessary.

readinto(*b*)

Read up to **len(b)** bytes into *b*, and return the number of bytes read. The object *b* should be a pre-allocated, writable array of bytes, either **bytearray** or **memoryview**. If the object is in non-blocking mode and no bytes are available, **None** is returned.

write(*b*)

Write *b* to the underlying raw stream, and return the number of bytes written. The object *b* should be an array of bytes, either **bytes**, **bytearray**, or **memoryview**. The return value can be less than **len(b)**, depending on specifics of the underlying raw stream, and especially if it is in non-blocking mode. **None** is returned if the raw stream is set not to block and no single byte could be readily written to it. The caller may release or mutate *b* after this method returns, so the implementation should only access *b* during the method call.

class io.BufferedIOBase

Base class for binary streams that support some kind of buffering. It inherits **IOBase**. There is no public constructor.

The main difference with **RawIOBase** is that methods **read()**, **readinto()** and **write()** will try (respectively) to read as much input as requested or to consume all given output, at the expense of making perhaps more than one system call.

In addition, those methods can raise **BlockingIOError** if the underlying raw stream is in non-blocking mode and cannot take or give enough data ; unlike their **RawIOBase** counterparts, they will never return **None**.

Besides, the **read()** method does not have a default implementation that defers to **readinto()**.

A typical **BufferedIOBase** implementation should not inherit from a **RawIOBase** implementation, but wrap one, like **BufferedWriter** and **BufferedReader** do.

BufferedIOBase provides or overrides these methods and attribute in addition to those from **IOBase** :

raw

The underlying raw stream (a *RawIOBase* instance) that *BufferedIOBase* deals with. This is not part of the *BufferedIOBase* API and may not exist on some implementations.

detach()

Separate the underlying raw stream from the buffer and return it.

After the raw stream has been detached, the buffer is in an unusable state.

Some buffers, like *BytesIO*, do not have the concept of a single raw stream to return from this method. They raise *UnsupportedOperation*.

Nouveau dans la version 2.7.

read(*n*=-1)

Read and return up to *n* bytes. If the argument is omitted, *None*, or negative, data is read and returned until EOF is reached. An empty bytes object is returned if the stream is already at EOF.

If the argument is positive, and the underlying raw stream is not interactive, multiple raw reads may be issued to satisfy the byte count (unless EOF is reached first). But for interactive raw streams, at most one raw read will be issued, and a short result does not imply that EOF is imminent.

A *BlockingIOError* is raised if the underlying raw stream is in non blocking-mode, and has no data available at the moment.

read1(*n*=-1)

Read and return up to *n* bytes, with at most one call to the underlying raw stream's *read()* method. This can be useful if you are implementing your own buffering on top of a *BufferedIOBase* object.

readinto(*b*)

Read up to *len(b)* bytes into *b*, and return the number of bytes read. The object *b* should be a pre-allocated, writable array of bytes, either *bytearray* or *memoryview*.

Like *read()*, multiple reads may be issued to the underlying raw stream, unless the latter is “interactive”.

A *BlockingIOError* is raised if the underlying raw stream is in non blocking-mode, and has no data available at the moment.

write(*b*)

Write *b*, and return the number of bytes written (always equal to *len(b)*, since if the write fails an *IOError* will be raised). The object *b* should be an array of bytes, either *bytes*, *bytearray*, or *memoryview*. Depending on the actual implementation, these bytes may be readily written to the underlying stream, or held in a buffer for performance and latency reasons.

When in non-blocking mode, a *BlockingIOError* is raised if the data needed to be written to the raw stream but it couldn't accept all the data without blocking.

The caller may release or mutate *b* after this method returns, so the implementation should only access *b* during the method call.

15.2.3 Raw File I/O

class *io.FileIO*(*name*, *mode*='r', *closefd*=True)

FileIO represents an OS-level file containing bytes data. It implements the *RawIOBase* interface (and therefore the *IOBase* interface, too).

The *name* can be one of two things :

- a string representing the path to the file which will be opened ;
- an integer representing the number of an existing OS-level file descriptor to which the resulting *FileIO* object will give access.

The *mode* can be 'r', 'w' or 'a' for reading (default), writing, or appending. The file will be created if it doesn't exist when opened for writing or appending ; it will be truncated when opened for writing. Add a '+' to the mode to allow simultaneous reading and writing.

The *read()* (when called with a positive argument), *readinto()* and *write()* methods on this class will only make one system call.

In addition to the attributes and methods from *IOBase* and *RawIOBase*, *FileIO* provides the following data attributes and methods :

mode

The mode as given in the constructor.

name

The file name. This is the file descriptor of the file when no name is given in the constructor.

15.2.4 Buffered Streams

Buffered I/O streams provide a higher-level interface to an I/O device than raw I/O does.

class `io.BytesIO([initial_bytes])`

A stream implementation using an in-memory bytes buffer. It inherits *BufferedIOBase*.

The optional argument *initial_bytes* is a **bytes** object that contains initial data.

BytesIO provides or overrides these methods in addition to those from *BufferedIOBase* and *IOBase* :

getvalue()

Return **bytes** containing the entire contents of the buffer.

read1()

In *BytesIO*, this is the same as **read()**.

class `io.BufferedReader(raw, buffer_size=DEFAULT_BUFFER_SIZE)`

A buffer providing higher-level access to a readable, sequential *RawIOBase* object. It inherits *BufferedIOBase*. When reading data from this object, a larger amount of data may be requested from the underlying raw stream, and kept in an internal buffer. The buffered data can then be returned directly on subsequent reads.

The constructor creates a *BufferedReader* for the given readable *raw* stream and *buffer_size*. If *buffer_size* is omitted, *DEFAULT_BUFFER_SIZE* is used.

BufferedReader provides or overrides these methods in addition to those from *BufferedIOBase* and *IOBase* :

peek([n])

Return bytes from the stream without advancing the position. At most one single read on the raw stream is done to satisfy the call. The number of bytes returned may be less or more than requested.

read([n])

Read and return *n* bytes, or if *n* is not given or negative, until EOF or if the read call would block in non-blocking mode.

read1(n)

Read and return up to *n* bytes with only one call on the raw stream. If at least one byte is buffered, only buffered bytes are returned. Otherwise, one raw stream read call is made.

class `io.BufferedWriter(raw, buffer_size=DEFAULT_BUFFER_SIZE)`

A buffer providing higher-level access to a writeable, sequential *RawIOBase* object. It inherits *BufferedIOBase*. When writing to this object, data is normally held into an internal buffer. The buffer will be written out to the underlying *RawIOBase* object under various conditions, including :

- when the buffer gets too small for all pending data ;
- when *flush()* is called ;
- when a *seek()* is requested (for *BufferedRandom* objects) ;
- when the *BufferedWriter* object is closed or destroyed.

The constructor creates a *BufferedWriter* for the given writeable *raw* stream. If the *buffer_size* is not given, it defaults to *DEFAULT_BUFFER_SIZE*.

A third argument, *max_buffer_size*, is supported, but unused and deprecated.

BufferedWriter provides or overrides these methods in addition to those from *BufferedIOBase* and *IOBase* :

flush()

Force bytes held in the buffer into the raw stream. A *BlockingIOError* should be raised if the raw stream blocks.

write(b)

Write *b*, and return the number of bytes written. The object *b* should be an array of bytes, either *bytes*, *bytearray*, or *memoryview*. When in non-blocking mode, a *BlockingIOError* is raised if the buffer needs to be written out but the raw stream blocks.

class io.BufferedRandom(raw, buffer_size=DEFAULT_BUFFER_SIZE)

A buffered interface to random access streams. It inherits *BufferedReader* and *BufferedWriter*, and further supports *seek()* and *tell()* functionality.

The constructor creates a reader and writer for a seekable raw stream, given in the first argument. If the *buffer_size* is omitted it defaults to *DEFAULT_BUFFER_SIZE*.

A third argument, *max_buffer_size*, is supported, but unused and deprecated.

BufferedRandom is capable of anything *BufferedReader* or *BufferedWriter* can do.

class io.BufferedRWPair(reader, writer, buffer_size=DEFAULT_BUFFER_SIZE)

A buffered I/O object combining two unidirectional *RawIOBase* objects – one readable, the other writeable – into a single bidirectional endpoint. It inherits *BufferedIOBase*.

reader and *writer* are *RawIOBase* objects that are readable and writeable respectively. If the *buffer_size* is omitted it defaults to *DEFAULT_BUFFER_SIZE*.

A fourth argument, *max_buffer_size*, is supported, but unused and deprecated.

BufferedRWPair implements all of *BufferedIOBase*'s methods except for *detach()*, which raises *UnsupportedOperation*.

Avertissement : *BufferedRWPair* does not attempt to synchronize accesses to its underlying raw streams. You should not pass it the same object as reader and writer ; use *BufferedRandom* instead.

15.2.5 Text I/O

class io.TextIOBase

Base class for text streams. This class provides a unicode character and line based interface to stream I/O. There is no *readinto()* method because Python's *unicode* strings are immutable. It inherits *IOBase*. There is no public constructor.

TextIOBase provides or overrides these data attributes and methods in addition to those from *IOBase* :

encoding

The name of the encoding used to decode the stream's bytes into strings, and to encode strings into bytes.

errors

The error setting of the decoder or encoder.

newlines

A string, a tuple of strings, or *None*, indicating the newlines translated so far. Depending on the implementation and the initial constructor flags, this may not be available.

buffer

The underlying binary buffer (a *BufferedIOBase* instance) that *TextIOBase* deals with. This is not part of the *TextIOBase* API and may not exist on some implementations.

detach()

Separate the underlying binary buffer from the *TextIOBase* and return it.

After the underlying buffer has been detached, the *TextIOBase* is in an unusable state.

Some *TextIOBase* implementations, like *StringIO*, may not have the concept of an underlying buffer and calling this method will raise *UnsupportedOperation*.

Nouveau dans la version 2.7.

read(*n=-1*)

Read and return at most *n* characters from the stream as a single *unicode*. If *n* is negative or *None*, reads until EOF.

readline(*limit=-1*)

Read until newline or EOF and return a single *unicode*. If the stream is already at EOF, an empty string is returned.

If *limit* is specified, at most *limit* characters will be read.

seek(*offset[, whence]*)

Change the stream position to the given *offset*. Behaviour depends on the *whence* parameter. The default value for *whence* is *SEEK_SET*.

- *SEEK_SET* or 0 : seek from the start of the stream (the default); *offset* must either be a number returned by *TextIOBase.tell()*, or zero. Any other *offset* value produces undefined behaviour.
- *SEEK_CUR* or 1 : « seek » to the current position; *offset* must be zero, which is a no-operation (all other values are unsupported).
- *SEEK_END* or 2 : seek to the end of the stream; *offset* must be zero (all other values are unsupported).

Return the new absolute position as an opaque number.

Nouveau dans la version 2.7 : The *SEEK_** constants.

tell()

Return the current stream position as an opaque number. The number does not usually represent a number of bytes in the underlying binary storage.

write(*s*)

Write the *unicode* string *s* to the stream and return the number of characters written.

class *io.TextIOWrapper*(*buffer*, *encoding=None*, *errors=None*, *newline=None*,
line_buffering=False)

A buffered text stream over a *BufferedIOBase* binary stream. It inherits *TextIOBase*.

encoding gives the name of the encoding that the stream will be decoded or encoded with. It defaults to *locale.getpreferredencoding()*.

errors is an optional string that specifies how encoding and decoding errors are to be handled. Pass 'strict' to raise a *ValueError* exception if there is an encoding error (the default of *None* has the same effect), or pass 'ignore' to ignore errors. (Note that ignoring encoding errors can lead to data loss.) 'replace' causes a replacement marker (such as '?') to be inserted where there is malformed data. When writing, 'xmlcharrefreplace' (replace with the appropriate XML character reference) or 'backslashreplace' (replace with backslashed escape sequences) can be used. Any other error handling name that has been registered with *codecs.register_error()* is also valid.

newline controls how line endings are handled. It can be *None*, ' ', '\n', '\r', and '\r\n'. It works as follows :

- On input, if *newline* is *None*, *universal newlines* mode is enabled. Lines in the input can end in '\n', '\r', or '\r\n', and these are translated into '\n' before being returned to the caller. If it is ' ', universal newlines mode is enabled, but line endings are returned to the caller untranslating. If it has any of the other legal values, input lines are only terminated by the given string, and the line ending is returned to the caller untranslating.
- On output, if *newline* is *None*, any '\n' characters written are translated to the system default line separator, *os.linesep*. If *newline* is ' ', no translation takes place. If *newline* is any of the other legal values, any '\n' characters written are translated to the given string.

If *line_buffering* is *True*, *flush()* is implied when a call to write contains a newline character or a carriage return.

TextIOWrapper provides one attribute in addition to those of *TextIOBase* and its parents :

line_buffering

Whether line buffering is enabled.

`class io.StringIO(initial_value=u'', newline=u'\n')`

An in-memory stream for unicode text. It inherits *TextIOWrapper*.

The initial value of the buffer can be set by providing *initial_value*. If newline translation is enabled, newlines will be encoded as if by *write()*. The stream is positioned at the start of the buffer.

The *newline* argument works like that of *TextIOWrapper*. The default is to consider only `\n` characters as ends of lines and to do no newline translation. If *newline* is set to `None`, newlines are written as `\n` on all platforms, but universal newline decoding is still performed when reading.

StringIO provides this method in addition to those from *TextIOWrapper* and its parents :

getvalue()

Return a unicode containing the entire contents of the buffer at any time before the *StringIO* object's *close()* method is called. Newlines are decoded as if by *read()*, although the stream position is not changed.

Example usage :

```
import io

output = io.StringIO()
output.write(u'First line.\n')
output.write(u'Second line.\n')

# Retrieve file contents -- this will be
# u'First line.\nSecond line.\n'
contents = output.getvalue()

# Close object and discard memory buffer --
# .getvalue() will now raise an exception.
output.close()
```

`class io.IncrementalNewlineDecoder`

A helper codec that decodes newlines for *universal newlines* mode. It inherits *codecs.IncrementalDecoder*.

15.2.6 Advanced topics

Here we will discuss several advanced topics pertaining to the concrete I/O implementations described above.

Performance

Binary I/O

By reading and writing only large chunks of data even when the user asks for a single byte, buffered I/O is designed to hide any inefficiency in calling and executing the operating system's unbuffered I/O routines. The gain will vary very much depending on the OS and the kind of I/O which is performed (for example, on some contemporary OSes such as Linux, unbuffered disk I/O can be as fast as buffered I/O). The bottom line, however, is that buffered I/O will offer you predictable performance regardless of the platform and the backing device. Therefore, it is most always preferable to use buffered I/O rather than unbuffered I/O.

Text I/O

Text I/O over a binary storage (such as a file) is significantly slower than binary I/O over the same storage, because it implies conversions from unicode to binary data using a character codec. This can become noticeable if you handle huge amounts of text data (for example very large log files). Also, *TextIOWrapper*.*tell()* and *TextIOWrapper*.*seek()* are both quite slow due to the reconstruction algorithm used.

StringIO, however, is a native in-memory unicode container and will exhibit similar speed to *BytesIO*.

Fils d'exécution

FileIO objects are thread-safe to the extent that the operating system calls (such as `read(2)` under Unix) they are wrapping are thread-safe too.

Binary buffered objects (instances of *BufferedReader*, *BufferedWriter*, *BufferedRandom* and *BufferedRWPair*) protect their internal structures using a lock ; it is therefore safe to call them from multiple threads at once.

TextIOWrapper objects are not thread-safe.

Reentrancy

Binary buffered objects (instances of *BufferedReader*, *BufferedWriter*, *BufferedRandom* and *BufferedRWPair*) are not reentrant. While reentrant calls will not happen in normal situations, they can arise if you are doing I/O in a *signal* handler. If it is attempted to enter a buffered object again while already being accessed *from the same thread*, then a *RuntimeError* is raised.

The above implicitly extends to text files, since the *open()* function will wrap a buffered object inside a *TextIOWrapper*. This includes standard streams and therefore affects the built-in function *print()* as well.

15.3 time — Time access and conversions

This module provides various time-related functions. For related functionality, see also the *datetime* and *calendar* modules.

Although this module is always available, not all functions are available on all platforms. Most of the functions defined in this module call platform C library functions with the same name. It may sometimes be helpful to consult the platform documentation, because the semantics of these functions varies among platforms.

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)`.
- The functions in this module do not handle dates and times before the epoch or far in the future. The cut-off point in the future is determined by the C library ; for Unix, it is typically in 2038.
- **Year 2000 (Y2K) issues** : Python depends on the platform's C library, which generally doesn't have year 2000 issues, since all dates and times are represented internally as seconds since the epoch. Functions accepting a *struct_time* (see below) generally require a 4-digit year. For backward compatibility, 2-digit years are supported if the module variable `accept2dyear` is a non-zero integer ; this variable is initialized to 1 unless the environment variable `PYTHONY2K` is set to a non-empty string, in which case it is initialized to 0. Thus, you can set `PYTHONY2K` to a non-empty string in the environment to require 4-digit years for all year input. When 2-digit years are accepted, they are converted according to the POSIX or X/Open standard : values 69-99 are mapped to 1969-1999, and values 0-68 are mapped to 2000-2068. Values 100-1899 are always illegal.
- UTC is Coordinated Universal Time (formerly known as Greenwich Mean Time, or GMT). 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.

- 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 value as returned by `gmtime()`, `localtime()`, and `strptime()`, and accepted by `asctime()`, `mktime()` and `strftime()`, may be considered as a sequence of 9 integers. The return values of `gmtime()`, `localtime()`, and `strptime()` also offer attribute names for individual fields. See `struct_time` for a description of these objects.
Modifié dans la version 2.2 : The time value sequence was changed from a tuple to a `struct_time`, with the addition of attribute names for the fields.
- Use the following functions to convert between time representations :

De	À	Use
seconds since the epoch	<code>struct_time</code> in UTC	<code>gmtime()</code>
seconds since the epoch	<code>struct_time</code> in local time	<code>localtime()</code>
<code>struct_time</code> in UTC	seconds since the epoch	<code>calendar.timegm()</code>
<code>struct_time</code> in local time	seconds since the epoch	<code>mktime()</code>

The module defines the following functions and data items :

time.accept2dayear

Boolean value indicating whether two-digit year values will be accepted. This is true by default, but will be set to false if the environment variable `PYTHONY2K` has been set to a non-empty string. It may also be modified at run time.

time.altzone

The offset of the local DST timezone, in seconds west of UTC, if one is defined. This is negative if the local DST timezone is east of UTC (as in Western Europe, including the UK). Only use this if daylight is nonzero.

time.asctime(*t*)

Convert a tuple or `struct_time` 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'. If *t* is not provided, the current time as returned by `localtime()` is used. Locale information is not used by `asctime()`.

Note : Unlike the C function of the same name, there is no trailing newline.

Modifié dans la version 2.1 : Allowed *t* to be omitted.

time.clock()

On Unix, return the current processor time as a floating point number expressed in seconds. The precision, and in fact the very definition of the meaning of « processor 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.

On Windows, this function returns wall-clock seconds elapsed since the first call to this function, as a floating point number, based on the Win32 function `QueryPerformanceCounter()`. The resolution is typically better than one microsecond.

time.ctime(*secs*)

Convert a time expressed in seconds since the epoch to a string representing local time. If *secs* is not provided or `None`, the current time as returned by `time()` is used. `ctime(secs)` is equivalent to `asctime(localtime(secs))`. Locale information is not used by `ctime()`.

Modifié dans la version 2.1 : Allowed *secs* to be omitted.

Modifié dans la version 2.4 : If *secs* is `None`, the current time is used.

time.daylight

Nonzero if a DST timezone is defined.

`time.gmtime([secs])`

Convert a time expressed in seconds since the epoch to a *struct_time* in UTC in which the dst flag is always zero. If *secs* is not provided or *None*, the current time as returned by *time()* is used. Fractions of a second are ignored. See above for a description of the *struct_time* object. See *calendar.timegm()* for the inverse of this function.

Modifié dans la version 2.1 : Allowed *secs* to be omitted.

Modifié dans la version 2.4 : If *secs* is *None*, the current time is used.

`time.localtime([secs])`

Like *gmtime()* but converts to local time. If *secs* is not provided or *None*, the current time as returned by *time()* is used. The dst flag is set to 1 when DST applies to the given time.

Modifié dans la version 2.1 : Allowed *secs* to be omitted.

Modifié dans la version 2.4 : If *secs* is *None*, the current time is used.

`time.mktime(t)`

This is the inverse function of *localtime()*. Its argument is the *struct_time* or full 9-tuple (since the dst flag is needed; use -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()*. If the input value cannot be represented as a valid time, either *OverflowError* or *ValueError* will be raised (which depends on whether the invalid value is caught by Python or the underlying C libraries). The earliest date for which it can generate a time is platform-dependent.

`time.sleep(secs)`

Suspend execution of the current thread for the given number of seconds. The argument may be a floating point number to indicate a more precise sleep time. The actual suspension time may be less than that requested because any caught signal will terminate the *sleep()* following execution of that signal's catching routine. Also, the suspension time may be longer than requested by an arbitrary amount because of the scheduling of other activity in the system.

`time.strftime(format[, t])`

Convert a tuple or *struct_time* representing a time as returned by *gmtime()* or *localtime()* to a string as specified by the *format* argument. If *t* is not provided, the current time as returned by *localtime()* is used. *format* must be a string. *ValueError* is raised if any field in *t* is outside of the allowed range. *strftime()* returns a locale dependent byte string; the result may be converted to unicode by doing *strftime(<myformat>).decode(locale.getlocale()[1])*.

Modifié dans la version 2.1 : Allowed *t* to be omitted.

Modifié dans la version 2.4 : *ValueError* raised if a field in *t* is out of range.

Modifié dans la version 2.5 : 0 is now a legal argument for any position in the time tuple; if it is normally illegal the value is forced to a correct one.

The following directives can be embedded in the *format* string. They are shown without the optional field width and precision specification, and are replaced by the indicated characters in the *strftime()* result :

Directive	Signification	Notes
%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	Représentation locale de la date et de l'heure.	
%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	Équivalent local à AM/PM.	(1)
%S	Second as a decimal number [00,61].	(2)
%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.	(3)
%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 Monday are considered to be in week 0.	(3)
%x	Représentation locale de la date.	
%X	Représentation locale de l'heure.	
%y	Year without century as a decimal number [00,99].	
%Y	Année complète sur quatre chiffres.	
%Z	Time zone name (no characters if no time zone exists).	
%%	Un caractère '%' littéral.	

Notes :

- (1) When used with the `strptime()` function, the `%p` directive only affects the output hour field if the `%I` directive is used to parse the hour.
- (2) The range really is 0 to 61; this accounts for leap seconds and the (very rare) double leap seconds.
- (3) When used with the `strptime()` function, `%U` and `%W` are only used in calculations when the day of the week and the year are specified.

Here is an example, a format for dates compatible with that specified in the [RFC 2822](#) Internet email standard.¹

```
>>> from time import gmtime, strftime
>>> strftime("%a, %d %b %Y %H:%M:%S +0000", gmtime())
'Thu, 28 Jun 2001 14:17:15 +0000'
```

Additional directives may be supported on certain platforms, but only the ones listed here have a meaning standardized by ANSI C. To see the full set of format codes supported on your platform, consult the `strftime(3)` documentation.

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.

1. The use of `%Z` is now deprecated, but the `%z` escape that expands to the preferred hour/minute offset is not supported by all ANSI C libraries. Also, a strict reading of the original 1982 [RFC 822](#) standard calls for a two-digit year (`%y` rather than `%Y`), but practice moved to 4-digit years long before the year 2000. After that, [RFC 822](#) became obsolete and the 4-digit year has been first recommended by [RFC 1123](#) and then mandated by [RFC 2822](#).

`time.strptime(string[, format])`

Parse a string representing a time according to a format. The return value is a `struct_time` as returned by `gmtime()` or `localtime()`.

The `format` parameter uses the same directives as those used by `strftime()`; it defaults to `"%a %b %d %H:%M:%S %Y"` which matches the formatting returned by `ctime()`. If `string` cannot be parsed according to `format`, or if it has excess data after parsing, `ValueError` is raised. The default values used to fill in any missing data when more accurate values cannot be inferred are (1900, 1, 1, 0, 0, 0, 0, 1, -1).

Par exemple :

```
>>> import time
>>> time.strptime("30 Nov 00", "%d %b %y")    # doctest: +NORMALIZE_WHITESPACE
time.struct_time(tm_year=2000, tm_mon=11, tm_mday=30, tm_hour=0, tm_min=0,
                  tm_sec=0, tm_wday=3, tm_yday=335, tm_isdst=-1)
```

Support for the `%Z` directive is based on the values contained in `tzname` and whether `daylight` is true. Because of this, it is platform-specific except for recognizing UTC and GMT which are always known (and are considered to be non-daylight savings timezones).

Only the directives specified in the documentation are supported. Because `strftime()` is implemented per platform it can sometimes offer more directives than those listed. But `strptime()` is independent of any platform and thus does not necessarily support all directives available that are not documented as supported.

`class time.struct_time`

The type of the time value sequence returned by `gmtime()`, `localtime()`, and `strptime()`. It is an object with a *named tuple* interface : values can be accessed by index and by attribute name. The following values are present :

Index	Attribut	Valeurs
0	<code>tm_year</code>	(for example, 1993)
1	<code>tm_mon</code>	range [1, 12]
2	<code>tm_mday</code>	range [1, 31]
3	<code>tm_hour</code>	range [0, 23]
4	<code>tm_min</code>	range [0, 59]
5	<code>tm_sec</code>	range [0, 61]; see (2) in <code>strftime()</code> description
6	<code>tm_wday</code>	range [0, 6], Monday is 0
7	<code>tm_yday</code>	range [1, 366]
8	<code>tm_isdst</code>	0, 1 or -1; see below

Nouveau dans la version 2.2.

Note that unlike the C structure, the month value is a range of [1, 12], not [0, 11]. A year value will be handled as described under *Year 2000 (Y2K) issues* above.

In calls to `mktime()`, `tm_isdst` may be set to 1 when daylight savings time is in effect, and 0 when it is not. A value of -1 indicates that this is not known, and will usually result in the correct state being filled in.

When a tuple with an incorrect length is passed to a function expecting a `struct_time`, or having elements of the wrong type, a `TypeError` is raised.

`time.time()`

Return the time in seconds since the epoch as a floating point number. 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. While this function normally returns non-decreasing values, it can return a lower value than a previous call if the system clock has been set back between the two calls.

`time.timezone`

The offset of the local (non-DST) timezone, in seconds west of UTC (negative in most of Western Europe, positive in the US, zero in the UK).

time.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.

time.tzset()

Reset the time conversion rules used by the library routines. The environment variable TZ specifies how this is done. It will also set the variables **tzname** (from the TZ environment variable), **timezone** (non-DST seconds West of UTC), **altzone** (DST seconds west of UTC) and **daylight** (to 0 if this timezone does not have any daylight saving time rules, or to nonzero if there is a time, past, present or future when daylight saving time applies).

Nouveau dans la version 2.3.

Disponibilité : Unix.

Note : Although in many cases, changing the TZ environment variable may affect the output of functions like *localtime()* without calling *tzset()*, this behavior should not be relied on.

The TZ environment variable should contain no whitespace.

The standard format of the TZ environment variable is (whitespace added for clarity) :

```
std offset [dst [offset [,start[/time], end[/time]]]]
```

Where the components are :

std and dst Three or more alphanumerics giving the timezone abbreviations. These will be propagated into **time.tzname**

offset The offset has the form : $\pm \text{hh}[:\text{mm}[:\text{ss}]]$. This indicates the value added the local time to arrive at UTC. If preceded by a “-“, the timezone is east of the Prime Meridian ; otherwise, it is west. If no offset follows **dst**, summer time is assumed to be one hour ahead of standard time.

start[/time], end[/time] Indicates when to change to and back from DST. The format of the start and end dates are one of the following :

Jn The Julian day *n* ($1 \leq n \leq 365$). Leap days are not counted, so in all years February 28 is day 59 and March 1 is day 60.

n The zero-based Julian day ($0 \leq n \leq 365$). Leap days are counted, and it is possible to refer to February 29.

Mm.n.d The *d*'th day ($0 \leq d \leq 6$) or week *n* of month *m* of the year ($1 \leq n \leq 5$, $1 \leq m \leq 12$, where week 5 means « the last *d* day in month *m* » which may occur in either the fourth or the fifth week). Week 1 is the first week in which the *d*'th day occurs. Day zero is Sunday.

time has the same format as **offset** except that no leading sign (“-“ or “+”) is allowed. The default, if time is not given, is 02 :00 :00.

```
>>> os.environ['TZ'] = 'EST+05EDT,M4.1.0,M10.5.0'
>>> time.tzset()
>>> time.strftime('%X %x %Z')
'02:07:36 05/08/03 EDT'
>>> os.environ['TZ'] = 'AEST-10AEDT-11,M10.5.0,M3.5.0'
>>> time.tzset()
>>> time.strftime('%X %x %Z')
'16:08:12 05/08/03 AEST'
```

On many Unix systems (including *BSD, Linux, Solaris, and Darwin), it is more convenient to use the system's zoneinfo (*tzfile(5)*) database to specify the timezone rules. To do this, set the TZ environment variable to the path of the required timezone datafile, relative to the root of the systems

“zoneinfo” timezone database, usually located at `/usr/share/zoneinfo`. For example, `'US/Eastern'`, `'Australia/Melbourne'`, `'Egypt'` or `'Europe/Amsterdam'`.

```
>>> os.environ['TZ'] = 'US/Eastern'
>>> time.tzset()
>>> time.tzname
('EST', 'EDT')
>>> os.environ['TZ'] = 'Egypt'
>>> time.tzset()
>>> time.tzname
('EET', 'EEST')
```

Voir aussi :

Module `datetime` More object-oriented interface to dates and times.

Module `locale` Internationalization services. The locale setting affects the interpretation of many format specifiers in `strftime()` and `strptime()`.

Module `calendar` General calendar-related functions. `timegm()` is the inverse of `gmtime()` from this module.

Notes

15.4 argparse – Parseur d’arguments, d’options, et de sous-commandes de ligne de commande

Nouveau dans la version 2.7.

Code source : [Lib/argparse.py](#)

Tutoriel

Cette page est la référence de l’API. Pour une introduction plus en douceur à l’analyse des arguments de la ligne de commande, regardez le tutoriel `argparse`.

The `argparse` module makes it easy to write user-friendly command-line interfaces. The program defines what arguments it requires, and `argparse` will figure out how to parse those out of `sys.argv`. The `argparse` module also automatically generates help and usage messages and issues errors when users give the program invalid arguments.

15.4.1 Exemple

Le code suivant est un programme Python acceptant une liste de nombre entiers et en donnant soit la somme, soit le maximum :

```
import argparse

parser = argparse.ArgumentParser(description='Process some integers.')
parser.add_argument('integers', metavar='N', type=int, nargs='+',
                    help='an integer for the accumulator')
parser.add_argument('--sum', dest='accumulate', action='store_const',
                    const=sum, default=max,
```

(suite sur la page suivante)

(suite de la page précédente)

```
        help='sum the integers (default: find the max)')

args = parser.parse_args()
print args.accumulate(args.integers)
```

Assuming the Python code above is saved into a file called `prog.py`, it can be run at the command line and provides useful help messages :

```
$ python prog.py -h
usage: prog.py [-h] [--sum] N [N ...]

Process some integers.

positional arguments:
  N              an integer for the accumulator

optional arguments:
  -h, --help    show this help message and exit
  --sum         sum the integers (default: find the max)
```

When run with the appropriate arguments, it prints either the sum or the max of the command-line integers :

```
$ python prog.py 1 2 3 4
4

$ python prog.py 1 2 3 4 --sum
10
```

If invalid arguments are passed in, it will issue an error :

```
$ python prog.py a b c
usage: prog.py [-h] [--sum] N [N ...]
prog.py: error: argument N: invalid int value: 'a'
```

The following sections walk you through this example.

Créer un analyseur (*parser en anglais*)

The first step in using the `argparse` is creating an `ArgumentParser` object :

```
>>> parser = argparse.ArgumentParser(description='Process some integers.')
```

The `ArgumentParser` object will hold all the information necessary to parse the command line into Python data types.

Ajouter des arguments

Filling an `ArgumentParser` with information about program arguments is done by making calls to the `add_argument()` method. Generally, these calls tell the `ArgumentParser` how to take the strings on the command line and turn them into objects. This information is stored and used when `parse_args()` is called. For example :

```
>>> parser.add_argument('integers', metavar='N', type=int, nargs='+',
...                       help='an integer for the accumulator')
>>> parser.add_argument('--sum', dest='accumulate', action='store_const',
...                       const=sum, default=max,
...                       help='sum the integers (default: find the max)')
```

Later, calling `parse_args()` will return an object with two attributes, `integers` and `accumulate`. The `integers` attribute will be a list of one or more ints, and the `accumulate` attribute will be either the `sum()` function, if `--sum` was specified at the command line, or the `max()` function if it was not.

Analyse des arguments

`ArgumentParser` parses arguments through the `parse_args()` method. This will inspect the command line, convert each argument to the appropriate type and then invoke the appropriate action. In most cases, this means a simple `Namespace` object will be built up from attributes parsed out of the command line :

```
>>> parser.parse_args(['--sum', '7', '-1', '42'])
Namespace(accumulate=<built-in function sum>, integers=[7, -1, 42])
```

In a script, `parse_args()` will typically be called with no arguments, and the `ArgumentParser` will automatically determine the command-line arguments from `sys.argv`.

15.4.2 Objets ArgumentParser

```
class argparse.ArgumentParser(prog=None, usage=None, description=None, epilog=None,
                             parents=[], formatter_class=argparse.HelpFormatter,
                             prefix_chars='-', fromfile_prefix_chars=None, argument_default=None, conflict_handler='error', add_help=True)
```

Create a new `ArgumentParser` object. All parameters should be passed as keyword arguments. Each parameter has its own more detailed description below, but in short they are :

- `prog` - The name of the program (default : `sys.argv[0]`)
- `usage` - The string describing the program usage (default : generated from arguments added to parser)
- `description` - Text to display before the argument help (default : none)
- `epilog` - Text to display after the argument help (default : none)
- `parents` - A list of `ArgumentParser` objects whose arguments should also be included
- `formatter_class` - A class for customizing the help output
- `prefix_chars` - The set of characters that prefix optional arguments (default : “-“)
- `fromfile_prefix_chars` - The set of characters that prefix files from which additional arguments should be read (default : None)
- `argument_default` - The global default value for arguments (default : None)
- `conflict_handler` - The strategy for resolving conflicting optionals (usually unnecessary)
- `add_help` - Add a `-h/--help` option to the parser (default : True)

The following sections describe how each of these are used.

prog

By default, `ArgumentParser` objects use `sys.argv[0]` to determine how to display the name of the program in help messages. This default is almost always desirable because it will make the help messages match how the program was invoked on the command line. For example, consider a file named `myprogram.py` with the following code :

```
import argparse
parser = argparse.ArgumentParser()
parser.add_argument('--foo', help='foo help')
args = parser.parse_args()
```

The help for this program will display `myprogram.py` as the program name (regardless of where the program was invoked from) :

```
$ python myprogram.py --help
usage: myprogram.py [-h] [--foo F00]

optional arguments:
  -h, --help  show this help message and exit
  --foo F00   foo help
$ cd ..
$ python subdir/myprogram.py --help
usage: myprogram.py [-h] [--foo F00]

optional arguments:
  -h, --help  show this help message and exit
  --foo F00   foo help
```

To change this default behavior, another value can be supplied using the `prog=` argument to *ArgumentParser* :

```
>>> parser = argparse.ArgumentParser(prog='myprogram')
>>> parser.print_help()
usage: myprogram [-h]

optional arguments:
  -h, --help  show this help message and exit
```

Note that the program name, whether determined from `sys.argv[0]` or from the `prog=` argument, is available to help messages using the `%(prog)s` format specifier.

```
>>> parser = argparse.ArgumentParser(prog='myprogram')
>>> parser.add_argument('--foo', help='foo of the %(prog)s program')
>>> parser.print_help()
usage: myprogram [-h] [--foo F00]

optional arguments:
  -h, --help  show this help message and exit
  --foo F00   foo of the myprogram program
```

usage

By default, *ArgumentParser* calculates the usage message from the arguments it contains :

```
>>> parser = argparse.ArgumentParser(prog='PROG')
>>> parser.add_argument('--foo', nargs='?', help='foo help')
>>> parser.add_argument('bar', nargs='+', help='bar help')
>>> parser.print_help()
usage: PROG [-h] [--foo [F00]] bar [bar ...]
```

(suite sur la page suivante)

(suite de la page précédente)

```
positional arguments:
  bar            bar help

optional arguments:
  -h, --help    show this help message and exit
  --foo [F00]   foo help
```

The default message can be overridden with the `usage=` keyword argument :

```
>>> parser = argparse.ArgumentParser(prog='PROG', usage='%(prog)s [options]')
>>> parser.add_argument('--foo', nargs='?', help='foo help')
>>> parser.add_argument('bar', nargs='+', help='bar help')
>>> parser.print_help()
usage: PROG [options]

positional arguments:
  bar            bar help

optional arguments:
  -h, --help    show this help message and exit
  --foo [F00]   foo help
```

The `%(prog)s` format specifier is available to fill in the program name in your usage messages.

description

Most calls to the `ArgumentParser` constructor will use the `description=` keyword argument. This argument gives a brief description of what the program does and how it works. In help messages, the description is displayed between the command-line usage string and the help messages for the various arguments :

```
>>> parser = argparse.ArgumentParser(description='A foo that bars')
>>> parser.print_help()
usage: argparse.py [-h]

A foo that bars

optional arguments:
  -h, --help    show this help message and exit
```

By default, the description will be line-wrapped so that it fits within the given space. To change this behavior, see the `formatter_class` argument.

epilog

Some programs like to display additional description of the program after the description of the arguments. Such text can be specified using the `epilog=` argument to `ArgumentParser` :

```
>>> parser = argparse.ArgumentParser(
...     description='A foo that bars',
...     epilog="And that's how you'd foo a bar")
>>> parser.print_help()
usage: argparse.py [-h]
```

(suite sur la page suivante)

(suite de la page précédente)

```
A foo that bars

optional arguments:
  -h, --help  show this help message and exit

And that's how you'd foo a bar
```

As with the *description* argument, the `epilog=` text is by default line-wrapped, but this behavior can be adjusted with the *formatter_class* argument to *ArgumentParser*.

parents

Sometimes, several parsers share a common set of arguments. Rather than repeating the definitions of these arguments, a single parser with all the shared arguments and passed to `parents=` argument to *ArgumentParser* can be used. The `parents=` argument takes a list of *ArgumentParser* objects, collects all the positional and optional actions from them, and adds these actions to the *ArgumentParser* object being constructed :

```
>>> parent_parser = argparse.ArgumentParser(add_help=False)
>>> parent_parser.add_argument('--parent', type=int)

>>> foo_parser = argparse.ArgumentParser(parents=[parent_parser])
>>> foo_parser.add_argument('foo')
>>> foo_parser.parse_args(['--parent', '2', 'XXX'])
Namespace(foo='XXX', parent=2)

>>> bar_parser = argparse.ArgumentParser(parents=[parent_parser])
>>> bar_parser.add_argument('--bar')
>>> bar_parser.parse_args(['--bar', 'YYY'])
Namespace(bar='YYY', parent=None)
```

Note that most parent parsers will specify `add_help=False`. Otherwise, the *ArgumentParser* will see two `-h/--help` options (one in the parent and one in the child) and raise an error.

Note : You must fully initialize the parsers before passing them via `parents=`. If you change the parent parsers after the child parser, those changes will not be reflected in the child.

formatter_class

ArgumentParser objects allow the help formatting to be customized by specifying an alternate formatting class. Currently, there are three such classes :

```
class argparse.RawDescriptionHelpFormatter
class argparse.RawTextHelpFormatter
class argparse.ArgumentDefaultsHelpFormatter
```

The first two allow more control over how textual descriptions are displayed, while the last automatically adds information about argument default values.

By default, *ArgumentParser* objects line-wrap the *description* and *epilog* texts in command-line help messages :

```
>>> parser = argparse.ArgumentParser(
...     prog='PROG',
...     description='''this description
...         was indented weird
...         but that is okay''',
...     epilog='''
...         likewise for this epilog whose whitespace will
...         be cleaned up and whose words will be wrapped
...         across a couple lines''')
>>> parser.print_help()
usage: PROG [-h]

this description was indented weird but that is okay

optional arguments:
  -h, --help  show this help message and exit

likewise for this epilog whose whitespace will be cleaned up and whose words
will be wrapped across a couple lines
```

Passing *RawDescriptionHelpFormatter* as `formatter_class=` indicates that *description* and *epilog* are already correctly formatted and should not be line-wrapped :

```
>>> parser = argparse.ArgumentParser(
...     prog='PROG',
...     formatter_class=argparse.RawDescriptionHelpFormatter,
...     description=textwrap.dedent('''\
...         Please do not mess up this text!
...         -----
...         I have indented it
...         exactly the way
...         I want it
...     '''))
>>> parser.print_help()
usage: PROG [-h]

Please do not mess up this text!
-----

    I have indented it
    exactly the way
    I want it

optional arguments:
  -h, --help  show this help message and exit
```

RawTextHelpFormatter maintains whitespace for all sorts of help text, including argument descriptions. However, multiple new lines are replaced with one. If you wish to preserve multiple blank lines, add spaces between the newlines.

The other formatter class available, *ArgumentDefaultsHelpFormatter*, will add information about the default value of each of the arguments :

```
>>> parser = argparse.ArgumentParser(
```

(suite sur la page suivante)

(suite de la page précédente)

```

...     prog='PROG',
...     formatter_class=argparse.ArgumentDefaultsHelpFormatter)
>>> parser.add_argument('--foo', type=int, default=42, help='FOO!')
>>> parser.add_argument('bar', nargs='*', default=[1, 2, 3], help='BAR!')
>>> parser.print_help()
usage: PROG [-h] [--foo FOO] [bar [bar ...]]

positional arguments:
  bar          BAR! (default: [1, 2, 3])

optional arguments:
  -h, --help  show this help message and exit
  --foo FOO   FOO! (default: 42)

```

prefix_chars

Most command-line options will use `-` as the prefix, e.g. `-f/--foo`. Parsers that need to support different or additional prefix characters, e.g. for options like `+f` or `/foo`, may specify them using the `prefix_chars=` argument to the `ArgumentParser` constructor :

```

>>> parser = argparse.ArgumentParser(prog='PROG', prefix_chars='+-')
>>> parser.add_argument('+f')
>>> parser.add_argument('++bar')
>>> parser.parse_args('+f X ++bar Y'.split())
Namespace(bar='Y', f='X')

```

The `prefix_chars=` argument defaults to `'-'`. Supplying a set of characters that does not include `-` will cause `-f/--foo` options to be disallowed.

fromfile_prefix_chars

Sometimes, for example when dealing with a particularly long argument lists, it may make sense to keep the list of arguments in a file rather than typing it out at the command line. If the `fromfile_prefix_chars=` argument is given to the `ArgumentParser` constructor, then arguments that start with any of the specified characters will be treated as files, and will be replaced by the arguments they contain. For example :

```

>>> with open('args.txt', 'w') as fp:
...     fp.write('-f\nbar')
>>> parser = argparse.ArgumentParser(fromfile_prefix_chars='@')
>>> parser.add_argument('-f')
>>> parser.parse_args(['-f', 'foo', '@args.txt'])
Namespace(f='bar')

```

Arguments read from a file must by default be one per line (but see also `convert_arg_line_to_args()`) and are treated as if they were in the same place as the original file referencing argument on the command line. So in the example above, the expression `['-f', 'foo', '@args.txt']` is considered equivalent to the expression `['-f', 'foo', '-f', 'bar']`.

The `fromfile_prefix_chars=` argument defaults to `None`, meaning that arguments will never be treated as file references.

argument_default

Generally, argument defaults are specified either by passing a default to `add_argument()` or by calling the `set_defaults()` methods with a specific set of name-value pairs. Sometimes however, it may be useful to specify a single parser-wide default for arguments. This can be accomplished by passing the `argument_default=` keyword argument to `ArgumentParser`. For example, to globally suppress attribute creation on `parse_args()` calls, we supply `argument_default=SUPPRESS` :

```
>>> parser = argparse.ArgumentParser(argument_default=argparse.SUPPRESS)
>>> parser.add_argument('--foo')
>>> parser.add_argument('bar', nargs='?')
>>> parser.parse_args(['--foo', '1', 'BAR'])
Namespace(bar='BAR', foo='1')
>>> parser.parse_args([])
Namespace()
```

conflict_handler

`ArgumentParser` objects do not allow two actions with the same option string. By default, `ArgumentParser` objects raise an exception if an attempt is made to create an argument with an option string that is already in use :

```
>>> parser = argparse.ArgumentParser(prog='PROG')
>>> parser.add_argument('-f', '--foo', help='old foo help')
>>> parser.add_argument('--foo', help='new foo help')
Traceback (most recent call last):
..
ArgumentError: argument --foo: conflicting option string(s): --foo
```

Sometimes (e.g. when using `parents`) it may be useful to simply override any older arguments with the same option string. To get this behavior, the value `'resolve'` can be supplied to the `conflict_handler=` argument of `ArgumentParser` :

```
>>> parser = argparse.ArgumentParser(prog='PROG', conflict_handler='resolve')
>>> parser.add_argument('-f', '--foo', help='old foo help')
>>> parser.add_argument('--foo', help='new foo help')
>>> parser.print_help()
usage: PROG [-h] [-f F00] [--foo F00]

optional arguments:
  -h, --help  show this help message and exit
  -f F00      old foo help
  --foo F00   new foo help
```

Note that `ArgumentParser` objects only remove an action if all of its option strings are overridden. So, in the example above, the old `-f/--foo` action is retained as the `-f` action, because only the `--foo` option string was overridden.

add_help

By default, `ArgumentParser` objects add an option which simply displays the parser's help message. For example, consider a file named `myprogram.py` containing the following code :

```
import argparse
parser = argparse.ArgumentParser()
```

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```
parser.add_argument('--foo', help='foo help')
args = parser.parse_args()
```

If `-h` or `--help` is supplied at the command line, the `ArgumentParser` help will be printed :

```
$ python myprogram.py --help
usage: myprogram.py [-h] [--foo F00]

optional arguments:
  -h, --help  show this help message and exit
  --foo F00   foo help
```

Occasionally, it may be useful to disable the addition of this help option. This can be achieved by passing `False` as the `add_help=` argument to `ArgumentParser` :

```
>>> parser = argparse.ArgumentParser(prog='PROG', add_help=False)
>>> parser.add_argument('--foo', help='foo help')
>>> parser.print_help()
usage: PROG [--foo F00]

optional arguments:
  --foo F00   foo help
```

The help option is typically `-h/--help`. The exception to this is if the `prefix_chars=` is specified and does not include `-`, in which case `-h` and `--help` are not valid options. In this case, the first character in `prefix_chars` is used to prefix the help options :

```
>>> parser = argparse.ArgumentParser(prog='PROG', prefix_chars='+/')
>>> parser.print_help()
usage: PROG [+h]

optional arguments:
  +h, ++help  show this help message and exit
```

15.4.3 La méthode `add_argument()`

`ArgumentParser.add_argument(name or flags...[, action][, nargs][, const][, default][, type][, choices][, required][, help][, metavar][, dest])`

Define how a single command-line argument should be parsed. Each parameter has its own more detailed description below, but in short they are :

- *name or flags* - Either a name or a list of option strings, e.g. `foo` or `-f`, `--foo`.
- *action* - The basic type of action to be taken when this argument is encountered at the command line.
- *nargs* - The number of command-line arguments that should be consumed.
- *const* - A constant value required by some *action* and *nargs* selections.
- *default* - The value produced if the argument is absent from the command line.
- *type* - The type to which the command-line argument should be converted.
- *choices* - A container of the allowable values for the argument.
- *required* - Whether or not the command-line option may be omitted (optionals only).
- *help* - A brief description of what the argument does.
- *metavar* - A name for the argument in usage messages.
- *dest* - The name of the attribute to be added to the object returned by `parse_args()`.

The following sections describe how each of these are used.

nom ou option

The `add_argument()` method must know whether an optional argument, like `-f` or `--foo`, or a positional argument, like a list of filenames, is expected. The first arguments passed to `add_argument()` must therefore be either a series of flags, or a simple argument name. For example, an optional argument could be created like :

```
>>> parser.add_argument('-f', '--foo')
```

while a positional argument could be created like :

```
>>> parser.add_argument('bar')
```

When `parse_args()` is called, optional arguments will be identified by the `-` prefix, and the remaining arguments will be assumed to be positional :

```
>>> parser = argparse.ArgumentParser(prog='PROG')
>>> parser.add_argument('-f', '--foo')
>>> parser.add_argument('bar')
>>> parser.parse_args(['BAR'])
Namespace(bar='BAR', foo=None)
>>> parser.parse_args(['BAR', '--foo', 'FOO'])
Namespace(bar='BAR', foo='FOO')
>>> parser.parse_args(['--foo', 'FOO'])
usage: PROG [-h] [-f FOO] bar
PROG: error: too few arguments
```

action

`ArgumentParser` objects associate command-line arguments with actions. These actions can do just about anything with the command-line arguments associated with them, though most actions simply add an attribute to the object returned by `parse_args()`. The `action` keyword argument specifies how the command-line arguments should be handled. The supported actions are :

- `'store'` - This just stores the argument's value. This is the default action. For example :

```
>>> parser = argparse.ArgumentParser()
>>> parser.add_argument('--foo')
>>> parser.parse_args('--foo 1'.split())
Namespace(foo='1')
```

- `'store_const'` - This stores the value specified by the `const` keyword argument. The `'store_const'` action is most commonly used with optional arguments that specify some sort of flag. For example :

```
>>> parser = argparse.ArgumentParser()
>>> parser.add_argument('--foo', action='store_const', const=42)
>>> parser.parse_args(['--foo'])
Namespace(foo=42)
```

- `'store_true'` and `'store_false'` - These are special cases of `'store_const'` using for storing the values `True` and `False` respectively. In addition, they create default values of `False` and `True` respectively. For example :

```
>>> parser = argparse.ArgumentParser()
>>> parser.add_argument('--foo', action='store_true')
>>> parser.add_argument('--bar', action='store_false')
>>> parser.add_argument('--baz', action='store_false')
>>> parser.parse_args('--foo --bar'.split())
Namespace(bar=False, baz=True, foo=True)
```

- 'append' - This stores a list, and appends each argument value to the list. This is useful to allow an option to be specified multiple times. Example usage :

```
>>> parser = argparse.ArgumentParser()
>>> parser.add_argument('--foo', action='append')
>>> parser.parse_args('--foo 1 --foo 2'.split())
Namespace(foo=['1', '2'])
```

- 'append_const' - This stores a list, and appends the value specified by the *const* keyword argument to the list. (Note that the *const* keyword argument defaults to None.) The 'append_const' action is typically useful when multiple arguments need to store constants to the same list. For example :

```
>>> parser = argparse.ArgumentParser()
>>> parser.add_argument('--str', dest='types', action='append_const', const=str)
>>> parser.add_argument('--int', dest='types', action='append_const', const=int)
>>> parser.parse_args('--str --int'.split())
Namespace(types=[<type 'str'>, <type 'int'>])
```

- 'count' - This counts the number of times a keyword argument occurs. For example, this is useful for increasing verbosity levels :

```
>>> parser = argparse.ArgumentParser()
>>> parser.add_argument('--verbose', '-v', action='count')
>>> parser.parse_args(['-vvv'])
Namespace(verbose=3)
```

- 'help' - This prints a complete help message for all the options in the current parser and then exits. By default a help action is automatically added to the parser. See *ArgumentParser* for details of how the output is created.
- 'version' - This expects a *version=* keyword argument in the *add_argument()* call, and prints version information and exits when invoked :

```
>>> import argparse
>>> parser = argparse.ArgumentParser(prog='PROG')
>>> parser.add_argument('--version', action='version', version='%(prog)s 2.0')
>>> parser.parse_args(['--version'])
PROG 2.0
```

You may also specify an arbitrary action by passing an Action subclass or other object that implements the same interface. The recommended way to do this is to extend *Action*, overriding the *__call__* method and optionally the *__init__* method.

Un exemple d'action personnalisée :

```
>>> class FooAction(argparse.Action):
...     def __init__(self, option_strings, dest, nargs=None, **kwargs):
...         if nargs is not None:
...             raise ValueError("nargs not allowed")
...         super(FooAction, self).__init__(option_strings, dest, **kwargs)
...     def __call__(self, parser, namespace, values, option_string=None):
```

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```

...     print '%r %r %r' % (namespace, values, option_string)
...     setattr(namespace, self.dest, values)
...
>>> parser = argparse.ArgumentParser()
>>> parser.add_argument('--foo', action=FooAction)
>>> parser.add_argument('bar', action=FooAction)
>>> args = parser.parse_args('1 --foo 2'.split())
Namespace(bar=None, foo=None) '1' None
Namespace(bar='1', foo=None) '2' '--foo'
>>> args
Namespace(bar='1', foo='2')

```

Pour plus d'information, voir [Action](#).

nargs

ArgumentParser objects usually associate a single command-line argument with a single action to be taken. The **nargs** keyword argument associates a different number of command-line arguments with a single action. The supported values are :

- **N** (an integer). **N** arguments from the command line will be gathered together into a list. For example :

```

>>> parser = argparse.ArgumentParser()
>>> parser.add_argument('--foo', nargs=2)
>>> parser.add_argument('bar', nargs=1)
>>> parser.parse_args('c --foo a b'.split())
Namespace(bar=['c'], foo=['a', 'b'])

```

Note that **nargs=1** produces a list of one item. This is different from the default, in which the item is produced by itself.

- **'?'**. One argument will be consumed from the command line if possible, and produced as a single item. If no command-line argument is present, the value from *default* will be produced. Note that for optional arguments, there is an additional case - the option string is present but not followed by a command-line argument. In this case the value from *const* will be produced. Some examples to illustrate this :

```

>>> parser = argparse.ArgumentParser()
>>> parser.add_argument('--foo', nargs='?', const='c', default='d')
>>> parser.add_argument('bar', nargs='?', default='d')
>>> parser.parse_args(['XX', '--foo', 'YY'])
Namespace(bar='XX', foo='YY')
>>> parser.parse_args(['XX', '--foo'])
Namespace(bar='XX', foo='c')
>>> parser.parse_args([])
Namespace(bar='d', foo='d')

```

One of the more common uses of **nargs='?'** is to allow optional input and output files :

```

>>> parser = argparse.ArgumentParser()
>>> parser.add_argument('infile', nargs='?', type=argparse.FileType('r'),
...                     default=sys.stdin)
>>> parser.add_argument('outfile', nargs='?', type=argparse.FileType('w'),
...                     default=sys.stdout)
>>> parser.parse_args(['input.txt', 'output.txt'])
Namespace(infile=<open file 'input.txt', mode 'r' at 0x...>,

```

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(suite de la page précédente)

```

        outfile=<open file 'output.txt', mode 'w' at 0x...>)
>>> parser.parse_args([])
Namespace(infile=<open file '<stdin>', mode 'r' at 0x...>,
          outfile=<open file '<stdout>', mode 'w' at 0x...>)

```

- `'*'`. All command-line arguments present are gathered into a list. Note that it generally doesn't make much sense to have more than one positional argument with `nargs='*'`, but multiple optional arguments with `nargs='*'` is possible. For example :

```

>>> parser = argparse.ArgumentParser()
>>> parser.add_argument('--foo', nargs='*')
>>> parser.add_argument('--bar', nargs='*')
>>> parser.add_argument('baz', nargs='*')
>>> parser.parse_args('a b --foo x y --bar 1 2'.split())
Namespace(bar=['1', '2'], baz=['a', 'b'], foo=['x', 'y'])

```

- `'+'`. Just like `'*'`, all command-line args present are gathered into a list. Additionally, an error message will be generated if there wasn't at least one command-line argument present. For example :

```

>>> parser = argparse.ArgumentParser(prog='PROG')
>>> parser.add_argument('foo', nargs='+')
>>> parser.parse_args(['a', 'b'])
Namespace(foo=['a', 'b'])
>>> parser.parse_args([])
usage: PROG [-h] foo [foo ...]
PROG: error: too few arguments

```

- `argparse.REMAINDER`. All the remaining command-line arguments are gathered into a list. This is commonly useful for command line utilities that dispatch to other command line utilities :

```

>>> parser = argparse.ArgumentParser(prog='PROG')
>>> parser.add_argument('--foo')
>>> parser.add_argument('command')
>>> parser.add_argument('args', nargs=argparse.REMAINDER)
>>> print parser.parse_args('--foo B cmd --arg1 XX ZZ'.split())
Namespace(args=['--arg1', 'XX', 'ZZ'], command='cmd', foo='B')

```

If the `nargs` keyword argument is not provided, the number of arguments consumed is determined by the *action*. Generally this means a single command-line argument will be consumed and a single item (not a list) will be produced.

const

The `const` argument of `add_argument()` is used to hold constant values that are not read from the command line but are required for the various *ArgumentParser* actions. The two most common uses of it are :

- When `add_argument()` is called with `action='store_const'` or `action='append_const'`. These actions add the `const` value to one of the attributes of the object returned by `parse_args()`. See the *action* description for examples.
- When `add_argument()` is called with option strings (like `-f` or `--foo`) and `nargs='?'`. This creates an optional argument that can be followed by zero or one command-line arguments. When parsing the command line, if the option string is encountered with no command-line argument following it, the value of `const` will be assumed instead. See the *nargs* description for examples.

With the `'store_const'` and `'append_const'` actions, the `const` keyword argument must be given. For other actions, it defaults to `None`.

default

All optional arguments and some positional arguments may be omitted at the command line. The `default` keyword argument of `add_argument()`, whose value defaults to `None`, specifies what value should be used if the command-line argument is not present. For optional arguments, the `default` value is used when the option string was not present at the command line :

```
>>> parser = argparse.ArgumentParser()
>>> parser.add_argument('--foo', default=42)
>>> parser.parse_args(['--foo', '2'])
Namespace(foo='2')
>>> parser.parse_args([])
Namespace(foo=42)
```

If the `default` value is a string, the parser parses the value as if it were a command-line argument. In particular, the parser applies any *type* conversion argument, if provided, before setting the attribute on the *Namespace* return value. Otherwise, the parser uses the value as is :

```
>>> parser = argparse.ArgumentParser()
>>> parser.add_argument('--length', default='10', type=int)
>>> parser.add_argument('--width', default=10.5, type=int)
>>> parser.parse_args()
Namespace(length=10, width=10.5)
```

For positional arguments with *nargs* equal to `?` or `*`, the `default` value is used when no command-line argument was present :

```
>>> parser = argparse.ArgumentParser()
>>> parser.add_argument('foo', nargs='?', default=42)
>>> parser.parse_args(['a'])
Namespace(foo='a')
>>> parser.parse_args([])
Namespace(foo=42)
```

Providing `default=argparse.SUPPRESS` causes no attribute to be added if the command-line argument was not present. :

```
>>> parser = argparse.ArgumentParser()
>>> parser.add_argument('--foo', default=argparse.SUPPRESS)
>>> parser.parse_args([])
Namespace()
>>> parser.parse_args(['--foo', '1'])
Namespace(foo='1')
```

type

By default, *ArgumentParser* objects read command-line arguments in as simple strings. However, quite often the command-line string should instead be interpreted as another type, like a *float* or *int*. The `type` keyword argument of `add_argument()` allows any necessary type-checking and type conversions to be performed. Common built-in types and functions can be used directly as the value of the `type` argument :

```
>>> parser = argparse.ArgumentParser()
>>> parser.add_argument('foo', type=int)
>>> parser.add_argument('bar', type=file)
```

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```
>>> parser.parse_args('2 temp.txt'.split())
Namespace(bar=<open file 'temp.txt', mode 'r' at 0x...>, foo=2)
```

See the section on the [default](#) keyword argument for information on when the `type` argument is applied to default arguments.

To ease the use of various types of files, the `argparse` module provides the factory `FileType` which takes the `mode=` and `bufsize=` arguments of the `file` object. For example, `FileType('w')` can be used to create a writable file :

```
>>> parser = argparse.ArgumentParser()
>>> parser.add_argument('bar', type=argparse.FileType('w'))
>>> parser.parse_args(['out.txt'])
Namespace(bar=<open file 'out.txt', mode 'w' at 0x...>)
```

`type=` can take any callable that takes a single string argument and returns the converted value :

```
>>> def perfect_square(string):
...     value = int(string)
...     sqrt = math.sqrt(value)
...     if sqrt != int(sqrt):
...         msg = "%r is not a perfect square" % string
...         raise argparse.ArgumentTypeError(msg)
...     return value
...
>>> parser = argparse.ArgumentParser(prog='PROG')
>>> parser.add_argument('foo', type=perfect_square)
>>> parser.parse_args(['9'])
Namespace(foo=9)
>>> parser.parse_args(['7'])
usage: PROG [-h] foo
PROG: error: argument foo: '7' is not a perfect square
```

The [choices](#) keyword argument may be more convenient for type checkers that simply check against a range of values :

```
>>> parser = argparse.ArgumentParser(prog='PROG')
>>> parser.add_argument('foo', type=int, choices=xrange(5, 10))
>>> parser.parse_args(['7'])
Namespace(foo=7)
>>> parser.parse_args(['11'])
usage: PROG [-h] {5,6,7,8,9}
PROG: error: argument foo: invalid choice: 11 (choose from 5, 6, 7, 8, 9)
```

Voir la section [choices](#) pour plus de détails.

choices

Some command-line arguments should be selected from a restricted set of values. These can be handled by passing a container object as the `choices` keyword argument to `add_argument()`. When the command line is parsed, argument values will be checked, and an error message will be displayed if the argument was not one of the acceptable values :

```
>>> parser = argparse.ArgumentParser(prog='game.py')
>>> parser.add_argument('move', choices=['rock', 'paper', 'scissors'])
>>> parser.parse_args(['rock'])
Namespace(move='rock')
>>> parser.parse_args(['fire'])
usage: game.py [-h] {rock,paper,scissors}
game.py: error: argument move: invalid choice: 'fire' (choose from 'rock',
'paper', 'scissors')
```

Note that inclusion in the *choices* container is checked after any *type* conversions have been performed, so the type of the objects in the *choices* container should match the *type* specified :

```
>>> parser = argparse.ArgumentParser(prog='doors.py')
>>> parser.add_argument('door', type=int, choices=range(1, 4))
>>> print(parser.parse_args(['3']))
Namespace(door=3)
>>> parser.parse_args(['4'])
usage: doors.py [-h] {1,2,3}
doors.py: error: argument door: invalid choice: 4 (choose from 1, 2, 3)
```

Any object that supports the *in* operator can be passed as the *choices* value, so *dict* objects, *set* objects, custom containers, etc. are all supported.

required

In general, the *argparse* module assumes that flags like *-f* and *--bar* indicate *optional* arguments, which can always be omitted at the command line. To make an option *required*, *True* can be specified for the *required=* keyword argument to *add_argument()* :

```
>>> parser = argparse.ArgumentParser()
>>> parser.add_argument('--foo', required=True)
>>> parser.parse_args(['--foo', 'BAR'])
Namespace(foo='BAR')
>>> parser.parse_args([])
usage: argparse.py [-h] [--foo FOO]
argparse.py: error: option --foo is required
```

As the example shows, if an option is marked as *required*, *parse_args()* will report an error if that option is not present at the command line.

Note : Required options are generally considered bad form because users expect *options* to be *optional*, and thus they should be avoided when possible.

help

The *help* value is a string containing a brief description of the argument. When a user requests help (usually by using *-h* or *--help* at the command line), these *help* descriptions will be displayed with each argument :

```
>>> parser = argparse.ArgumentParser(prog='frobble')
>>> parser.add_argument('--foo', action='store_true',
...                     help='foo the bars before frobbling')
>>> parser.add_argument('bar', nargs='+',
```

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(suite de la page précédente)

```
...             help='one of the bars to be frobbled')
>>> parser.parse_args(['-h'])
usage: frobble [-h] [--foo] bar [bar ...]

positional arguments:
  bar      one of the bars to be frobbled

optional arguments:
  -h, --help  show this help message and exit
  --foo      foo the bars before frobbling
```

The `help` strings can include various format specifiers to avoid repetition of things like the program name or the argument *default*. The available specifiers include the program name, `%(prog)s` and most keyword arguments to `add_argument()`, e.g. `%(default)s`, `%(type)s`, etc. :

```
>>> parser = argparse.ArgumentParser(prog='frobble')
>>> parser.add_argument('bar', nargs='?', type=int, default=42,
...                     help='the bar to %(prog)s (default: %(default)s)')
>>> parser.print_help()
usage: frobble [-h] [bar]

positional arguments:
  bar      the bar to frobble (default: 42)

optional arguments:
  -h, --help  show this help message and exit
```

`argparse` supports silencing the help entry for certain options, by setting the `help` value to `argparse.SUPPRESS` :

```
>>> parser = argparse.ArgumentParser(prog='frobble')
>>> parser.add_argument('--foo', help=argparse.SUPPRESS)
>>> parser.print_help()
usage: frobble [-h]

optional arguments:
  -h, --help  show this help message and exit
```

metavar

When `ArgumentParser` generates help messages, it needs some way to refer to each expected argument. By default, `ArgumentParser` objects use the *dest* value as the « name » of each object. By default, for positional argument actions, the *dest* value is used directly, and for optional argument actions, the *dest* value is uppercased. So, a single positional argument with `dest='bar'` will be referred to as `bar`. A single optional argument `--foo` that should be followed by a single command-line argument will be referred to as `F00`. An example :

```
>>> parser = argparse.ArgumentParser()
>>> parser.add_argument('--foo')
>>> parser.add_argument('bar')
>>> parser.parse_args('X --foo Y'.split())
Namespace(bar='X', foo='Y')
```

(suite sur la page suivante)

(suite de la page précédente)

```
>>> parser.print_help()
usage: [-h] [--foo F00] bar

positional arguments:
  bar

optional arguments:
  -h, --help  show this help message and exit
  --foo F00
```

An alternative name can be specified with `metavar` :

```
>>> parser = argparse.ArgumentParser()
>>> parser.add_argument('--foo', metavar='YYY')
>>> parser.add_argument('bar', metavar='XXX')
>>> parser.parse_args('X --foo Y'.split())
Namespace(bar='X', foo='Y')
>>> parser.print_help()
usage: [-h] [--foo YYY] XXX

positional arguments:
  XXX

optional arguments:
  -h, --help  show this help message and exit
  --foo YYY
```

Note that `metavar` only changes the *displayed* name - the name of the attribute on the `parse_args()` object is still determined by the *dest* value.

Different values of `nargs` may cause the metavar to be used multiple times. Providing a tuple to `metavar` specifies a different display for each of the arguments :

```
>>> parser = argparse.ArgumentParser(prog='PROG')
>>> parser.add_argument('-x', nargs=2)
>>> parser.add_argument('--foo', nargs=2, metavar=('bar', 'baz'))
>>> parser.print_help()
usage: PROG [-h] [-x X X] [--foo bar baz]

optional arguments:
  -h, --help  show this help message and exit
  -x X X
  --foo bar baz
```

dest

Most `ArgumentParser` actions add some value as an attribute of the object returned by `parse_args()`. The name of this attribute is determined by the `dest` keyword argument of `add_argument()`. For positional argument actions, `dest` is normally supplied as the first argument to `add_argument()` :

```
>>> parser = argparse.ArgumentParser()
>>> parser.add_argument('bar')
```

(suite sur la page suivante)

(suite de la page précédente)

```
>>> parser.parse_args(['XXX'])
Namespace(bar='XXX')
```

For optional argument actions, the value of `dest` is normally inferred from the option strings. `ArgumentParser` generates the value of `dest` by taking the first long option string and stripping away the initial `--` string. If no long option strings were supplied, `dest` will be derived from the first short option string by stripping the initial `-` character. Any internal `-` characters will be converted to `_` characters to make sure the string is a valid attribute name. The examples below illustrate this behavior :

```
>>> parser = argparse.ArgumentParser()
>>> parser.add_argument('-f', '--foo-bar', '--foo')
>>> parser.add_argument('-x', '-y')
>>> parser.parse_args('-f 1 -x 2'.split())
Namespace(foo_bar='1', x='2')
>>> parser.parse_args('--foo 1 -y 2'.split())
Namespace(foo_bar='1', x='2')
```

`dest` allows a custom attribute name to be provided :

```
>>> parser = argparse.ArgumentParser()
>>> parser.add_argument('--foo', dest='bar')
>>> parser.parse_args('--foo XXX'.split())
Namespace(bar='XXX')
```

Classes Action

Action classes implement the Action API, a callable which returns a callable which processes arguments from the command-line. Any object which follows this API may be passed as the `action` parameter to `add_argument()`.

```
class argparse.Action(option_strings, dest, nargs=None, const=None, default=None, type=None,
                      choices=None, required=False, help=None, metavar=None)
```

Action objects are used by an `ArgumentParser` to represent the information needed to parse a single argument from one or more strings from the command line. The Action class must accept the two positional arguments plus any keyword arguments passed to `ArgumentParser.add_argument()` except for the `action` itself.

Instances of Action (or return value of any callable to the `action` parameter) should have attributes « `dest` », « `option_strings` », « `default` », « `type` », « `required` », « `help` », etc. defined. The easiest way to ensure these attributes are defined is to call `Action.__init__`.

Action instances should be callable, so subclasses must override the `__call__` method, which should accept four parameters :

- `parser` - The `ArgumentParser` object which contains this action.
- `namespace` - The `Namespace` object that will be returned by `parse_args()`. Most actions add an attribute to this object using `setattr()`.
- `values` - The associated command-line arguments, with any type conversions applied. Type conversions are specified with the `type` keyword argument to `add_argument()`.
- `option_string` - The option string that was used to invoke this action. The `option_string` argument is optional, and will be absent if the action is associated with a positional argument.

The `__call__` method may perform arbitrary actions, but will typically set attributes on the `namespace` based on `dest` and `values`.

15.4.4 La méthode `parse_args()`

`ArgumentParser.parse_args(args=None, namespace=None)`

Convert argument strings to objects and assign them as attributes of the namespace. Return the populated namespace.

Previous calls to `add_argument()` determine exactly what objects are created and how they are assigned. See the documentation for `add_argument()` for details.

- `args` - List of strings to parse. The default is taken from `sys.argv`.
- `namespace` - An object to take the attributes. The default is a new empty `Namespace` object.

Option value syntax

The `parse_args()` method supports several ways of specifying the value of an option (if it takes one). In the simplest case, the option and its value are passed as two separate arguments :

```
>>> parser = argparse.ArgumentParser(prog='PROG')
>>> parser.add_argument('-x')
>>> parser.add_argument('--foo')
>>> parser.parse_args(['-x', 'X'])
Namespace(foo=None, x='X')
>>> parser.parse_args(['--foo', 'FOO'])
Namespace(foo='FOO', x=None)
```

For long options (options with names longer than a single character), the option and value can also be passed as a single command-line argument, using `=` to separate them :

```
>>> parser.parse_args(['--foo=FOO'])
Namespace(foo='FOO', x=None)
```

For short options (options only one character long), the option and its value can be concatenated :

```
>>> parser.parse_args(['-xX'])
Namespace(foo=None, x='X')
```

Several short options can be joined together, using only a single `-` prefix, as long as only the last option (or none of them) requires a value :

```
>>> parser = argparse.ArgumentParser(prog='PROG')
>>> parser.add_argument('-x', action='store_true')
>>> parser.add_argument('-y', action='store_true')
>>> parser.add_argument('-z')
>>> parser.parse_args(['-xyzZ'])
Namespace(x=True, y=True, z='Z')
```

Arguments invalides

While parsing the command line, `parse_args()` checks for a variety of errors, including ambiguous options, invalid types, invalid options, wrong number of positional arguments, etc. When it encounters such an error, it exits and prints the error along with a usage message :

```
>>> parser = argparse.ArgumentParser(prog='PROG')
>>> parser.add_argument('--foo', type=int)
>>> parser.add_argument('bar', nargs='?')

>>> # invalid type
```

(suite sur la page suivante)

(suite de la page précédente)

```
>>> parser.parse_args(['--foo', 'spam'])
usage: PROG [-h] [--foo FOO] [bar]
PROG: error: argument --foo: invalid int value: 'spam'

>>> # invalid option
>>> parser.parse_args(['--bar'])
usage: PROG [-h] [--foo FOO] [bar]
PROG: error: no such option: --bar

>>> # wrong number of arguments
>>> parser.parse_args(['spam', 'badger'])
usage: PROG [-h] [--foo FOO] [bar]
PROG: error: extra arguments found: badger
```

Arguments contenant -

The `parse_args()` method attempts to give errors whenever the user has clearly made a mistake, but some situations are inherently ambiguous. For example, the command-line argument `-1` could either be an attempt to specify an option or an attempt to provide a positional argument. The `parse_args()` method is cautious here : positional arguments may only begin with `-` if they look like negative numbers and there are no options in the parser that look like negative numbers :

```
>>> parser = argparse.ArgumentParser(prog='PROG')
>>> parser.add_argument('-x')
>>> parser.add_argument('foo', nargs='?')

>>> # no negative number options, so -1 is a positional argument
>>> parser.parse_args(['-x', '-1'])
Namespace(foo=None, x='-1')

>>> # no negative number options, so -1 and -5 are positional arguments
>>> parser.parse_args(['-x', '-1', '-5'])
Namespace(foo='-5', x='-1')

>>> parser = argparse.ArgumentParser(prog='PROG')
>>> parser.add_argument('-1', dest='one')
>>> parser.add_argument('foo', nargs='?')

>>> # negative number options present, so -1 is an option
>>> parser.parse_args(['-1', 'X'])
Namespace(foo=None, one='X')

>>> # negative number options present, so -2 is an option
>>> parser.parse_args(['-2'])
usage: PROG [-h] [-1 ONE] [foo]
PROG: error: no such option: -2

>>> # negative number options present, so both -1s are options
>>> parser.parse_args(['-1', '-1'])
usage: PROG [-h] [-1 ONE] [foo]
PROG: error: argument -1: expected one argument
```

If you have positional arguments that must begin with `-` and don't look like negative numbers, you can insert

the pseudo-argument `--` which tells `parse_args()` that everything after that is a positional argument :

```
>>> parser.parse_args(['--', '-f'])
Namespace(foo='-f', one=None)
```

Arguments abrégés (Part comparaison de leur préfixes)

The `parse_args()` method allows long options to be abbreviated to a prefix, if the abbreviation is unambiguous (the prefix matches a unique option) :

```
>>> parser = argparse.ArgumentParser(prog='PROG')
>>> parser.add_argument('-bacon')
>>> parser.add_argument('-badger')
>>> parser.parse_args(['-bac MMM'].split())
Namespace(bacon='MMM', badger=None)
>>> parser.parse_args(['-bad WOOD'].split())
Namespace(bacon=None, badger='WOOD')
>>> parser.parse_args(['-ba BA'].split())
usage: PROG [-h] [-bacon BACON] [-badger BADGER]
PROG: error: ambiguous option: -ba could match -badger, -bacon
```

An error is produced for arguments that could produce more than one options.

Au delà de `sys.argv`

Sometimes it may be useful to have an `ArgumentParser` parse arguments other than those of `sys.argv`. This can be accomplished by passing a list of strings to `parse_args()`. This is useful for testing at the interactive prompt :

```
>>> parser = argparse.ArgumentParser()
>>> parser.add_argument(
...     'integers', metavar='int', type=int, choices=xrange(10),
...     nargs='+', help='an integer in the range 0..9')
>>> parser.add_argument(
...     '--sum', dest='accumulate', action='store_const', const=sum,
...     default=max, help='sum the integers (default: find the max)')
>>> parser.parse_args(['1', '2', '3', '4'])
Namespace(accumulate=<built-in function max>, integers=[1, 2, 3, 4])
>>> parser.parse_args(['1', '2', '3', '4', '--sum'])
Namespace(accumulate=<built-in function sum>, integers=[1, 2, 3, 4])
```

L'objet namespace

`class argparse.Namespace`

Simple class used by default by `parse_args()` to create an object holding attributes and return it.

This class is deliberately simple, just an *object* subclass with a readable string representation. If you prefer to have dict-like view of the attributes, you can use the standard Python idiom, `vars()` :

```
>>> parser = argparse.ArgumentParser()
>>> parser.add_argument('--foo')
>>> args = parser.parse_args(['--foo', 'BAR'])
>>> vars(args)
{'foo': 'BAR'}
```

It may also be useful to have an *ArgumentParser* assign attributes to an already existing object, rather than a new *Namespace* object. This can be achieved by specifying the `namespace=` keyword argument :

```
>>> class C(object):
...     pass
...
>>> c = C()
>>> parser = argparse.ArgumentParser()
>>> parser.add_argument('--foo')
>>> parser.parse_args(args=['--foo', 'BAR'], namespace=c)
>>> c.foo
'BAR'
```

15.4.5 Autres outils

Sous commandes

`ArgumentParser.add_subparsers([title][, description][, prog][, parser_class][, action][, option_string][, dest][, help][, metavar])`

Many programs split up their functionality into a number of sub-commands, for example, the `svn` program can invoke sub-commands like `svn checkout`, `svn update`, and `svn commit`. Splitting up functionality this way can be a particularly good idea when a program performs several different functions which require different kinds of command-line arguments. *ArgumentParser* supports the creation of such sub-commands with the `add_subparsers()` method. The `add_subparsers()` method is normally called with no arguments and returns a special action object. This object has a single method, `add_parser()`, which takes a command name and any *ArgumentParser* constructor arguments, and returns an *ArgumentParser* object that can be modified as usual.

Description des paramètres

- `title` - title for the sub-parser group in help output ; by default « subcommands » if description is provided, otherwise uses title for positional arguments
- `description` - description for the sub-parser group in help output, by default `None`
- `prog` - usage information that will be displayed with sub-command help, by default the name of the program and any positional arguments before the subparser argument
- `parser_class` - class which will be used to create sub-parser instances, by default the class of the current parser (e.g. *ArgumentParser*)
- `action` - the basic type of action to be taken when this argument is encountered at the command line
- `dest` - name of the attribute under which sub-command name will be stored ; by default `None` and no value is stored
- `help` - help for sub-parser group in help output, by default `None`
- `metavar` - string presenting available sub-commands in help ; by default it is `None` and presents sub-commands in form {cmd1, cmd2, ..}

Quelques exemples d'utilisation :

```
>>> # create the top-level parser
>>> parser = argparse.ArgumentParser(prog='PROG')
>>> parser.add_argument('--foo', action='store_true', help='foo help')
>>> subparsers = parser.add_subparsers(help='sub-command help')
>>>
>>> # create the parser for the "a" command
>>> parser_a = subparsers.add_parser('a', help='a help')
>>> parser_a.add_argument('bar', type=int, help='bar help')
>>>
```

(suite sur la page suivante)

(suite de la page précédente)

```

>>> # create the parser for the "b" command
>>> parser_b = subparsers.add_parser('b', help='b help')
>>> parser_b.add_argument('--baz', choices='XYZ', help='baz help')
>>>
>>> # parse some argument lists
>>> parser.parse_args(['a', '12'])
Namespace(bar=12, foo=False)
>>> parser.parse_args(['--foo', 'b', '--baz', 'Z'])
Namespace(baz='Z', foo=True)

```

Note that the object returned by `parse_args()` will only contain attributes for the main parser and the subparser that was selected by the command line (and not any other subparsers). So in the example above, when the `a` command is specified, only the `foo` and `bar` attributes are present, and when the `b` command is specified, only the `foo` and `baz` attributes are present.

Similarly, when a help message is requested from a subparser, only the help for that particular parser will be printed. The help message will not include parent parser or sibling parser messages. (A help message for each subparser command, however, can be given by supplying the `help=` argument to `add_parser()` as above.)

```

>>> parser.parse_args(['--help'])
usage: PROG [-h] [--foo] {a,b} ...

positional arguments:
  {a,b}    sub-command help
  a        a help
  b        b help

optional arguments:
  -h, --help  show this help message and exit
  --foo       foo help

>>> parser.parse_args(['a', '--help'])
usage: PROG a [-h] bar

positional arguments:
  bar        bar help

optional arguments:
  -h, --help  show this help message and exit

>>> parser.parse_args(['b', '--help'])
usage: PROG b [-h] [--baz {X,Y,Z}]

optional arguments:
  -h, --help      show this help message and exit
  --baz {X,Y,Z}  baz help

```

The `add_subparsers()` method also supports `title` and `description` keyword arguments. When either is present, the subparser's commands will appear in their own group in the help output. For example :

```

>>> parser = argparse.ArgumentParser()
>>> subparsers = parser.add_subparsers(title='subcommands',

```

(suite sur la page suivante)

(suite de la page précédente)

```

...                                     description='valid subcommands',
...                                     help='additional help')
>>> subparsers.add_parser('foo')
>>> subparsers.add_parser('bar')
>>> parser.parse_args(['-h'])
usage: [-h] {foo,bar} ...

optional arguments:
  -h, --help  show this help message and exit

subcommands:
  valid subcommands

{foo,bar}  additional help

```

One particularly effective way of handling sub-commands is to combine the use of the `add_subparsers()` method with calls to `set_defaults()` so that each subparser knows which Python function it should execute. For example :

```

>>> # sub-command functions
>>> def foo(args):
...     print args.x * args.y
...
>>> def bar(args):
...     print '(%s)' % args.z
...
>>> # create the top-level parser
>>> parser = argparse.ArgumentParser()
>>> subparsers = parser.add_subparsers()
>>>
>>> # create the parser for the "foo" command
>>> parser_foo = subparsers.add_parser('foo')
>>> parser_foo.add_argument('-x', type=int, default=1)
>>> parser_foo.add_argument('y', type=float)
>>> parser_foo.set_defaults(func=foo)
>>>
>>> # create the parser for the "bar" command
>>> parser_bar = subparsers.add_parser('bar')
>>> parser_bar.add_argument('z')
>>> parser_bar.set_defaults(func=bar)
>>>
>>> # parse the args and call whatever function was selected
>>> args = parser.parse_args('foo 1 -x 2'.split())
>>> args.func(args)
2.0
>>>
>>> # parse the args and call whatever function was selected
>>> args = parser.parse_args('bar XYZYX'.split())
>>> args.func(args)
((XYZYX))

```

This way, you can let `parse_args()` do the job of calling the appropriate function after argument parsing is complete. Associating functions with actions like this is typically the easiest way to handle the different actions for each of your subparsers. However, if it is necessary to check the name of the

subparser that was invoked, the `dest` keyword argument to the `add_subparsers()` call will work :

```
>>> parser = argparse.ArgumentParser()
>>> subparsers = parser.add_subparsers(dest='subparser_name')
>>> subparser1 = subparsers.add_parser('1')
>>> subparser1.add_argument('-x')
>>> subparser2 = subparsers.add_parser('2')
>>> subparser2.add_argument('y')
>>> parser.parse_args(['2', 'frobble'])
Namespace(subparser_name='2', y='frobble')
```

Objets FileType

`class argparse.FileType(mode='r', bufsize=None)`

The `FileType` factory creates objects that can be passed to the type argument of `ArgumentParser.add_argument()`. Arguments that have `FileType` objects as their type will open command-line arguments as files with the requested modes and buffer sizes :

```
>>> parser = argparse.ArgumentParser()
>>> parser.add_argument('--output', type=argparse.FileType('wb', 0))
>>> parser.parse_args(['--output', 'out'])
Namespace(output=<open file 'out', mode 'wb' at 0x...>)
```

`FileType` objects understand the pseudo-argument `'-'` and automatically convert this into `sys.stdin` for readable `FileType` objects and `sys.stdout` for writable `FileType` objects :

```
>>> parser = argparse.ArgumentParser()
>>> parser.add_argument('infile', type=argparse.FileType('r'))
>>> parser.parse_args(['-'])
Namespace(infile=<open file '<stdin>', mode 'r' at 0x...>)
```

Groupes d'arguments

`ArgumentParser.add_argument_group(title=None, description=None)`

By default, `ArgumentParser` groups command-line arguments into « positional arguments » and « optional arguments » when displaying help messages. When there is a better conceptual grouping of arguments than this default one, appropriate groups can be created using the `add_argument_group()` method :

```
>>> parser = argparse.ArgumentParser(prog='PROG', add_help=False)
>>> group = parser.add_argument_group('group')
>>> group.add_argument('--foo', help='foo help')
>>> group.add_argument('bar', help='bar help')
>>> parser.print_help()
usage: PROG [--foo F00] bar

group:
  bar      bar help
  --foo F00  foo help
```

The `add_argument_group()` method returns an argument group object which has an `add_argument()` method just like a regular `ArgumentParser`. When an argument is added to the group, the parser treats it just like a normal argument, but displays the argument in a separate group for help messages. The `add_argument_group()` method accepts `title` and `description` arguments which can be used to customize this display :

```
>>> parser = argparse.ArgumentParser(prog='PROG', add_help=False)
>>> group1 = parser.add_argument_group('group1', 'group1 description')
>>> group1.add_argument('foo', help='foo help')
>>> group2 = parser.add_argument_group('group2', 'group2 description')
>>> group2.add_argument('--bar', help='bar help')
>>> parser.print_help()
usage: PROG [--bar BAR] foo

group1:
  group1 description

  foo    foo help

group2:
  group2 description

  --bar BAR  bar help
```

Note that any arguments not in your user-defined groups will end up back in the usual « positional arguments » and « optional arguments » sections.

Exclusion mutuelle

`ArgumentParser.add_mutually_exclusive_group(required=False)`

Create a mutually exclusive group. `argparse` will make sure that only one of the arguments in the mutually exclusive group was present on the command line :

```
>>> parser = argparse.ArgumentParser(prog='PROG')
>>> group = parser.add_mutually_exclusive_group()
>>> group.add_argument('--foo', action='store_true')
>>> group.add_argument('--bar', action='store_false')
>>> parser.parse_args(['--foo'])
Namespace(bar=True, foo=True)
>>> parser.parse_args(['--bar'])
Namespace(bar=False, foo=False)
>>> parser.parse_args(['--foo', '--bar'])
usage: PROG [-h] [--foo | --bar]
PROG: error: argument --bar: not allowed with argument --foo
```

The `add_mutually_exclusive_group()` method also accepts a `required` argument, to indicate that at least one of the mutually exclusive arguments is required :

```
>>> parser = argparse.ArgumentParser(prog='PROG')
>>> group = parser.add_mutually_exclusive_group(required=True)
>>> group.add_argument('--foo', action='store_true')
>>> group.add_argument('--bar', action='store_false')
>>> parser.parse_args([])
usage: PROG [-h] (--foo | --bar)
PROG: error: one of the arguments --foo --bar is required
```

Note that currently mutually exclusive argument groups do not support the `title` and `description` arguments of `add_argument_group()`.

Valeurs par défaut de l'analyseur

`ArgumentParser.set_defaults(**kwargs)`

Most of the time, the attributes of the object returned by `parse_args()` will be fully determined by inspecting the command-line arguments and the argument actions. `set_defaults()` allows some additional attributes that are determined without any inspection of the command line to be added :

```
>>> parser = argparse.ArgumentParser()
>>> parser.add_argument('foo', type=int)
>>> parser.set_defaults(bar=42, baz='badger')
>>> parser.parse_args(['736'])
Namespace(bar=42, baz='badger', foo=736)
```

Note that parser-level defaults always override argument-level defaults :

```
>>> parser = argparse.ArgumentParser()
>>> parser.add_argument('--foo', default='bar')
>>> parser.set_defaults(foo='spam')
>>> parser.parse_args([])
Namespace(foo='spam')
```

Parser-level defaults can be particularly useful when working with multiple parsers. See the `add_subparsers()` method for an example of this type.

`ArgumentParser.get_default(dest)`

Get the default value for a namespace attribute, as set by either `add_argument()` or by `set_defaults()` :

```
>>> parser = argparse.ArgumentParser()
>>> parser.add_argument('--foo', default='badger')
>>> parser.get_default('foo')
'badger'
```

Afficher l'aide

In most typical applications, `parse_args()` will take care of formatting and printing any usage or error messages. However, several formatting methods are available :

`ArgumentParser.print_usage(file=None)`

Print a brief description of how the `ArgumentParser` should be invoked on the command line. If `file` is `None`, `sys.stdout` is assumed.

`ArgumentParser.print_help(file=None)`

Print a help message, including the program usage and information about the arguments registered with the `ArgumentParser`. If `file` is `None`, `sys.stdout` is assumed.

There are also variants of these methods that simply return a string instead of printing it :

`ArgumentParser.format_usage()`

Return a string containing a brief description of how the `ArgumentParser` should be invoked on the command line.

`ArgumentParser.format_help()`

Return a string containing a help message, including the program usage and information about the arguments registered with the `ArgumentParser`.

Parsing partiel

`ArgumentParser.parse_known_args(args=None, namespace=None)`

Sometimes a script may only parse a few of the command-line arguments, passing the remaining arguments on to another script or program. In these cases, the `parse_known_args()` method can be useful. It works much like `parse_args()` except that it does not produce an error when extra arguments are present. Instead, it returns a two item tuple containing the populated namespace and the list of remaining argument strings.

```
>>> parser = argparse.ArgumentParser()
>>> parser.add_argument('--foo', action='store_true')
>>> parser.add_argument('bar')
>>> parser.parse_known_args(['--foo', '--badger', 'BAR', 'spam'])
(Namespace(bar='BAR', foo=True), ['--badger', 'spam'])
```

Avertissement : *Prefix matching* rules apply to `parse_known_args()`. The parser may consume an option even if it's just a prefix of one of its known options, instead of leaving it in the remaining arguments list.

Personnaliser le parsing de fichiers

`ArgumentParser.convert_arg_line_to_args(arg_line)`

Arguments that are read from a file (see the `fromfile_prefix_chars` keyword argument to the `ArgumentParser` constructor) are read one argument per line. `convert_arg_line_to_args()` can be overridden for fancier reading.

This method takes a single argument `arg_line` which is a string read from the argument file. It returns a list of arguments parsed from this string. The method is called once per line read from the argument file, in order.

A useful override of this method is one that treats each space-separated word as an argument :

```
def convert_arg_line_to_args(self, arg_line):
    return arg_line.split()
```

Exiting methods

`ArgumentParser.exit(status=0, message=None)`

This method terminates the program, exiting with the specified `status` and, if given, it prints a `message` before that.

`ArgumentParser.error(message)`

This method prints a usage message including the `message` to the standard error and terminates the program with a status code of 2.

15.4.6 Mettre à jour du code optparse

Originally, the `argparse` module had attempted to maintain compatibility with `optparse`. However, `optparse` was difficult to extend transparently, particularly with the changes required to support the new `nargs=` specifiers and better usage messages. When most everything in `optparse` had either been copy-pasted over or monkey-patched, it no longer seemed practical to try to maintain the backwards compatibility.

The `argparse` module improves on the standard library `optparse` module in a number of ways including :

- Gérer les arguments positionnels.
- Gérer les sous commandes.
- Allowing alternative option prefixes like `+` and `/`.
- Handling zero-or-more and one-or-more style arguments.
- Fournir des message d'aide plus complets.
- Providing a much simpler interface for custom `type` and `action`.

A partial upgrade path from `optparse` to `argparse` :

- Replace all `optparse.OptionParser.add_option()` calls with `ArgumentParser.add_argument()` calls.
- Replace `(options, args) = parser.parse_args()` with `args = parser.parse_args()` and add additional `ArgumentParser.add_argument()` calls for the positional arguments. Keep in mind that what was previously called `options`, now in the `argparse` context is called `args`.
- Replace `optparse.OptionParser.disable_interspersed_args()` by setting `nargs` of a positional argument to `argparse.REMAINDER`, or use `parse_known_args()` to collect unparsed argument strings in a separate list.
- Replace callback actions and the `callback_*` keyword arguments with `type` or `action` arguments.
- Replace string names for `type` keyword arguments with the corresponding type objects (e.g. `int`, `float`, `complex`, etc).
- Replace `optparse.Values` with `Namespace` and `optparse.OptionError` and `optparse.OptionValueError` with `ArgumentError`.
- Replace strings with implicit arguments such as `%default` or `%prog` with the standard Python syntax to use dictionaries to format strings, that is, `%(default)s` and `%(prog)s`.
- Replace the `OptionParser` constructor `version` argument with a call to `parser.add_argument('--version', action='version', version='<the version>')`.

15.5 optparse — Parser for command line options

Nouveau dans la version 2.3.

Obsolète depuis la version 2.7 : The `optparse` module is deprecated and will not be developed further ; development will continue with the `argparse` module.

Code source : [Lib/optparse.py](#)

`optparse` is a more convenient, flexible, and powerful library for parsing command-line options than the old `getopt` module. `optparse` uses a more declarative style of command-line parsing : you create an instance of `OptionParser`, populate it with options, and parse the command line. `optparse` allows users to specify options in the conventional GNU/POSIX syntax, and additionally generates usage and help messages for you.

Here's an example of using `optparse` in a simple script :

```
from optparse import OptionParser
...
parser = OptionParser()
parser.add_option("-f", "--file", dest="filename",
                  help="write report to FILE", metavar="FILE")
parser.add_option("-q", "--quiet",
                  action="store_false", dest="verbose", default=True,
                  help="don't print status messages to stdout")

(options, args) = parser.parse_args()
```

With these few lines of code, users of your script can now do the « usual thing » on the command-line, for example :

```
<yourscript> --file=outfile -q
```

As it parses the command line, `optparse` sets attributes of the `options` object returned by `parse_args()` based on user-supplied command-line values. When `parse_args()` returns from parsing this command line, `options.filename` will be `"outfile"` and `options.verbose` will be `False`. `optparse` supports both long

and short options, allows short options to be merged together, and allows options to be associated with their arguments in a variety of ways. Thus, the following command lines are all equivalent to the above example :

```
<yourscript> -f outfile --quiet
<yourscript> --quiet --file outfile
<yourscript> -q -foutfile
<yourscript> -qfoutfile
```

Additionally, users can run one of

```
<yourscript> -h
<yourscript> --help
```

and *optparse* will print out a brief summary of your script's options :

```
Usage: <yourscript> [options]

Options:
  -h, --help            show this help message and exit
  -f FILE, --file=FILE  write report to FILE
  -q, --quiet           don't print status messages to stdout
```

where the value of *yourscript* is determined at runtime (normally from `sys.argv[0]`).

15.5.1 Background

optparse was explicitly designed to encourage the creation of programs with straightforward, conventional command-line interfaces. To that end, it supports only the most common command-line syntax and semantics conventionally used under Unix. If you are unfamiliar with these conventions, read this section to acquaint yourself with them.

Terminology

argument a string entered on the command-line, and passed by the shell to `exec1()` or `execv()`. In Python, arguments are elements of `sys.argv[1:]` (`sys.argv[0]` is the name of the program being executed). Unix shells also use the term « word ».

It is occasionally desirable to substitute an argument list other than `sys.argv[1:]`, so you should read « argument » as « an element of `sys.argv[1:]`, or of some other list provided as a substitute for `sys.argv[1:]` ».

option an argument used to supply extra information to guide or customize the execution of a program. There are many different syntaxes for options ; the traditional Unix syntax is a hyphen (« - ») followed by a single letter, e.g. `-x` or `-F`. Also, traditional Unix syntax allows multiple options to be merged into a single argument, e.g. `-x -F` is equivalent to `-xF`. The GNU project introduced `--` followed by a series of hyphen-separated words, e.g. `--file` or `--dry-run`. These are the only two option syntaxes provided by *optparse*.

Some other option syntaxes that the world has seen include :

- a hyphen followed by a few letters, e.g. `-pf` (this is *not* the same as multiple options merged into a single argument)
- a hyphen followed by a whole word, e.g. `-file` (this is technically equivalent to the previous syntax, but they aren't usually seen in the same program)
- a plus sign followed by a single letter, or a few letters, or a word, e.g. `+f`, `+rgb`
- a slash followed by a letter, or a few letters, or a word, e.g. `/f`, `/file`

These option syntaxes are not supported by *optparse*, and they never will be. This is deliberate : the first three are non-standard on any environment, and the last only makes sense if you're exclusively targeting VMS, MS-DOS, and/or Windows.

option argument an argument that follows an option, is closely associated with that option, and is consumed from the argument list when that option is. With *optparse*, option arguments may either be in a separate argument from their option :

```
-f foo
--file foo
```

or included in the same argument :

```
-ffoo
--file=foo
```

Typically, a given option either takes an argument or it doesn't. Lots of people want an « optional option arguments » feature, meaning that some options will take an argument if they see it, and won't if they don't. This is somewhat controversial, because it makes parsing ambiguous : if **-a** takes an optional argument and **-b** is another option entirely, how do we interpret **-ab**? Because of this ambiguity, *optparse* does not support this feature.

argument positionnel something leftover in the argument list after options have been parsed, i.e. after options and their arguments have been parsed and removed from the argument list.

required option an option that must be supplied on the command-line ; note that the phrase « required option » is self-contradictory in English. *optparse* doesn't prevent you from implementing required options, but doesn't give you much help at it either.

For example, consider this hypothetical command-line :

```
prog -v --report report.txt foo bar
```

-v and **--report** are both options. Assuming that **--report** takes one argument, **report.txt** is an option argument. **foo** and **bar** are positional arguments.

What are options for ?

Options are used to provide extra information to tune or customize the execution of a program. In case it wasn't clear, options are usually *optional*. A program should be able to run just fine with no options whatsoever. (Pick a random program from the Unix or GNU toolsets. Can it run without any options at all and still make sense? The main exceptions are **find**, **tar**, and **dd**—all of which are mutant oddballs that have been rightly criticized for their non-standard syntax and confusing interfaces.)

Lots of people want their programs to have « required options ». Think about it. If it's required, then it's *not optional*! If there is a piece of information that your program absolutely requires in order to run successfully, that's what positional arguments are for.

As an example of good command-line interface design, consider the humble **cp** utility, for copying files. It doesn't make much sense to try to copy files without supplying a destination and at least one source. Hence, **cp** fails if you run it with no arguments. However, it has a flexible, useful syntax that does not require any options at all :

```
cp SOURCE DEST
cp SOURCE ... DEST-DIR
```

You can get pretty far with just that. Most **cp** implementations provide a bunch of options to tweak exactly how the files are copied : you can preserve mode and modification time, avoid following symlinks, ask before clobbering existing files, etc. But none of this distracts from the core mission of **cp**, which is to copy either one file to another, or several files to another directory.

What are positional arguments for ?

Positional arguments are for those pieces of information that your program absolutely, positively requires to run.

A good user interface should have as few absolute requirements as possible. If your program requires 17 distinct pieces of information in order to run successfully, it doesn't much matter *how* you get that information from the user—most people will give up and walk away before they successfully run the program. This applies whether the user interface is a command-line, a configuration file, or a GUI : if you make that many demands on your users, most of them will simply give up.

In short, try to minimize the amount of information that users are absolutely required to supply—use sensible defaults whenever possible. Of course, you also want to make your programs reasonably flexible. That's what options are for. Again, it doesn't matter if they are entries in a config file, widgets in the « Preferences » dialog of a GUI, or command-line options—the more options you implement, the more flexible your program is, and the more complicated its implementation becomes. Too much flexibility has drawbacks as well, of course ; too many options can overwhelm users and make your code much harder to maintain.

15.5.2 Tutoriel

While *optparse* is quite flexible and powerful, it's also straightforward to use in most cases. This section covers the code patterns that are common to any *optparse*-based program.

First, you need to import the `OptionParser` class ; then, early in the main program, create an `OptionParser` instance :

```
from optparse import OptionParser
...
parser = OptionParser()
```

Then you can start defining options. The basic syntax is :

```
parser.add_option(opt_str, ...,
                  attr=value, ...)
```

Each option has one or more option strings, such as `-f` or `--file`, and several option attributes that tell *optparse* what to expect and what to do when it encounters that option on the command line.

Typically, each option will have one short option string and one long option string, e.g. :

```
parser.add_option("-f", "--file", ...)
```

You're free to define as many short option strings and as many long option strings as you like (including zero), as long as there is at least one option string overall.

The option strings passed to `OptionParser.add_option()` are effectively labels for the option defined by that call. For brevity, we will frequently refer to *encountering an option* on the command line ; in reality, *optparse* encounters *option strings* and looks up options from them.

Once all of your options are defined, instruct *optparse* to parse your program's command line :

```
(options, args) = parser.parse_args()
```

(If you like, you can pass a custom argument list to `parse_args()`, but that's rarely necessary : by default it uses `sys.argv[1:]`.)

`parse_args()` returns two values :

- `options`, an object containing values for all of your options—e.g. if `--file` takes a single string argument, then `options.file` will be the filename supplied by the user, or `None` if the user did not supply that option
- `args`, the list of positional arguments leftover after parsing options

This tutorial section only covers the four most important option attributes : *action*, *type*, *dest* (destination), and *help*. Of these, *action* is the most fundamental.

Understanding option actions

Actions tell *optparse* what to do when it encounters an option on the command line. There is a fixed set of actions hard-coded into *optparse*; adding new actions is an advanced topic covered in section *Extending optparse*. Most actions tell *optparse* to store a value in some variable—for example, take a string from the command line and store it in an attribute of `options`.

If you don't specify an option action, *optparse* defaults to `store`.

The store action

The most common option action is `store`, which tells *optparse* to take the next argument (or the remainder of the current argument), ensure that it is of the correct type, and store it to your chosen destination.

Par exemple :

```
parser.add_option("-f", "--file",
                  action="store", type="string", dest="filename")
```

Now let's make up a fake command line and ask *optparse* to parse it :

```
args = ["-f", "foo.txt"]
(options, args) = parser.parse_args(args)
```

When *optparse* sees the option string `-f`, it consumes the next argument, `foo.txt`, and stores it in `options.filename`. So, after this call to `parse_args()`, `options.filename` is `"foo.txt"`.

Some other option types supported by *optparse* are `int` and `float`. Here's an option that expects an integer argument :

```
parser.add_option("-n", type="int", dest="num")
```

Note that this option has no long option string, which is perfectly acceptable. Also, there's no explicit action, since the default is `store`.

Let's parse another fake command-line. This time, we'll jam the option argument right up against the option : since `-n42` (one argument) is equivalent to `-n 42` (two arguments), the code

```
(options, args) = parser.parse_args(["-n42"])
print options.num
```

affichera 42.

If you don't specify a type, *optparse* assumes `string`. Combined with the fact that the default action is `store`, that means our first example can be a lot shorter :

```
parser.add_option("-f", "--file", dest="filename")
```

If you don't supply a destination, *optparse* figures out a sensible default from the option strings : if the first long option string is `--foo-bar`, then the default destination is `foo_bar`. If there are no long option strings, *optparse* looks at the first short option string : the default destination for `-f` is `f`.

optparse also includes built-in long and complex types. Adding types is covered in section [Extending optparse](#).

Handling boolean (flag) options

Flag options—set a variable to true or false when a particular option is seen—are quite common. *optparse* supports them with two separate actions, `store_true` and `store_false`. For example, you might have a `verbose` flag that is turned on with `-v` and off with `-q` :

```
parser.add_option("-v", action="store_true", dest="verbose")
parser.add_option("-q", action="store_false", dest="verbose")
```

Here we have two different options with the same destination, which is perfectly OK. (It just means you have to be a bit careful when setting default values—see below.)

When *optparse* encounters `-v` on the command line, it sets `options.verbose` to `True` ; when it encounters `-q`, `options.verbose` is set to `False`.

Other actions

Some other actions supported by *optparse* are :

- `"store_const"` store a constant value
- `"append"` append this option's argument to a list
- `"count"` increment a counter by one
- `"callback"` call a specified function

These are covered in section [Reference Guide](#), Reference Guide and section [Option Callbacks](#).

Valeurs par défaut

All of the above examples involve setting some variable (the « destination ») when certain command-line options are seen. What happens if those options are never seen? Since we didn't supply any defaults, they are all set to `None`. This is usually fine, but sometimes you want more control. *optparse* lets you supply a default value for each destination, which is assigned before the command line is parsed.

First, consider the `verbose/quiet` example. If we want *optparse* to set `verbose` to `True` unless `-q` is seen, then we can do this :

```
parser.add_option("-v", action="store_true", dest="verbose", default=True)
parser.add_option("-q", action="store_false", dest="verbose")
```

Since default values apply to the *destination* rather than to any particular option, and these two options happen to have the same destination, this is exactly equivalent :

```
parser.add_option("-v", action="store_true", dest="verbose")
parser.add_option("-q", action="store_false", dest="verbose", default=True)
```

Consider this :

```
parser.add_option("-v", action="store_true", dest="verbose", default=False)
parser.add_option("-q", action="store_false", dest="verbose", default=True)
```

Again, the default value for `verbose` will be `True` : the last default value supplied for any particular destination is the one that counts.

A clearer way to specify default values is the `set_defaults()` method of `OptionParser`, which you can call at any time before calling `parse_args()` :


```
parser.set_defaults(verbose=True)
parser.add_option(...)
(options, args) = parser.parse_args()
```

As before, the last value specified for a given option destination is the one that counts. For clarity, try to use one method or the other of setting default values, not both.

Generating help

optparse's ability to generate help and usage text automatically is useful for creating user-friendly command-line interfaces. All you have to do is supply a *help* value for each option, and optionally a short usage message for your whole program. Here's an *OptionParser* populated with user-friendly (documented) options :

```
usage = "usage: %prog [options] arg1 arg2"
parser = OptionParser(usage=usage)
parser.add_option("-v", "--verbose",
                  action="store_true", dest="verbose", default=True,
                  help="make lots of noise [default]")
parser.add_option("-q", "--quiet",
                  action="store_false", dest="verbose",
                  help="be vewwy quiet (I'm hunting wabbits)")
parser.add_option("-f", "--filename",
                  metavar="FILE", help="write output to FILE")
parser.add_option("-m", "--mode",
                  default="intermediate",
                  help="interaction mode: novice, intermediate, "
                       "or expert [default: %default]")
```

If *optparse* encounters either `-h` or `--help` on the command-line, or if you just call `parser.print_help()`, it prints the following to standard output :

```
Usage: <yourscript> [options] arg1 arg2

Options:
  -h, --help            show this help message and exit
  -v, --verbose          make lots of noise [default]
  -q, --quiet           be vewwy quiet (I'm hunting wabbits)
  -f FILE, --filename=FILE
                        write output to FILE
  -m MODE, --mode=MODE  interaction mode: novice, intermediate, or
                        expert [default: intermediate]
```

(If the help output is triggered by a help option, *optparse* exits after printing the help text.)

There's a lot going on here to help *optparse* generate the best possible help message :

- the script defines its own usage message :

```
usage = "usage: %prog [options] arg1 arg2"
```

optparse expands `%prog` in the usage string to the name of the current program, i.e. `os.path.basename(sys.argv[0])`. The expanded string is then printed before the detailed option help.

If you don't supply a usage string, *optparse* uses a bland but sensible default : `"Usage: %prog [options]"`, which is fine if your script doesn't take any positional arguments.

- every option defines a help string, and doesn't worry about line-wrapping— *optparse* takes care of wrapping lines and making the help output look good.

- options that take a value indicate this fact in their automatically-generated help message, e.g. for the « mode » option :

```
-m MODE, --mode=MODE
```

Here, « MODE » is called the meta-variable : it stands for the argument that the user is expected to supply to `-m/--mode`. By default, *optparse* converts the destination variable name to uppercase and uses that for the meta-variable. Sometimes, that's not what you want—for example, the `--filename` option explicitly sets `metavar="FILE"`, resulting in this automatically-generated option description :

```
-f FILE, --filename=FILE
```

This is important for more than just saving space, though : the manually written help text uses the meta-variable `FILE` to clue the user in that there's a connection between the semi-formal syntax `-f FILE` and the informal semantic description « write output to `FILE` ». This is a simple but effective way to make your help text a lot clearer and more useful for end users.

Nouveau dans la version 2.4 : Options that have a default value can include `%default` in the help string—*optparse* will replace it with `str()` of the option's default value. If an option has no default value (or the default value is `None`), `%default` expands to `none`.

Grouping Options

When dealing with many options, it is convenient to group these options for better help output. An *OptionParser* can contain several option groups, each of which can contain several options.

An option group is obtained using the class *OptionGroup* :

```
class optparse.OptionGroup(parser, title, description=None)
```

where

- `parser` is the *OptionParser* instance the group will be inserted in to
- `title` is the group title
- `description`, optional, is a long description of the group

OptionGroup inherits from *OptionContainer* (like *OptionParser*) and so the `add_option()` method can be used to add an option to the group.

Once all the options are declared, using the *OptionParser* method `add_option_group()` the group is added to the previously defined parser.

Continuing with the parser defined in the previous section, adding an *OptionGroup* to a parser is easy :

```
group = OptionGroup(parser, "Dangerous Options",
                    "Caution: use these options at your own risk. "
                    "It is believed that some of them bite.")
group.add_option("-g", action="store_true", help="Group option.")
parser.add_option_group(group)
```

This would result in the following help output :

```
Usage: <yourscript> [options] arg1 arg2

Options:
  -h, --help            show this help message and exit
  -v, --verbose          make lots of noise [default]
  -q, --quiet            be vewwy quiet (I'm hunting wabbits)
  -f FILE, --filename=FILE
                        write output to FILE
```

(suite sur la page suivante)

(suite de la page précédente)

```
-m MODE, --mode=MODE  interaction mode: novice, intermediate, or
                        expert [default: intermediate]
```

Dangerous Options:

Caution: use these options at your own risk. It is believed that some of them bite.

```
-g                      Group option.
```

A bit more complete example might involve using more than one group : still extending the previous example :

```
group = OptionGroup(parser, "Dangerous Options",
                    "Caution: use these options at your own risk. "
                    "It is believed that some of them bite.")
group.add_option("-g", action="store_true", help="Group option.")
parser.add_option_group(group)

group = OptionGroup(parser, "Debug Options")
group.add_option("-d", "--debug", action="store_true",
                help="Print debug information")
group.add_option("-s", "--sql", action="store_true",
                help="Print all SQL statements executed")
group.add_option("-e", action="store_true", help="Print every action done")
parser.add_option_group(group)
```

that results in the following output :

```
Usage: <yourscript> [options] arg1 arg2

Options:
  -h, --help            show this help message and exit
  -v, --verbose          make lots of noise [default]
  -q, --quiet           be vewwy quiet (I'm hunting wabbits)
  -f FILE, --filename=FILE
                        write output to FILE
  -m MODE, --mode=MODE  interaction mode: novice, intermediate, or expert
                        [default: intermediate]

Dangerous Options:
  Caution: use these options at your own risk. It is believed that some
  of them bite.

  -g                      Group option.

Debug Options:
  -d, --debug            Print debug information
  -s, --sql             Print all SQL statements executed
  -e                    Print every action done
```

Another interesting method, in particular when working programmatically with option groups is :

`OptionParser.get_option_group(opt_str)`

Return the *OptionGroup* to which the short or long option string *opt_str* (e.g. '-o' or '--option') belongs. If there's no such *OptionGroup*, return `None`.

Printing a version string

Similar to the brief usage string, *optparse* can also print a version string for your program. You have to supply the string as the `version` argument to `OptionParser` :

```
parser = OptionParser(usage="%prog [-f] [-q]", version="%prog 1.0")
```

`%prog` is expanded just like it is in `usage`. Apart from that, `version` can contain anything you like. When you supply it, *optparse* automatically adds a `--version` option to your parser. If it encounters this option on the command line, it expands your `version` string (by replacing `%prog`), prints it to `stdout`, and exits.

For example, if your script is called `/usr/bin/foo` :

```
$ /usr/bin/foo --version
foo 1.0
```

The following two methods can be used to print and get the `version` string :

`OptionParser.print_version(file=None)`

Print the version message for the current program (`self.version`) to `file` (default `stdout`). As with *print_usage()*, any occurrence of `%prog` in `self.version` is replaced with the name of the current program. Does nothing if `self.version` is empty or undefined.

`OptionParser.get_version()`

Same as *print_version()* but returns the version string instead of printing it.

How *optparse* handles errors

There are two broad classes of errors that *optparse* has to worry about : programmer errors and user errors. Programmer errors are usually erroneous calls to *OptionParser.add_option()*, e.g. invalid option strings, unknown option attributes, missing option attributes, etc. These are dealt with in the usual way : raise an exception (either *optparse.OptionError* or *TypeError*) and let the program crash.

Handling user errors is much more important, since they are guaranteed to happen no matter how stable your code is. *optparse* can automatically detect some user errors, such as bad option arguments (passing `-n 4x` where `-n` takes an integer argument), missing arguments (`-n` at the end of the command line, where `-n` takes an argument of any type). Also, you can call *OptionParser.error()* to signal an application-defined error condition :

```
(options, args) = parser.parse_args()
...
if options.a and options.b:
    parser.error("options -a and -b are mutually exclusive")
```

In either case, *optparse* handles the error the same way : it prints the program's usage message and an error message to standard error and exits with error status 2.

Consider the first example above, where the user passes `4x` to an option that takes an integer :

```
$ /usr/bin/foo -n 4x
Usage: foo [options]

foo: error: option -n: invalid integer value: '4x'
```

Or, where the user fails to pass a value at all :

```
$ /usr/bin/foo -n
Usage: foo [options]

foo: error: -n option requires an argument
```

optparse-generated error messages take care always to mention the option involved in the error; be sure to do the same when calling `OptionParser.error()` from your application code.

If *optparse*'s default error-handling behaviour does not suit your needs, you'll need to subclass `OptionParser` and override its `exit()` and/or `error()` methods.

Putting it all together

Here's what *optparse*-based scripts usually look like :

```
from optparse import OptionParser
...
def main():
    usage = "usage: %prog [options] arg"
    parser = OptionParser(usage)
    parser.add_option("-f", "--file", dest="filename",
                      help="read data from FILENAME")
    parser.add_option("-v", "--verbose",
                      action="store_true", dest="verbose")
    parser.add_option("-q", "--quiet",
                      action="store_false", dest="verbose")
    ...
    (options, args) = parser.parse_args()
    if len(args) != 1:
        parser.error("incorrect number of arguments")
    if options.verbose:
        print "reading %s..." % options.filename
    ...

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

15.5.3 Reference Guide

Creating the parser

The first step in using *optparse* is to create an `OptionParser` instance.

class `optparse.OptionParser(...)`

The `OptionParser` constructor has no required arguments, but a number of optional keyword arguments. You should always pass them as keyword arguments, i.e. do not rely on the order in which the arguments are declared.

usage (default : `"%prog [options]"`) The usage summary to print when your program is run incorrectly or with a help option. When *optparse* prints the usage string, it expands `%prog` to `os.path.basename(sys.argv[0])` (or to `prog` if you passed that keyword argument). To suppress a usage message, pass the special value `optparse.SUPPRESS_USAGE`.

option_list (default : `[]`) A list of `Option` objects to populate the parser with. The options in `option_list` are added after any options in `standard_option_list` (a class attribute that may be set by `OptionParser` subclasses), but before any version or help options. Deprecated; use `add_option()` after creating the parser instead.

option_class (default : `optparse.Option`) Class to use when adding options to the parser in `add_option()`.

version (default : `None`) A version string to print when the user supplies a version option. If you supply a true value for **version**, `optparse` automatically adds a version option with the single option string `--version`. The substring `%prog` is expanded the same as for **usage**.

conflict_handler (default : `"error"`) Specifies what to do when options with conflicting option strings are added to the parser; see section *Conflicts between options*.

description (default : `None`) A paragraph of text giving a brief overview of your program. `optparse` reformats this paragraph to fit the current terminal width and prints it when the user requests help (after **usage**, but before the list of options).

formatter (default : a new `IndentedHelpFormatter`) An instance of `optparse.HelpFormatter` that will be used for printing help text. `optparse` provides two concrete classes for this purpose : `IndentedHelpFormatter` and `TitledHelpFormatter`.

add_help_option (default : `True`) If true, `optparse` will add a help option (with option strings `-h` and `--help`) to the parser.

prog The string to use when expanding `%prog` in **usage** and **version** instead of `os.path.basename(sys.argv[0])`.

epilog (default : `None`) A paragraph of help text to print after the option help.

Populating the parser

There are several ways to populate the parser with options. The preferred way is by using `OptionParser.add_option()`, as shown in section *Tutorial*. `add_option()` can be called in one of two ways :

- pass it an `Option` instance (as returned by `make_option()`)
- pass it any combination of positional and keyword arguments that are acceptable to `make_option()` (i.e., to the `Option` constructor), and it will create the `Option` instance for you

The other alternative is to pass a list of pre-constructed `Option` instances to the `OptionParser` constructor, as in :

```
option_list = [
    make_option("-f", "--filename",
                action="store", type="string", dest="filename"),
    make_option("-q", "--quiet",
                action="store_false", dest="verbose"),
]
parser = OptionParser(option_list=option_list)
```

(`make_option()` is a factory function for creating `Option` instances; currently it is an alias for the `Option` constructor. A future version of `optparse` may split `Option` into several classes, and `make_option()` will pick the right class to instantiate. Do not instantiate `Option` directly.)

Defining options

Each `Option` instance represents a set of synonymous command-line option strings, e.g. `-f` and `--file`. You can specify any number of short or long option strings, but you must specify at least one overall option string.

The canonical way to create an `Option` instance is with the `add_option()` method of `OptionParser`.

`OptionParser.add_option(option)`

`OptionParser.add_option(*opt_str, attr=value, ...)`

To define an option with only a short option string :

```
parser.add_option("-f", attr=value, ...)
```

And to define an option with only a long option string :

```
parser.add_option("--foo", attr=value, ...)
```

The keyword arguments define attributes of the new Option object. The most important option attribute is *action*, and it largely determines which other attributes are relevant or required. If you pass irrelevant option attributes, or fail to pass required ones, *optparse* raises an *OptionError* exception explaining your mistake.

An option's *action* determines what *optparse* does when it encounters this option on the command-line. The standard option actions hard-coded into *optparse* are :

"store" store this option's argument (default)

"store_const" store a constant value

"store_true" store a true value

"store_false" store a false value

"append" append this option's argument to a list

"append_const" append a constant value to a list

"count" increment a counter by one

"callback" call a specified function

"help" print a usage message including all options and the documentation for them

(If you don't supply an action, the default is "store". For this action, you may also supply *type* and *dest* option attributes; see *Standard option actions*.)

As you can see, most actions involve storing or updating a value somewhere. *optparse* always creates a special object for this, conventionally called *options* (it happens to be an instance of *optparse.Values*). Option arguments (and various other values) are stored as attributes of this object, according to the *dest* (destination) option attribute.

For example, when you call

```
parser.parse_args()
```

one of the first things *optparse* does is create the *options* object :

```
options = Values()
```

If one of the options in this parser is defined with

```
parser.add_option("-f", "--file", action="store", type="string", dest="filename")
```

and the command-line being parsed includes any of the following :

```
-ffoo
-f foo
--file=foo
--file foo
```

then *optparse*, on seeing this option, will do the equivalent of

```
options.filename = "foo"
```

The *type* and *dest* option attributes are almost as important as *action*, but *action* is the only one that makes sense for *all* options.

Option attributes

The following option attributes may be passed as keyword arguments to `OptionParser.add_option()`. If you pass an option attribute that is not relevant to a particular option, or fail to pass a required option attribute, `optparse` raises `OptionError`.

`Option.action`

(default : "store")

Determines `optparse`'s behaviour when this option is seen on the command line ; the available options are documented [here](#).

`Option.type`

(default : "string")

The argument type expected by this option (e.g., "string" or "int"); the available option types are documented [here](#).

`Option.dest`

(default : derived from option strings)

If the option's action implies writing or modifying a value somewhere, this tells `optparse` where to write it : `dest` names an attribute of the `options` object that `optparse` builds as it parses the command line.

`Option.default`

The value to use for this option's destination if the option is not seen on the command line. See also `OptionParser.set_defaults()`.

`Option.nargs`

(default : 1)

How many arguments of type `type` should be consumed when this option is seen. If > 1 , `optparse` will store a tuple of values to `dest`.

`Option.const`

For actions that store a constant value, the constant value to store.

`Option.choices`

For options of type "choice", the list of strings the user may choose from.

`Option.callback`

For options with action "callback", the callable to call when this option is seen. See section [Option Callbacks](#) for detail on the arguments passed to the callable.

`Option.callback_args`

`Option.callback_kwargs`

Additional positional and keyword arguments to pass to `callback` after the four standard callback arguments.

`Option.help`

Help text to print for this option when listing all available options after the user supplies a `help` option (such as `--help`). If no help text is supplied, the option will be listed without help text. To hide this option, use the special value `optparse.SUPPRESS_HELP`.

`Option.metavar`

(default : derived from option strings)

Stand-in for the option argument(s) to use when printing help text. See section [Tutoriel](#) for an example.

Standard option actions

The various option actions all have slightly different requirements and effects. Most actions have several relevant option attributes which you may specify to guide `optparse`'s behaviour ; a few have required attributes, which you must specify for any option using that action.

- "store" [relevant : *type*, *dest*, *nargs*, *choices*]

The option must be followed by an argument, which is converted to a value according to *type* and stored in *dest*. If *nargs* > 1, multiple arguments will be consumed from the command line; all will be converted according to *type* and stored to *dest* as a tuple. See the *Standard option types* section. If *choices* is supplied (a list or tuple of strings), the type defaults to "choice".

If *type* is not supplied, it defaults to "string".

If *dest* is not supplied, *optparse* derives a destination from the first long option string (e.g., --foo-bar implies foo_bar). If there are no long option strings, *optparse* derives a destination from the first short option string (e.g., -f implies f).

Example :

```
parser.add_option("-f")
parser.add_option("-p", type="float", nargs=3, dest="point")
```

As it parses the command line

```
-f foo.txt -p 1 -3.5 4 -fbar.txt
```

optparse will set

```
options.f = "foo.txt"
options.point = (1.0, -3.5, 4.0)
options.f = "bar.txt"
```

- "store_const" [required : *const*; relevant : *dest*]

The value *const* is stored in *dest*.

Example :

```
parser.add_option("-q", "--quiet",
                  action="store_const", const=0, dest="verbose")
parser.add_option("-v", "--verbose",
                  action="store_const", const=1, dest="verbose")
parser.add_option("--noisy",
                  action="store_const", const=2, dest="verbose")
```

If --noisy is seen, *optparse* will set

```
options.verbose = 2
```

- "store_true" [relevant : *dest*]

A special case of "store_const" that stores a true value to *dest*.

- "store_false" [relevant : *dest*]

Like "store_true", but stores a false value.

Example :

```
parser.add_option("--clobber", action="store_true", dest="clobber")
parser.add_option("--no-clobber", action="store_false", dest="clobber")
```

- "append" [relevant : *type*, *dest*, *nargs*, *choices*]

The option must be followed by an argument, which is appended to the list in *dest*. If no default value for *dest* is supplied, an empty list is automatically created when *optparse* first encounters this option on the command-line. If *nargs* > 1, multiple arguments are consumed, and a tuple of length *nargs* is appended to *dest*.

The defaults for *type* and *dest* are the same as for the "store" action.

Example :

```
parser.add_option("-t", "--tracks", action="append", type="int")
```

If -t3 is seen on the command-line, *optparse* does the equivalent of :

```
options.tracks = []
options.tracks.append(int("3"))
```

If, a little later on, `--tracks=4` is seen, it does :

```
options.tracks.append(int("4"))
```

The `append` action calls the `append` method on the current value of the option. This means that any default value specified must have an `append` method. It also means that if the default value is non-empty, the default elements will be present in the parsed value for the option, with any values from the command line appended after those default values :

```
>>> parser.add_option("--files", action="append", default=['~/mypkg/defaults'])
>>> opts, args = parser.parse_args(['--files', 'overrides.mypkg'])
>>> opts.files
['~/mypkg/defaults', 'overrides.mypkg']
```

- `"append_const"` [required : *const*; relevant : *dest*]
Like `"store_const"`, but the value *const* is appended to *dest*; as with `"append"`, *dest* defaults to `None`, and an empty list is automatically created the first time the option is encountered.
- `"count"` [relevant : *dest*]
Increment the integer stored at *dest*. If no default value is supplied, *dest* is set to zero before being incremented the first time.
Exemple :

```
parser.add_option("-v", action="count", dest="verbosity")
```

The first time `-v` is seen on the command line, *optparse* does the equivalent of :

```
options.verbosity = 0
options.verbosity += 1
```

Every subsequent occurrence of `-v` results in

```
options.verbosity += 1
```

- `"callback"` [required : *callback*; relevant : *type*, *nargs*, *callback_args*, *callback_kwargs*]
Call the function specified by *callback*, which is called as

```
func(option, opt_str, value, parser, *args, **kwargs)
```

See section *Option Callbacks* for more detail.

- `"help"`
Prints a complete help message for all the options in the current option parser. The help message is constructed from the *usage* string passed to `OptionParser`'s constructor and the *help* string passed to every option.
If no *help* string is supplied for an option, it will still be listed in the help message. To omit an option entirely, use the special value `optparse.SUPPRESS_HELP`.
optparse automatically adds a *help* option to all `OptionParsers`, so you do not normally need to create one.
Exemple :

```
from optparse import OptionParser, SUPPRESS_HELP

# usually, a help option is added automatically, but that can
# be suppressed using the add_help_option argument
parser = OptionParser(add_help_option=False)
```

(suite sur la page suivante)

(suite de la page précédente)

```

parser.add_option("-h", "--help", action="help")
parser.add_option("-v", action="store_true", dest="verbose",
                  help="Be moderately verbose")
parser.add_option("--file", dest="filename",
                  help="Input file to read data from")
parser.add_option("--secret", help=SUPPRESS_HELP)

```

If *optparse* sees either `-h` or `--help` on the command line, it will print something like the following help message to stdout (assuming `sys.argv[0]` is `"foo.py"`) :

```

Usage: foo.py [options]

Options:
  -h, --help          Show this help message and exit
  -v                  Be moderately verbose
  --file=FILENAME     Input file to read data from

```

After printing the help message, *optparse* terminates your process with `sys.exit(0)`.

- **"version"**

Prints the version number supplied to the `OptionParser` to stdout and exits. The version number is actually formatted and printed by the `print_version()` method of `OptionParser`. Generally only relevant if the `version` argument is supplied to the `OptionParser` constructor. As with *help* options, you will rarely create `version` options, since *optparse* automatically adds them when needed.

Standard option types

optparse has six built-in option types : `"string"`, `"int"`, `"long"`, `"choice"`, `"float"` and `"complex"`. If you need to add new option types, see section *Extending optparse*.

Arguments to string options are not checked or converted in any way : the text on the command line is stored in the destination (or passed to the callback) as-is.

Integer arguments (type `"int"` or `"long"`) are parsed as follows :

- if the number starts with `0x`, it is parsed as a hexadecimal number
- if the number starts with `0`, it is parsed as an octal number
- if the number starts with `0b`, it is parsed as a binary number
- otherwise, the number is parsed as a decimal number

The conversion is done by calling either `int()` or `long()` with the appropriate base (2, 8, 10, or 16). If this fails, so will *optparse*, although with a more useful error message.

`"float"` and `"complex"` option arguments are converted directly with `float()` and `complex()`, with similar error-handling.

`"choice"` options are a subtype of `"string"` options. The *choices* option attribute (a sequence of strings) defines the set of allowed option arguments. `optparse.check_choice()` compares user-supplied option arguments against this master list and raises `OptionValueError` if an invalid string is given.

Analyse des arguments

The whole point of creating and populating an `OptionParser` is to call its `parse_args()` method :

```

(options, args) = parser.parse_args(args=None, values=None)

```

where the input parameters are

args the list of arguments to process (default : `sys.argv[1:]`)

values an `optparse.Values` object to store option arguments in (default : a new instance of `Values`) – if you give an existing object, the option defaults will not be initialized on it
and the return values are

options the same object that was passed in as **values**, or the `optparse.Values` instance created by `optparse`

args the leftover positional arguments after all options have been processed

The most common usage is to supply neither keyword argument. If you supply **values**, it will be modified with repeated `setattr()` calls (roughly one for every option argument stored to an option destination) and returned by `parse_args()`.

If `parse_args()` encounters any errors in the argument list, it calls the `OptionParser`'s `error()` method with an appropriate end-user error message. This ultimately terminates your process with an exit status of 2 (the traditional Unix exit status for command-line errors).

Querying and manipulating your option parser

The default behavior of the option parser can be customized slightly, and you can also poke around your option parser and see what's there. `OptionParser` provides several methods to help you out :

`OptionParser.disable_interspersed_args()`

Set parsing to stop on the first non-option. For example, if `-a` and `-b` are both simple options that take no arguments, `optparse` normally accepts this syntax :

```
prog -a arg1 -b arg2
```

and treats it as equivalent to

```
prog -a -b arg1 arg2
```

To disable this feature, call `disable_interspersed_args()`. This restores traditional Unix syntax, where option parsing stops with the first non-option argument.

Use this if you have a command processor which runs another command which has options of its own and you want to make sure these options don't get confused. For example, each command might have a different set of options.

`OptionParser.enable_interspersed_args()`

Set parsing to not stop on the first non-option, allowing interspersing switches with command arguments. This is the default behavior.

`OptionParser.get_option(opt_str)`

Returns the `Option` instance with the option string `opt_str`, or `None` if no options have that option string.

`OptionParser.has_option(opt_str)`

Return true if the `OptionParser` has an option with option string `opt_str` (e.g., `-q` or `--verbose`).

`OptionParser.remove_option(opt_str)`

If the `OptionParser` has an option corresponding to `opt_str`, that option is removed. If that option provided any other option strings, all of those option strings become invalid. If `opt_str` does not occur in any option belonging to this `OptionParser`, raises `ValueError`.

Conflicts between options

If you're not careful, it's easy to define options with conflicting option strings :

```
parser.add_option("-n", "--dry-run", ...)
...
parser.add_option("-n", "--noisy", ...)
```

(This is particularly true if you've defined your own `OptionParser` subclass with some standard options.)

Every time you add an option, *optparse* checks for conflicts with existing options. If it finds any, it invokes the current conflict-handling mechanism. You can set the conflict-handling mechanism either in the constructor :

```
parser = OptionParser(..., conflict_handler=handler)
```

or with a separate call :

```
parser.set_conflict_handler(handler)
```

The available conflict handlers are :

"error" (default) assume option conflicts are a programming error and raise `OptionConflictError`

"resolve" resolve option conflicts intelligently (see below)

As an example, let's define an *OptionParser* that resolves conflicts intelligently and add conflicting options to it :

```
parser = OptionParser(conflict_handler="resolve")
parser.add_option("-n", "--dry-run", ..., help="do no harm")
parser.add_option("-n", "--noisy", ..., help="be noisy")
```

At this point, *optparse* detects that a previously-added option is already using the `-n` option string. Since `conflict_handler` is `"resolve"`, it resolves the situation by removing `-n` from the earlier option's list of option strings. Now `--dry-run` is the only way for the user to activate that option. If the user asks for help, the help message will reflect that :

```
Options:
  --dry-run      do no harm
  ...
  -n, --noisy    be noisy
```

It's possible to whittle away the option strings for a previously-added option until there are none left, and the user has no way of invoking that option from the command-line. In that case, *optparse* removes that option completely, so it doesn't show up in help text or anywhere else. Carrying on with our existing `OptionParser` :

```
parser.add_option("--dry-run", ..., help="new dry-run option")
```

At this point, the original `-n/--dry-run` option is no longer accessible, so *optparse* removes it, leaving this help text :

```
Options:
  ...
  -n, --noisy    be noisy
  --dry-run      new dry-run option
```

Cleanup

`OptionParser` instances have several cyclic references. This should not be a problem for Python's garbage collector, but you may wish to break the cyclic references explicitly by calling `destroy()` on your `OptionParser` once you are done with it. This is particularly useful in long-running applications where large object graphs are reachable from your `OptionParser`.

Other methods

OptionParser supports several other public methods :

`OptionParser.set_usage(usage)`

Set the usage string according to the rules described above for the `usage` constructor keyword argument. Passing `None` sets the default usage string; use `optparse.SUPPRESS_USAGE` to suppress a usage message.

`OptionParser.print_usage(file=None)`

Print the usage message for the current program (`self.usage`) to `file` (default `stdout`). Any occurrence of the string `%prog` in `self.usage` is replaced with the name of the current program. Does nothing if `self.usage` is empty or not defined.

`OptionParser.get_usage()`

Same as `print_usage()` but returns the usage string instead of printing it.

`OptionParser.set_defaults(dest=value, ...)`

Set default values for several option destinations at once. Using `set_defaults()` is the preferred way to set default values for options, since multiple options can share the same destination. For example, if several « `mode` » options all set the same destination, any one of them can set the default, and the last one wins :

```
parser.add_option("--advanced", action="store_const",
                  dest="mode", const="advanced",
                  default="novice")    # overridden below
parser.add_option("--novice", action="store_const",
                  dest="mode", const="novice",
                  default="advanced")  # overrides above setting
```

To avoid this confusion, use `set_defaults()` :

```
parser.set_defaults(mode="advanced")
parser.add_option("--advanced", action="store_const",
                  dest="mode", const="advanced")
parser.add_option("--novice", action="store_const",
                  dest="mode", const="novice")
```

15.5.4 Option Callbacks

When `optparse`'s built-in actions and types aren't quite enough for your needs, you have two choices : extend `optparse` or define a callback option. Extending `optparse` is more general, but overkill for a lot of simple cases. Quite often a simple callback is all you need.

There are two steps to defining a callback option :

- define the option itself using the "callback" action
- write the callback; this is a function (or method) that takes at least four arguments, as described below

Defining a callback option

As always, the easiest way to define a callback option is by using the `OptionParser.add_option()` method. Apart from `action`, the only option attribute you must specify is `callback`, the function to call :

```
parser.add_option("-c", action="callback", callback=my_callback)
```

`callback` is a function (or other callable object), so you must have already defined `my_callback()` when you create this callback option. In this simple case, `optparse` doesn't even know if `-c` takes any arguments, which usually means that the option takes no arguments—the mere presence of `-c` on the command-line is

all it needs to know. In some circumstances, though, you might want your callback to consume an arbitrary number of command-line arguments. This is where writing callbacks gets tricky; it's covered later in this section.

`optparse` always passes four particular arguments to your callback, and it will only pass additional arguments if you specify them via `callback_args` and `callback_kwargs`. Thus, the minimal callback function signature is :

```
def my_callback(option, opt, value, parser):
```

The four arguments to a callback are described below.

There are several other option attributes that you can supply when you define a callback option :

`type` has its usual meaning : as with the "store" or "append" actions, it instructs `optparse` to consume one argument and convert it to `type`. Rather than storing the converted value(s) anywhere, though, `optparse` passes it to your callback function.

`nargs` also has its usual meaning : if it is supplied and > 1 , `optparse` will consume `nargs` arguments, each of which must be convertible to `type`. It then passes a tuple of converted values to your callback.

`callback_args` a tuple of extra positional arguments to pass to the callback

`callback_kwargs` a dictionary of extra keyword arguments to pass to the callback

How callbacks are called

All callbacks are called as follows :

```
func(option, opt_str, value, parser, *args, **kwargs)
```

where

option is the Option instance that's calling the callback

opt_str is the option string seen on the command-line that's triggering the callback. (If an abbreviated long option was used, **opt_str** will be the full, canonical option string—e.g. if the user puts `--foo` on the command-line as an abbreviation for `--foobar`, then **opt_str** will be `--foobar`.)

value is the argument to this option seen on the command-line. `optparse` will only expect an argument if `type` is set; the type of **value** will be the type implied by the option's type. If `type` for this option is `None` (no argument expected), then **value** will be `None`. If `nargs` > 1 , **value** will be a tuple of values of the appropriate type.

parser is the OptionParser instance driving the whole thing, mainly useful because you can access some other interesting data through its instance attributes :

parser.largs the current list of leftover arguments, ie. arguments that have been consumed but are neither options nor option arguments. Feel free to modify **parser.largs**, e.g. by adding more arguments to it. (This list will become **args**, the second return value of `parse_args()`.)

parser.rargs the current list of remaining arguments, ie. with **opt_str** and **value** (if applicable) removed, and only the arguments following them still there. Feel free to modify **parser.rargs**, e.g. by consuming more arguments.

parser.values the object where option values are by default stored (an instance of `optparse.OptionValues`). This lets callbacks use the same mechanism as the rest of `optparse` for storing option values; you don't need to mess around with globals or closures. You can also access or modify the value(s) of any options already encountered on the command-line.

args is a tuple of arbitrary positional arguments supplied via the `callback_args` option attribute.

kwargs is a dictionary of arbitrary keyword arguments supplied via `callback_kwargs`.

Raising errors in a callback

The callback function should raise `OptionValueError` if there are any problems with the option or its argument(s). `optparse` catches this and terminates the program, printing the error message you supply to `stderr`. Your message should be clear, concise, accurate, and mention the option at fault. Otherwise, the user will have a hard time figuring out what they did wrong.

Callback example 1 : trivial callback

Here's an example of a callback option that takes no arguments, and simply records that the option was seen :

```
def record_foo_seen(option, opt_str, value, parser):
    parser.values.saw_foo = True

parser.add_option("--foo", action="callback", callback=record_foo_seen)
```

Of course, you could do that with the "store_true" action.

Callback example 2 : check option order

Here's a slightly more interesting example : record the fact that `-a` is seen, but blow up if it comes after `-b` in the command-line.

```
def check_order(option, opt_str, value, parser):
    if parser.values.b:
        raise OptionValueError("can't use -a after -b")
    parser.values.a = 1
...
parser.add_option("-a", action="callback", callback=check_order)
parser.add_option("-b", action="store_true", dest="b")
```

Callback example 3 : check option order (generalized)

If you want to re-use this callback for several similar options (set a flag, but blow up if `-b` has already been seen), it needs a bit of work : the error message and the flag that it sets must be generalized.

```
def check_order(option, opt_str, value, parser):
    if parser.values.b:
        raise OptionValueError("can't use %s after -b" % opt_str)
    setattr(parser.values, option.dest, 1)
...
parser.add_option("-a", action="callback", callback=check_order, dest='a')
parser.add_option("-b", action="store_true", dest="b")
parser.add_option("-c", action="callback", callback=check_order, dest='c')
```

Callback example 4 : check arbitrary condition

Of course, you could put any condition in there—you're not limited to checking the values of already-defined options. For example, if you have options that should not be called when the moon is full, all you have to do is this :

```
def check_moon(option, opt_str, value, parser):
    if is_moon_full():
        raise OptionValueError("%s option invalid when moon is full"
```

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```

                                % opt_str)
    setattr(parser.values, option.dest, 1)
    ...
    parser.add_option("--foo",
                      action="callback", callback=check_moon, dest="foo")

```

(The definition of `is_moon_full()` is left as an exercise for the reader.)

Callback example 5 : fixed arguments

Things get slightly more interesting when you define callback options that take a fixed number of arguments. Specifying that a callback option takes arguments is similar to defining a "store" or "append" option : if you define *type*, then the option takes one argument that must be convertible to that type ; if you further define *nargs*, then the option takes *nargs* arguments.

Here's an example that just emulates the standard "store" action :

```

def store_value(option, opt_str, value, parser):
    setattr(parser.values, option.dest, value)
    ...
    parser.add_option("--foo",
                      action="callback", callback=store_value,
                      type="int", nargs=3, dest="foo")

```

Note that *optparse* takes care of consuming 3 arguments and converting them to integers for you ; all you have to do is store them. (Or whatever ; obviously you don't need a callback for this example.)

Callback example 6 : variable arguments

Things get hairy when you want an option to take a variable number of arguments. For this case, you must write a callback, as *optparse* doesn't provide any built-in capabilities for it. And you have to deal with certain intricacies of conventional Unix command-line parsing that *optparse* normally handles for you. In particular, callbacks should implement the conventional rules for bare `--` and `-` arguments :

- either `--` or `-` can be option arguments
- bare `--` (if not the argument to some option) : halt command-line processing and discard the `--`
- bare `-` (if not the argument to some option) : halt command-line processing but keep the `-` (append it to `parser.largs`)

If you want an option that takes a variable number of arguments, there are several subtle, tricky issues to worry about. The exact implementation you choose will be based on which trade-offs you're willing to make for your application (which is why *optparse* doesn't support this sort of thing directly).

Nevertheless, here's a stab at a callback for an option with variable arguments :

```

def vararg_callback(option, opt_str, value, parser):
    assert value is None
    value = []

    def floatable(str):
        try:
            float(str)
            return True
        except ValueError:
            return False

```

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```

for arg in parser.rargs:
    # stop on --foo like options
    if arg[:2] == "--" and len(arg) > 2:
        break
    # stop on -a, but not on -3 or -3.0
    if arg[:1] == "-" and len(arg) > 1 and not floatable(arg):
        break
    value.append(arg)

del parser.rargs[:len(value)]
setattr(parser.values, option.dest, value)

...
parser.add_option("-c", "--callback", dest="vararg_attr",
                  action="callback", callback=vararg_callback)

```

15.5.5 Extending optparse

Since the two major controlling factors in how *optparse* interprets command-line options are the action and type of each option, the most likely direction of extension is to add new actions and new types.

Adding new types

To add new types, you need to define your own subclass of *optparse*'s *Option* class. This class has a couple of attributes that define *optparse*'s types : *TYPES* and *TYPE_CHECKER*.

Option.*TYPES*

A tuple of type names; in your subclass, simply define a new tuple *TYPES* that builds on the standard one.

Option.*TYPE_CHECKER*

A dictionary mapping type names to type-checking functions. A type-checking function has the following signature :

```
def check_mytype(option, opt, value)
```

where *option* is an *Option* instance, *opt* is an option string (e.g., *-f*), and *value* is the string from the command line that must be checked and converted to your desired type. *check_mytype()* should return an object of the hypothetical type *mytype*. The value returned by a type-checking function will wind up in the *OptionValues* instance returned by *OptionParser.parse_args()*, or be passed to a callback as the *value* parameter.

Your type-checking function should raise *OptionValueError* if it encounters any problems. *OptionValueError* takes a single string argument, which is passed as-is to *OptionParser*'s *error()* method, which in turn prepends the program name and the string "error:" and prints everything to *stderr* before terminating the process.

Here's a silly example that demonstrates adding a "complex" option type to parse Python-style complex numbers on the command line. (This is even sillier than it used to be, because *optparse* 1.3 added built-in support for complex numbers, but never mind.)

First, the necessary imports :

```

from copy import copy
from optparse import Option, OptionValueError

```

You need to define your type-checker first, since it's referred to later (in the `TYPE_CHECKER` class attribute of your Option subclass) :

```
def check_complex(option, opt, value):
    try:
        return complex(value)
    except ValueError:
        raise OptionValueError(
            "option %s: invalid complex value: %r" % (opt, value))
```

Finally, the Option subclass :

```
class MyOption (Option):
    TYPES = Option.TYPES + ("complex",)
    TYPE_CHECKER = copy(Option.TYPE_CHECKER)
    TYPE_CHECKER["complex"] = check_complex
```

(If we didn't make a `copy()` of `Option.TYPE_CHECKER`, we would end up modifying the `TYPE_CHECKER` attribute of `optparse`'s Option class. This being Python, nothing stops you from doing that except good manners and common sense.)

That's it! Now you can write a script that uses the new option type just like any other `optparse`-based script, except you have to instruct your OptionParser to use MyOption instead of Option :

```
parser = OptionParser(option_class=MyOption)
parser.add_option("-c", type="complex")
```

Alternately, you can build your own option list and pass it to OptionParser; if you don't use `add_option()` in the above way, you don't need to tell OptionParser which option class to use :

```
option_list = [MyOption("-c", action="store", type="complex", dest="c")]
parser = OptionParser(option_list=option_list)
```

Adding new actions

Adding new actions is a bit trickier, because you have to understand that `optparse` has a couple of classifications for actions :

- « **store** » **actions** actions that result in `optparse` storing a value to an attribute of the current OptionValues instance; these options require a `dest` attribute to be supplied to the Option constructor.
- « **typed** » **actions** actions that take a value from the command line and expect it to be of a certain type; or rather, a string that can be converted to a certain type. These options require a `type` attribute to the Option constructor.

These are overlapping sets : some default « store » actions are "store", "store_const", "append", and "count", while the default « typed » actions are "store", "append", and "callback".

When you add an action, you need to categorize it by listing it in at least one of the following class attributes of Option (all are lists of strings) :

Option.ACTIONS

All actions must be listed in ACTIONS.

Option.STORE_ACTIONS

« store » actions are additionally listed here.

Option.TYPED_ACTIONS

« typed » actions are additionally listed here.

Option.ALWAYS_TYPED_ACTIONS

Actions that always take a type (i.e. whose options always take a value) are additionally listed here. The only effect of this is that *optparse* assigns the default type, "string", to options with no explicit type whose action is listed in *ALWAYS_TYPED_ACTIONS*.

In order to actually implement your new action, you must override Option's `take_action()` method and add a case that recognizes your action.

For example, let's add an "extend" action. This is similar to the standard "append" action, but instead of taking a single value from the command-line and appending it to an existing list, "extend" will take multiple values in a single comma-delimited string, and extend an existing list with them. That is, if `--names` is an "extend" option of type "string", the command line

```
--names=foo,bar --names blah --names ding,dong
```

would result in a list

```
["foo", "bar", "blah", "ding", "dong"]
```

Again we define a subclass of Option :

```
class MyOption(Option):

    ACTIONS = Option.ACTIONS + ("extend",)
    STORE_ACTIONS = Option.STORE_ACTIONS + ("extend",)
    TYPED_ACTIONS = Option.TYPED_ACTIONS + ("extend",)
    ALWAYS_TYPED_ACTIONS = Option.ALWAYS_TYPED_ACTIONS + ("extend",)

    def take_action(self, action, dest, opt, value, values, parser):
        if action == "extend":
            lvalue = value.split(",")
            values.ensure_value(dest, []).extend(lvalue)
        else:
            Option.take_action(
                self, action, dest, opt, value, values, parser)
```

Features of note :

- "extend" both expects a value on the command-line and stores that value somewhere, so it goes in both *STORE_ACTIONS* and *TYPED_ACTIONS*.
- to ensure that *optparse* assigns the default type of "string" to "extend" actions, we put the "extend" action in *ALWAYS_TYPED_ACTIONS* as well.
- `MyOption.take_action()` implements just this one new action, and passes control back to `Option.take_action()` for the standard *optparse* actions.
- `values` is an instance of the `optparse_parser.Values` class, which provides the very useful `ensure_value()` method. `ensure_value()` is essentially *getattr()* with a safety valve; it is called as

```
values.ensure_value(attr, value)
```

If the `attr` attribute of `values` doesn't exist or is `None`, then `ensure_value()` first sets it to `value`, and then returns "value. This is very handy for actions like "extend", "append", and "count", all of which accumulate data in a variable and expect that variable to be of a certain type (a list for the first two, an integer for the latter). Using `ensure_value()` means that scripts using your action don't have to worry about setting a default value for the option destinations in question; they can just leave the default as `None` and `ensure_value()` will take care of getting it right when it's needed.

15.6 getopt — C-style parser for command line options

Code source : [Lib/getopt.py](#)

Note : The `getopt` module is a parser for command line options whose API is designed to be familiar to users of the C `getopt()` function. Users who are unfamiliar with the C `getopt()` function or who would like to write less code and get better help and error messages should consider using the `argparse` module instead.

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.

This module provides two functions and an exception :

`getopt.getopt(args, options[, long_options])`

Parses command line options and parameter list. *args* is the argument list to be parsed, without the leading reference to the running program. Typically, this means `sys.argv[1:]`. *options* 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).

Note : Unlike GNU `getopt()`, after a non-option argument, all further arguments are considered also non-options. This is similar to the way non-GNU Unix systems work.

long_options, if specified, must be 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. Long options which require an argument should be followed by an equal sign ('='). Optional arguments are not supported. To accept only long options, *options* should be an empty string. Long options on the command line can be recognized so long as they provide a prefix of the option name that matches exactly one of the accepted options. For example, if *long_options* is ['foo', 'frob'], the option --fo will match as --foo, but --f will not match uniquely, so `GetoptError` will be raised.

The return value consists of two elements : the first is a list of (option, value) pairs; the second is the list of program arguments left after the option list was stripped (this is a trailing slice of *args*). Each option-and-value pair returned has the option as its first element, prefixed with a hyphen for short options (e.g., '-x') or two hyphens for long options (e.g., '--long-option'), 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.

`getopt.gnu_getopt(args, options[, long_options])`

This function works like `getopt()`, except that GNU style scanning mode is used by default. This means that option and non-option arguments may be intermixed. The `getopt()` function stops processing options as soon as a non-option argument is encountered.

If the first character of the option string is '+', or if the environment variable `POSIXLY_CORRECT` is set, then option processing stops as soon as a non-option argument is encountered.

Nouveau dans la version 2.3.

exception `getopt.GetoptError`

This 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. The attributes `msg` and `opt` give the error message and related option; if there is no specific option to which the exception relates, `opt` is an empty string.

Modifié dans la version 1.6 : Introduced `GetoptError` as a synonym for `error`.

exception `getopt.error`

Alias for `GetoptError`; for backward compatibility.

An example using only Unix style options :

```
>>> import getopt
>>> args = '-a -b -cfoo -d bar a1 a2'.split()
>>> 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 = s.split()
>>> 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']
```

In a script, typical usage is something like this :

```
import getopt, sys

def main():
    try:
        opts, args = getopt.getopt(sys.argv[1:], "ho:v", ["help", "output="])
    except getopt.GetoptError as err:
        # print help information and exit:
        print str(err) # will print something like "option -a not recognized"
        usage()
        sys.exit(2)
    output = None
    verbose = False
    for o, a in opts:
        if o == "-v":
            verbose = True
        elif o in ("-h", "--help"):
            usage()
            sys.exit()
        elif o in ("-o", "--output"):
            output = a
        else:
            pass
```

(suite sur la page suivante)

(suite de la page précédente)

```

        assert False, "unhandled option"

    # ...

if __name__ == "__main__":
    main()

```

Note that an equivalent command line interface could be produced with less code and more informative help and error messages by using the *argparse* module :

```

import argparse

if __name__ == '__main__':
    parser = argparse.ArgumentParser()
    parser.add_argument('-o', '--output')
    parser.add_argument('-v', dest='verbose', action='store_true')
    args = parser.parse_args()
    # ... do something with args.output ...
    # ... do something with args.verbose ..

```

Voir aussi :

Module *argparse* Alternative command line option and argument parsing library.

15.7 logging — Logging facility for Python

Important

This page contains the API reference information. For tutorial information and discussion of more advanced topics, see

- Basic Tutorial
- Advanced Tutorial
- Logging Cookbook

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

Nouveau dans la version 2.3.

This module defines functions and classes which implement a flexible event logging system for applications and libraries.

The key benefit of having the logging API provided by a standard library module is that all Python modules can participate in logging, so your application log can include your own messages integrated with messages from third-party modules.

The module provides a lot of functionality and flexibility. If you are unfamiliar with logging, the best way to get to grips with it is to see the tutorials (see the links on the right).

The basic classes defined by the module, together with their functions, are listed below.

- Loggers expose the interface that application code directly uses.
- Handlers send the log records (created by loggers) to the appropriate destination.
- Filters provide a finer grained facility for determining which log records to output.
- Formatters specify the layout of log records in the final output.

15.7.1 Logger Objects

Loggers have the following attributes and methods. Note that Loggers are never instantiated directly, but always through the module-level function `logging.getLogger(name)`. Multiple calls to `getLogger()` with the same name will always return a reference to the same Logger object.

The `name` is potentially a period-separated hierarchical value, like `foo.bar.baz` (though it could also be just plain `foo`, for example). Loggers that are further down in the hierarchical list are children of loggers higher up in the list. For example, given a logger with a name of `foo`, loggers with names of `foo.bar`, `foo.bar.baz`, and `foo.bam` are all descendants of `foo`. The logger name hierarchy is analogous to the Python package hierarchy, and identical to it if you organise your loggers on a per-module basis using the recommended construction `logging.getLogger(__name__)`. That's because in a module, `__name__` is the module's name in the Python package namespace.

class `logging.Logger`

Logger.propagate

If this evaluates to true, events logged to this logger will be passed to the handlers of higher level (ancestor) loggers, in addition to any handlers attached to this logger. Messages are passed directly to the ancestor loggers' handlers - neither the level nor filters of the ancestor loggers in question are considered.

If this evaluates to false, logging messages are not passed to the handlers of ancestor loggers.

The constructor sets this attribute to **True**.

Note : If you attach a handler to a logger *and* one or more of its ancestors, it may emit the same record multiple times. In general, you should not need to attach a handler to more than one logger - if you just attach it to the appropriate logger which is highest in the logger hierarchy, then it will see all events logged by all descendant loggers, provided that their propagate setting is left set to **True**. A common scenario is to attach handlers only to the root logger, and to let propagation take care of the rest.

Logger.setLevel(level)

Sets the threshold for this logger to *level*. Logging messages which are less severe than *level* will be ignored. When a logger is created, the level is set to **NOTSET** (which causes all messages to be processed when the logger is the root logger, or delegation to the parent when the logger is a non-root logger). Note that the root logger is created with level **WARNING**.

The term "delegation to the parent" means that if a logger has a level of **NOTSET**, its chain of ancestor loggers is traversed until either an ancestor with a level other than **NOTSET** is found, or the root is reached.

If an ancestor is found with a level other than **NOTSET**, then that ancestor's level is treated as the effective level of the logger where the ancestor search began, and is used to determine how a logging event is handled.

If the root is reached, and it has a level of **NOTSET**, then all messages will be processed. Otherwise, the root's level will be used as the effective level.

See *Logging Levels* for a list of levels.

Logger.isEnabledFor(lvl)

Indicates if a message of severity *lvl* would be processed by this logger. This method checks first the module-level level set by `logging.disable(lvl)` and then the logger's effective level as determined by `getEffectiveLevel()`.

Logger.getEffectiveLevel()

Indicates the effective level for this logger. If a value other than **NOTSET** has been set using `setLevel()`, it is returned. Otherwise, the hierarchy is traversed towards the root until a value other than **NOTSET** is found, and that value is returned. The value returned is an integer, typically one of `logging.DEBUG`, `logging.INFO` etc.

Logger.getChild(suffix)

Returns a logger which is a descendant to this logger, as determined by the suffix. Thus, `logging.getLogger('abc').getChild('def.ghi')` would return the same logger as would be returned by `logging.getLogger('abc.def.ghi')`. This is a convenience method, useful when the parent logger is named using e.g. `__name__` rather than a literal string.

Nouveau dans la version 2.7.

Logger.debug(msg, *args, **kwargs)

Logs a message with level `DEBUG` on this logger. The *msg* is the message format string, and the *args* are the arguments which are merged into *msg* using the string formatting operator. (Note that this means that you can use keywords in the format string, together with a single dictionary argument.)

There are two keyword arguments in *kwargs* which are inspected : *exc_info* which, if it does not evaluate as false, causes exception information to be added to the logging message. If an exception tuple (in the format returned by `sys.exc_info()`) is provided, it is used ; otherwise, `sys.exc_info()` is called to get the exception information.

The second keyword argument is *extra* which can be used to pass a dictionary which is used to populate the `__dict__` of the `LogRecord` created for the logging event with user-defined attributes. These custom attributes can then be used as you like. For example, they could be incorporated into logged messages. For example :

```
FORMAT = '%(asctime)-15s %(clientip)s %(user)-8s %(message)s'
logging.basicConfig(format=FORMAT)
d = {'clientip': '192.168.0.1', 'user': 'fbloggs'}
logger = logging.getLogger('tcpserver')
logger.warning('Protocol problem: %s', 'connection reset', extra=d)
```

would print something like

```
2006-02-08 22:20:02,165 192.168.0.1 fbloggs Protocol problem: connection reset
```

The keys in the dictionary passed in *extra* should not clash with the keys used by the logging system. (See the *Formatter* documentation for more information on which keys are used by the logging system.)

If you choose to use these attributes in logged messages, you need to exercise some care. In the above example, for instance, the *Formatter* has been set up with a format string which expects “clientip” and “user” in the attribute dictionary of the `LogRecord`. If these are missing, the message will not be logged because a string formatting exception will occur. So in this case, you always need to pass the *extra* dictionary with these keys.

While this might be annoying, this feature is intended for use in specialized circumstances, such as multi-threaded servers where the same code executes in many contexts, and interesting conditions which arise are dependent on this context (such as remote client IP address and authenticated user name, in the above example). In such circumstances, it is likely that specialized *Formatters* would be used with particular *Handlers*.

Logger.info(msg, *args, **kwargs)

Logs a message with level `INFO` on this logger. The arguments are interpreted as for `debug()`.

Logger.warning(msg, *args, **kwargs)

Logs a message with level `WARNING` on this logger. The arguments are interpreted as for `debug()`.

Logger.error(msg, *args, **kwargs)

Logs a message with level `ERROR` on this logger. The arguments are interpreted as for `debug()`.

Logger.critical(msg, *args, **kwargs)

Logs a message with level `CRITICAL` on this logger. The arguments are interpreted as for `debug()`.

Logger.log(lvl, msg, *args, **kwargs)

Logs a message with integer level *lvl* on this logger. The other arguments are interpreted as for `debug()`.

Logger.exception(msg, *args, **kwargs)

Logs a message with level **ERROR** on this logger. The arguments are interpreted as for `debug()`, except that any passed `exc_info` is not inspected. Exception info is always added to the logging message. This method should only be called from an exception handler.

Logger.addFilter(filter)

Adds the specified filter *filter* to this logger.

Logger.removeFilter(filter)

Removes the specified filter *filter* from this logger.

Logger.filter(record)

Applies this logger's filters to the record and returns a true value if the record is to be processed. The filters are consulted in turn, until one of them returns a false value. If none of them return a false value, the record will be processed (passed to handlers). If one returns a false value, no further processing of the record occurs.

Logger.addHandler(hdlr)

Adds the specified handler *hdlr* to this logger.

Logger.removeHandler(hdlr)

Removes the specified handler *hdlr* from this logger.

Logger.findCaller()

Finds the caller's source filename and line number. Returns the filename, line number and function name as a 3-element tuple.

Modifié dans la version 2.4 : The function name was added. In earlier versions, the filename and line number were returned as a 2-element tuple.

Logger.handle(record)

Handles a record by passing it to all handlers associated with this logger and its ancestors (until a false value of *propagate* is found). This method is used for unpickled records received from a socket, as well as those created locally. Logger-level filtering is applied using `filter()`.

Logger.makeRecord(name, lvl, fn, lno, msg, args, exc_info, func=None, extra=None)

This is a factory method which can be overridden in subclasses to create specialized `LogRecord` instances.

Modifié dans la version 2.5 : *func* and *extra* were added.

15.7.2 Logging Levels

The numeric values of logging levels are given in the following table. These are primarily of interest if you want to define your own levels, and need them to have specific values relative to the predefined levels. If you define a level with the same numeric value, it overwrites the predefined value ; the predefined name is lost.

Level	Numeric value
CRITICAL	50
ERROR	40
WARNING	30
INFO	20
DEBUG	10
NOTSET	0

15.7.3 Handler Objects

Handlers have the following attributes and methods. Note that **Handler** is never instantiated directly ; this class acts as a base for more useful subclasses. However, the `__init__()` method in subclasses needs to call

Handler.__init__().

Handler.__init__(level=NOTSET)

Initializes the **Handler** instance by setting its level, setting the list of filters to the empty list and creating a lock (using *createLock()*) for serializing access to an I/O mechanism.

Handler.createLock()

Initializes a thread lock which can be used to serialize access to underlying I/O functionality which may not be threadsafe.

Handler.acquire()

Acquires the thread lock created with *createLock()*.

Handler.release()

Releases the thread lock acquired with *acquire()*.

Handler.setLevel(level)

Sets the threshold for this handler to *level*. Logging messages which are less severe than *level* will be ignored. When a handler is created, the level is set to NOTSET (which causes all messages to be processed).

See *Logging Levels* for a list of levels.

Handler.setFormatter(fmt)

Sets the *Formatter* for this handler to *fmt*.

Handler.addFilter(filter)

Adds the specified filter *filter* to this handler.

Handler.removeFilter(filter)

Removes the specified filter *filter* from this handler.

Handler.filter(record)

Applies this handler's filters to the record and returns a true value if the record is to be processed. The filters are consulted in turn, until one of them returns a false value. If none of them return a false value, the record will be emitted. If one returns a false value, the handler will not emit the record.

Handler.flush()

Ensure all logging output has been flushed. This version does nothing and is intended to be implemented by subclasses.

Handler.close()

Tidy up any resources used by the handler. This version does no output but removes the handler from an internal list of handlers which is closed when *shutdown()* is called. Subclasses should ensure that this gets called from overridden *close()* methods.

Handler.handle(record)

Conditionally emits the specified logging record, depending on filters which may have been added to the handler. Wraps the actual emission of the record with acquisition/release of the I/O thread lock.

Handler.handleError(record)

This method should be called from handlers when an exception is encountered during an *emit()* call. If the module-level attribute **raiseExceptions** is **False**, exceptions get silently ignored. This is what is mostly wanted for a logging system - most users will not care about errors in the logging system, they are more interested in application errors. You could, however, replace this with a custom handler if you wish. The specified record is the one which was being processed when the exception occurred. (The default value of **raiseExceptions** is **True**, as that is more useful during development).

Handler.format(record)

Do formatting for a record - if a formatter is set, use it. Otherwise, use the default formatter for the module.

`Handler.emit(record)`

Do whatever it takes to actually log the specified logging record. This version is intended to be implemented by subclasses and so raises a *NotImplementedError*.

For a list of handlers included as standard, see *logging.handlers*.

15.7.4 Formatter Objects

Formatter objects have the following attributes and methods. They are responsible for converting a *LogRecord* to (usually) a string which can be interpreted by either a human or an external system. The base *Formatter* allows a formatting string to be specified. If none is supplied, the default value of `'%(message)s'` is used, which just includes the message in the logging call. To have additional items of information in the formatted output (such as a timestamp), keep reading.

A *Formatter* can be initialized with a format string which makes use of knowledge of the *LogRecord* attributes - such as the default value mentioned above making use of the fact that the user's message and arguments are pre-formatted into a *LogRecord*'s *message* attribute. This format string contains standard Python %-style mapping keys. See section *String Formatting Operations* for more information on string formatting.

The useful mapping keys in a *LogRecord* are given in the section on *LogRecord attributes*.

class `logging.Formatter`(*fmt=None*, *datefmt=None*)

Returns a new instance of the *Formatter* class. The instance is initialized with a format string for the message as a whole, as well as a format string for the date/time portion of a message. If no *fmt* is specified, `'%(message)s'` is used. If no *datefmt* is specified, the ISO8601 date format is used.

format(*record*)

The record's attribute dictionary is used as the operand to a string formatting operation. Returns the resulting string. Before formatting the dictionary, a couple of preparatory steps are carried out. The *message* attribute of the record is computed using *msg % args*. If the formatting string contains `'(asctime)'`, *formatTime()* is called to format the event time. If there is exception information, it is formatted using *formatException()* and appended to the message. Note that the formatted exception information is cached in attribute *exc_text*. This is useful because the exception information can be pickled and sent across the wire, but you should be careful if you have more than one *Formatter* subclass which customizes the formatting of exception information. In this case, you will have to clear the cached value after a formatter has done its formatting, so that the next formatter to handle the event doesn't use the cached value but recalculates it afresh.

formatTime(*record*, *datefmt=None*)

This method should be called from *format()* by a formatter which wants to make use of a formatted time. This method can be overridden in formatters to provide for any specific requirement, but the basic behavior is as follows : if *datefmt* (a string) is specified, it is used with *time.strftime()* to format the creation time of the record. Otherwise, the ISO8601 format is used. The resulting string is returned.

This function uses a user-configurable function to convert the creation time to a tuple. By default, *time.localtime()* is used ; to change this for a particular formatter instance, set the *converter* attribute to a function with the same signature as *time.localtime()* or *time.gmtime()*. To change it for all formatters, for example if you want all logging times to be shown in GMT, set the *converter* attribute in the *Formatter* class.

formatException(*exc_info*)

Formats the specified exception information (a standard exception tuple as returned by *sys.exc_info()*) as a string. This default implementation just uses *traceback.print_exception()*. The resulting string is returned.

15.7.5 Filter Objects

Filters can be used by *Handlers* and *Loggers* for more sophisticated filtering than is provided by levels. The base filter class only allows events which are below a certain point in the logger hierarchy. For example,

a filter initialized with “A.B” will allow events logged by loggers “A.B”, “A.B.C”, “A.B.C.D”, “A.B.D” etc. but not “A.BB”, “B.A.B” etc. If initialized with the empty string, all events are passed.

```
class logging.Filter(name="")
```

Returns an instance of the `Filter` class. If *name* is specified, it names a logger which, together with its children, will have its events allowed through the filter. If *name* is the empty string, allows every event.

```
filter(record)
```

Is the specified record to be logged? Returns zero for no, nonzero for yes. If deemed appropriate, the record may be modified in-place by this method.

Note that filters attached to handlers are consulted before an event is emitted by the handler, whereas filters attached to loggers are consulted whenever an event is logged (using `debug()`, `info()`, etc.), before sending an event to handlers. This means that events which have been generated by descendant loggers will not be filtered by a logger’s filter setting, unless the filter has also been applied to those descendant loggers.

You don’t actually need to subclass `Filter` : you can pass any instance which has a `filter` method with the same semantics.

Although filters are used primarily to filter records based on more sophisticated criteria than levels, they get to see every record which is processed by the handler or logger they’re attached to : this can be useful if you want to do things like counting how many records were processed by a particular logger or handler, or adding, changing or removing attributes in the `LogRecord` being processed. Obviously changing the `LogRecord` needs to be done with some care, but it does allow the injection of contextual information into logs (see `filters-contextual`).

15.7.6 LogRecord Objects

`LogRecord` instances are created automatically by the `Logger` every time something is logged, and can be created manually via `makeLogRecord()` (for example, from a pickled event received over the wire).

```
class logging.LogRecord(name, level, pathname, lineno, msg, args, exc_info, func=None)
```

Contains all the information pertinent to the event being logged.

The primary information is passed in *msg* and *args*, which are combined using `msg % args` to create the `message` field of the record.

Paramètres

- **name** – The name of the logger used to log the event represented by this `LogRecord`. Note that this name will always have this value, even though it may be emitted by a handler attached to a different (ancestor) logger.
- **level** – The numeric level of the logging event (one of `DEBUG`, `INFO` etc.) Note that this is converted to *two* attributes of the `LogRecord` : `levelname` for the numeric value and `levelname` for the corresponding level name.
- **pathname** – The full pathname of the source file where the logging call was made.
- **lineno** – The line number in the source file where the logging call was made.
- **msg** – The event description message, possibly a format string with placeholders for variable data.
- **args** – Variable data to merge into the *msg* argument to obtain the event description.
- **exc_info** – An exception tuple with the current exception information, or `None` if no exception information is available.
- **func** – The name of the function or method from which the logging call was invoked.

Modifié dans la version 2.5 : *func* was added.

```
getMessage()
```

Returns the message for this `LogRecord` instance after merging any user-supplied arguments with the message. If the user-supplied message argument to the logging call is not a string, `str()` is called on it to convert it to a string. This allows use of user-defined classes as messages, whose `__str__` method can return the actual format string to be used.

15.7.7 LogRecord attributes

The `LogRecord` has a number of attributes, most of which are derived from the parameters to the constructor. (Note that the names do not always correspond exactly between the `LogRecord` constructor parameters and the `LogRecord` attributes.) These attributes can be used to merge data from the record into the format string. The following table lists (in alphabetical order) the attribute names, their meanings and the corresponding placeholder in a %-style format string.

Attribute name	Format	Description
<code>args</code>	You shouldn't need to format this yourself.	The tuple of arguments merged into <code>msg</code> to produce <code>message</code> , or a dict whose values are used for the merge (when there is only one argument, and it is a dictionary).
<code>asctime</code>	<code>%(asctime)s</code>	Human-readable time when the <i>LogRecord</i> was created. By default this is of the form "2003-07-08 16 :49 :45,896" (the numbers after the comma are millisecond portion of the time).
<code>created</code>	<code>%(created)f</code>	Time when the <i>LogRecord</i> was created (as returned by <code>time.time()</code>).
<code>exc_info</code>	You shouldn't need to format this yourself.	Exception tuple (à la <code>sys.exc_info</code>) or, if no exception has occurred, <code>None</code> .
<code>filename</code>	<code>%(filename)s</code>	Filename portion of <code>pathname</code> .
<code>funcName</code>	<code>%(funcName)s</code>	Name of function containing the logging call.
<code>levelname</code>	<code>%(levelname)s</code>	Text logging level for the message ('DEBUG', 'INFO', 'WARNING', 'ERROR', 'CRITICAL').
<code>levelno</code>	<code>%(levelno)s</code>	Numeric logging level for the message (DEBUG, INFO, WARNING, ERROR, CRITICAL).
<code>lineno</code>	<code>%(lineno)d</code>	Source line number where the logging call was issued (if available).
<code>module</code>	<code>%(module)s</code>	Module (name portion of <code>filename</code>).
<code>msecs</code>	<code>%(msecs)d</code>	Millisecond portion of the time when the <i>LogRecord</i> was created.
<code>message</code>	<code>%(message)s</code>	The logged message, computed as <code>msg % args</code> . This is set when <i>Formatter.format()</i> is invoked.
<code>msg</code>	You shouldn't need to format this yourself.	The format string passed in the original logging call. Merged with <code>args</code> to produce <code>message</code> , or an arbitrary object (see arbitrary-object-messages).
<code>name</code>	<code>%(name)s</code>	Name of the logger used to log the call.
<code>pathname</code>	<code>%(pathname)s</code>	Full pathname of the source file where the logging call was issued (if available).
<code>process</code>	<code>%(process)d</code>	Process ID (if available).
<code>processName</code>	<code>%(processName)s</code>	Process name (if available).
<code>relativeCreated</code>	<code>%(relativeCreated)d</code>	Time in milliseconds when the <i>LogRecord</i> was created, relative to the time the logging module was loaded.
<code>thread</code>	<code>%(thread)d</code>	Thread ID (if available).
<code>threadName</code>	<code>%(threadName)s</code>	Thread name (if available).

Modifié dans la version 2.5 : *funcName* was added.

Modifié dans la version 2.6 : *processName* was added.

15.7.8 LoggerAdapter Objects

LoggerAdapter instances are used to conveniently pass contextual information into logging calls. For a usage example, see the section on adding contextual information to your logging output.

Nouveau dans la version 2.6.

class `logging.LoggerAdapter(logger, extra)`

Returns an instance of *LoggerAdapter* initialized with an underlying *Logger* instance and a dict-like object.

process(*msg, kwargs*)

Modifies the message and/or keyword arguments passed to a logging call in order to insert contextual information. This implementation takes the object passed as *extra* to the constructor and adds it to *kwargs* using key “extra”. The return value is a (*msg, kwargs*) tuple which has the (possibly modified) versions of the arguments passed in.

In addition to the above, *LoggerAdapter* supports the following methods of *Logger* : *debug()*, *info()*, *warning()*, *error()*, *exception()*, *critical()*, *log()* and *isEnabledFor()*. These methods have the same signatures as their counterparts in *Logger*, so you can use the two types of instances interchangeably for these calls.

Modifié dans la version 2.7 : The *isEnabledFor()* method was added to *LoggerAdapter*. This method delegates to the underlying logger.

15.7.9 Thread Safety

The logging module is intended to be thread-safe without any special work needing to be done by its clients. It achieves this though using threading locks; there is one lock to serialize access to the module’s shared data, and each handler also creates a lock to serialize access to its underlying I/O.

If you are implementing asynchronous signal handlers using the *signal* module, you may not be able to use logging from within such handlers. This is because lock implementations in the *threading* module are not always re-entrant, and so cannot be invoked from such signal handlers.

15.7.10 Fonctions de niveau module

In addition to the classes described above, there are a number of module- level functions.

logging.getLogger(*[name]*)

Return a logger with the specified name or, if no name is specified, return a logger which is the root logger of the hierarchy. If specified, the name is typically a dot-separated hierarchical name like « *a* », « *a.b* » or « *a.b.c.d* ». Choice of these names is entirely up to the developer who is using logging.

All calls to this function with a given name return the same logger instance. This means that logger instances never need to be passed between different parts of an application.

logging.getLoggerClass()

Return either the standard *Logger* class, or the last class passed to *setLoggerClass()*. This function may be called from within a new class definition, to ensure that installing a customized *Logger* class will not undo customizations already applied by other code. For example :

```
class MyLogger(logging.getLoggerClass()):
    # ... override behaviour here
```



```
logging.debug(msg[, *args[, **kwargs]])
```

Logs a message with level **DEBUG** on the root logger. The *msg* is the message format string, and the *args* are the arguments which are merged into *msg* using the string formatting operator. (Note that this means that you can use keywords in the format string, together with a single dictionary argument.)

There are two keyword arguments in *kwargs* which are inspected : *exc_info* which, if it does not evaluate as false, causes exception information to be added to the logging message. If an exception tuple (in the format returned by `sys.exc_info()`) is provided, it is used ; otherwise, `sys.exc_info()` is called to get the exception information.

The other optional keyword argument is *extra* which can be used to pass a dictionary which is used to populate the `__dict__` of the LogRecord created for the logging event with user-defined attributes. These custom attributes can then be used as you like. For example, they could be incorporated into logged messages. For example :

```
FORMAT = "%(asctime)-15s %(clientip)s %(user)-8s %(message)s"
logging.basicConfig(format=FORMAT)
d = {'clientip': '192.168.0.1', 'user': 'fbloggs'}
logging.warning("Protocol problem: %s", "connection reset", extra=d)
```

would print something like :

```
2006-02-08 22:20:02,165 192.168.0.1 fbloggs Protocol problem: connection reset
```

The keys in the dictionary passed in *extra* should not clash with the keys used by the logging system. (See the *Formatter* documentation for more information on which keys are used by the logging system.)

If you choose to use these attributes in logged messages, you need to exercise some care. In the above example, for instance, the *Formatter* has been set up with a format string which expects “clientip” and “user” in the attribute dictionary of the LogRecord. If these are missing, the message will not be logged because a string formatting exception will occur. So in this case, you always need to pass the *extra* dictionary with these keys.

While this might be annoying, this feature is intended for use in specialized circumstances, such as multi-threaded servers where the same code executes in many contexts, and interesting conditions which arise are dependent on this context (such as remote client IP address and authenticated user name, in the above example). In such circumstances, it is likely that specialized *Formatters* would be used with particular *Handlers*.

Modifié dans la version 2.5 : *extra* was added.

```
logging.info(msg[, *args[, **kwargs]])
```

Logs a message with level **INFO** on the root logger. The arguments are interpreted as for `debug()`.

```
logging.warning(msg[, *args[, **kwargs]])
```

Logs a message with level **WARNING** on the root logger. The arguments are interpreted as for `debug()`.

```
logging.error(msg[, *args[, **kwargs]])
```

Logs a message with level **ERROR** on the root logger. The arguments are interpreted as for `debug()`.

```
logging.critical(msg[, *args[, **kwargs]])
```

Logs a message with level **CRITICAL** on the root logger. The arguments are interpreted as for `debug()`.

```
logging.exception(msg[, *args[, **kwargs]])
```

Logs a message with level **ERROR** on the root logger. The arguments are interpreted as for `debug()`, except that any passed *exc_info* is not inspected. Exception info is always added to the logging message. This function should only be called from an exception handler.

```
logging.log(level, msg[, *args[, **kwargs]])
```

Logs a message with level *level* on the root logger. The other arguments are interpreted as for `debug()`.

Note : The above module-level convenience functions, which delegate to the root logger, call `basicConfig()` to ensure that at least one handler is available. Because of this, they should *not* be used in threads, in versions of Python earlier than 2.7.1 and 3.2, unless at least one handler has been added to the root logger *before* the threads are started. In earlier versions of Python, due to a thread safety shortcoming in `basicConfig()`, this can (under rare circumstances) lead to handlers being added multiple times to the root logger, which can in turn lead to multiple messages for the same event.

`logging.disable(lvl)`

Provides an overriding level *lvl* for all loggers which takes precedence over the logger's own level. When the need arises to temporarily throttle logging output down across the whole application, this function can be useful. Its effect is to disable all logging calls of severity *lvl* and below, so that if you call it with a value of INFO, then all INFO and DEBUG events would be discarded, whereas those of severity WARNING and above would be processed according to the logger's effective level. If `logging.disable(logging.NOTSET)` is called, it effectively removes this overriding level, so that logging output again depends on the effective levels of individual loggers.

`logging.addLevelName(lvl, levelName)`

Associates level *lvl* with text *levelName* in an internal dictionary, which is used to map numeric levels to a textual representation, for example when a `Formatter` formats a message. This function can also be used to define your own levels. The only constraints are that all levels used must be registered using this function, levels should be positive integers and they should increase in increasing order of severity.

Note : If you are thinking of defining your own levels, please see the section on custom-levels.

`logging.getLevelName(lvl)`

Returns the textual representation of logging level *lvl*. If the level is one of the predefined levels CRITICAL, ERROR, WARNING, INFO or DEBUG then you get the corresponding string. If you have associated levels with names using `addLevelName()` then the name you have associated with *lvl* is returned. If a numeric value corresponding to one of the defined levels is passed in, the corresponding string representation is returned. Otherwise, the string « Level %s » % lvl is returned.

Note : Integer levels should be used when e.g. setting levels on instances of `Logger` and handlers. This function is used to convert between an integer level and the level name displayed in the formatted log output by means of the `%(levelname)s` format specifier (see `LogRecord attributes`).

`logging.makeLogRecord(attrdict)`

Creates and returns a new `LogRecord` instance whose attributes are defined by *attrdict*. This function is useful for taking a pickled `LogRecord` attribute dictionary, sent over a socket, and reconstituting it as a `LogRecord` instance at the receiving end.

`logging.basicConfig(**kwargs)`

Does basic configuration for the logging system by creating a `StreamHandler` with a default `Formatter` and adding it to the root logger. The functions `debug()`, `info()`, `warning()`, `error()` and `critical()` will call `basicConfig()` automatically if no handlers are defined for the root logger.

This function does nothing if the root logger already has handlers configured for it.

Modifié dans la version 2.4 : Formerly, `basicConfig()` did not take any keyword arguments.

Note : This function should be called from the main thread before other threads are started. In versions of Python prior to 2.7.1 and 3.2, if this function is called from multiple threads, it is possible (in rare circumstances) that a handler will be added to the root logger more than once, leading to

unexpected results such as messages being duplicated in the log.

The following keyword arguments are supported.

Format	Description
<i>filename</i>	Specifies that a <code>FileHandler</code> be created, using the specified filename, rather than a <code>StreamHandler</code> .
<i>filemode</i>	If <i>filename</i> is specified, open the file in this mode. Defaults to 'a'.
<i>format</i>	Use the specified format string for the handler.
<i>datefmt</i>	Use the specified date/time format, as accepted by <code>time.strftime()</code> .
<i>level</i>	Set the root logger level to the specified <i>level</i> .
<i>stream</i>	Use the specified stream to initialize the <code>StreamHandler</code> . Note that this argument is incompatible with <i>filename</i> - if both are present, <i>stream</i> is ignored.

`logging.shutdown()`

Informs the logging system to perform an orderly shutdown by flushing and closing all handlers. This should be called at application exit and no further use of the logging system should be made after this call.

`logging.setLoggerClass(klass)`

Tells the logging system to use the class *klass* when instantiating a logger. The class should define `__init__()` such that only a name argument is required, and the `__init__()` should call `Logger.__init__()`. This function is typically called before any loggers are instantiated by applications which need to use custom logger behavior.

15.7.11 Integration with the warnings module

The `captureWarnings()` function can be used to integrate `logging` with the `warnings` module.

`logging.captureWarnings(capture)`

This function is used to turn the capture of warnings by logging on and off.

If *capture* is `True`, warnings issued by the `warnings` module will be redirected to the logging system. Specifically, a warning will be formatted using `warnings.formatwarning()` and the resulting string logged to a logger named 'py.warnings' with a severity of `WARNING`.

If *capture* is `False`, the redirection of warnings to the logging system will stop, and warnings will be redirected to their original destinations (i.e. those in effect before `captureWarnings(True)` was called).

Voir aussi :

Module `logging.config` Configuration API for the logging module.

Module `logging.handlers` Useful handlers included with the logging module.

PEP 282 - A Logging System The proposal which described this feature for inclusion in the Python standard library.

Original Python logging package This is the original source for the `logging` package. The version of the package available from this site is suitable for use with Python 1.5.2, 2.1.x and 2.2.x, which do not include the `logging` package in the standard library.

15.8 logging.config — Logging configuration

Important

This page contains only reference information. For tutorials, please see

- Basic Tutorial
- Advanced Tutorial
- Logging Cookbook

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

This section describes the API for configuring the logging module.

15.8.1 Configuration functions

The following functions configure the logging module. They are located in the `logging.config` module. Their use is optional — you can configure the logging module using these functions or by making calls to the main API (defined in `logging` itself) and defining handlers which are declared either in `logging` or `logging.handlers`.

`logging.config.dictConfig(config)`

Takes the logging configuration from a dictionary. The contents of this dictionary are described in *Configuration dictionary schema* below.

If an error is encountered during configuration, this function will raise a `ValueError`, `TypeError`, `AttributeError` or `ImportError` with a suitably descriptive message. The following is a (possibly incomplete) list of conditions which will raise an error :

- A `level` which is not a string or which is a string not corresponding to an actual logging level.
- A `propagate` value which is not a boolean.
- An id which does not have a corresponding destination.
- A non-existent handler id found during an incremental call.
- An invalid logger name.
- Inability to resolve to an internal or external object.

Parsing is performed by the `DictConfigurator` class, whose constructor is passed the dictionary used for configuration, and has a `configure()` method. The `logging.config` module has a callable attribute `dictConfigClass` which is initially set to `DictConfigurator`. You can replace the value of `dictConfigClass` with a suitable implementation of your own.

`dictConfig()` calls `dictConfigClass` passing the specified dictionary, and then calls the `configure()` method on the returned object to put the configuration into effect :

```
def dictConfig(config):
    dictConfigClass(config).configure()
```

For example, a subclass of `DictConfigurator` could call `DictConfigurator.__init__()` in its own `__init__()`, then set up custom prefixes which would be usable in the subsequent `configure()` call. `dictConfigClass` would be bound to this new subclass, and then `dictConfig()` could be called exactly as in the default, uncustomized state.

Nouveau dans la version 2.7.

`logging.config.fileConfig(fname, defaults=None, disable_existing_loggers=True)`

Reads the logging configuration from a `configparser`-format file named `fname`. The format of the file should be as described in *Configuration file format*. This function can be called several times from an application, allowing an end user to select from various pre-canned configurations (if the developer provides a mechanism to present the choices and load the chosen configuration).

Paramètres

- **defaults** – Defaults to be passed to the `ConfigParser` can be specified in this argument.

- **disable_existing_loggers** – If specified as `False`, loggers which exist when this call is made are left enabled. The default is `True` because this enables old behaviour in a backward-compatible way. This behaviour is to disable any existing loggers unless they or their ancestors are explicitly named in the logging configuration.

Modifié dans la version 2.6 : The `disable_existing_loggers` keyword argument was added. Previously, existing loggers were *always* disabled.

`logging.config.listen(port=DEFAULT_LOGGING_CONFIG_PORT)`

Starts up a socket server on the specified port, and listens for new configurations. If no port is specified, the module's default `DEFAULT_LOGGING_CONFIG_PORT` is used. Logging configurations will be sent as a file suitable for processing by `fileConfig()`. Returns a `Thread` instance on which you can call `start()` to start the server, and which you can `join()` when appropriate. To stop the server, call `stopListening()`.

To send a configuration to the socket, read in the configuration file and send it to the socket as a string of bytes preceded by a four-byte length string packed in binary using `struct.pack('>L', n)`.

Note : Because portions of the configuration are passed through `eval()`, use of this function may open its users to a security risk. While the function only binds to a socket on `localhost`, and so does not accept connections from remote machines, there are scenarios where untrusted code could be run under the account of the process which calls `listen()`. Specifically, if the process calling `listen()` runs on a multi-user machine where users cannot trust each other, then a malicious user could arrange to run essentially arbitrary code in a victim user's process, simply by connecting to the victim's `listen()` socket and sending a configuration which runs whatever code the attacker wants to have executed in the victim's process. This is especially easy to do if the default port is used, but not hard even if a different port is used).

`logging.config.stopListening()`

Stops the listening server which was created with a call to `listen()`. This is typically called before calling `join()` on the return value from `listen()`.

15.8.2 Configuration dictionary schema

Describing a logging configuration requires listing the various objects to create and the connections between them; for example, you may create a handler named “console” and then say that the logger named “startup” will send its messages to the “console” handler. These objects aren't limited to those provided by the `logging` module because you might write your own formatter or handler class. The parameters to these classes may also need to include external objects such as `sys.stderr`. The syntax for describing these objects and connections is defined in *Object connections* below.

Dictionary Schema Details

The dictionary passed to `dictConfig()` must contain the following keys :

- *version* - to be set to an integer value representing the schema version. The only valid value at present is 1, but having this key allows the schema to evolve while still preserving backwards compatibility. All other keys are optional, but if present they will be interpreted as described below. In all cases below where a “configuring dict” is mentioned, it will be checked for the special '()' key to see if a custom instantiation is required. If so, the mechanism described in *User-defined objects* below is used to create an instance; otherwise, the context is used to determine what to instantiate.
- *formatters* - the corresponding value will be a dict in which each key is a formatter id and each value is a dict describing how to configure the corresponding `Formatter` instance. The configuring dict is searched for keys `format` and `datefmt` (with defaults of `None`) and these are used to construct a `Formatter` instance.
- *filters* - the corresponding value will be a dict in which each key is a filter id and each value is a dict describing how to configure the corresponding `Filter` instance.

The configuring dict is searched for the key `name` (defaulting to the empty string) and this is used to construct a `logging.Filter` instance.

- `handlers` - the corresponding value will be a dict in which each key is a handler id and each value is a dict describing how to configure the corresponding Handler instance.

The configuring dict is searched for the following keys :

- `class` (mandatory). This is the fully qualified name of the handler class.
- `level` (optional). The level of the handler.
- `formatter` (optional). The id of the formatter for this handler.
- `filters` (optional). A list of ids of the filters for this handler.

All *other* keys are passed through as keyword arguments to the handler's constructor. For example, given the snippet :

```
handlers:
  console:
    class : logging.StreamHandler
    formatter: brief
    level  : INFO
    filters: [allow_foo]
    stream : ext://sys.stdout
  file:
    class : logging.handlers.RotatingFileHandler
    formatter: precise
    filename: logconfig.log
    maxBytes: 1024
    backupCount: 3
```

the handler with id `console` is instantiated as a `logging.StreamHandler`, using `sys.stdout` as the underlying stream. The handler with id `file` is instantiated as a `logging.handlers.RotatingFileHandler` with the keyword arguments `filename='logconfig.log'`, `maxBytes=1024`, `backupCount=3`.

- `loggers` - the corresponding value will be a dict in which each key is a logger name and each value is a dict describing how to configure the corresponding Logger instance.

The configuring dict is searched for the following keys :

- `level` (optional). The level of the logger.
- `propagate` (optional). The propagation setting of the logger.
- `filters` (optional). A list of ids of the filters for this logger.
- `handlers` (optional). A list of ids of the handlers for this logger.

The specified loggers will be configured according to the level, propagation, filters and handlers specified.

- `root` - this will be the configuration for the root logger. Processing of the configuration will be as for any logger, except that the `propagate` setting will not be applicable.
- `incremental` - whether the configuration is to be interpreted as incremental to the existing configuration. This value defaults to `False`, which means that the specified configuration replaces the existing configuration with the same semantics as used by the existing `fileConfig()` API.

If the specified value is `True`, the configuration is processed as described in the section on *Incremental Configuration*.

- `disable_existing_loggers` - whether any existing loggers are to be disabled. This setting mirrors the parameter of the same name in `fileConfig()`. If absent, this parameter defaults to `True`. This value is ignored if `incremental` is `True`.

Incremental Configuration

It is difficult to provide complete flexibility for incremental configuration. For example, because objects such as filters and formatters are anonymous, once a configuration is set up, it is not possible to refer to such anonymous objects when augmenting a configuration.

Furthermore, there is not a compelling case for arbitrarily altering the object graph of loggers, handlers, filters, formatters at run-time, once a configuration is set up; the verbosity of loggers and handlers can be controlled just by setting levels (and, in the case of loggers, propagation flags). Changing the object graph arbitrarily in a safe way is problematic in a multi-threaded environment; while not impossible, the benefits are not worth the complexity it adds to the implementation.

Thus, when the `incremental` key of a configuration dict is present and is `True`, the system will completely ignore any `formatters` and `filters` entries, and process only the `level` settings in the `handlers` entries, and the `level` and `propagate` settings in the `loggers` and `root` entries.

Using a value in the configuration dict lets configurations to be sent over the wire as pickled dicts to a socket listener. Thus, the logging verbosity of a long-running application can be altered over time with no need to stop and restart the application.

Object connections

The schema describes a set of logging objects - loggers, handlers, formatters, filters - which are connected to each other in an object graph. Thus, the schema needs to represent connections between the objects. For example, say that, once configured, a particular logger has attached to it a particular handler. For the purposes of this discussion, we can say that the logger represents the source, and the handler the destination, of a connection between the two. Of course in the configured objects this is represented by the logger holding a reference to the handler. In the configuration dict, this is done by giving each destination object an id which identifies it unambiguously, and then using the id in the source object's configuration to indicate that a connection exists between the source and the destination object with that id.

So, for example, consider the following YAML snippet :

```
formatters:
  brief:
    # configuration for formatter with id 'brief' goes here
  precise:
    # configuration for formatter with id 'precise' goes here
handlers:
  h1: #This is an id
    # configuration of handler with id 'h1' goes here
    formatter: brief
  h2: #This is another id
    # configuration of handler with id 'h2' goes here
    formatter: precise
loggers:
  foo.bar.baz:
    # other configuration for logger 'foo.bar.baz'
    handlers: [h1, h2]
```

(Note : YAML used here because it's a little more readable than the equivalent Python source form for the dictionary.)

The ids for loggers are the logger names which would be used programmatically to obtain a reference to those loggers, e.g. `foo.bar.baz`. The ids for Formatters and Filters can be any string value (such as `brief`, `precise` above) and they are transient, in that they are only meaningful for processing the configuration dictionary and used to determine connections between objects, and are not persisted anywhere when the configuration call is complete.

The above snippet indicates that logger named `foo.bar.baz` should have two handlers attached to it, which are described by the handler ids `h1` and `h2`. The formatter for `h1` is that described by id `brief`, and the formatter for `h2` is that described by id `precise`.

User-defined objects

The schema supports user-defined objects for handlers, filters and formatters. (Loggers do not need to have different types for different instances, so there is no support in this configuration schema for user-defined logger classes.)

Objects to be configured are described by dictionaries which detail their configuration. In some places, the logging system will be able to infer from the context how an object is to be instantiated, but when a user-defined object is to be instantiated, the system will not know how to do this. In order to provide complete flexibility for user-defined object instantiation, the user needs to provide a “factory” - a callable which is called with a configuration dictionary and which returns the instantiated object. This is signalled by an absolute import path to the factory being made available under the special key '()'. Here’s a concrete example :

```
formatters:
  brief:
    format: '%(message)s'
  default:
    format: '%(asctime)s %(levelname)-8s %(name)-15s %(message)s'
    datefmt: '%Y-%m-%d %H:%M:%S'
  custom:
    (): my.package.customFormatterFactory
    bar: baz
    spam: 99.9
    answer: 42
```

The above YAML snippet defines three formatters. The first, with id `brief`, is a standard `logging.Formatter` instance with the specified format string. The second, with id `default`, has a longer format and also defines the time format explicitly, and will result in a `logging.Formatter` initialized with those two format strings. Shown in Python source form, the `brief` and `default` formatters have configuration sub-dictionaries :

```
{
  'format' : '%(message)s'
}
```

et :

```
{
  'format' : '%(asctime)s %(levelname)-8s %(name)-15s %(message)s',
  'datefmt' : '%Y-%m-%d %H:%M:%S'
}
```

respectively, and as these dictionaries do not contain the special key '()', the instantiation is inferred from the context : as a result, standard `logging.Formatter` instances are created. The configuration sub-dictionary for the third formatter, with id `custom`, is :

```
{
  '()' : 'my.package.customFormatterFactory',
  'bar' : 'baz',
  'spam' : 99.9,
  'answer' : 42
}
```

and this contains the special key '()', which means that user-defined instantiation is wanted. In this case, the specified factory callable will be used. If it is an actual callable it will be used directly - otherwise, if you

specify a string (as in the example) the actual callable will be located using normal import mechanisms. The callable will be called with the **remaining** items in the configuration sub-dictionary as keyword arguments. In the above example, the formatter with id `custom` will be assumed to be returned by the call :

```
my.package.customFormatterFactory(bar='baz', spam=99.9, answer=42)
```

The key '()' has been used as the special key because it is not a valid keyword parameter name, and so will not clash with the names of the keyword arguments used in the call. The '()' also serves as a mnemonic that the corresponding value is a callable.

Access to external objects

There are times where a configuration needs to refer to objects external to the configuration, for example `sys.stderr`. If the configuration dict is constructed using Python code, this is straightforward, but a problem arises when the configuration is provided via a text file (e.g. JSON, YAML). In a text file, there is no standard way to distinguish `sys.stderr` from the literal string `'sys.stderr'`. To facilitate this distinction, the configuration system looks for certain special prefixes in string values and treat them specially. For example, if the literal string `'ext://sys.stderr'` is provided as a value in the configuration, then the `ext://` will be stripped off and the remainder of the value processed using normal import mechanisms.

The handling of such prefixes is done in a way analogous to protocol handling : there is a generic mechanism to look for prefixes which match the regular expression `^(?P<prefix>[a-z]+)://(?P<suffix>.*)$` whereby, if the `prefix` is recognised, the `suffix` is processed in a prefix-dependent manner and the result of the processing replaces the string value. If the prefix is not recognised, then the string value will be left as-is.

Access to internal objects

As well as external objects, there is sometimes also a need to refer to objects in the configuration. This will be done implicitly by the configuration system for things that it knows about. For example, the string value `'DEBUG'` for a `level` in a logger or handler will automatically be converted to the value `logging.DEBUG`, and the `handlers`, `filters` and `formatter` entries will take an object id and resolve to the appropriate destination object.

However, a more generic mechanism is needed for user-defined objects which are not known to the `logging` module. For example, consider `logging.handlers.MemoryHandler`, which takes a `target` argument which is another handler to delegate to. Since the system already knows about this class, then in the configuration, the given `target` just needs to be the object id of the relevant target handler, and the system will resolve to the handler from the id. If, however, a user defines a `my.package.MyHandler` which has an `alternate` handler, the configuration system would not know that the `alternate` referred to a handler. To cater for this, a generic resolution system allows the user to specify :

```
handlers:
  file:
    # configuration of file handler goes here

  custom:
    (): my.package.MyHandler
    alternate: cfg://handlers.file
```

The literal string `'cfg://handlers.file'` will be resolved in an analogous way to strings with the `ext://` prefix, but looking in the configuration itself rather than the import namespace. The mechanism allows access by dot or by index, in a similar way to that provided by `str.format`. Thus, given the following snippet :

```
handlers:
  email:
```

(suite sur la page suivante)

(suite de la page précédente)

```
class: logging.handlers.SMTPHandler
mailhost: localhost
fromaddr: my_app@domain.tld
toaddrs:
    - support_team@domain.tld
    - dev_team@domain.tld
subject: Houston, we have a problem.
```

in the configuration, the string `'cfg://handlers'` would resolve to the dict with key `handlers`, the string `'cfg://handlers.email'` would resolve to the dict with key `email` in the `handlers` dict, and so on. The string `'cfg://handlers.email.toaddrs[1]'` would resolve to `'dev_team.domain.tld'` and the string `'cfg://handlers.email.toaddrs[0]'` would resolve to the value `'support_team@domain.tld'`. The `subject` value could be accessed using either `'cfg://handlers.email.subject'` or, equivalently, `'cfg://handlers.email[subject]'`. The latter form only needs to be used if the key contains spaces or non-alphanumeric characters. If an index value consists only of decimal digits, access will be attempted using the corresponding integer value, falling back to the string value if needed.

Given a string `cfg://handlers.myhandler.mykey.123`, this will resolve to `config_dict['handlers']['myhandler']['mykey']['123']`. If the string is specified as `cfg://handlers.myhandler.mykey[123]`, the system will attempt to retrieve the value from `config_dict['handlers']['myhandler']['mykey'][123]`, and fall back to `config_dict['handlers']['myhandler']['mykey']['123']` if that fails.

Import resolution and custom importers

Import resolution, by default, uses the builtin `__import__()` function to do its importing. You may want to replace this with your own importing mechanism : if so, you can replace the `importer` attribute of the `DictConfigurator` or its superclass, the `BaseConfigurator` class. However, you need to be careful because of the way functions are accessed from classes via descriptors. If you are using a Python callable to do your imports, and you want to define it at class level rather than instance level, you need to wrap it with `staticmethod()`. For example :

```
from importlib import import_module
from logging.config import BaseConfigurator

BaseConfigurator.importer = staticmethod(import_module)
```

You don't need to wrap with `staticmethod()` if you're setting the import callable on a configurator *instance*.

15.8.3 Configuration file format

The configuration file format understood by `fileConfig()` is based on `configparser` functionality. The file must contain sections called `[loggers]`, `[handlers]` and `[formatters]` which identify by name the entities of each type which are defined in the file. For each such entity, there is a separate section which identifies how that entity is configured. Thus, for a logger named `log01` in the `[loggers]` section, the relevant configuration details are held in a section `[logger_log01]`. Similarly, a handler called `hand01` in the `[handlers]` section will have its configuration held in a section called `[handler_hand01]`, while a formatter called `form01` in the `[formatters]` section will have its configuration specified in a section called `[formatter_form01]`. The root logger configuration must be specified in a section called `[logger_root]`.

Note : The `fileConfig()` API is older than the `dictConfig()` API and does not provide functionality to cover certain aspects of logging. For example, you cannot configure `Filter` objects, which provide for filtering of messages beyond simple integer levels, using `fileConfig()`. If you need to have instances of

Filter in your logging configuration, you will need to use *dictConfig()*. Note that future enhancements to configuration functionality will be added to *dictConfig()*, so it's worth considering transitioning to this newer API when it's convenient to do so.

Examples of these sections in the file are given below.

```
[loggers]
keys=root,log02,log03,log04,log05,log06,log07

[handlers]
keys=hand01,hand02,hand03,hand04,hand05,hand06,hand07,hand08,hand09

[formatters]
keys=form01,form02,form03,form04,form05,form06,form07,form08,form09
```

The root logger must specify a level and a list of handlers. An example of a root logger section is given below.

```
[logger_root]
level=NOTSET
handlers=hand01
```

The `level` entry can be one of `DEBUG`, `INFO`, `WARNING`, `ERROR`, `CRITICAL` or `NOTSET`. For the root logger only, `NOTSET` means that all messages will be logged. Level values are *eval()*uated in the context of the `logging` package's namespace.

The `handlers` entry is a comma-separated list of handler names, which must appear in the `[handlers]` section. These names must appear in the `[handlers]` section and have corresponding sections in the configuration file.

For loggers other than the root logger, some additional information is required. This is illustrated by the following example.

```
[logger_parser]
level=DEBUG
handlers=hand01
propagate=1
qualname=compiler.parser
```

The `level` and `handlers` entries are interpreted as for the root logger, except that if a non-root logger's level is specified as `NOTSET`, the system consults loggers higher up the hierarchy to determine the effective level of the logger. The `propagate` entry is set to 1 to indicate that messages must propagate to handlers higher up the logger hierarchy from this logger, or 0 to indicate that messages are **not** propagated to handlers up the hierarchy. The `qualname` entry is the hierarchical channel name of the logger, that is to say the name used by the application to get the logger.

Sections which specify handler configuration are exemplified by the following.

```
[handler_hand01]
class=StreamHandler
level=NOTSET
formatter=form01
args=(sys.stdout,)
```

The `class` entry indicates the handler's class (as determined by *eval()* in the `logging` package's namespace). The `level` is interpreted as for loggers, and `NOTSET` is taken to mean "log everything".

Modifié dans la version 2.6 : Added support for resolving the handler's class as a dotted module and class name.

The **formatter** entry indicates the key name of the formatter for this handler. If blank, a default formatter (`logging.defaultFormatter`) is used. If a name is specified, it must appear in the **[formatters]** section and have a corresponding section in the configuration file.

The **args** entry, when *eval()*uated in the context of the `logging` package's namespace, is the list of arguments to the constructor for the handler class. Refer to the constructors for the relevant handlers, or to the examples below, to see how typical entries are constructed.

```
[handler_hand02]
class=FileHandler
level=DEBUG
formatter=form02
args=('python.log', 'w')

[handler_hand03]
class=handlers.SocketHandler
level=INFO
formatter=form03
args=('localhost', handlers.DEFAULT_TCP_LOGGING_PORT)

[handler_hand04]
class=handlers.DatagramHandler
level=WARN
formatter=form04
args=('localhost', handlers.DEFAULT_UDP_LOGGING_PORT)

[handler_hand05]
class=handlers.SysLogHandler
level=ERROR
formatter=form05
args= (('localhost', handlers.SYSLOG_UDP_PORT), handlers.SysLogHandler.LOG_USER)

[handler_hand06]
class=handlers.NTEventLogHandler
level=CRITICAL
formatter=form06
args=('Python Application', '', 'Application')

[handler_hand07]
class=handlers.SMTPHandler
level=WARN
formatter=form07
args=('localhost', 'from@abc', ['user1@abc', 'user2@xyz'], 'Logger Subject')

[handler_hand08]
class=handlers.MemoryHandler
level=NOTSET
formatter=form08
target=
args=(10, ERROR)
```

(suite sur la page suivante)

(suite de la page précédente)

```
[handler_hand09]
class=handlers.HTTPHandler
level=NOTSET
formatter=form09
args=('localhost:9022', '/log', 'GET')
```

Sections which specify formatter configuration are typified by the following.

```
[formatter_form01]
format=F1 %(asctime)s %(levelname)s %(message)s
datefmt=
class=logging.Formatter
```

The `format` entry is the overall format string, and the `datefmt` entry is the `strftime()`-compatible date/time format string. If empty, the package substitutes ISO8601 format date/times, which is almost equivalent to specifying the date format string `'%Y-%m-%d %H:%M:%S'`. The ISO8601 format also specifies milliseconds, which are appended to the result of using the above format string, with a comma separator. An example time in ISO8601 format is 2003-01-23 00:29:50,411.

The `class` entry is optional. It indicates the name of the formatter's class (as a dotted module and class name.) This option is useful for instantiating a *Formatter* subclass. Subclasses of *Formatter* can present exception tracebacks in an expanded or condensed format.

Note : Due to the use of `eval()` as described above, there are potential security risks which result from using the `listen()` to send and receive configurations via sockets. The risks are limited to where multiple users with no mutual trust run code on the same machine; see the `listen()` documentation for more information.

Voir aussi :

Module *logging* API reference for the logging module.

Module *logging.handlers* Useful handlers included with the logging module.

15.9 logging.handlers — Logging handlers

Important

This page contains only reference information. For tutorials, please see

- Basic Tutorial
- Advanced Tutorial
- Logging Cookbook

Source code : `Lib/logging/handlers.py`

The following useful handlers are provided in the package. Note that three of the handlers (*StreamHandler*, *FileHandler* and *NullHandler*) are actually defined in the *logging* module itself, but have been documented here along with the other handlers.

15.9.1 StreamHandler

The *StreamHandler* class, located in the core *logging* package, sends logging output to streams such as *sys.stdout*, *sys.stderr* or any file-like object (or, more precisely, any object which supports *write()* and *flush()* methods).

class *logging.StreamHandler*(*stream=None*)

Returns a new instance of the *StreamHandler* class. If *stream* is specified, the instance will use it for logging output; otherwise, *sys.stderr* will be used.

emit(*record*)

If a formatter is specified, it is used to format the record. The record is then written to the stream with a newline terminator. If exception information is present, it is formatted using *traceback.print_exception()* and appended to the stream.

flush()

Flushes the stream by calling its *flush()* method. Note that the *close()* method is inherited from *Handler* and so does no output, so an explicit *flush()* call may be needed at times.

15.9.2 FileHandler

The *FileHandler* class, located in the core *logging* package, sends logging output to a disk file. It inherits the output functionality from *StreamHandler*.

class *logging.FileHandler*(*filename*, *mode='a'*, *encoding=None*, *delay=False*)

Returns a new instance of the *FileHandler* class. The specified file is opened and used as the stream for logging. If *mode* is not specified, 'a' is used. If *encoding* is not *None*, it is used to open the file with that encoding. If *delay* is true, then file opening is deferred until the first call to *emit()*. By default, the file grows indefinitely.

Modifié dans la version 2.6 : *delay* was added.

close()

Closes the file.

emit(*record*)

Outputs the record to the file.

15.9.3 NullHandler

Nouveau dans la version 2.7.

The *NullHandler* class, located in the core *logging* package, does not do any formatting or output. It is essentially a “no-op” handler for use by library developers.

class *logging.NullHandler*

Returns a new instance of the *NullHandler* class.

emit(*record*)

This method does nothing.

handle(*record*)

This method does nothing.

createLock()

This method returns *None* for the lock, since there is no underlying I/O to which access needs to be serialized.

See library-config for more information on how to use *NullHandler*.

15.9.4 WatchedFileHandler

Nouveau dans la version 2.6.

The `WatchedFileHandler` class, located in the `logging.handlers` module, is a `FileHandler` which watches the file it is logging to. If the file changes, it is closed and reopened using the file name.

A file change can happen because of usage of programs such as `newsyslog` and `logrotate` which perform log file rotation. This handler, intended for use under Unix/Linux, watches the file to see if it has changed since the last emit. (A file is deemed to have changed if its device or inode have changed.) If the file has changed, the old file stream is closed, and the file opened to get a new stream.

This handler is not appropriate for use under Windows, because under Windows open log files cannot be moved or renamed - logging opens the files with exclusive locks - and so there is no need for such a handler. Furthermore, `ST_INO` is not supported under Windows; `stat()` always returns zero for this value.

```
class logging.handlers.WatchedFileHandler(filename[, mode[, encoding[, delay]]])
```

Returns a new instance of the `WatchedFileHandler` class. The specified file is opened and used as the stream for logging. If `mode` is not specified, 'a' is used. If `encoding` is not `None`, it is used to open the file with that encoding. If `delay` is true, then file opening is deferred until the first call to `emit()`. By default, the file grows indefinitely.

```
emit(record)
```

Outputs the record to the file, but first checks to see if the file has changed. If it has, the existing stream is flushed and closed and the file opened again, before outputting the record to the file.

15.9.5 RotatingFileHandler

The `RotatingFileHandler` class, located in the `logging.handlers` module, supports rotation of disk log files.

```
class logging.handlers.RotatingFileHandler(filename, mode='a', maxBytes=0, backupCount=0,
                                           encoding=None, delay=0)
```

Returns a new instance of the `RotatingFileHandler` class. The specified file is opened and used as the stream for logging. If `mode` is not specified, 'a' is used. If `encoding` is not `None`, it is used to open the file with that encoding. If `delay` is true, then file opening is deferred until the first call to `emit()`. By default, the file grows indefinitely.

You can use the `maxBytes` and `backupCount` values to allow the file to *rollover* at a predetermined size. When the size is about to be exceeded, the file is closed and a new file is silently opened for output. Rollover occurs whenever the current log file is nearly `maxBytes` in length; if either of `maxBytes` or `backupCount` is zero, rollover never occurs. If `backupCount` is non-zero, the system will save old log files by appending the extensions ".1", ".2" etc., to the filename. For example, with a `backupCount` of 5 and a base file name of `app.log`, you would get `app.log`, `app.log.1`, `app.log.2`, up to `app.log.5`. The file being written to is always `app.log`. When this file is filled, it is closed and renamed to `app.log.1`, and if files `app.log.1`, `app.log.2`, etc. exist, then they are renamed to `app.log.2`, `app.log.3` etc. respectively.

Modifié dans la version 2.6 : `delay` was added.

```
doRollover()
```

Does a rollover, as described above.

```
emit(record)
```

Outputs the record to the file, catering for rollover as described previously.

15.9.6 TimedRotatingFileHandler

The `TimedRotatingFileHandler` class, located in the `logging.handlers` module, supports rotation of disk log files at certain timed intervals.

```
class logging.handlers.TimedRotatingFileHandler(filename, when='h', interval=1, backup-
                                                Count=0, encoding=None, delay=False,
                                                utc=False)
```

Returns a new instance of the `TimedRotatingFileHandler` class. The specified file is opened and used

as the stream for logging. On rotating it also sets the filename suffix. Rotating happens based on the product of *when* and *interval*.

You can use the *when* to specify the type of *interval*. The list of possible values is below. Note that they are not case sensitive.

Valeur	Type of interval
'S'	Seconds
'M'	Minutes
'H'	Hours
'D'	Days
'W0'-'W6'	Weekday (0=Monday)
'midnight'	Roll over at midnight

When using weekday-based rotation, specify “W0” for Monday, “W1” for Tuesday, and so on up to “W6” for Sunday. In this case, the value passed for *interval* isn’t used.

The system will save old log files by appending extensions to the filename. The extensions are date-and-time based, using the strftime format `%Y-%m-%d_%H-%M-%S` or a leading portion thereof, depending on the rollover interval.

When computing the next rollover time for the first time (when the handler is created), the last modification time of an existing log file, or else the current time, is used to compute when the next rotation will occur.

If the *utc* argument is true, times in UTC will be used; otherwise local time is used.

If *backupCount* is nonzero, at most *backupCount* files will be kept, and if more would be created when rollover occurs, the oldest one is deleted. The deletion logic uses the interval to determine which files to delete, so changing the interval may leave old files lying around.

If *delay* is true, then file opening is deferred until the first call to *emit()*.

Modifié dans la version 2.6 : *delay* and *utc* were added.

doRollover()

Does a rollover, as described above.

emit(record)

Outputs the record to the file, catering for rollover as described above.

15.9.7 SocketHandler

The *SocketHandler* class, located in the *logging.handlers* module, sends logging output to a network socket. The base class uses a TCP socket.

class logging.handlers.SocketHandler(host, port)

Returns a new instance of the *SocketHandler* class intended to communicate with a remote machine whose address is given by *host* and *port*.

close()

Closes the socket.

emit()

Pickles the record’s attribute dictionary and writes it to the socket in binary format. If there is an error with the socket, silently drops the packet. If the connection was previously lost, re-establishes the connection. To unpickle the record at the receiving end into a *LogRecord*, use the *makeLogRecord()* function.

handleError()

Handles an error which has occurred during *emit()*. The most likely cause is a lost connection. Closes the socket so that we can retry on the next event.

makeSocket()

This is a factory method which allows subclasses to define the precise type of socket they want. The default implementation creates a TCP socket (*socket.SOCK_STREAM*).

makePickle(record)

Pickles the record's attribute dictionary in binary format with a length prefix, and returns it ready for transmission across the socket.

Note that pickles aren't completely secure. If you are concerned about security, you may want to override this method to implement a more secure mechanism. For example, you can sign pickles using HMAC and then verify them on the receiving end, or alternatively you can disable unpickling of global objects on the receiving end.

send(packet)

Send a pickled string *packet* to the socket. This function allows for partial sends which can happen when the network is busy.

createSocket()

Tries to create a socket ; on failure, uses an exponential back-off algorithm. On initial failure, the handler will drop the message it was trying to send. When subsequent messages are handled by the same instance, it will not try connecting until some time has passed. The default parameters are such that the initial delay is one second, and if after that delay the connection still can't be made, the handler will double the delay each time up to a maximum of 30 seconds.

This behaviour is controlled by the following handler attributes :

- **retryStart** (initial delay, defaulting to 1.0 seconds).
- **retryFactor** (multiplier, defaulting to 2.0).
- **retryMax** (maximum delay, defaulting to 30.0 seconds).

This means that if the remote listener starts up *after* the handler has been used, you could lose messages (since the handler won't even attempt a connection until the delay has elapsed, but just silently drop messages during the delay period).

15.9.8 DatagramHandler

The *DatagramHandler* class, located in the *logging.handlers* module, inherits from *SocketHandler* to support sending logging messages over UDP sockets.

class logging.handlers.DatagramHandler(host, port)

Returns a new instance of the *DatagramHandler* class intended to communicate with a remote machine whose address is given by *host* and *port*.

emit()

Pickles the record's attribute dictionary and writes it to the socket in binary format. If there is an error with the socket, silently drops the packet. To unpickle the record at the receiving end into a *LogRecord*, use the *makeLogRecord()* function.

makeSocket()

The factory method of *SocketHandler* is here overridden to create a UDP socket (*socket.SOCK_DGRAM*).

send(s)

Send a pickled string to a socket.

15.9.9 SysLogHandler

The *SysLogHandler* class, located in the *logging.handlers* module, supports sending logging messages to a remote or local Unix syslog.

class logging.handlers.SysLogHandler(address=('localhost', SYSLOG_UDP_PORT), facility=LOG_USER, socktype=socket.SOCK_DGRAM)

Returns a new instance of the *SysLogHandler* class intended to communicate with a remote Unix machine whose address is given by *address* in the form of a (*host*, *port*) tuple. If *address* is not specified, ('localhost', 514) is used. The address is used to open a socket. An alternative to providing a (*host*, *port*) tuple is providing an address as a string, for example "/dev/log". In this case, a Unix domain socket is used to send the message to the syslog. If *facility* is not specified, LOG_USER is used. The type of socket opened depends on the *socktype* argument, which defaults to *socket.SOCK_DGRAM*.

and thus opens a UDP socket. To open a TCP socket (for use with the newer syslog daemons such as rsyslog), specify a value of `socket.SOCK_STREAM`.

Note that if your server is not listening on UDP port 514, `SysLogHandler` may appear not to work. In that case, check what address you should be using for a domain socket - it's system dependent. For example, on Linux it's usually `"/dev/log"` but on OS/X it's `"/var/run/syslog"`. You'll need to check your platform and use the appropriate address (you may need to do this check at runtime if your application needs to run on several platforms). On Windows, you pretty much have to use the UDP option.

Modifié dans la version 2.7 : `socktype` was added.

close()

Closes the socket to the remote host.

emit(record)

The record is formatted, and then sent to the syslog server. If exception information is present, it is *not* sent to the server.

encodePriority(facility, priority)

Encodes the facility and priority into an integer. You can pass in strings or integers - if strings are passed, internal mapping dictionaries are used to convert them to integers.

The symbolic `LOG_` values are defined in `SysLogHandler` and mirror the values defined in the `sys/syslog.h` header file.

Priorities

Name (string)	Symbolic value
alert	LOG_ALERT
crit ou critical	LOG_CRIT
debug	LOG_DEBUG
emerg ou panic	LOG_EMERG
err ou error	LOG_ERR
info	LOG_INFO
notice	LOG_NOTICE
warn ou warning	LOG_WARNING

Facilities

Name (string)	Symbolic value
auth	LOG_AUTH
authpriv	LOG_AUTHPRIV
cron	LOG_CRON
daemon	LOG_DAEMON
ftp	LOG_FTP
kern	LOG_KERN
lpr	LOG_LPR
mail	LOG_MAIL
news	LOG_NEWS
syslog	LOG_SYSLOG
user	LOG_USER
uucp	LOG_UUCP
local0	LOG_LOCAL0
local1	LOG_LOCAL1
local2	LOG_LOCAL2
local3	LOG_LOCAL3
local4	LOG_LOCAL4
local5	LOG_LOCAL5
local6	LOG_LOCAL6
local7	LOG_LOCAL7

mapPriority(*levelname*)

Maps a logging level name to a syslog priority name. You may need to override this if you are using custom levels, or if the default algorithm is not suitable for your needs. The default algorithm maps `DEBUG`, `INFO`, `WARNING`, `ERROR` and `CRITICAL` to the equivalent syslog names, and all other level names to “warning”.

15.9.10 NTEventLogHandler

The *NTEventLogHandler* class, located in the *logging.handlers* module, supports sending logging messages to a local Windows NT, Windows 2000 or Windows XP event log. Before you can use it, you need Mark Hammond’s Win32 extensions for Python installed.

class *logging.handlers.NTEventLogHandler*(*appname*, *dllname=None*, *logtype='Application'*)

Returns a new instance of the *NTEventLogHandler* class. The *appname* is used to define the application name as it appears in the event log. An appropriate registry entry is created using this name. The *dllname* should give the fully qualified pathname of a .dll or .exe which contains message definitions to hold in the log (if not specified, 'win32service.pyd' is used - this is installed with the Win32 extensions and contains some basic placeholder message definitions. Note that use of these placeholders will make your event logs big, as the entire message source is held in the log. If you want slimmer logs, you have to pass in the name of your own .dll or .exe which contains the message definitions you want to use in the event log). The *logtype* is one of 'Application', 'System' or 'Security', and defaults to 'Application'.

close()

At this point, you can remove the application name from the registry as a source of event log entries. However, if you do this, you will not be able to see the events as you intended in the Event Log Viewer - it needs to be able to access the registry to get the .dll name. The current version does not do this.

emit(*record*)

Determines the message ID, event category and event type, and then logs the message in the NT event log.

getEventCategory(record)

Returns the event category for the record. Override this if you want to specify your own categories. This version returns 0.

getEventType(record)

Returns the event type for the record. Override this if you want to specify your own types. This version does a mapping using the handler's `typemap` attribute, which is set up in `__init__()` to a dictionary which contains mappings for `DEBUG`, `INFO`, `WARNING`, `ERROR` and `CRITICAL`. If you are using your own levels, you will either need to override this method or place a suitable dictionary in the handler's `typemap` attribute.

getMessageID(record)

Returns the message ID for the record. If you are using your own messages, you could do this by having the `msg` passed to the logger being an ID rather than a format string. Then, in here, you could use a dictionary lookup to get the message ID. This version returns 1, which is the base message ID in `win32service.pyd`.

15.9.11 SMTPHandler

The `SMTPHandler` class, located in the `logging.handlers` module, supports sending logging messages to an email address via SMTP.

class `logging.handlers.SMTPHandler(mailhost, fromaddr, toaddrs, subject, credentials=None, secure=None)`

Returns a new instance of the `SMTPHandler` class. The instance is initialized with the from and to addresses and subject line of the email. The `toaddrs` should be a list of strings. To specify a non-standard SMTP port, use the (host, port) tuple format for the `mailhost` argument. If you use a string, the standard SMTP port is used. If your SMTP server requires authentication, you can specify a (username, password) tuple for the `credentials` argument.

To specify the use of a secure protocol (TLS), pass in a tuple to the `secure` argument. This will only be used when authentication credentials are supplied. The tuple should be either an empty tuple, or a single-value tuple with the name of a keyfile, or a 2-value tuple with the names of the keyfile and certificate file. (This tuple is passed to the `smtplib.SMTP.starttls()` method.)

Modifié dans la version 2.6 : `credentials` was added.

Modifié dans la version 2.7 : `secure` was added.

emit(record)

Formats the record and sends it to the specified addressees.

getSubject(record)

If you want to specify a subject line which is record-dependent, override this method.

15.9.12 MemoryHandler

The `MemoryHandler` class, located in the `logging.handlers` module, supports buffering of logging records in memory, periodically flushing them to a `target` handler. Flushing occurs whenever the buffer is full, or when an event of a certain severity or greater is seen.

`MemoryHandler` is a subclass of the more general `BufferingHandler`, which is an abstract class. This buffers logging records in memory. Whenever each record is added to the buffer, a check is made by calling `shouldFlush()` to see if the buffer should be flushed. If it should, then `flush()` is expected to do the flushing.

class `logging.handlers.BufferingHandler(capacity)`

Initializes the handler with a buffer of the specified capacity.

emit(record)

Appends the record to the buffer. If `shouldFlush()` returns true, calls `flush()` to process the buffer.

flush()

You can override this to implement custom flushing behavior. This version just zaps the buffer to empty.

shouldFlush(record)

Returns true if the buffer is up to capacity. This method can be overridden to implement custom flushing strategies.

class logging.handlers.MemoryHandler(capacity, flushLevel=ERROR, target=None)

Returns a new instance of the *MemoryHandler* class. The instance is initialized with a buffer size of *capacity*. If *flushLevel* is not specified, *ERROR* is used. If no *target* is specified, the target will need to be set using *setTarget()* before this handler does anything useful.

close()

Calls *flush()*, sets the target to *None* and clears the buffer.

flush()

For a *MemoryHandler*, flushing means just sending the buffered records to the target, if there is one. The buffer is also cleared when this happens. Override if you want different behavior.

setTarget(target)

Sets the target handler for this handler.

shouldFlush(record)

Checks for buffer full or a record at the *flushLevel* or higher.

15.9.13 HTTPHandler

The *HTTPHandler* class, located in the *logging.handlers* module, supports sending logging messages to a Web server, using either GET or POST semantics.

class logging.handlers.HTTPHandler(host, url, method='GET')

Returns a new instance of the *HTTPHandler* class. The *host* can be of the form *host:port*, should you need to use a specific port number.

mapLogRecord(record)

Provides a dictionary, based on *record*, which is to be URL-encoded and sent to the web server. The default implementation just returns *record.__dict__*. This method can be overridden if e.g. only a subset of *LogRecord* is to be sent to the web server, or if more specific customization of what's sent to the server is required.

emit(record)

Sends the record to the Web server as a URL-encoded dictionary. The *mapLogRecord()* method is used to convert the record to the dictionary to be sent.

Note : Since preparing a record for sending it to a Web server is not the same as a generic formatting operation, using *setFormatter()* to specify a *Formatter* for a *HTTPHandler* has no effect. Instead of calling *format()*, this handler calls *mapLogRecord()* and then *urllib.urlencode()* to encode the dictionary in a form suitable for sending to a Web server.

Voir aussi :

Module *logging* API reference for the logging module.

Module *logging.config* Configuration API for the logging module.

15.10 Saisie de mot de passe portable

Le module *getpass* fournit 2 fonctions :

```
getpass.getpass([prompt[, stream]])
```

Prompt the user for a password without echoing. The user is prompted using the string *prompt*, which defaults to 'Password: '. On Unix, the prompt is written to the file-like object *stream*. *stream* defaults to the controlling terminal (/dev/tty) or if that is unavailable to `sys.stderr` (this argument is ignored on Windows).

Si aucune saisie en mode sans affichage n'est disponible, `getpass()` se résoudra à afficher un message d'avertissement vers *stream*, puis lire l'entrée depuis `sys.stdin`, en levant une *GetPassWarning*.

Modifié dans la version 2.5 : The *stream* parameter was added.

Modifié dans la version 2.6 : On Unix it defaults to using /dev/tty before falling back to `sys.stdin` and `sys.stderr`.

Note : Si vous appelez *getpass* depuis IDLE, la saisie peut être faite dans le terminal depuis lequel IDLE a été lancé, plutôt que dans la fenêtre d'IDLE.

exception `getpass.GetPassWarning`

Une sous classe d'exception *UserWarning* est levée quand le mot de passe saisi pourrait être affiché.

`getpass.getuser()`

Renvoie le *login name* de l'utilisateur.

Cette fonction examine les variables d'environnement LOGNAME, USER, LNAME et USERNAME, dans cet ordre, et renvoie la valeur de la première qui a comme valeur une string non vide. Si aucune des variables n'est renseignée, dans le cas de systèmes qui prennent en charge le module *pwd*, le *login name* de la base de données des mots de passes est renvoyé, pour les autres systèmes une exception est levée.

15.11 curses — Terminal handling for character-cell displays

Modifié dans la version 1.6 : Added support for the `ncurses` library and converted to a package.

The *curses* module provides an interface to the curses library, the de-facto standard for portable advanced terminal handling.

While curses is most widely used in the Unix environment, versions are available for DOS, OS/2, and possibly other systems as well. This extension module is designed to match the API of ncurses, an open-source curses library hosted on Linux and the BSD variants of Unix.

Note : Since version 5.4, the ncurses library decides how to interpret non-ASCII data using the `nl_langinfo` function. That means that you have to call `locale.setlocale()` in the application and encode Unicode strings using one of the system's available encodings. This example uses the system's default encoding :

```
import locale
locale.setlocale(locale.LC_ALL, '')
code = locale.getpreferredencoding()
```

Then use *code* as the encoding for *str.encode()* calls.

Voir aussi :

Module *curses.ascii* Utilities for working with ASCII characters, regardless of your locale settings.

Module *curses.panel* A panel stack extension that adds depth to curses windows.

Module *curses.textpad* Editable text widget for curses supporting Emacs-like bindings.

curses-howto Tutorial material on using curses with Python, by Andrew Kuchling and Eric Raymond.

The `Demo/curses/` directory in the Python source distribution contains some example programs using the curses bindings provided by this module.

15.11.1 Fonctions

The module `curses` defines the following exception :

exception `curses.error`

Exception raised when a curses library function returns an error.

Note : Whenever *x* or *y* arguments to a function or a method are optional, they default to the current cursor location. Whenever *attr* is optional, it defaults to `A_NORMAL`.

The module `curses` defines the following functions :

`curses.baudrate()`

Return the output speed of the terminal in bits per second. On software terminal emulators it will have a fixed high value. Included for historical reasons; in former times, it was used to write output loops for time delays and occasionally to change interfaces depending on the line speed.

`curses.beep()`

Emit a short attention sound.

`curses.can_change_color()`

Return `True` or `False`, depending on whether the programmer can change the colors displayed by the terminal.

`curses.cbreak()`

Enter cbreak mode. In cbreak mode (sometimes called « rare » mode) normal tty line buffering is turned off and characters are available to be read one by one. However, unlike raw mode, special characters (interrupt, quit, suspend, and flow control) retain their effects on the tty driver and calling program. Calling first `raw()` then `cbreak()` leaves the terminal in cbreak mode.

`curses.color_content(color_number)`

Return the intensity of the red, green, and blue (RGB) components in the color *color_number*, which must be between 0 and `COLORS`. A 3-tuple is returned, containing the R,G,B values for the given color, which will be between 0 (no component) and 1000 (maximum amount of component).

`curses.color_pair(color_number)`

Return the attribute value for displaying text in the specified color. This attribute value can be combined with `A_STANDOUT`, `A_REVERSE`, and the other `A_*` attributes. `pair_number()` is the counterpart to this function.

`curses.curs_set(visibility)`

Set the cursor state. *visibility* can be set to 0, 1, or 2, for invisible, normal, or very visible. If the terminal supports the visibility requested, the previous cursor state is returned; otherwise, an exception is raised. On many terminals, the « visible » mode is an underline cursor and the « very visible » mode is a block cursor.

`curses.def_prog_mode()`

Save the current terminal mode as the « program » mode, the mode when the running program is using curses. (Its counterpart is the « shell » mode, for when the program is not in curses.) Subsequent calls to `reset_prog_mode()` will restore this mode.

`curses.def_shell_mode()`

Save the current terminal mode as the « shell » mode, the mode when the running program is not using curses. (Its counterpart is the « program » mode, when the program is using curses capabilities.) Subsequent calls to `reset_shell_mode()` will restore this mode.

`curses.delay_output(ms)`

Insert an *ms* millisecond pause in output.

`curses.doupdate()`

Update the physical screen. The curses library keeps two data structures, one representing the current physical screen contents and a virtual screen representing the desired next state. The `doupdate()` ground updates the physical screen to match the virtual screen.

The virtual screen may be updated by a `noutrefresh()` call after write operations such as `addstr()` have been performed on a window. The normal `refresh()` call is simply `noutrefresh()` followed by `doupdate()`; if you have to update multiple windows, you can speed performance and perhaps reduce screen flicker by issuing `noutrefresh()` calls on all windows, followed by a single `doupdate()`.

`curses.echo()`

Enter echo mode. In echo mode, each character input is echoed to the screen as it is entered.

`curses.endwin()`

De-initialize the library, and return terminal to normal status.

`curses.erasechar()`

Return the user's current erase character. Under Unix operating systems this is a property of the controlling tty of the curses program, and is not set by the curses library itself.

`curses.filter()`

The `filter()` routine, if used, must be called before `initscr()` is called. The effect is that, during those calls, `LINES` is set to 1; the capabilities `clear`, `cup`, `cud`, `cud1`, `cuu1`, `cuu`, `vpa` are disabled; and the home string is set to the value of `cr`. The effect is that the cursor is confined to the current line, and so are screen updates. This may be used for enabling character-at-a-time line editing without touching the rest of the screen.

`curses.flash()`

Flash the screen. That is, change it to reverse-video and then change it back in a short interval. Some people prefer such as “visible bell” to the audible attention signal produced by `beep()`.

`curses.flushinp()`

Flush all input buffers. This throws away any typeahead that has been typed by the user and has not yet been processed by the program.

`curses.getmouse()`

After `getch()` returns `KEY_MOUSE` to signal a mouse event, this method should be call to retrieve the queued mouse event, represented as a 5-tuple (`id`, `x`, `y`, `z`, `bstate`). `id` is an ID value used to distinguish multiple devices, and `x`, `y`, `z` are the event's coordinates. (`z` is currently unused.) `bstate` is an integer value whose bits will be set to indicate the type of event, and will be the bitwise OR of one or more of the following constants, where `n` is the button number from 1 to 4 : `BUTTONn_PRESSED`, `BUTTONn_RELEASED`, `BUTTONn_CLICKED`, `BUTTONn_DOUBLE_CLICKED`, `BUTTONn_TRIPLE_CLICKED`, `BUTTON_SHIFT`, `BUTTON_CTRL`, `BUTTON_ALT`.

`curses.getsyx()`

Return the current coordinates of the virtual screen cursor in `y` and `x`. If `leaveok` is currently true, then `-1,-1` is returned.

`curses.getwin(file)`

Read window related data stored in the file by an earlier `putwin()` call. The routine then creates and initializes a new window using that data, returning the new window object.

`curses.has_colors()`

Return `True` if the terminal can display colors; otherwise, return `False`.

`curses.has_ic()`

Return `True` if the terminal has insert- and delete-character capabilities. This function is included for historical reasons only, as all modern software terminal emulators have such capabilities.

`curses.has_il()`

Return **True** if the terminal has insert- and delete-line capabilities, or can simulate them using scrolling regions. This function is included for historical reasons only, as all modern software terminal emulators have such capabilities.

`curses.has_key(ch)`

Take a key value *ch*, and return **True** if the current terminal type recognizes a key with that value.

`curses.halfdelay(tenths)`

Used for half-delay mode, which is similar to `cbreak` mode in that characters typed by the user are immediately available to the program. However, after blocking for *tenths* tenths of seconds, an exception is raised if nothing has been typed. The value of *tenths* must be a number between 1 and 255. Use `nocbreak()` to leave half-delay mode.

`curses.init_color(color_number, r, g, b)`

Change the definition of a color, taking the number of the color to be changed followed by three RGB values (for the amounts of red, green, and blue components). The value of *color_number* must be between 0 and `COLORS`. Each of *r*, *g*, *b*, must be a value between 0 and 1000. When `init_color()` is used, all occurrences of that color on the screen immediately change to the new definition. This function is a no-op on most terminals; it is active only if `can_change_color()` returns 1.

`curses.init_pair(pair_number, fg, bg)`

Change the definition of a color-pair. It takes three arguments : the number of the color-pair to be changed, the foreground color number, and the background color number. The value of *pair_number* must be between 1 and `COLOR_PAIRS - 1` (the 0 color pair is wired to white on black and cannot be changed). The value of *fg* and *bg* arguments must be between 0 and `COLORS`. If the color-pair was previously initialized, the screen is refreshed and all occurrences of that color-pair are changed to the new definition.

`curses.initscr()`

Initialize the library. Return a `WindowObject` which represents the whole screen.

Note : If there is an error opening the terminal, the underlying curses library may cause the interpreter to exit.

`curses.is_term_resized(nlines, ncols)`

Return **True** if `resize_term()` would modify the window structure, **False** otherwise.

`curses.isendwin()`

Return **True** if `endwin()` has been called (that is, the curses library has been deinitialized).

`curses.keyname(k)`

Return the name of the key numbered *k*. The name of a key generating printable ASCII character is the key's character. The name of a control-key combination is a two-character string consisting of a caret followed by the corresponding printable ASCII character. The name of an alt-key combination (128–255) is a string consisting of the prefix “M-“ followed by the name of the corresponding ASCII character.

`curses.killchar()`

Return the user's current line kill character. Under Unix operating systems this is a property of the controlling tty of the curses program, and is not set by the curses library itself.

`curses.longname()`

Return a string containing the terminfo long name field describing the current terminal. The maximum length of a verbose description is 128 characters. It is defined only after the call to `initscr()`.

`curses.meta(yes)`

If *yes* is 1, allow 8-bit characters to be input. If *yes* is 0, allow only 7-bit chars.

`curses.mouseinterval(interval)`

Set the maximum time in milliseconds that can elapse between press and release events in order for them to be recognized as a click, and return the previous interval value. The default value is 200 msec, or one fifth of a second.

`curses.mousemask(mousemask)`

Set the mouse events to be reported, and return a tuple (*availmask*, *oldmask*). *availmask* indicates which of the specified mouse events can be reported; on complete failure it returns 0. *oldmask* is the previous value of the given window's mouse event mask. If this function is never called, no mouse events are ever reported.

`curses.napms(ms)`

Sleep for *ms* milliseconds.

`curses.newpad(nlines, ncols)`

Create and return a pointer to a new pad data structure with the given number of lines and columns. A pad is returned as a window object.

A pad is like a window, except that it is not restricted by the screen size, and is not necessarily associated with a particular part of the screen. Pads can be used when a large window is needed, and only a part of the window will be on the screen at one time. Automatic refreshes of pads (such as from scrolling or echoing of input) do not occur. The `refresh()` and `noutrefresh()` methods of a pad require 6 arguments to specify the part of the pad to be displayed and the location on the screen to be used for the display. The arguments are *pminrow*, *pmincol*, *sminrow*, *smincol*, *smaxrow*, *smaxcol*; the *p* arguments refer to the upper left corner of the pad region to be displayed and the *s* arguments define a clipping box on the screen within which the pad region is to be displayed.

`curses.newwin(nlines, ncols)`

`curses.newwin(nlines, ncols, begin_y, begin_x)`

Return a new window, whose left-upper corner is at (*begin_y*, *begin_x*), and whose height/width is *nlines/ncols*.

By default, the window will extend from the specified position to the lower right corner of the screen.

`curses.nl()`

Enter newline mode. This mode translates the return key into newline on input, and translates newline into return and line-feed on output. Newline mode is initially on.

`curses.nocbreak()`

Leave cbreak mode. Return to normal « cooked » mode with line buffering.

`curses.noecho()`

Leave echo mode. Echoing of input characters is turned off.

`curses.nonl()`

Leave newline mode. Disable translation of return into newline on input, and disable low-level translation of newline into newline/return on output (but this does not change the behavior of `addch('\n')`, which always does the equivalent of return and line feed on the virtual screen). With translation off, curses can sometimes speed up vertical motion a little; also, it will be able to detect the return key on input.

`curses.noqiflush()`

When the `noqiflush()` routine is used, normal flush of input and output queues associated with the INTR, QUIT and SUSP characters will not be done. You may want to call `noqiflush()` in a signal handler if you want output to continue as though the interrupt had not occurred, after the handler exits.

`curses.noraw()`

Leave raw mode. Return to normal « cooked » mode with line buffering.

`curses.pair_content(pair_number)`

Return a tuple (fg, bg) containing the colors for the requested color pair. The value of *pair_number* must be between 1 and COLOR_PAIRS - 1.

`curses.pair_number(attr)`

Return the number of the color-pair set by the attribute value *attr*. *color_pair()* is the counterpart to this function.

`curses.putp(string)`

Equivalent to `tputs(str, 1, putchar)`; emit the value of a specified terminfo capability for the current terminal. Note that the output of *putp()* always goes to standard output.

`curses.qiflush([flag])`

If *flag* is False, the effect is the same as calling *noqiflush()*. If *flag* is True, or no argument is provided, the queues will be flushed when these control characters are read.

`curses.raw()`

Enter raw mode. In raw mode, normal line buffering and processing of interrupt, quit, suspend, and flow control keys are turned off; characters are presented to curses input functions one by one.

`curses.reset_prog_mode()`

Restore the terminal to « program » mode, as previously saved by *def_prog_mode()*.

`curses.reset_shell_mode()`

Restore the terminal to « shell » mode, as previously saved by *def_shell_mode()*.

`curses.resetty()`

Restore the state of the terminal modes to what it was at the last call to *savetty()*.

`curses.resize_term(nlines, ncols)`

Backend function used by *resizeterm()*, performing most of the work; when resizing the windows, *resize_term()* blank-fills the areas that are extended. The calling application should fill in these areas with appropriate data. The *resize_term()* function attempts to resize all windows. However, due to the calling convention of pads, it is not possible to resize these without additional interaction with the application.

`curses.resizeterm(nlines, ncols)`

Resize the standard and current windows to the specified dimensions, and adjusts other bookkeeping data used by the curses library that record the window dimensions (in particular the SIGWINCH handler).

`curses.savetty()`

Save the current state of the terminal modes in a buffer, usable by *resetty()*.

`curses.setsyx(y, x)`

Set the virtual screen cursor to *y*, *x*. If *y* and *x* are both -1, then leaveok is set.

`curses.setupterm([termstr, fd])`

Initialize the terminal. *termstr* is a string giving the terminal name; if omitted, the value of the TERM environment variable will be used. *fd* is the file descriptor to which any initialization sequences will be sent; if not supplied, the file descriptor for `sys.stdout` will be used.

`curses.start_color()`

Must be called if the programmer wants to use colors, and before any other color manipulation routine is called. It is good practice to call this routine right after *initscr()*.

start_color() initializes eight basic colors (black, red, green, yellow, blue, magenta, cyan, and white), and two global variables in the *curses* module, COLORS and COLOR_PAIRS, containing the maximum number of colors and color-pairs the terminal can support. It also restores the colors on the terminal to the values they had when the terminal was just turned on.

`curses.termattrs()`

Return a logical OR of all video attributes supported by the terminal. This information is useful when a curses program needs complete control over the appearance of the screen.

`curses.termname()`

Return the value of the environment variable `TERM`, truncated to 14 characters.

`curses.tigetflag(capname)`

Return the value of the Boolean capability corresponding to the terminfo capability name *capname*. The value `-1` is returned if *capname* is not a Boolean capability, or `0` if it is canceled or absent from the terminal description.

`curses.tigetnum(capname)`

Return the value of the numeric capability corresponding to the terminfo capability name *capname*. The value `-2` is returned if *capname* is not a numeric capability, or `-1` if it is canceled or absent from the terminal description.

`curses.tigetstr(capname)`

Return the value of the string capability corresponding to the terminfo capability name *capname*. `None` is returned if *capname* is not a string capability, or is canceled or absent from the terminal description.

`curses.tparm(str[, ...])`

Instantiate the string *str* with the supplied parameters, where *str* should be a parameterized string obtained from the terminfo database. E.g. `tparm(tigetstr("cup"), 5, 3)` could result in `'\033[6;4H'`, the exact result depending on terminal type.

`curses.typeahead(fd)`

Specify that the file descriptor *fd* be used for typeahead checking. If *fd* is `-1`, then no typeahead checking is done.

The curses library does « line-breakout optimization » by looking for typeahead periodically while updating the screen. If input is found, and it is coming from a `tty`, the current update is postponed until `refresh` or `doupdate` is called again, allowing faster response to commands typed in advance. This function allows specifying a different file descriptor for typeahead checking.

`curses.unctrl(ch)`

Return a string which is a printable representation of the character *ch*. Control characters are displayed as a caret followed by the character, for example as `^C`. Printing characters are left as they are.

`curses.ungetch(ch)`

Push *ch* so the next `getch()` will return it.

Note : Only one *ch* can be pushed before `getch()` is called.

`curses.ungetmouse(id, x, y, z, bstate)`

Push a `KEY_MOUSE` event onto the input queue, associating the given state data with it.

`curses.use_env(flag)`

If used, this function should be called before `initscr()` or `newterm` are called. When *flag* is `False`, the values of lines and columns specified in the terminfo database will be used, even if environment variables `LINES` and `COLUMNS` (used by default) are set, or if curses is running in a window (in which case default behavior would be to use the window size if `LINES` and `COLUMNS` are not set).

`curses.use_default_colors()`

Allow use of default values for colors on terminals supporting this feature. Use this to support transparency in your application. The default color is assigned to the color number `-1`. After calling this function, `init_pair(x, curses.COLOR_RED, -1)` initializes, for instance, color pair *x* to a red foreground color on the default background.

`curses.wrapper(func, ...)`

Initialize curses and call another callable object, *func*, which should be the rest of your curses-using application. If the application raises an exception, this function will restore the terminal to a sane state before re-raising the exception and generating a traceback. The callable object *func* is then passed the main window “stdscr” as its first argument, followed by any other arguments passed to `wrapper()`. Before calling *func*, `wrapper()` turns on cbreak mode, turns off echo, enables the terminal keypad, and initializes colors if the terminal has color support. On exit (whether normally or by exception) it restores cooked mode, turns on echo, and disables the terminal keypad.

15.11.2 Window Objects

Window objects, as returned by `initscr()` and `newwin()` above, have the following methods :

`window.addch(ch[, attr])`

`window.addch(y, x, ch[, attr])`

Note : A *character* means a C character (an ASCII code), rather than a Python character (a string of length 1). (This note is true whenever the documentation mentions a character.) The built-in `ord()` is handy for conveying strings to codes.

Paint character *ch* at (*y*, *x*) with attributes *attr*, overwriting any character previously painter at that location. By default, the character position and attributes are the current settings for the window object.

Note : Writing outside the window, subwindow, or pad raises a `curses.error`. Attempting to write to the lower right corner of a window, subwindow, or pad will cause an exception to be raised after the character is printed.

`window.addnstr(str, n[, attr])`

`window.addnstr(y, x, str, n[, attr])`

Paint at most *n* characters of the string *str* at (*y*, *x*) with attributes *attr*, overwriting anything previously on the display.

`window.addstr(str[, attr])`

`window.addstr(y, x, str[, attr])`

Paint the string *str* at (*y*, *x*) with attributes *attr*, overwriting anything previously on the display.

Note : Writing outside the window, subwindow, or pad raises `curses.error`. Attempting to write to the lower right corner of a window, subwindow, or pad will cause an exception to be raised after the string is printed.

`window.attroff(attr)`

Remove attribute *attr* from the « background » set applied to all writes to the current window.

`window.attron(attr)`

Add attribute *attr* from the « background » set applied to all writes to the current window.

`window.attrset(attr)`

Set the « background » set of attributes to *attr*. This set is initially 0 (no attributes).

`window.bkgd(ch[, attr])`

Set the background property of the window to the character *ch*, with attributes *attr*. The change is then applied to every character position in that window :

- The attribute of every character in the window is changed to the new background attribute.
- Wherever the former background character appears, it is changed to the new background character.

`window.bkgdset(ch[, attr])`

Set the window's background. A window's background consists of a character and any combination of attributes. The attribute part of the background is combined (OR'ed) with all non-blank characters that are written into the window. Both the character and attribute parts of the background are combined with the blank characters. The background becomes a property of the character and moves with the character through any scrolling and insert/delete line/character operations.

`window.border([ls[, rs[, ts[, bs[, tl[, tr[, bl[, br]]]]]]])`

Draw a border around the edges of the window. Each parameter specifies the character to use for a specific part of the border; see the table below for more details. The characters can be specified as integers or as one-character strings.

Note : A 0 value for any parameter will cause the default character to be used for that parameter. Keyword parameters can *not* be used. The defaults are listed in this table :

Paramètre	Description	Valeur par défaut
<i>ls</i>	Left side	ACS_VLINE
<i>rs</i>	Right side	ACS_VLINE
<i>ts</i>	Top	ACS_HLINE
<i>bs</i>	Bottom	ACS_HLINE
<i>tl</i>	Upper-left corner	ACS_ULCORNER
<i>tr</i>	Upper-right corner	ACS_URCORNER
<i>bl</i>	Bottom-left corner	ACS_LLCORNER
<i>br</i>	Bottom-right corner	ACS_LRCORNER

`window.box([vertch, horch])`

Similar to `border()`, but both *ls* and *rs* are *vertch* and both *ts* and *bs* are *horch*. The default corner characters are always used by this function.

`window.chgat(attr)`

`window.chgat(num, attr)`

`window.chgat(y, x, attr)`

`window.chgat(y, x, num, attr)`

Set the attributes of *num* characters at the current cursor position, or at position (*y*, *x*) if supplied. If *num* is not given or is -1, the attribute will be set on all the characters to the end of the line. This function moves cursor to position (*y*, *x*) if supplied. The changed line will be touched using the `touchline()` method so that the contents will be redisplayed by the next window refresh.

`window.clear()`

Like `erase()`, but also cause the whole window to be repainted upon next call to `refresh()`.

`window.clearok(yes)`

If *yes* is 1, the next call to `refresh()` will clear the window completely.

`window.clrtoeol()`

Erase from cursor to the end of the window : all lines below the cursor are deleted, and then the equivalent of `clrtoeol()` is performed.

`window.clrtoeol()`

Erase from cursor to the end of the line.

`window.cursyncup()`

Update the current cursor position of all the ancestors of the window to reflect the current cursor position of the window.

`window.delch([y, x])`

Delete any character at (y, x).

`window.deleteln()`

Delete the line under the cursor. All following lines are moved up by one line.

`window.derwin(begin_y, begin_x)`

`window.derwin(nlines, ncols, begin_y, begin_x)`

An abbreviation for « derive window », `derwin()` is the same as calling `subwin()`, except that `begin_y` and `begin_x` are relative to the origin of the window, rather than relative to the entire screen. Return a window object for the derived window.

`window.echochar(ch[, attr])`

Add character `ch` with attribute `attr`, and immediately call `refresh()` on the window.

`window.enclose(y, x)`

Test whether the given pair of screen-relative character-cell coordinates are enclosed by the given window, returning `True` or `False`. It is useful for determining what subset of the screen windows enclose the location of a mouse event.

`window.erase()`

Clear the window.

`window.getbegyx()`

Return a tuple (y, x) of co-ordinates of upper-left corner.

`window.getbkgd()`

Return the given window's current background character/attribute pair.

`window.getch([y, x])`

Get a character. Note that the integer returned does *not* have to be in ASCII range : function keys, keypad keys and so on return numbers higher than 256. In no-delay mode, -1 is returned if there is no input, else `getch()` waits until a key is pressed.

`window.getkey([y, x])`

Get a character, returning a string instead of an integer, as `getch()` does. Function keys, keypad keys and so on return a multibyte string containing the key name. In no-delay mode, an exception is raised if there is no input.

`window.getmaxyx()`

Return a tuple (y, x) of the height and width of the window.

`window.getparyx()`

Return the beginning coordinates of this window relative to its parent window into two integer variables y and x. Return -1, -1 if this window has no parent.

`window.getstr([y, x])`

Read a string from the user, with primitive line editing capacity.

`window.getyx()`

Return a tuple (y, x) of current cursor position relative to the window's upper-left corner.

`window.hline(ch, n)`

`window.hline(y, x, ch, n)`

Display a horizontal line starting at (y, x) with length `n` consisting of the character `ch`.

`window.idcok(flag)`

If `flag` is `False`, curses no longer considers using the hardware insert/delete character feature of the terminal; if `flag` is `True`, use of character insertion and deletion is enabled. When curses is first initialized, use of character insert/delete is enabled by default.

`window.idlok(yes)`

If called with *yes* equal to 1, *curses* will try and use hardware line editing facilities. Otherwise, line insertion/deletion are disabled.

`window.immedok(flag)`

If *flag* is `True`, any change in the window image automatically causes the window to be refreshed; you no longer have to call *refresh()* yourself. However, it may degrade performance considerably, due to repeated calls to *wrefresh*. This option is disabled by default.

`window.inch([y, x])`

Return the character at the given position in the window. The bottom 8 bits are the character proper, and upper bits are the attributes.

`window.insch(ch, [attr])`

`window.insch(y, x, ch, [attr])`

Paint character *ch* at (*y*, *x*) with attributes *attr*, moving the line from position *x* right by one character.

`window.insdelln(nlines)`

Insert *nlines* lines into the specified window above the current line. The *nlines* bottom lines are lost. For negative *nlines*, delete *nlines* lines starting with the one under the cursor, and move the remaining lines up. The bottom *nlines* lines are cleared. The current cursor position remains the same.

`window.insertln()`

Insert a blank line under the cursor. All following lines are moved down by one line.

`window.insnstr(str, [n, [attr]])`

`window.insnstr(y, x, str, [n, [attr]])`

Insert a character string (as many characters as will fit on the line) before the character under the cursor, up to *n* characters. If *n* is zero or negative, the entire string is inserted. All characters to the right of the cursor are shifted right, with the rightmost characters on the line being lost. The cursor position does not change (after moving to *y*, *x*, if specified).

`window.insstr(str, [attr])`

`window.insstr(y, x, str, [attr])`

Insert a character string (as many characters as will fit on the line) before the character under the cursor. All characters to the right of the cursor are shifted right, with the rightmost characters on the line being lost. The cursor position does not change (after moving to *y*, *x*, if specified).

`window.instr([n])`

`window.instr(y, x, [n])`

Return a string of characters, extracted from the window starting at the current cursor position, or at *y*, *x* if specified. Attributes are stripped from the characters. If *n* is specified, *instr()* returns a string at most *n* characters long (exclusive of the trailing NUL).

`window.is_linetouched(line)`

Return `True` if the specified line was modified since the last call to *refresh()*; otherwise return `False`. Raise a *curses.error* exception if *line* is not valid for the given window.

`window.is_wintouched()`

Return `True` if the specified window was modified since the last call to *refresh()*; otherwise return `False`.

`window.keypad(yes)`

If *yes* is 1, escape sequences generated by some keys (keypad, function keys) will be interpreted by *curses*. If *yes* is 0, escape sequences will be left as is in the input stream.

`window.leaveok(yes)`

If *yes* is 1, cursor is left where it is on update, instead of being at « cursor position. » This reduces

cursor movement where possible. If possible the cursor will be made invisible.

If *yes* is 0, cursor will always be at « cursor position » after an update.

`window.move(new_y, new_x)`

Move cursor to (*new_y*, *new_x*).

`window.mvderwin(y, x)`

Move the window inside its parent window. The screen-relative parameters of the window are not changed. This routine is used to display different parts of the parent window at the same physical position on the screen.

`window.mvwin(new_y, new_x)`

Move the window so its upper-left corner is at (*new_y*, *new_x*).

`window.nodelay(yes)`

If *yes* is 1, *getch()* will be non-blocking.

`window.notimeout(yes)`

If *yes* is 1, escape sequences will not be timed out.

If *yes* is 0, after a few milliseconds, an escape sequence will not be interpreted, and will be left in the input stream as is.

`window.noutrefresh()`

Mark for refresh but wait. This function updates the data structure representing the desired state of the window, but does not force an update of the physical screen. To accomplish that, call *doupdate()*.

`window.overlay(destwin[, sminrow, smincol, dminrow, dmincol, dmaxrow, dmaxcol])`

Overlay the window on top of *destwin*. The windows need not be the same size, only the overlapping region is copied. This copy is non-destructive, which means that the current background character does not overwrite the old contents of *destwin*.

To get fine-grained control over the copied region, the second form of *overlay()* can be used. *sminrow* and *smincol* are the upper-left coordinates of the source window, and the other variables mark a rectangle in the destination window.

`window.overwrite(destwin[, sminrow, smincol, dminrow, dmincol, dmaxrow, dmaxcol])`

Overwrite the window on top of *destwin*. The windows need not be the same size, in which case only the overlapping region is copied. This copy is destructive, which means that the current background character overwrites the old contents of *destwin*.

To get fine-grained control over the copied region, the second form of *overwrite()* can be used. *sminrow* and *smincol* are the upper-left coordinates of the source window, the other variables mark a rectangle in the destination window.

`window.putwin(file)`

Write all data associated with the window into the provided file object. This information can be later retrieved using the *getwin()* function.

`window.redrawln(beg, num)`

Indicate that the *num* screen lines, starting at line *beg*, are corrupted and should be completely redrawn on the next *refresh()* call.

`window.redrawwin()`

Touch the entire window, causing it to be completely redrawn on the next *refresh()* call.

`window.refresh([pminrow, pmincol, sminrow, smincol, smaxrow, smaxcol])`

Update the display immediately (sync actual screen with previous drawing/deleting methods).

The 6 optional arguments can only be specified when the window is a pad created with *newpad()*. The additional parameters are needed to indicate what part of the pad and screen are involved. *pminrow* and *pmincol* specify the upper left-hand corner of the rectangle to be displayed in the pad. *sminrow*, *smincol*, *smaxrow*, and *smaxcol* specify the edges of the rectangle to be displayed on the screen. The

lower right-hand corner of the rectangle to be displayed in the pad is calculated from the screen coordinates, since the rectangles must be the same size. Both rectangles must be entirely contained within their respective structures. Negative values of *pminrow*, *pmincol*, *sminrow*, or *smincol* are treated as if they were zero.

window.resize(*nlines*, *ncols*)

Reallocate storage for a curses window to adjust its dimensions to the specified values. If either dimension is larger than the current values, the window's data is filled with blanks that have the current background rendition (as set by *bkgdset()*) merged into them.

window.scroll([*lines*=1])

Scroll the screen or scrolling region upward by *lines* lines.

window.scrollok(*flag*)

Control what happens when the cursor of a window is moved off the edge of the window or scrolling region, either as a result of a newline action on the bottom line, or typing the last character of the last line. If *flag* is false, the cursor is left on the bottom line. If *flag* is true, the window is scrolled up one line. Note that in order to get the physical scrolling effect on the terminal, it is also necessary to call *idlok()*.

window.setscrreg(*top*, *bottom*)

Set the scrolling region from line *top* to line *bottom*. All scrolling actions will take place in this region.

window.standend()

Turn off the standout attribute. On some terminals this has the side effect of turning off all attributes.

window.standout()

Turn on attribute *A_STANDOUT*.

window.subpad(*begin_y*, *begin_x*)

window.subpad(*nlines*, *ncols*, *begin_y*, *begin_x*)

Return a sub-window, whose upper-left corner is at (*begin_y*, *begin_x*), and whose width/height is *ncols/nlines*.

window.subwin(*begin_y*, *begin_x*)

window.subwin(*nlines*, *ncols*, *begin_y*, *begin_x*)

Return a sub-window, whose upper-left corner is at (*begin_y*, *begin_x*), and whose width/height is *ncols/nlines*.

By default, the sub-window will extend from the specified position to the lower right corner of the window.

window.syncdown()

Touch each location in the window that has been touched in any of its ancestor windows. This routine is called by *refresh()*, so it should almost never be necessary to call it manually.

window.syncok(*flag*)

If called with *flag* set to *True*, then *syncup()* is called automatically whenever there is a change in the window.

window.syncup()

Touch all locations in ancestors of the window that have been changed in the window.

window.timeout(*delay*)

Set blocking or non-blocking read behavior for the window. If *delay* is negative, blocking read is used (which will wait indefinitely for input). If *delay* is zero, then non-blocking read is used, and -1 will be returned by *getch()* if no input is waiting. If *delay* is positive, then *getch()* will block for *delay* milliseconds, and return -1 if there is still no input at the end of that time.

window.touchline(*start*, *count*[, *changed*])

Pretend *count* lines have been changed, starting with line *start*. If *changed* is supplied, it specifies

whether the affected lines are marked as having been changed (*changed*=1) or unchanged (*changed*=0).

`window.touchwin()`

Pretend the whole window has been changed, for purposes of drawing optimizations.

`window.untouchwin()`

Mark all lines in the window as unchanged since the last call to *refresh()*.

`window.vline(ch, n)`

`window.vline(y, x, ch, n)`

Display a vertical line starting at (*y*, *x*) with length *n* consisting of the character *ch*.

15.11.3 Constantes

The *curses* module defines the following data members :

`curses.ERR`

Some curses routines that return an integer, such as *getch()*, return *ERR* upon failure.

`curses.OK`

Some curses routines that return an integer, such as *napms()*, return *OK* upon success.

`curses.version`

A string representing the current version of the module. Also available as `__version__`.

Some constants are available to specify character cell attributes. The exact constants available are system dependent.

Attribut	Signification
A_ALTCHARSET	Alternate character set mode
A_BLINK	Blink mode
A_BOLD	Bold mode
A_DIM	Dim mode
A_INVIS	Invisible or blank mode
A_NORMAL	Normal attribute
A_PROTECT	Protected mode
A_REVERSE	Reverse background and foreground colors
A_STANDOUT	Standout mode
A_UNDERLINE	Underline mode
A_HORIZONTAL	Horizontal highlight
A_LEFT	Left highlight
A_LOW	Low highlight
A_RIGHT	Right highlight
A_TOP	Top highlight
A_VERTICAL	Vertical highlight
A_CHARTEXT	Bit-mask to extract a character

Several constants are available to extract corresponding attributes returned by some methods.

Bit-mask	Signification
A_ATTRIBUTES	Bit-mask to extract attributes
A_CHARTEXT	Bit-mask to extract a character
A_COLOR	Bit-mask to extract color-pair field information

Keys are referred to by integer constants with names starting with `KEY_`. The exact keycaps available are system dependent.

Key constant	Key
KEY_MIN	Minimum key value
KEY_BREAK	Break key (unreliable)
KEY_DOWN	Down-arrow
KEY_UP	Up-arrow
KEY_LEFT	Left-arrow
KEY_RIGHT	Right-arrow
KEY_HOME	Home key (upward+left arrow)
KEY_BACKSPACE	Backspace (unreliable)
KEY_F0	Function keys. Up to 64 function keys are supported.
KEY_Fn	Value of function key <i>n</i>
KEY_DL	Delete line
KEY_IL	Insert line
KEY_DC	Delete character
KEY_IC	Insert char or enter insert mode
KEY_EIC	Exit insert char mode
KEY_CLEAR	Clear screen
KEY_EOS	Clear to end of screen
KEY_EOL	Clear to end of line
KEY_SF	Scroll 1 line forward
KEY_SR	Scroll 1 line backward (reverse)
KEY_NPAGE	Next page
KEY_PPAGE	Previous page
KEY_STAB	Set tab
KEY_CTAB	Clear tab
KEY_CATAB	Clear all tabs
KEY_ENTER	Enter or send (unreliable)
KEY_SRESET	Soft (partial) reset (unreliable)
KEY_RESET	Reset or hard reset (unreliable)
KEY_PRINT	Print
KEY_LL	Home down or bottom (lower left)
KEY_A1	Upper left of keypad
KEY_A3	Upper right of keypad
KEY_B2	Center of keypad
KEY_C1	Lower left of keypad
KEY_C3	Lower right of keypad
KEY_BTAB	Back tab
KEY_BEG	Beg (beginning)
KEY_CANCEL	Cancel
KEY_CLOSE	Close
KEY_COMMAND	Cmd (command)
KEY_COPY	Copy
KEY_CREATE	Create
KEY_END	End
KEY_EXIT	Exit
KEY_FIND	Find
KEY_HELP	Help
KEY_MARK	Mark
KEY_MESSAGE	Message
KEY_MOVE	Move

Suite sur la page suivante

Tableau 1 – suite de la page précédente

Key constant	Key
KEY_NEXT	Next
KEY_OPEN	Open
KEY_OPTIONS	Options
KEY_PREVIOUS	Prev (previous)
KEY_REDO	Redo
KEY_REFERENCE	Ref (reference)
KEY_REFRESH	Refresh
KEY_REPLACE	Replace
KEY_RESTART	Restart
KEY_RESUME	Resume
KEY_SAVE	Save
KEY_SBEG	Shifted Beg (beginning)
KEY_SCANCEL	Shifted Cancel
KEY_SCOMMAND	Shifted Command
KEY_SCOPY	Shifted Copy
KEY_SCREATE	Shifted Create
KEY_SDC	Shifted Delete char
KEY_SDL	Shifted Delete line
KEY_SELECT	Select
KEY_SEND	Shifted End
KEY_SEOL	Shifted Clear line
KEY_SEXIT	Shifted Exit
KEY_SFIND	Shifted Find
KEY_SHELP	Shifted Help
KEY_SHOME	Shifted Home
KEY_SIC	Shifted Input
KEY_SLEFT	Shifted Left arrow
KEY_SMESSAGE	Shifted Message
KEY_SMOVE	Shifted Move
KEY_SNEXT	Shifted Next
KEY_SOPTIONS	Shifted Options
KEY_SPREVIOUS	Shifted Prev
KEY_SPRINT	Shifted Print
KEY_SREDO	Shifted Redo
KEY_SREPLACE	Shifted Replace
KEY_SRIGHT	Shifted Right arrow
KEY_SRSUME	Shifted Resume
KEY_SSAVE	Shifted Save
KEY_SSUSPEND	Shifted Suspend
KEY_SUNDO	Shifted Undo
KEY_SUSPEND	Suspend
KEY_UNDO	Undo
KEY_MOUSE	Mouse event has occurred
KEY_RESIZE	Terminal resize event
KEY_MAX	Maximum key value

On VT100s and their software emulations, such as X terminal emulators, there are normally at least four function keys (`KEY_F1`, `KEY_F2`, `KEY_F3`, `KEY_F4`) available, and the arrow keys mapped to `KEY_UP`, `KEY_DOWN`, `KEY_LEFT` and `KEY_RIGHT` in the obvious way. If your machine has a PC keyboard, it is safe to expect arrow keys and twelve function keys (older PC keyboards may have only ten function keys); also, the following

keypad mappings are standard :

Keycap	Constante
Insert	KEY_IC
Delete	KEY_DC
Home	KEY_HOME
End	KEY_END
Page Up	KEY_PPAGE
Page Down	KEY_NPAGE

The following table lists characters from the alternate character set. These are inherited from the VT100 terminal, and will generally be available on software emulations such as X terminals. When there is no graphic available, curses falls back on a crude printable ASCII approximation.

Note : These are available only after `initscr()` has been called.

ACS code	Signification
ACS_BBSS	alternate name for upper right corner
ACS_BLOCK	solid square block
ACS_BOARD	board of squares
ACS_BSBS	alternate name for horizontal line
ACS_BSSB	alternate name for upper left corner
ACS_BSSS	alternate name for top tee
ACS_BTEE	bottom tee
ACS_BULLET	bullet
ACS_CKBOARD	checker board (stipple)
ACS_DARROW	arrow pointing down
ACS_DEGREE	degree symbol
ACS_DIAMOND	diamond
ACS_GEQUAL	greater-than-or-equal-to
ACS_HLINE	horizontal line
ACS_LANTERN	lantern symbol
ACS_LARROW	left arrow
ACS_LEQUAL	less-than-or-equal-to
ACS_LLCORNER	lower left-hand corner
ACS_LRCORNER	lower right-hand corner
ACS_LTEE	left tee
ACS_NEQUAL	not-equal sign
ACS_PI	letter pi
ACS_PLMINUS	plus-or-minus sign
ACS_PLUS	big plus sign
ACS_RARROW	right arrow
ACS_RTEE	right tee
ACS_S1	scan line 1
ACS_S3	scan line 3
ACS_S7	scan line 7
ACS_S9	scan line 9
ACS_SBBS	alternate name for lower right corner
ACS_SBSB	alternate name for vertical line

Suite sur la page suivante

Tableau 2 – suite de la page précédente

ACS code	Signification
ACS_SBSS	alternate name for right tee
ACS_SSBB	alternate name for lower left corner
ACS_SSBS	alternate name for bottom tee
ACS_SSSB	alternate name for left tee
ACS_SSSS	alternate name for crossover or big plus
ACS_STERLING	pound sterling
ACS_TTEE	top tee
ACS_UARROW	up arrow
ACS_ULCORNER	upper left corner
ACS_URCORNER	upper right corner
ACS_VLINE	vertical line

The following table lists the predefined colors :

Constante	Color
COLOR_BLACK	Black
COLOR_BLUE	Blue
COLOR_CYAN	Cyan (light greenish blue)
COLOR_GREEN	Green
COLOR_MAGENTA	Magenta (purplish red)
COLOR_RED	Red
COLOR_WHITE	White
COLOR_YELLOW	Yellow

15.12 `curses.textpad` — Text input widget for curses programs

Nouveau dans la version 1.6.

The `curses.textpad` module provides a `Textbox` class that handles elementary text editing in a curses window, supporting a set of keybindings resembling those of Emacs (thus, also of Netscape Navigator, BBedit 6.x, FrameMaker, and many other programs). The module also provides a rectangle-drawing function useful for framing text boxes or for other purposes.

The module `curses.textpad` defines the following function :

`curses.textpad.rectangle(win, uly, ulx, lry, lrx)`

Draw a rectangle. The first argument must be a window object; the remaining arguments are coordinates relative to that window. The second and third arguments are the y and x coordinates of the upper left hand corner of the rectangle to be drawn; the fourth and fifth arguments are the y and x coordinates of the lower right hand corner. The rectangle will be drawn using VT100/IBM PC forms characters on terminals that make this possible (including xterm and most other software terminal emulators). Otherwise it will be drawn with ASCII dashes, vertical bars, and plus signs.

15.12.1 Textbox objects

You can instantiate a `Textbox` object as follows :

`class curses.textpad.Textbox(win)`

Return a textbox widget object. The `win` argument should be a curses `WindowObject` in which the textbox is to be contained. The edit cursor of the textbox is initially located at the upper left hand corner of the containing window, with coordinates (0, 0). The instance's `stripspaces` flag is initially on.

Textbox objects have the following methods :

edit(*validator*)

This is the entry point you will normally use. It accepts editing keystrokes until one of the termination keystrokes is entered. If *validator* is supplied, it must be a function. It will be called for each keystroke entered with the keystroke as a parameter; command dispatch is done on the result. This method returns the window contents as a string; whether blanks in the window are included is affected by the *stripspaces* attribute.

do_command(*ch*)

Process a single command keystroke. Here are the supported special keystrokes :

Keystroke	Action
Control-A	Go to left edge of window.
Control-B	Cursor left, wrapping to previous line if appropriate.
Control-D	Delete character under cursor.
Control-E	Go to right edge (stripspaces off) or end of line (stripspaces on).
Control-F	Cursor right, wrapping to next line when appropriate.
Control-G	Terminate, returning the window contents.
Control-H	Delete character backward.
Control-J	Terminate if the window is 1 line, otherwise insert newline.
Control-K	If line is blank, delete it, otherwise clear to end of line.
Control-L	Refresh screen.
Control-N	Cursor down; move down one line.
Control-O	Insert a blank line at cursor location.
Control-P	Cursor up; move up one line.

Move operations do nothing if the cursor is at an edge where the movement is not possible. The following synonyms are supported where possible :

Constante	Keystroke
KEY_LEFT	Control-B
KEY_RIGHT	Control-F
KEY_UP	Control-P
KEY_DOWN	Control-N
KEY_BACKSPACE	Control-h

All other keystrokes are treated as a command to insert the given character and move right (with line wrapping).

gather()

Return the window contents as a string; whether blanks in the window are included is affected by the *stripspaces* member.

stripspaces

This attribute is a flag which controls the interpretation of blanks in the window. When it is on, trailing blanks on each line are ignored; any cursor motion that would land the cursor on a trailing blank goes to the end of that line instead, and trailing blanks are stripped when the window contents are gathered.

15.13 curses.ascii — Utilities for ASCII characters

Nouveau dans la version 1.6.

The *curses.ascii* module supplies name constants for ASCII characters and functions to test membership in various ASCII character classes. The constants supplied are names for control characters as follows :

Nom	Signification
NUL	
SOH	Start of heading, console interrupt
STX	Start of text
ETX	End of text
EOT	End of transmission
ENQ	Enquiry, goes with ACK flow control
ACK	Acknowledgement
BEL	Bell
BS	Backspace
TAB	Tab
HT	Alias for TAB : « Horizontal tab »
LF	Line feed
NL	Alias for LF : « New line »
VT	Vertical tab
FF	Form feed
CR	Retour chariot
SO	Shift-out, begin alternate character set
SI	Shift-in, resume default character set
DLE	Data-link escape
DC1	XON, for flow control
DC2	Device control 2, block-mode flow control
DC3	XOFF, for flow control
DC4	Device control 4
NAK	Negative acknowledgement
SYN	Synchronous idle
ETB	End transmission block
CAN	Cancel
EM	End of medium
SUB	Substitute
ESC	Escape
FS	Séparateur de fichiers
GS	Séparateur de groupe
RS	Record separator, block-mode terminator
US	Unit separator
SP	Space
DEL	Delete

Note that many of these have little practical significance in modern usage. The mnemonics derive from teleprinter conventions that predate digital computers.

The module supplies the following functions, patterned on those in the standard C library :

`curses.ascii.isalnum(c)`

Checks for an ASCII alphanumeric character; it is equivalent to `isalpha(c)` or `isdigit(c)`.

`curses.ascii.isalpha(c)`

Checks for an ASCII alphabetic character; it is equivalent to `isupper(c)` or `islower(c)`.

`curses.ascii.isascii(c)`

Checks for a character value that fits in the 7-bit ASCII set.

`curses.ascii.isblank(c)`

Checks for an ASCII whitespace character; space or horizontal tab.

`curses.ascii.iscntrl(c)`

Checks for an ASCII control character (in the range 0x00 to 0x1f or 0x7f).

`curses.ascii.isdigit(c)`

Checks for an ASCII decimal digit, '0' through '9'. This is equivalent to `c in string.digits`.

`curses.ascii.isgraph(c)`

Checks for ASCII any printable character except space.

`curses.ascii.islower(c)`

Checks for an ASCII lower-case character.

`curses.ascii.isprint(c)`

Checks for any ASCII printable character including space.

`curses.ascii.ispunct(c)`

Checks for any printable ASCII character which is not a space or an alphanumeric character.

`curses.ascii.isspace(c)`

Checks for ASCII white-space characters; space, line feed, carriage return, form feed, horizontal tab, vertical tab.

`curses.ascii.isupper(c)`

Checks for an ASCII uppercase letter.

`curses.ascii.isxdigit(c)`

Checks for an ASCII hexadecimal digit. This is equivalent to `c in string.hexdigits`.

`curses.ascii.isctrl(c)`

Checks for an ASCII control character (ordinal values 0 to 31).

`curses.ascii.ismeta(c)`

Checks for a non-ASCII character (ordinal values 0x80 and above).

These functions accept either integers or strings; when the argument is a string, it is first converted using the built-in function `ord()`.

Note that all these functions check ordinal bit values derived from the first character of the string you pass in; they do not actually know anything about the host machine's character encoding. For functions that know about the character encoding (and handle internationalization properly) see the `string` module.

The following two functions take either a single-character string or integer byte value; they return a value of the same type.

`curses.ascii.ascii(c)`

Return the ASCII value corresponding to the low 7 bits of *c*.

`curses.ascii.ctrl(c)`

Return the control character corresponding to the given character (the character bit value is bitwise-anded with 0x1f).

`curses.ascii.alt(c)`

Return the 8-bit character corresponding to the given ASCII character (the character bit value is bitwise-ored with 0x80).

The following function takes either a single-character string or integer value; it returns a string.

`curses.ascii.unctrl(c)`

Return a string representation of the ASCII character *c*. If *c* is printable, this string is the character itself. If the character is a control character (0x00–0x1f) the string consists of a caret ('^') followed by the corresponding uppercase letter. If the character is an ASCII delete (0x7f) the string is '^?'. If the character has its meta bit (0x80) set, the meta bit is stripped, the preceding rules applied, and '!' prepended to the result.

`curses.ascii.controlnames`

A 33-element string array that contains the ASCII mnemonics for the thirty-two ASCII control characters from 0 (NUL) to 0x1f (US), in order, plus the mnemonic SP for the space character.

15.14 `curses.panel` — A panel stack extension for `curses`

Panels are windows with the added feature of depth, so they can be stacked on top of each other, and only the visible portions of each window will be displayed. Panels can be added, moved up or down in the stack, and removed.

15.14.1 Fonctions

The module `curses.panel` defines the following functions :

`curses.panel.bottom_panel()`

Returns the bottom panel in the panel stack.

`curses.panel.new_panel(win)`

Returns a panel object, associating it with the given window *win*. Be aware that you need to keep the returned panel object referenced explicitly. If you don't, the panel object is garbage collected and removed from the panel stack.

`curses.panel.top_panel()`

Returns the top panel in the panel stack.

`curses.panel.update_panels()`

Updates the virtual screen after changes in the panel stack. This does not call `curses.doupdate()`, so you'll have to do this yourself.

15.14.2 Panel Objects

Panel objects, as returned by `new_panel()` above, are windows with a stacking order. There's always a window associated with a panel which determines the content, while the panel methods are responsible for the window's depth in the panel stack.

Panel objects have the following methods :

`Panel.above()`

Returns the panel above the current panel.

`Panel.below()`

Returns the panel below the current panel.

`Panel.bottom()`

Push the panel to the bottom of the stack.

`Panel.hidden()`

Returns true if the panel is hidden (not visible), false otherwise.

`Panel.hide()`

Hide the panel. This does not delete the object, it just makes the window on screen invisible.

`Panel.move(y, x)`

Move the panel to the screen coordinates (y, x).

`Panel.replace(win)`

Change the window associated with the panel to the window *win*.

`Panel.set_userptr(obj)`

Set the panel's user pointer to *obj*. This is used to associate an arbitrary piece of data with the panel, and can be any Python object.

`Panel.show()`

Display the panel (which might have been hidden).

`Panel.top()`

Push panel to the top of the stack.

`Panel.userptr()`

Returns the user pointer for the panel. This might be any Python object.

`Panel.window()`

Returns the window object associated with the panel.

15.15 platform — Access to underlying platform's identifying data

Nouveau dans la version 2.3.

Code source : [Lib/platform.py](#)

Note : Specific platforms listed alphabetically, with Linux included in the Unix section.

15.15.1 Cross Platform

`platform.architecture(executable=sys.executable, bits="", linkage="")`

Queries the given executable (defaults to the Python interpreter binary) for various architecture information.

Returns a tuple (**bits**, **linkage**) which contain information about the bit architecture and the linkage format used for the executable. Both values are returned as strings.

Values that cannot be determined are returned as given by the parameter presets. If bits is given as '', the `sizeof(pointer)` (or `sizeof(long)` on Python version < 1.5.2) is used as indicator for the supported pointer size.

The function relies on the system's `file` command to do the actual work. This is available on most if not all Unix platforms and some non-Unix platforms and then only if the executable points to the Python interpreter. Reasonable defaults are used when the above needs are not met.

Note : On Mac OS X (and perhaps other platforms), executable files may be universal files containing multiple architectures.

To get at the « 64-bitness » of the current interpreter, it is more reliable to query the `sys.maxsize` attribute :

```
is_64bits = sys.maxsize > 2**32
```

`platform.machine()`

Returns the machine type, e.g. 'i386'. An empty string is returned if the value cannot be determined.

`platform.node()`

Returns the computer's network name (may not be fully qualified!). An empty string is returned if the value cannot be determined.

`platform.platform(aliased=0, terse=0)`

Returns a single string identifying the underlying platform with as much useful information as possible. The output is intended to be *human readable* rather than machine parseable. It may look different on different platforms and this is intended.

If *aliased* is true, the function will use aliases for various platforms that report system names which differ from their common names, for example SunOS will be reported as Solaris. The `system_alias()` function is used to implement this.

Setting *terse* to true causes the function to return only the absolute minimum information needed to identify the platform.

`platform.processor()`

Returns the (real) processor name, e.g. 'amd64'.

An empty string is returned if the value cannot be determined. Note that many platforms do not provide this information or simply return the same value as for `machine()`. NetBSD does this.

`platform.python_build()`

Returns a tuple (buildno, builddate) stating the Python build number and date as strings.

`platform.python_compiler()`

Returns a string identifying the compiler used for compiling Python.

`platform.python_branch()`

Returns a string identifying the Python implementation SCM branch.

Nouveau dans la version 2.6.

`platform.python_implementation()`

Returns a string identifying the Python implementation. Possible return values are : "CPython", "Iron-Python", "Jython", "PyPy".

Nouveau dans la version 2.6.

`platform.python_revision()`

Returns a string identifying the Python implementation SCM revision.

Nouveau dans la version 2.6.

`platform.python_version()`

Returns the Python version as string 'major.minor.patchlevel'.

Note that unlike the Python `sys.version`, the returned value will always include the patchlevel (it defaults to 0).

`platform.python_version_tuple()`

Returns the Python version as tuple (major, minor, patchlevel) of strings.

Note that unlike the Python `sys.version`, the returned value will always include the patchlevel (it defaults to '0').

`platform.release()`

Returns the system's release, e.g. '2.2.0' or 'NT'. An empty string is returned if the value cannot be determined.

`platform.system()`

Returns the system/OS name, e.g. 'Linux', 'Windows', or 'Java'. An empty string is returned if the value cannot be determined.

`platform.system_alias(system, release, version)`

Returns (system, release, version) aliased to common marketing names used for some systems. It also does some reordering of the information in some cases where it would otherwise cause confusion.

`platform.version()`

Returns the system's release version, e.g. '#3 on degas'. An empty string is returned if the value cannot be determined.

`platform.uname()`

Fairly portable uname interface. Returns a tuple of strings (`system`, `node`, `release`, `version`, `machine`, `processor`) identifying the underlying platform.

Note that unlike the `os.uname()` function this also returns possible processor information as additional tuple entry.

Entries which cannot be determined are set to `''`.

15.15.2 Java Platform

`platform.java_ver(release="", vendor="", vminfo=("", "", ""), osinfo=("", "", ""))`

Version interface for Jython.

Returns a tuple (`release`, `vendor`, `vminfo`, `osinfo`) with `vminfo` being a tuple (`vm_name`, `vm_release`, `vm_vendor`) and `osinfo` being a tuple (`os_name`, `os_version`, `os_arch`). Values which cannot be determined are set to the defaults given as parameters (which all default to `''`).

15.15.3 Windows Platform

`platform.win32_ver(release="", version="", csd="", ptype="")`

Get additional version information from the Windows Registry and return a tuple (`release`, `version`, `csd`, `ptype`) referring to OS release, version number, CSD level (service pack) and OS type (multi/single processor).

As a hint : `ptype` is 'Uniprocessor Free' on single processor NT machines and 'Multiprocessor Free' on multi processor machines. The "Free" refers to the OS version being free of debugging code. It could also state "Checked" which means the OS version uses debugging code, i.e. code that checks arguments, ranges, etc.

Note : This function works best with Mark Hammond's `win32all` package installed, but also on Python 2.3 and later (support for this was added in Python 2.6). It obviously only runs on Win32 compatible platforms.

Win95/98 specific

`platform.popen(cmd, mode='r', bufsize=None)`

Portable `popen()` interface. Find a working popen implementation preferring `win32pipe.popen()`. On Windows NT, `win32pipe.popen()` should work; on Windows 9x it hangs due to bugs in the MS C library.

15.15.4 Mac OS Platform

`platform.mac_ver(release="", versioninfo=("", "", ""), machine="")`

Get Mac OS version information and return it as tuple (`release`, `versioninfo`, `machine`) with `versioninfo` being a tuple (`version`, `dev_stage`, `non_release_version`).

Entries which cannot be determined are set to `''`. All tuple entries are strings.

15.15.5 Unix Platforms

`platform.dist(distname="", version="", id="", supported_dists=('SuSE', 'debian', 'redhat', 'mandrake', ...))`

This is an old version of the functionality now provided by `linux_distribution()`. For new code, please use the `linux_distribution()`.

The only difference between the two is that `dist()` always returns the short name of the distribution taken from the `supported_dists` parameter.

Obsolète depuis la version 2.6.

```
platform.linux_distribution(distname="", version="", id="", supported_dists=('SuSE', 'debian',  
                                                                           'redhat', 'mandrake', ...), full_distribution_name=1)
```

Tries to determine the name of the Linux OS distribution name.

supported_dists may be given to define the set of Linux distributions to look for. It defaults to a list of currently supported Linux distributions identified by their release file name.

If **full_distribution_name** is true (default), the full distribution read from the OS is returned. Otherwise the short name taken from **supported_dists** is used.

Returns a tuple (**distname**, **version**, **id**) which defaults to the args given as parameters. **id** is the item in parentheses after the version number. It is usually the version codename.

Note : This function is deprecated since Python 3.5 and removed in Python 3.8. See alternative like the [distro](#) package.

Nouveau dans la version 2.6.

```
platform.libc_ver(executable=sys.executable, lib="", version="", chunksize=2048)
```

Tries to determine the libc version against which the file executable (defaults to the Python interpreter) is linked. Returns a tuple of strings (**lib**, **version**) which default to the given parameters in case the lookup fails.

Note that this function has intimate knowledge of how different libc versions add symbols to the executable is probably only usable for executables compiled using **gcc**.

The file is read and scanned in chunks of *chunksize* bytes.

15.16 errno — Standard errno system symbols

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.

errno.errorcode

Dictionary providing a mapping from the errno value to the string name in the underlying system. For instance, `errno.errorcode[errno.EPERM]` maps to `'EPERM'`.

To translate a numeric error code to an error message, use `os.strerror()`.

Of the following list, symbols that are not used on the current platform are not defined by the module. The specific list of defined symbols is available as `errno.errorcode.keys()`. Symbols available can include :

errno.EPERM

Operation not permitted

errno.ENOENT

No such file or directory

errno.ESRCH

No such process

errno.EINTR

Interrupted system call

errno.EIO

I/O error

errno.ENXIO

No such device or address

errno.E2BIG

Arg list too long

`errno.ENOEXEC`
Exec format error

`errno.EBADF`
Bad file number

`errno.ECHILD`
No child processes

`errno.EAGAIN`
Try again

`errno.ENOMEM`
Out of memory

`errno.EACCES`
Permission denied

`errno.EFAULT`
Bad address

`errno.ENOTBLK`
Block device required

`errno.EBUSY`
Device or resource busy

`errno.EEXIST`
File exists

`errno.EXDEV`
Cross-device link

`errno.ENODEV`
No such device

`errno.ENOTDIR`
Not a directory

`errno.EISDIR`
Is a directory

`errno.EINVAL`
Argument invalide

`errno.ENFILE`
File table overflow

`errno.EMFILE`
Too many open files

`errno.ENOTTY`
Not a typewriter

`errno.ETXTBSY`
Text file busy

`errno.EFBIG`
File too large

`errno.ENOSPC`
No space left on device

errno.ESPIPE
Illegal seek

errno.EROFS
Read-only file system

errno.EMLINK
Too many links

errno.EPIPE
Broken pipe

errno.EDOM
Math argument out of domain of func

errno.ERANGE
Math result not representable

errno.EDEADLK
Resource deadlock would occur

errno.ENAMETOOLONG
File name too long

errno.ENOLCK
No record locks available

errno.ENOSYS
Function not implemented

errno.ENOTEMPTY
Directory not empty

errno.ELOOP
Too many symbolic links encountered

errno.EWOULDBLOCK
Operation would block

errno.ENOMSG
No message of desired type

errno.EIDRM
Identifier removed

errno.ECHRNG
Channel number out of range

errno.EL2NSYNC
Level 2 not synchronized

errno.EL3HLT
Level 3 halted

errno.EL3RST
Level 3 reset

errno.ELNRNG
Link number out of range

errno.EUNATCH
Protocol driver not attached

errno.ENOCSI
No CSI structure available

errno.EL2HLT
Level 2 halted

errno.EBADE
Invalid exchange

errno.EBADR
Invalid request descriptor

errno.EXFULL
Exchange full

errno.ENOANO
No anode

errno.EBADRQC
Invalid request code

errno.EBADSLT
Invalid slot

errno.EDEADLOCK
File locking deadlock error

errno.EBFONT
Bad font file format

errno.ENOSTR
Device not a stream

errno.ENODATA
No data available

errno.ETIME
Timer expired

errno.ENOSR
Out of streams resources

errno.ENONET
Machine is not on the network

errno.ENOPKG
Package not installed

errno.EREMOTE
Object is remote

errno.ENOLINK
Link has been severed

errno.EADV
Advertise error

errno.ESRMNT
Srmount error

errno.ECOMM
Communication error on send

errno.EPROTO
Protocol error

errno.EMULTIHOP
Multihop attempted

errno.EDOTDOT
RFS specific error

errno.EBADMSG
Not a data message

errno.EOVERFLOW
Value too large for defined data type

errno.ENOTUNIQ
Name not unique on network

errno.EBADFD
File descriptor in bad state

errno.EREMCHG
Remote address changed

errno.ELIBACC
Can not access a needed shared library

errno.ELIBBAD
Accessing a corrupted shared library

errno.ELIBSCN
.lib section in a.out corrupted

errno.ELIBMAX
Attempting to link in too many shared libraries

errno.ELIBEXEC
Cannot exec a shared library directly

errno.EILSEQ
Illegal byte sequence

errno.ERESTART
Interrupted system call should be restarted

errno.ESTRPIPE
Streams pipe error

errno.EUSERS
Too many users

errno.ENOTSOCK
Socket operation on non-socket

errno.EDESTADDRREQ
Destination address required

errno.EMSGSIZE
Message too long

errno.EPROTOTYPE
Protocol wrong type for socket

errno.ENOPROTOOPT
Protocol not available

errno.EPROTONOSUPPORT
Protocol not supported

errno.ESOCKTNOSUPPORT
Socket type not supported

errno.EOPNOTSUPP
Operation not supported on transport endpoint

errno.EPFNOSUPPORT
Protocol family not supported

errno.EAFNOSUPPORT
Address family not supported by protocol

errno.EADDRINUSE
Address already in use

errno.EADDRNOTAVAIL
Cannot assign requested address

errno.ENETDOWN
Network is down

errno.ENETUNREACH
Network is unreachable

errno.ENETRESET
Network dropped connection because of reset

errno.ECONNABORTED
Software caused connection abort

errno.ECONNRESET
Connection reset by peer

errno.ENOBUFS
No buffer space available

errno.EISCONN
Transport endpoint is already connected

errno.ENOTCONN
Transport endpoint is not connected

errno.ESHUTDOWN
Cannot send after transport endpoint shutdown

errno.ETOOMANYREFS
Too many references : cannot splice

errno.ETIMEDOUT
Connection timed out

errno.ECONNREFUSED
Connection refused

errno.EHOSTDOWN
Host is down

`errno.EHOSTUNREACH`
No route to host

`errno.EALREADY`
Operation already in progress

`errno.EINPROGRESS`
Operation now in progress

`errno.ESTALE`
Stale NFS file handle

`errno.EUCLEAN`
Structure needs cleaning

`errno.ENOTNAM`
Not a XENIX named type file

`errno.ENAVAIL`
No XENIX semaphores available

`errno.EISNAM`
Is a named type file

`errno.EREMOTEIO`
Remote I/O error

`errno.EDQUOT`
Quota exceeded

15.17 ctypes — A foreign function library for Python

Nouveau dans la version 2.5.

ctypes is a foreign function library for Python. It provides C compatible data types, and allows calling functions in DLLs or shared libraries. It can be used to wrap these libraries in pure Python.

15.17.1 ctypes tutorial

Note : The code samples in this tutorial use *doctest* to make sure that they actually work. Since some code samples behave differently under Linux, Windows, or Mac OS X, they contain doctest directives in comments.

Note : Some code samples reference the ctypes *c_int* type. This type is an alias for the *c_long* type on 32-bit systems. So, you should not be confused if *c_long* is printed if you would expect *c_int* — they are actually the same type.

Loading dynamic link libraries

ctypes exports the *cdll*, and on Windows *windll* and *oledll* objects, for loading dynamic link libraries.

You load libraries by accessing them as attributes of these objects. *cdll* loads libraries which export functions using the standard *cdecl* calling convention, while *windll* libraries call functions using the *stdcall* calling convention. *oledll* also uses the *stdcall* calling convention, and assumes the functions return a Windows *HRESULT* error code. The error code is used to automatically raise a *WindowsError* exception when the function call fails.

Here are some examples for Windows. Note that *msvcrt* is the MS standard C library containing most standard C functions, and uses the *cdecl* calling convention :

```
>>> from ctypes import *
>>> print windll.kernel32
<WinDLL 'kernel32', handle ... at ...>
>>> print cdll.msvcrt
<CDLL 'msvcrt', handle ... at ...>
>>> libc = cdll.msvcrt
>>>
```

Windows appends the usual `.dll` file suffix automatically.

On Linux, it is required to specify the filename *including* the extension to load a library, so attribute access can not be used to load libraries. Either the `LoadLibrary()` method of the dll loaders should be used, or you should load the library by creating an instance of `CDLL` by calling the constructor :

```
>>> cdll.LoadLibrary("libc.so.6")
<CDLL 'libc.so.6', handle ... at ...>
>>> libc = CDLL("libc.so.6")
>>> libc
<CDLL 'libc.so.6', handle ... at ...>
>>>
```

Accessing functions from loaded dlls

Functions are accessed as attributes of dll objects :

```
>>> from ctypes import *
>>> libc.printf
<_FuncPtr object at 0x...>
>>> print windll.kernel32.GetModuleHandleA
<_FuncPtr object at 0x...>
>>> print windll.kernel32.MyOwnFunction
Traceback (most recent call last):
  File "<stdin>", line 1, in <module>
  File "ctypes.py", line 239, in __getattr__
    func = _StdcallFuncPtr(name, self)
AttributeError: function 'MyOwnFunction' not found
>>>
```

Note that win32 system dlls like `kernel32` and `user32` often export ANSI as well as UNICODE versions of a function. The UNICODE version is exported with an `W` appended to the name, while the ANSI version is exported with an `A` appended to the name. The win32 `GetModuleHandle` function, which returns a *module handle* for a given module name, has the following C prototype, and a macro is used to expose one of them as `GetModuleHandle` depending on whether UNICODE is defined or not :

```
/* ANSI version */
HMODULE GetModuleHandleA(LPCSTR lpModuleName);
/* UNICODE version */
HMODULE GetModuleHandleW(LPCWSTR lpModuleName);
```

`windll` does not try to select one of them by magic, you must access the version you need by specifying `GetModuleHandleA` or `GetModuleHandleW` explicitly, and then call it with strings or unicode strings respectively.

Sometimes, dlls export functions with names which aren't valid Python identifiers, like `???2@YAPAXI@Z`. In this case you have to use `getattr()` to retrieve the function :

```
>>> getattr(cdll.msvcrt, "??2@YAPAXI@Z")
<_FuncPtr object at 0x...>
>>>
```

On Windows, some dlls export functions not by name but by ordinal. These functions can be accessed by indexing the dll object with the ordinal number :

```
>>> cdll.kernel32[1]
<_FuncPtr object at 0x...>
>>> cdll.kernel32[0]
Traceback (most recent call last):
  File "<stdin>", line 1, in <module>
  File "ctypes.py", line 310, in __getitem__
    func = _StdcallFuncPtr(name, self)
AttributeError: function ordinal 0 not found
>>>
```

Calling functions

You can call these functions like any other Python callable. This example uses the `time()` function, which returns system time in seconds since the Unix epoch, and the `GetModuleHandleA()` function, which returns a win32 module handle.

This example calls both functions with a NULL pointer (`None` should be used as the NULL pointer) :

```
>>> print libc.time(None)
1150640792
>>> print hex(windll.kernel32.GetModuleHandleA(None))
0x1d000000
>>>
```

`ctypes` tries to protect you from calling functions with the wrong number of arguments or the wrong calling convention. Unfortunately this only works on Windows. It does this by examining the stack after the function returns, so although an error is raised the function *has* been called :

```
>>> windll.kernel32.GetModuleHandleA()
Traceback (most recent call last):
  File "<stdin>", line 1, in <module>
ValueError: Procedure probably called with not enough arguments (4 bytes missing)
>>> windll.kernel32.GetModuleHandleA(0, 0)
Traceback (most recent call last):
  File "<stdin>", line 1, in <module>
ValueError: Procedure probably called with too many arguments (4 bytes in excess)
>>>
```

The same exception is raised when you call an `stdcall` function with the `cdecl` calling convention, or vice versa :

```
>>> cdll.kernel32.GetModuleHandleA(None)
Traceback (most recent call last):
  File "<stdin>", line 1, in <module>
ValueError: Procedure probably called with not enough arguments (4 bytes missing)
>>>
```

(suite sur la page suivante)

(suite de la page précédente)

```
>>> windll.msvcrt.printf("spam")
Traceback (most recent call last):
  File "<stdin>", line 1, in <module>
ValueError: Procedure probably called with too many arguments (4 bytes in excess)
>>>
```

To find out the correct calling convention you have to look into the C header file or the documentation for the function you want to call.

On Windows, `ctypes` uses win32 structured exception handling to prevent crashes from general protection faults when functions are called with invalid argument values :

```
>>> windll.kernel32.GetModuleHandleA(32)
Traceback (most recent call last):
  File "<stdin>", line 1, in <module>
WindowsError: exception: access violation reading 0x00000020
>>>
```

There are, however, enough ways to crash Python with `ctypes`, so you should be careful anyway.

`None`, integers, longs, byte strings and unicode strings are the only native Python objects that can directly be used as parameters in these function calls. `None` is passed as a C `NULL` pointer, byte strings and unicode strings are passed as pointer to the memory block that contains their data (`char *` or `wchar_t *`). Python integers and Python longs are passed as the platforms default C `int` type, their value is masked to fit into the C type.

Before we move on calling functions with other parameter types, we have to learn more about `ctypes` data types.

Fundamental data types

`ctypes` defines a number of primitive C compatible data types :

Type <i>ctype</i>	Type C	Type Python
<code>c_bool</code>	<code>_Bool</code>	<code>bool</code> (1)
<code>c_char</code>	<code>char</code>	1-character string
<code>c_wchar</code>	<code>wchar_t</code>	1-character unicode string
<code>c_byte</code>	<code>char</code>	<code>int/long</code>
<code>c_ubyte</code>	<code>unsigned char</code>	<code>int/long</code>
<code>c_short</code>	<code>short</code>	<code>int/long</code>
<code>c_ushort</code>	<code>unsigned short</code>	<code>int/long</code>
<code>c_int</code>	<code>int</code>	<code>int/long</code>
<code>c_uint</code>	<code>unsigned int</code>	<code>int/long</code>
<code>c_long</code>	<code>long</code>	<code>int/long</code>
<code>c_ulong</code>	<code>unsigned long</code>	<code>int/long</code>
<code>c_longlong</code>	<code>__int64</code> ou <code>long long</code>	<code>int/long</code>
<code>c_ulonglong</code>	<code>unsigned __int64</code> or <code>unsigned long long</code>	<code>int/long</code>
<code>c_float</code>	<code>float</code>	<code>float</code>
<code>c_double</code>	<code>double</code>	<code>float</code>
<code>c_longdouble</code>	<code>long double</code>	<code>float</code>
<code>c_char_p</code>	<code>char *</code> (NUL terminated)	string ou <code>None</code>
<code>c_wchar_p</code>	<code>wchar_t *</code> (Terminé par NUL)	unicode or <code>None</code>
<code>c_void_p</code>	<code>void *</code>	<code>int/long</code> or <code>None</code>

- (1) The constructor accepts any object with a truth value.

All these types can be created by calling them with an optional initializer of the correct type and value :

```
>>> c_int()
c_long(0)
>>> c_char_p("Hello, World")
c_char_p('Hello, World')
>>> c_ushort(-3)
c_ushort(65533)
>>>
```

Since these types are mutable, their value can also be changed afterwards :

```
>>> i = c_int(42)
>>> print i
c_long(42)
>>> print i.value
42
>>> i.value = -99
>>> print i.value
-99
>>>
```

Assigning a new value to instances of the pointer types `c_char_p`, `c_wchar_p`, and `c_void_p` changes the *memory location* they point to, *not the contents* of the memory block (of course not, because Python strings are immutable) :

```
>>> s = "Hello, World"
>>> c_s = c_char_p(s)
>>> print c_s
c_char_p('Hello, World')
>>> c_s.value = "Hi, there"
>>> print c_s
c_char_p('Hi, there')
>>> print s                                # first string is unchanged
Hello, World
>>>
```

You should be careful, however, not to pass them to functions expecting pointers to mutable memory. If you need mutable memory blocks, ctypes has a `create_string_buffer()` function which creates these in various ways. The current memory block contents can be accessed (or changed) with the `raw` property; if you want to access it as NUL terminated string, use the `value` property :

```
>>> from ctypes import *
>>> p = create_string_buffer(3)          # create a 3 byte buffer, initialized to NUL bytes
>>> print sizeof(p), repr(p.raw)
3 '\x00\x00\x00'
>>> p = create_string_buffer("Hello")    # create a buffer containing a NUL terminated
↪ string
>>> print sizeof(p), repr(p.raw)
6 'Hello\x00'
>>> print repr(p.value)
'Hello'
```

(suite sur la page suivante)

(suite de la page précédente)

```
>>> p = create_string_buffer("Hello", 10) # create a 10 byte buffer
>>> print sizeof(p), repr(p.raw)
10 'Hello\x00\x00\x00\x00\x00'
>>> p.value = "Hi"
>>> print sizeof(p), repr(p.raw)
10 'Hi\x00lo\x00\x00\x00\x00'
>>>
```

The `create_string_buffer()` function replaces the `c_buffer()` function (which is still available as an alias), as well as the `c_string()` function from earlier ctypes releases. To create a mutable memory block containing unicode characters of the C type `wchar_t` use the `create_unicode_buffer()` function.

Calling functions, continued

Note that `printf` prints to the real standard output channel, *not* to `sys.stdout`, so these examples will only work at the console prompt, not from within *IDLE* or *PythonWin* :

```
>>> printf = libc.printf
>>> printf("Hello, %s\n", "World!")
Hello, World!
14
>>> printf("Hello, %S\n", u"World!")
Hello, World!
14
>>> printf("%d bottles of beer\n", 42)
42 bottles of beer
19
>>> printf("%f bottles of beer\n", 42.5)
Traceback (most recent call last):
  File "<stdin>", line 1, in <module>
ArgumentError: argument 2: exceptions.TypeError: Don't know how to convert parameter 2
>>>
```

As has been mentioned before, all Python types except integers, strings, and unicode strings have to be wrapped in their corresponding *ctypes* type, so that they can be converted to the required C data type :

```
>>> printf("An int %d, a double %f\n", 1234, c_double(3.14))
An int 1234, a double 3.140000
31
>>>
```

Calling functions with your own custom data types

You can also customize *ctypes* argument conversion to allow instances of your own classes be used as function arguments. *ctypes* looks for an `_as_parameter_` attribute and uses this as the function argument. Of course, it must be one of integer, string, or unicode :

```
>>> class Bottles(object):
...     def __init__(self, number):
...         self._as_parameter_ = number
...
>>> bottles = Bottles(42)
>>> printf("%d bottles of beer\n", bottles)
```

(suite sur la page suivante)

(suite de la page précédente)

```
42 bottles of beer
19
>>>
```

If you don't want to store the instance's data in the `_as_parameter_` instance variable, you could define a `property()` which makes the data available.

Specifying the required argument types (function prototypes)

It is possible to specify the required argument types of functions exported from DLLs by setting the `argtypes` attribute.

`argtypes` must be a sequence of C data types (the `printf` function is probably not a good example here, because it takes a variable number and different types of parameters depending on the format string, on the other hand this is quite handy to experiment with this feature) :

```
>>> printf.argtypes = [c_char_p, c_char_p, c_int, c_double]
>>> printf("String '%s', Int %d, Double %f\n", "Hi", 10, 2.2)
String 'Hi', Int 10, Double 2.200000
37
>>>
```

Specifying a format protects against incompatible argument types (just as a prototype for a C function), and tries to convert the arguments to valid types :

```
>>> printf("%d %d %d", 1, 2, 3)
Traceback (most recent call last):
  File "<stdin>", line 1, in <module>
ArgumentError: argument 2: exceptions.TypeError: wrong type
>>> printf("%s %d %f\n", "X", 2, 3)
X 2 3.000000
13
>>>
```

If you have defined your own classes which you pass to function calls, you have to implement a `from_param()` class method for them to be able to use them in the `argtypes` sequence. The `from_param()` class method receives the Python object passed to the function call, it should do a typecheck or whatever is needed to make sure this object is acceptable, and then return the object itself, its `_as_parameter_` attribute, or whatever you want to pass as the C function argument in this case. Again, the result should be an integer, string, unicode, a `ctypes` instance, or an object with an `_as_parameter_` attribute.

Return types

By default functions are assumed to return the C `int` type. Other return types can be specified by setting the `restype` attribute of the function object.

Here is a more advanced example, it uses the `strchr` function, which expects a string pointer and a char, and returns a pointer to a string :

```
>>> strchr = libc.strchr
>>> strchr("abcdef", ord("d"))
8059983
>>> strchr.restype = c_char_p    # c_char_p is a pointer to a string
>>> strchr("abcdef", ord("d"))
```

(suite sur la page suivante)

(suite de la page précédente)

```
'def'
>>> print strchr("abcdef", ord("x"))
None
>>>
```

If you want to avoid the `ord("x")` calls above, you can set the `argtypes` attribute, and the second argument will be converted from a single character Python string into a C char :

```
>>> strchr.restype = c_char_p
>>> strchr.argtypes = [c_char_p, c_char]
>>> strchr("abcdef", "d")
'def'
>>> strchr("abcdef", "def")
Traceback (most recent call last):
  File "<stdin>", line 1, in <module>
ArgumentError: argument 2: exceptions.TypeError: one character string expected
>>> print strchr("abcdef", "x")
None
>>> strchr("abcdef", "d")
'def'
>>>
```

You can also use a callable Python object (a function or a class for example) as the `restype` attribute, if the foreign function returns an integer. The callable will be called with the *integer* the C function returns, and the result of this call will be used as the result of your function call. This is useful to check for error return values and automatically raise an exception :

```
>>> GetModuleHandle = windll.kernel32.GetModuleHandleA
>>> def ValidHandle(value):
...     if value == 0:
...         raise WinError()
...     return value
...
>>>
>>> GetModuleHandle.restype = ValidHandle
>>> GetModuleHandle(None)
486539264
>>> GetModuleHandle("something silly")
Traceback (most recent call last):
  File "<stdin>", line 1, in <module>
  File "<stdin>", line 3, in ValidHandle
WindowsError: [Errno 126] The specified module could not be found.
>>>
```

`WinError` is a function which will call Windows `FormatMessage()` api to get the string representation of an error code, and *returns* an exception. `WinError` takes an optional error code parameter, if no one is used, it calls `GetLastError()` to retrieve it.

Please note that a much more powerful error checking mechanism is available through the `errcheck` attribute ; see the reference manual for details.

Passing pointers (or : passing parameters by reference)

Sometimes a C api function expects a *pointer* to a data type as parameter, probably to write into the corresponding location, or if the data is too large to be passed by value. This is also known as *passing parameters by reference*.

`ctypes` exports the `byref()` function which is used to pass parameters by reference. The same effect can be achieved with the `pointer()` function, although `pointer()` does a lot more work since it constructs a real pointer object, so it is faster to use `byref()` if you don't need the pointer object in Python itself :

```
>>> i = c_int()
>>> f = c_float()
>>> s = create_string_buffer('\000' * 32)
>>> print i.value, f.value, repr(s.value)
0 0.0 ''
>>> libc.sscanf("1 3.14 Hello", "%d %f %s",
...             byref(i), byref(f), s)
3
>>> print i.value, f.value, repr(s.value)
1 3.1400001049 'Hello'
>>>
```

Structures and unions

Structures and unions must derive from the `Structure` and `Union` base classes which are defined in the `ctypes` module. Each subclass must define a `_fields_` attribute. `_fields_` must be a list of *2-tuples*, containing a *field name* and a *field type*.

The field type must be a `ctypes` type like `c_int`, or any other derived `ctypes` type : structure, union, array, pointer.

Here is a simple example of a POINT structure, which contains two integers named *x* and *y*, and also shows how to initialize a structure in the constructor :

```
>>> from ctypes import *
>>> class POINT(Structure):
...     _fields_ = [("x", c_int),
...                 ("y", c_int)]
...
>>> point = POINT(10, 20)
>>> print point.x, point.y
10 20
>>> point = POINT(y=5)
>>> print point.x, point.y
0 5
>>> POINT(1, 2, 3)
Traceback (most recent call last):
  File "<stdin>", line 1, in <module>
ValueError: too many initializers
>>>
```

You can, however, build much more complicated structures. A structure can itself contain other structures by using a structure as a field type.

Here is a RECT structure which contains two POINTs named *upperleft* and *lowerright* :

```
>>> class RECT(Structure):
...     _fields_ = [("upperleft", POINT),
...                  ("lowerright", POINT)]
...
>>> rc = RECT(point)
>>> print rc.upperleft.x, rc.upperleft.y
0 5
>>> print rc.lowerright.x, rc.lowerright.y
0 0
>>>
```

Nested structures can also be initialized in the constructor in several ways :

```
>>> r = RECT(POINT(1, 2), POINT(3, 4))
>>> r = RECT((1, 2), (3, 4))
```

Field *descriptors* can be retrieved from the *class*, they are useful for debugging because they can provide useful information :

```
>>> print POINT.x
<Field type=c_long, ofs=0, size=4>
>>> print POINT.y
<Field type=c_long, ofs=4, size=4>
>>>
```

Avertissement : *ctypes* does not support passing unions or structures with bit-fields to functions by value. While this may work on 32-bit x86, it's not guaranteed by the library to work in the general case. Unions and structures with bit-fields should always be passed to functions by pointer.

Structure/union alignment and byte order

By default, Structure and Union fields are aligned in the same way the C compiler does it. It is possible to override this behavior by specifying a `_pack_` class attribute in the subclass definition. This must be set to a positive integer and specifies the maximum alignment for the fields. This is what `#pragma pack(n)` also does in MSVC.

ctypes uses the native byte order for Structures and Unions. To build structures with non-native byte order, you can use one of the *BigEndianStructure*, *LittleEndianStructure*, *BigEndianUnion*, and *LittleEndianUnion* base classes. These classes cannot contain pointer fields.

Bit fields in structures and unions

It is possible to create structures and unions containing bit fields. Bit fields are only possible for integer fields, the bit width is specified as the third item in the `_fields_` tuples :

```
>>> class Int(Structure):
...     _fields_ = [("first_16", c_int, 16),
...                  ("second_16", c_int, 16)]
...
>>> print Int.first_16
<Field type=c_long, ofs=0:0, bits=16>
>>> print Int.second_16
```

(suite sur la page suivante)

(suite de la page précédente)

```
<Field type=c_long, ofs=0:16, bits=16>
>>>
```

Arrays

Arrays are sequences, containing a fixed number of instances of the same type.

The recommended way to create array types is by multiplying a data type with a positive integer :

```
TenPointsArrayType = POINT * 10
```

Here is an example of a somewhat artificial data type, a structure containing 4 POINTs among other stuff :

```
>>> from ctypes import *
>>> class POINT(Structure):
...     _fields_ = ("x", c_int), ("y", c_int)
...
>>> class MyStruct(Structure):
...     _fields_ = [("a", c_int),
...                 ("b", c_float),
...                 ("point_array", POINT * 4)]
>>>
>>> print len(MyStruct().point_array)
4
>>>
```

Instances are created in the usual way, by calling the class :

```
arr = TenPointsArrayType()
for pt in arr:
    print pt.x, pt.y
```

The above code print a series of 0 0 lines, because the array contents is initialized to zeros.

Initializers of the correct type can also be specified :

```
>>> from ctypes import *
>>> TenIntegers = c_int * 10
>>> ii = TenIntegers(1, 2, 3, 4, 5, 6, 7, 8, 9, 10)
>>> print ii
<c_long_Array_10 object at 0x...>
>>> for i in ii: print i,
...
1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9 10
>>>
```

Pointers

Pointer instances are created by calling the *pointer()* function on a *ctypes* type :

```
>>> from ctypes import *
>>> i = c_int(42)
>>> pi = pointer(i)
>>>
```

Pointer instances have a `contents` attribute which returns the object to which the pointer points, the `i` object above :

```
>>> pi.contents
c_long(42)
>>>
```

Note that `ctypes` does not have OOR (original object return), it constructs a new, equivalent object each time you retrieve an attribute :

```
>>> pi.contents is i
False
>>> pi.contents is pi.contents
False
>>>
```

Assigning another `c_int` instance to the pointer's `contents` attribute would cause the pointer to point to the memory location where this is stored :

```
>>> i = c_int(99)
>>> pi.contents = i
>>> pi.contents
c_long(99)
>>>
```

Pointer instances can also be indexed with integers :

```
>>> pi[0]
99
>>>
```

Assigning to an integer index changes the pointed to value :

```
>>> print i
c_long(99)
>>> pi[0] = 22
>>> print i
c_long(22)
>>>
```

It is also possible to use indexes different from 0, but you must know what you're doing, just as in C : You can access or change arbitrary memory locations. Generally you only use this feature if you receive a pointer from a C function, and you *know* that the pointer actually points to an array instead of a single item.

Behind the scenes, the `pointer()` function does more than simply create pointer instances, it has to create pointer *types* first. This is done with the `POINTER()` function, which accepts any `ctypes` type, and returns a new type :

```
>>> PI = POINTER(c_int)
>>> PI
<class 'ctypes.LP_c_int'>
>>> PI(42)
Traceback (most recent call last):
  File "<stdin>", line 1, in <module>
TypeError: expected c_int instead of int
```

(suite sur la page suivante)

(suite de la page précédente)

```
>>> PI(c_int(42))
<ctypes.LP_c_long object at 0x...>
>>>
```

Calling the pointer type without an argument creates a **NULL** pointer. **NULL** pointers have a **False** boolean value :

```
>>> null_ptr = POINTER(c_int)()
>>> print bool(null_ptr)
False
>>>
```

ctypes checks for **NULL** when dereferencing pointers (but dereferencing invalid non-**NULL** pointers would crash Python) :

```
>>> null_ptr[0]
Traceback (most recent call last):
...
ValueError: NULL pointer access
>>>

>>> null_ptr[0] = 1234
Traceback (most recent call last):
...
ValueError: NULL pointer access
>>>
```

Type conversions

Usually, *ctypes* does strict type checking. This means, if you have `POINTER(c_int)` in the `argtypes` list of a function or as the type of a member field in a structure definition, only instances of exactly the same type are accepted. There are some exceptions to this rule, where *ctypes* accepts other objects. For example, you can pass compatible array instances instead of pointer types. So, for `POINTER(c_int)`, *ctypes* accepts an array of `c_int` :

```
>>> class Bar(Structure):
...     _fields_ = [("count", c_int), ("values", POINTER(c_int))]
...
>>> bar = Bar()
>>> bar.values = (c_int * 3)(1, 2, 3)
>>> bar.count = 3
>>> for i in range(bar.count):
...     print bar.values[i]
...
1
2
3
>>>
```

In addition, if a function argument is explicitly declared to be a pointer type (such as `POINTER(c_int)`) in `argtypes`, an object of the pointed type (`c_int` in this case) can be passed to the function. *ctypes* will apply the required *byref()* conversion in this case automatically.

To set a `POINTER` type field to **NULL**, you can assign `None` :


```
>>> bar.values = None
>>>
```

Sometimes you have instances of incompatible types. In C, you can cast one type into another type. *ctypes* provides a *cast()* function which can be used in the same way. The *Bar* structure defined above accepts *POINTER(c_int)* pointers or *c_int* arrays for its *values* field, but not instances of other types :

```
>>> bar.values = (c_byte * 4)()
Traceback (most recent call last):
  File "<stdin>", line 1, in <module>
TypeError: incompatible types, c_byte_Array_4 instance instead of LP_c_long instance
>>>
```

For these cases, the *cast()* function is handy.

The *cast()* function can be used to cast a *ctypes* instance into a pointer to a different *ctypes* data type. *cast()* takes two parameters, a *ctypes* object that is or can be converted to a pointer of some kind, and a *ctypes* pointer type. It returns an instance of the second argument, which references the same memory block as the first argument :

```
>>> a = (c_byte * 4)()
>>> cast(a, POINTER(c_int))
<ctypes.LP_c_long object at ...>
>>>
```

So, *cast()* can be used to assign to the *values* field of *Bar* the structure :

```
>>> bar = Bar()
>>> bar.values = cast((c_byte * 4)(), POINTER(c_int))
>>> print bar.values[0]
0
>>>
```

Incomplete Types

Incomplete Types are structures, unions or arrays whose members are not yet specified. In C, they are specified by forward declarations, which are defined later :

```
struct cell; /* forward declaration */

struct cell {
    char *name;
    struct cell *next;
};
```

The straightforward translation into *ctypes* code would be this, but it does not work :

```
>>> class cell(Structure):
...     _fields_ = [("name", c_char_p),
...                 ("next", POINTER(cell))]
...
Traceback (most recent call last):
  File "<stdin>", line 1, in <module>
  File "<stdin>", line 2, in cell
```

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```
NameError: name 'cell' is not defined
>>>
```

because the new class `cell` is not available in the class statement itself. In *ctypes*, we can define the `cell` class and set the `_fields_` attribute later, after the class statement :

```
>>> from ctypes import *
>>> class cell(Structure):
...     pass
...
>>> cell._fields_ = [("name", c_char_p),
...                  ("next", POINTER(cell))]
>>>
```

Lets try it. We create two instances of `cell`, and let them point to each other, and finally follow the pointer chain a few times :

```
>>> c1 = cell()
>>> c1.name = "foo"
>>> c2 = cell()
>>> c2.name = "bar"
>>> c1.next = pointer(c2)
>>> c2.next = pointer(c1)
>>> p = c1
>>> for i in range(8):
...     print p.name,
...     p = p.next[0]
...
foo bar foo bar foo bar foo bar
>>>
```

Callback functions

ctypes allows creating C callable function pointers from Python callables. These are sometimes called *callback functions*.

First, you must create a class for the callback function, the class knows the calling convention, the return type, and the number and types of arguments this function will receive.

The `CFUNCTYPE` factory function creates types for callback functions using the normal `cdecl` calling convention, and, on Windows, the `WINFUNCTYPE` factory function creates types for callback functions using the `stdcall` calling convention.

Both of these factory functions are called with the result type as first argument, and the callback functions expected argument types as the remaining arguments.

I will present an example here which uses the standard C library's `qsort()` function, this is used to sort items with the help of a callback function. `qsort()` will be used to sort an array of integers :

```
>>> IntArray5 = c_int * 5
>>> ia = IntArray5(5, 1, 7, 33, 99)
>>> qsort = libc.qsort
>>> qsort.restype = None
>>>
```

`qsort()` must be called with a pointer to the data to sort, the number of items in the data array, the size of one item, and a pointer to the comparison function, the callback. The callback will then be called with two pointers to items, and it must return a negative integer if the first item is smaller than the second, a zero if they are equal, and a positive integer else.

So our callback function receives pointers to integers, and must return an integer. First we create the `type` for the callback function :

```
>>> CMPFUNC = CFUNCTYPE(c_int, POINTER(c_int), POINTER(c_int))
>>>
```

For the first implementation of the callback function, we simply print the arguments we get, and return 0 (incremental development ;-):

```
>>> def py_cmp_func(a, b):
...     print "py_cmp_func", a, b
...     return 0
...
>>>
```

Create the C callable callback :

```
>>> cmp_func = CMPFUNC(py_cmp_func)
>>>
```

And we're ready to go :

```
>>> qsort(ia, len(ia), sizeof(c_int), cmp_func)
py_cmp_func <ctypes.LP_c_long object at 0x00...> <ctypes.LP_c_long object at 0x00...>
py_cmp_func <ctypes.LP_c_long object at 0x00...> <ctypes.LP_c_long object at 0x00...>
py_cmp_func <ctypes.LP_c_long object at 0x00...> <ctypes.LP_c_long object at 0x00...>
py_cmp_func <ctypes.LP_c_long object at 0x00...> <ctypes.LP_c_long object at 0x00...>
py_cmp_func <ctypes.LP_c_long object at 0x00...> <ctypes.LP_c_long object at 0x00...>
py_cmp_func <ctypes.LP_c_long object at 0x00...> <ctypes.LP_c_long object at 0x00...>
py_cmp_func <ctypes.LP_c_long object at 0x00...> <ctypes.LP_c_long object at 0x00...>
py_cmp_func <ctypes.LP_c_long object at 0x00...> <ctypes.LP_c_long object at 0x00...>
py_cmp_func <ctypes.LP_c_long object at 0x00...> <ctypes.LP_c_long object at 0x00...>
py_cmp_func <ctypes.LP_c_long object at 0x00...> <ctypes.LP_c_long object at 0x00...>
py_cmp_func <ctypes.LP_c_long object at 0x00...> <ctypes.LP_c_long object at 0x00...>
>>>
```

We know how to access the contents of a pointer, so let's redefine our callback :

```
>>> def py_cmp_func(a, b):
...     print "py_cmp_func", a[0], b[0]
...     return 0
...
>>> cmp_func = CMPFUNC(py_cmp_func)
>>>
```

Here is what we get on Windows :

```
>>> qsort(ia, len(ia), sizeof(c_int), cmp_func)
py_cmp_func 7 1
py_cmp_func 33 1
py_cmp_func 99 1
```

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```
py_cmp_func 5 1
py_cmp_func 7 5
py_cmp_func 33 5
py_cmp_func 99 5
py_cmp_func 7 99
py_cmp_func 33 99
py_cmp_func 7 33
>>>
```

It is funny to see that on linux the sort function seems to work much more efficiently, it is doing less comparisons :

```
>>> qsort(ia, len(ia), sizeof(c_int), cmp_func)
py_cmp_func 5 1
py_cmp_func 33 99
py_cmp_func 7 33
py_cmp_func 5 7
py_cmp_func 1 7
>>>
```

Ah, we're nearly done! The last step is to actually compare the two items and return a useful result :

```
>>> def py_cmp_func(a, b):
...     print "py_cmp_func", a[0], b[0]
...     return a[0] - b[0]
...
>>>
```

Final run on Windows :

```
>>> qsort(ia, len(ia), sizeof(c_int), CMPFUNC(py_cmp_func))
py_cmp_func 33 7
py_cmp_func 99 33
py_cmp_func 5 99
py_cmp_func 1 99
py_cmp_func 33 7
py_cmp_func 1 33
py_cmp_func 5 33
py_cmp_func 5 7
py_cmp_func 1 7
py_cmp_func 5 1
>>>
```

and on Linux :

```
>>> qsort(ia, len(ia), sizeof(c_int), CMPFUNC(py_cmp_func))
py_cmp_func 5 1
py_cmp_func 33 99
py_cmp_func 7 33
py_cmp_func 1 7
py_cmp_func 5 7
>>>
```

It is quite interesting to see that the Windows `qsort()` function needs more comparisons than the linux version!

As we can easily check, our array is sorted now :

```
>>> for i in ia: print i,
...
1 5 7 33 99
>>>
```

Note : Make sure you keep references to `CFUNCTYPE()` objects as long as they are used from C code. `ctypes` doesn't, and if you don't, they may be garbage collected, crashing your program when a callback is made.

Also, note that if the callback function is called in a thread created outside of Python's control (e.g. by the foreign code that calls the callback), `ctypes` creates a new dummy Python thread on every invocation. This behavior is correct for most purposes, but it means that values stored with `threading.local` will *not* survive across different callbacks, even when those calls are made from the same C thread.

Accessing values exported from dlls

Some shared libraries not only export functions, they also export variables. An example in the Python library itself is the `Py_OptimizeFlag`, an integer set to 0, 1, or 2, depending on the `-O` or `-OO` flag given on startup.

`ctypes` can access values like this with the `in_dll()` class methods of the type. `pythonapi` is a predefined symbol giving access to the Python C api :

```
>>> opt_flag = c_int.in_dll(pythonapi, "Py_OptimizeFlag")
>>> print opt_flag
c_long(0)
>>>
```

If the interpreter would have been started with `-O`, the sample would have printed `c_long(1)`, or `c_long(2)` if `-OO` would have been specified.

An extended example which also demonstrates the use of pointers accesses the `PyImport_FrozenModules` pointer exported by Python.

Quoting the Python docs : *This pointer is initialized to point to an array of « struct __frozen » records, terminated by one whose members are all NULL or zero. When a frozen module is imported, it is searched in this table. Third-party code could play tricks with this to provide a dynamically created collection of frozen modules.*

So manipulating this pointer could even prove useful. To restrict the example size, we show only how this table can be read with `ctypes` :

```
>>> from ctypes import *
>>>
>>> class struct_frozen(Structure):
...     _fields_ = [("name", c_char_p),
...                 ("code", POINTER(c_ubyte)),
...                 ("size", c_int)]
...
>>>
```

We have defined the `struct __frozen` data type, so we can get the pointer to the table :

```
>>> FrozenTable = POINTER(struct_frozen)
>>> table = FrozenTable.in_dll(pythonapi, "PyImport_FrozenModules")
>>>
```

Since `table` is a pointer to the array of `struct_frozen` records, we can iterate over it, but we just have to make sure that our loop terminates, because pointers have no size. Sooner or later it would probably crash with an access violation or whatever, so it's better to break out of the loop when we hit the NULL entry :

```
>>> for item in table:
...     print item.name, item.size
...     if item.name is None:
...         break
...
__hello__ 104
__phello__ -104
__phello__.spam 104
None 0
>>>
```

The fact that standard Python has a frozen module and a frozen package (indicated by the negative size member) is not well known, it is only used for testing. Try it out with `import __hello__` for example.

Surprises

There are some edge cases in `ctypes` where you might expect something other than what actually happens. Consider the following example :

```
>>> from ctypes import *
>>> class POINT(Structure):
...     _fields_ = ("x", c_int), ("y", c_int)
...
>>> class RECT(Structure):
...     _fields_ = ("a", POINT), ("b", POINT)
...
>>> p1 = POINT(1, 2)
>>> p2 = POINT(3, 4)
>>> rc = RECT(p1, p2)
>>> print rc.a.x, rc.a.y, rc.b.x, rc.b.y
1 2 3 4
>>> # now swap the two points
>>> rc.a, rc.b = rc.b, rc.a
>>> print rc.a.x, rc.a.y, rc.b.x, rc.b.y
3 4 3 4
>>>
```

Hm. We certainly expected the last statement to print 3 4 1 2. What happened? Here are the steps of the `rc.a, rc.b = rc.b, rc.a` line above :

```
>>> temp0, temp1 = rc.b, rc.a
>>> rc.a = temp0
>>> rc.b = temp1
>>>
```

Note that `temp0` and `temp1` are objects still using the internal buffer of the `rc` object above. So executing `rc.a = temp0` copies the buffer contents of `temp0` into `rc`’s buffer. This, in turn, changes the contents of `temp1`. So, the last assignment `rc.b = temp1`, doesn’t have the expected effect.

Keep in mind that retrieving sub-objects from Structure, Unions, and Arrays doesn’t *copy* the sub-object, instead it retrieves a wrapper object accessing the root-object’s underlying buffer.

Another example that may behave different from what one would expect is this :

```
>>> s = c_char_p()
>>> s.value = "abc def ghi"
>>> s.value
'abc def ghi'
>>> s.value is s.value
False
>>>
```

Why is it printing `False`? `ctypes` instances are objects containing a memory block plus some *descriptors* accessing the contents of the memory. Storing a Python object in the memory block does not store the object itself, instead the **contents** of the object is stored. Accessing the contents again constructs a new Python object each time!

Variable-sized data types

`ctypes` provides some support for variable-sized arrays and structures.

The `resize()` function can be used to resize the memory buffer of an existing `ctypes` object. The function takes the object as first argument, and the requested size in bytes as the second argument. The memory block cannot be made smaller than the natural memory block specified by the objects type, a `ValueError` is raised if this is tried :

```
>>> short_array = (c_short * 4)()
>>> print sizeof(short_array)
8
>>> resize(short_array, 4)
Traceback (most recent call last):
...
ValueError: minimum size is 8
>>> resize(short_array, 32)
>>> sizeof(short_array)
32
>>> sizeof(type(short_array))
8
>>>
```

This is nice and fine, but how would one access the additional elements contained in this array? Since the type still only knows about 4 elements, we get errors accessing other elements :

```
>>> short_array[:]
[0, 0, 0, 0]
>>> short_array[7]
Traceback (most recent call last):
...
IndexError: invalid index
>>>
```

Another way to use variable-sized data types with *ctypes* is to use the dynamic nature of Python, and (re-)define the data type after the required size is already known, on a case by case basis.

15.17.2 ctypes reference

Finding shared libraries

When programming in a compiled language, shared libraries are accessed when compiling/linking a program, and when the program is run.

The purpose of the `find_library()` function is to locate a library in a way similar to what the compiler does (on platforms with several versions of a shared library the most recent should be loaded), while the *ctypes* library loaders act like when a program is run, and call the runtime loader directly.

The `ctypes.util` module provides a function which can help to determine the library to load.

`ctypes.util.find_library(name)`

Try to find a library and return a pathname. *name* is the library name without any prefix like *lib*, suffix like *.so*, *.dylib* or version number (this is the form used for the posix linker option *-l*). If no library can be found, returns `None`.

The exact functionality is system dependent.

On Linux, `find_library()` tries to run external programs (`/sbin/ldconfig`, `gcc`, and `objdump`) to find the library file. It returns the filename of the library file. Here are some examples :

```
>>> from ctypes.util import find_library
>>> find_library("m")
'libm.so.6'
>>> find_library("c")
'libc.so.6'
>>> find_library("bz2")
'libbz2.so.1.0'
>>>
```

On OS X, `find_library()` tries several predefined naming schemes and paths to locate the library, and returns a full pathname if successful :

```
>>> from ctypes.util import find_library
>>> find_library("c")
'/usr/lib/libc.dylib'
>>> find_library("m")
'/usr/lib/libm.dylib'
>>> find_library("bz2")
'/usr/lib/libbz2.dylib'
>>> find_library("AGL")
'/System/Library/Frameworks/AGL.framework/AGL'
>>>
```

On Windows, `find_library()` searches along the system search path, and returns the full pathname, but since there is no predefined naming scheme a call like `find_library("c")` will fail and return `None`.

If wrapping a shared library with *ctypes*, it *may* be better to determine the shared library name at development time, and hardcode that into the wrapper module instead of using `find_library()` to locate the library at runtime.

Loading shared libraries

There are several ways to load shared libraries into the Python process. One way is to instantiate one of the following classes :

```
class ctypes.CDLL(name, mode=DEFAULT_MODE, handle=None, use_errno=False,
                  use_last_error=False)
```

Instances of this class represent loaded shared libraries. Functions in these libraries use the standard C calling convention, and are assumed to return `int`.

```
class ctypes.OleDLL(name, mode=DEFAULT_MODE, handle=None, use_errno=False,
                   use_last_error=False)
```

Windows only : Instances of this class represent loaded shared libraries, functions in these libraries use the `stdcall` calling convention, and are assumed to return the windows specific `HRESULT` code. `HRESULT` values contain information specifying whether the function call failed or succeeded, together with additional error code. If the return value signals a failure, an `WindowsError` is automatically raised.

```
class ctypes.WinDLL(name, mode=DEFAULT_MODE, handle=None, use_errno=False,
                   use_last_error=False)
```

Windows only : Instances of this class represent loaded shared libraries, functions in these libraries use the `stdcall` calling convention, and are assumed to return `int` by default.

On Windows CE only the standard calling convention is used, for convenience the `WinDLL` and `OleDLL` use the standard calling convention on this platform.

The Python *global interpreter lock* is released before calling any function exported by these libraries, and reacquired afterwards.

```
class ctypes.PyDLL(name, mode=DEFAULT_MODE, handle=None)
```

Instances of this class behave like `CDLL` instances, except that the Python GIL is *not* released during the function call, and after the function execution the Python error flag is checked. If the error flag is set, a Python exception is raised.

Thus, this is only useful to call Python C api functions directly.

All these classes can be instantiated by calling them with at least one argument, the pathname of the shared library. If you have an existing handle to an already loaded shared library, it can be passed as the `handle` named parameter, otherwise the underlying platforms `dlopen` or `LoadLibrary` function is used to load the library into the process, and to get a handle to it.

The `mode` parameter can be used to specify how the library is loaded. For details, consult the `dlopen(3)` manpage. On Windows, `mode` is ignored. On posix systems, `RTLD_NOW` is always added, and is not configurable.

The `use_errno` parameter, when set to true, enables a ctypes mechanism that allows accessing the system `errno` error number in a safe way. ctypes maintains a thread-local copy of the systems `errno` variable; if you call foreign functions created with `use_errno=True` then the `errno` value before the function call is swapped with the ctypes private copy, the same happens immediately after the function call.

The function `ctypes.get_errno()` returns the value of the ctypes private copy, and the function `ctypes.set_errno()` changes the ctypes private copy to a new value and returns the former value.

The `use_last_error` parameter, when set to true, enables the same mechanism for the Windows error code which is managed by the `GetLastError()` and `SetLastError()` Windows API functions; `ctypes.get_last_error()` and `ctypes.set_last_error()` are used to request and change the ctypes private copy of the windows error code.

Nouveau dans la version 2.6 : The `use_last_error` and `use_errno` optional parameters were added.

```
ctypes.RTLD_GLOBAL
```

Flag to use as `mode` parameter. On platforms where this flag is not available, it is defined as the integer zero.

ctypes.RTLD_LOCAL

Flag to use as *mode* parameter. On platforms where this is not available, it is the same as *RTLD_GLOBAL*.

ctypes.DEFAULT_MODE

The default mode which is used to load shared libraries. On OSX 10.3, this is *RTLD_GLOBAL*, otherwise it is the same as *RTLD_LOCAL*.

Instances of these classes have no public methods. Functions exported by the shared library can be accessed as attributes or by index. Please note that accessing the function through an attribute caches the result and therefore accessing it repeatedly returns the same object each time. On the other hand, accessing it through an index returns a new object each time :

```
>>> libc.time == libc.time
True
>>> libc['time'] == libc['time']
False
```

The following public attributes are available, their name starts with an underscore to not clash with exported function names :

PyDLL._handle

The system handle used to access the library.

PyDLL._name

The name of the library passed in the constructor.

Shared libraries can also be loaded by using one of the prefabricated objects, which are instances of the *LibraryLoader* class, either by calling the *LoadLibrary()* method, or by retrieving the library as attribute of the loader instance.

class ctypes.LibraryLoader(*dlltype*)

Class which loads shared libraries. *dlltype* should be one of the *CDLL*, *PyDLL*, *WinDLL*, or *OleDLL* types. *__getattr__()* has special behavior : It allows loading a shared library by accessing it as attribute of a library loader instance. The result is cached, so repeated attribute accesses return the same library each time.

LoadLibrary(*name*)

Load a shared library into the process and return it. This method always returns a new instance of the library.

These prefabricated library loaders are available :

ctypes.cdll

Creates *CDLL* instances.

ctypes.windll

Windows only : Creates *WinDLL* instances.

ctypes.ole32

Windows only : Creates *OleDLL* instances.

ctypes.pydll

Creates *PyDLL* instances.

For accessing the C Python api directly, a ready-to-use Python shared library object is available :

ctypes.pythonapi

An instance of *PyDLL* that exposes Python C API functions as attributes. Note that all these functions are assumed to return C *int*, which is of course not always the truth, so you have to assign the correct *restype* attribute to use these functions.

Foreign functions

As explained in the previous section, foreign functions can be accessed as attributes of loaded shared libraries. The function objects created in this way by default accept any number of arguments, accept any ctypes data instances as arguments, and return the default result type specified by the library loader. They are instances of a private class :

class ctypes._FuncPtr

Base class for C callable foreign functions.

Instances of foreign functions are also C compatible data types ; they represent C function pointers.

This behavior can be customized by assigning to special attributes of the foreign function object.

restype

Assign a ctypes type to specify the result type of the foreign function. Use `None` for `void`, a function not returning anything.

It is possible to assign a callable Python object that is not a ctypes type, in this case the function is assumed to return a C `int`, and the callable will be called with this integer, allowing further processing or error checking. Using this is deprecated, for more flexible post processing or error checking use a ctypes data type as *restype* and assign a callable to the *errcheck* attribute.

argtypes

Assign a tuple of ctypes types to specify the argument types that the function accepts. Functions using the `stdcall` calling convention can only be called with the same number of arguments as the length of this tuple ; functions using the C calling convention accept additional, unspecified arguments as well.

When a foreign function is called, each actual argument is passed to the `from_param()` class method of the items in the *argtypes* tuple, this method allows adapting the actual argument to an object that the foreign function accepts. For example, a `c_char_p` item in the *argtypes* tuple will convert a unicode string passed as argument into a byte string using ctypes conversion rules.

New : It is now possible to put items in *argtypes* which are not ctypes types, but each item must have a `from_param()` method which returns a value usable as argument (integer, string, ctypes instance). This allows defining adapters that can adapt custom objects as function parameters.

errcheck

Assign a Python function or another callable to this attribute. The callable will be called with three or more arguments :

callable(*result*, *func*, *arguments*)

result is what the foreign function returns, as specified by the *restype* attribute.

func is the foreign function object itself, this allows reusing the same callable object to check or post process the results of several functions.

arguments is a tuple containing the parameters originally passed to the function call, this allows specializing the behavior on the arguments used.

The object that this function returns will be returned from the foreign function call, but it can also check the result value and raise an exception if the foreign function call failed.

exception ctypes.ArgumentError

This exception is raised when a foreign function call cannot convert one of the passed arguments.

Function prototypes

Foreign functions can also be created by instantiating function prototypes. Function prototypes are similar to function prototypes in C ; they describe a function (return type, argument types, calling convention) without defining an implementation. The factory functions must be called with the desired result type and the argument types of the function.

ctypes.CFUNCTYPE(*restype*, **argtypes*, *use_errno=False*, *use_last_error=False*)

The returned function prototype creates functions that use the standard C calling convention. The function will release the GIL during the call. If *use_errno* is set to true, the ctypes private copy of the

system `errno` variable is exchanged with the real `errno` value before and after the call; `use_last_error` does the same for the Windows error code.

Modifié dans la version 2.6 : The optional `use_errno` and `use_last_error` parameters were added.

`ctypes.WINFUNCTYPE(restype, *argtypes, use_errno=False, use_last_error=False)`

Windows only : The returned function prototype creates functions that use the `stdcall` calling convention, except on Windows CE where `WINFUNCTYPE()` is the same as `CFUNCTYPE()`. The function will release the GIL during the call. `use_errno` and `use_last_error` have the same meaning as above.

`ctypes.PYFUNCTYPE(restype, *argtypes)`

The returned function prototype creates functions that use the Python calling convention. The function will *not* release the GIL during the call.

Function prototypes created by these factory functions can be instantiated in different ways, depending on the type and number of the parameters in the call :

`prototype(address)`

Returns a foreign function at the specified address which must be an integer.

`prototype(callable)`

Create a C callable function (a callback function) from a Python *callable*.

`prototype(func_spec[, paramflags])`

Returns a foreign function exported by a shared library. *func_spec* must be a 2-tuple (`name_or_ordinal`, `library`). The first item is the name of the exported function as string, or the ordinal of the exported function as small integer. The second item is the shared library instance.

`prototype(vtbl_index, name[, paramflags[, iid]])`

Returns a foreign function that will call a COM method. *vtbl_index* is the index into the virtual function table, a small non-negative integer. *name* is name of the COM method. *iid* is an optional pointer to the interface identifier which is used in extended error reporting.

COM methods use a special calling convention : They require a pointer to the COM interface as first argument, in addition to those parameters that are specified in the `argtypes` tuple.

The optional *paramflags* parameter creates foreign function wrappers with much more functionality than the features described above.

paramflags must be a tuple of the same length as `argtypes`.

Each item in this tuple contains further information about a parameter, it must be a tuple containing one, two, or three items.

The first item is an integer containing a combination of direction flags for the parameter :

- 1 Specifies an input parameter to the function.
- 2 Output parameter. The foreign function fills in a value.
- 4 Input parameter which defaults to the integer zero.

The optional second item is the parameter name as string. If this is specified, the foreign function can be called with named parameters.

The optional third item is the default value for this parameter.

This example demonstrates how to wrap the Windows `MessageBoxA` function so that it supports default parameters and named arguments. The C declaration from the windows header file is this :

```
WINUSERAPI int WINAPI
MessageBoxA(
    HWND hWnd,
    LPCSTR lpText,
    LPCSTR lpCaption,
    UINT uType);
```

Here is the wrapping with *ctypes* :

```
>>> from ctypes import c_int, WINFUNCTYPE, windll
>>> from ctypes.wintypes import HWND, LPCSTR, UINT
>>> prototype = WINFUNCTYPE(c_int, HWND, LPCSTR, LPCSTR, UINT)
>>> paramflags = (1, "hwnd", 0), (1, "text", "Hi"), (1, "caption", None), (1, "flags", 0)
>>> MessageBox = prototype(("MessageBoxA", windll.user32), paramflags)
>>>
```

The `MessageBox` foreign function can now be called in these ways :

```
>>> MessageBox()
>>> MessageBox(text="Spam, spam, spam")
>>> MessageBox(flags=2, text="foo bar")
>>>
```

A second example demonstrates output parameters. The win32 `GetWindowRect` function retrieves the dimensions of a specified window by copying them into `RECT` structure that the caller has to supply. Here is the C declaration :

```
WINUSERAPI BOOL WINAPI
GetWindowRect(
    HWND hWnd,
    LPRECT lpRect);
```

Here is the wrapping with `ctypes` :

```
>>> from ctypes import POINTER, WINFUNCTYPE, windll, WinError
>>> from ctypes.wintypes import BOOL, HWND, RECT
>>> prototype = WINFUNCTYPE(BOOL, HWND, POINTER(RECT))
>>> paramflags = (1, "hwnd"), (2, "lprect")
>>> GetWindowRect = prototype(("GetWindowRect", windll.user32), paramflags)
>>>
```

Functions with output parameters will automatically return the output parameter value if there is a single one, or a tuple containing the output parameter values when there are more than one, so the `GetWindowRect` function now returns a `RECT` instance, when called.

Output parameters can be combined with the `errcheck` protocol to do further output processing and error checking. The win32 `GetWindowRect` api function returns a `BOOL` to signal success or failure, so this function could do the error checking, and raises an exception when the api call failed :

```
>>> def errcheck(result, func, args):
...     if not result:
...         raise WinError()
...     return args
...
>>> GetWindowRect.errcheck = errcheck
>>>
```

If the `errcheck` function returns the argument tuple it receives unchanged, `ctypes` continues the normal processing it does on the output parameters. If you want to return a tuple of window coordinates instead of a `RECT` instance, you can retrieve the fields in the function and return them instead, the normal processing will no longer take place :

```
>>> def errcheck(result, func, args):
...     if not result:
...         raise WinError()
...     rc = args[1]
...     return rc.left, rc.top, rc.bottom, rc.right
...
>>> GetWindowRect.errcheck = errcheck
>>>
```

Utility functions

ctypes.addressof(*obj*)

Returns the address of the memory buffer as integer. *obj* must be an instance of a ctypes type.

ctypes.alignment(*obj_or_type*)

Returns the alignment requirements of a ctypes type. *obj_or_type* must be a ctypes type or instance.

ctypes.byref(*obj*[, *offset*])

Returns a light-weight pointer to *obj*, which must be an instance of a ctypes type. *offset* defaults to zero, and must be an integer that will be added to the internal pointer value.

byref(*obj*, *offset*) corresponds to this C code :

```
((char *)&obj) + offset)
```

The returned object can only be used as a foreign function call parameter. It behaves similar to **pointer(*obj*)**, but the construction is a lot faster.

Nouveau dans la version 2.6 : The *offset* optional argument was added.

ctypes.cast(*obj*, *type*)

This function is similar to the cast operator in C. It returns a new instance of *type* which points to the same memory block as *obj*. *type* must be a pointer type, and *obj* must be an object that can be interpreted as a pointer.

ctypes.create_string_buffer(*init_or_size*[, *size*])

This function creates a mutable character buffer. The returned object is a ctypes array of *c_char*.

init_or_size must be an integer which specifies the size of the array, or a string which will be used to initialize the array items.

If a string is specified as first argument, the buffer is made one item larger than the length of the string so that the last element in the array is a NUL termination character. An integer can be passed as second argument which allows specifying the size of the array if the length of the string should not be used.

If the first parameter is a unicode string, it is converted into an 8-bit string according to ctypes conversion rules.

ctypes.create_unicode_buffer(*init_or_size*[, *size*])

This function creates a mutable unicode character buffer. The returned object is a ctypes array of *c_wchar*.

init_or_size must be an integer which specifies the size of the array, or a unicode string which will be used to initialize the array items.

If a unicode string is specified as first argument, the buffer is made one item larger than the length of the string so that the last element in the array is a NUL termination character. An integer can be passed as second argument which allows specifying the size of the array if the length of the string should not be used.

If the first parameter is an 8-bit string, it is converted into a unicode string according to ctypes conversion rules.

ctypes.DllCanUnloadNow()

Windows only : This function is a hook which allows implementing in-process COM servers with ctypes. It is called from the `DllCanUnloadNow` function that the `_ctypes` extension dll exports.

ctypes.DllGetClassObject()

Windows only : This function is a hook which allows implementing in-process COM servers with ctypes. It is called from the `DllGetClassObject` function that the `_ctypes` extension dll exports.

ctypes.util.find_library(*name*)

Try to find a library and return a pathname. *name* is the library name without any prefix like `lib`, suffix like `.so`, `.dylib` or version number (this is the form used for the posix linker option `-l`). If no library can be found, returns `None`.

The exact functionality is system dependent.

Modifié dans la version 2.6 : Windows only : `find_library("m")` or `find_library("c")` return the result of a call to `find_msvcrt()`.

ctypes.util.find_msvcrt()

Windows only : return the filename of the VC runtime library used by Python, and by the extension modules. If the name of the library cannot be determined, `None` is returned.

If you need to free memory, for example, allocated by an extension module with a call to the `free(void *)`, it is important that you use the function in the same library that allocated the memory.

Nouveau dans la version 2.6.

ctypes.FormatError(*code*)

Windows only : Returns a textual description of the error code *code*. If no error code is specified, the last error code is used by calling the Windows api function `GetLastError`.

ctypes.GetLastError()

Windows only : Returns the last error code set by Windows in the calling thread. This function calls the Windows `GetLastError()` function directly, it does not return the ctypes-private copy of the error code.

ctypes.get_errno()

Returns the current value of the ctypes-private copy of the system `errno` variable in the calling thread.

Nouveau dans la version 2.6.

ctypes.get_last_error()

Windows only : returns the current value of the ctypes-private copy of the system `LastError` variable in the calling thread.

Nouveau dans la version 2.6.

ctypes.memmove(*dst*, *src*, *count*)

Same as the standard C `memmove` library function : copies *count* bytes from *src* to *dst*. *dst* and *src* must be integers or ctypes instances that can be converted to pointers.

ctypes.memset(*dst*, *c*, *count*)

Same as the standard C `memset` library function : fills the memory block at address *dst* with *count* bytes of value *c*. *dst* must be an integer specifying an address, or a ctypes instance.

ctypes.POINTER(*type*)

This factory function creates and returns a new ctypes pointer type. Pointer types are cached and reused internally, so calling this function repeatedly is cheap. *type* must be a ctypes type.

ctypes.pointer(*obj*)

This function creates a new pointer instance, pointing to *obj*. The returned object is of the type `POINTER(type(obj))`.

Note : If you just want to pass a pointer to an object to a foreign function call, you should use `byref(obj)` which is much faster.

`ctypes.resize(obj, size)`

This function resizes the internal memory buffer of *obj*, which must be an instance of a ctypes type. It is not possible to make the buffer smaller than the native size of the objects type, as given by `sizeof(type(obj))`, but it is possible to enlarge the buffer.

`ctypes.set_conversion_mode(encoding, errors)`

This function sets the rules that ctypes objects use when converting between 8-bit strings and unicode strings. *encoding* must be a string specifying an encoding, like 'utf-8' or 'mbcs', *errors* must be a string specifying the error handling on encoding/decoding errors. Examples of possible values are "strict", "replace", or "ignore".

`set_conversion_mode()` returns a 2-tuple containing the previous conversion rules. On windows, the initial conversion rules are ('mbcs', 'ignore'), on other systems ('ascii', 'strict').

`ctypes.set_errno(value)`

Set the current value of the ctypes-private copy of the system *errno* variable in the calling thread to *value* and return the previous value.

Nouveau dans la version 2.6.

`ctypes.set_last_error(value)`

Windows only : set the current value of the ctypes-private copy of the system `LastError` variable in the calling thread to *value* and return the previous value.

Nouveau dans la version 2.6.

`ctypes.sizeof(obj_or_type)`

Returns the size in bytes of a ctypes type or instance memory buffer. Does the same as the C `sizeof` operator.

`ctypes.string_at(address[, size])`

This function returns the string starting at memory address *address*. If *size* is specified, it is used as *size*, otherwise the string is assumed to be zero-terminated.

`ctypes.WinError(code=None, descr=None)`

Windows only : this function is probably the worst-named thing in ctypes. It creates an instance of `WindowsError`. If *code* is not specified, `GetLastError` is called to determine the error code. If *descr* is not specified, `FormatError()` is called to get a textual description of the error.

`ctypes.wstring_at(address[, size])`

This function returns the wide character string starting at memory address *address* as unicode string. If *size* is specified, it is used as the number of characters of the string, otherwise the string is assumed to be zero-terminated.

Types de données

`class ctypes._CData`

This non-public class is the common base class of all ctypes data types. Among other things, all ctypes type instances contain a memory block that hold C compatible data ; the address of the memory block is returned by the `addressof()` helper function. Another instance variable is exposed as `_objects` ; this contains other Python objects that need to be kept alive in case the memory block contains pointers. Common methods of ctypes data types, these are all class methods (to be exact, they are methods of the *metaclass*) :

`from_buffer(source[, offset])`

This method returns a ctypes instance that shares the buffer of the *source* object. The *source* object must support the writeable buffer interface. The optional *offset* parameter specifies an offset into the source buffer in bytes ; the default is zero. If the source buffer is not large enough a *ValueError* is raised.

Nouveau dans la version 2.6.

from_buffer_copy(*source*[, *offset*])

This method creates a ctypes instance, copying the buffer from the *source* object buffer which must be readable. The optional *offset* parameter specifies an offset into the source buffer in bytes; the default is zero. If the source buffer is not large enough a *ValueError* is raised.

Nouveau dans la version 2.6.

from_address(*address*)

This method returns a ctypes type instance using the memory specified by *address* which must be an integer.

from_param(*obj*)

This method adapts *obj* to a ctypes type. It is called with the actual object used in a foreign function call when the type is present in the foreign function's **argtypes** tuple; it must return an object that can be used as a function call parameter.

All ctypes data types have a default implementation of this classmethod that normally returns *obj* if that is an instance of the type. Some types accept other objects as well.

in_dll(*library*, *name*)

This method returns a ctypes type instance exported by a shared library. *name* is the name of the symbol that exports the data, *library* is the loaded shared library.

Common instance variables of ctypes data types :

_b_base_

Sometimes ctypes data instances do not own the memory block they contain, instead they share part of the memory block of a base object. The **_b_base_** read-only member is the root ctypes object that owns the memory block.

_b_needsfree_

This read-only variable is true when the ctypes data instance has allocated the memory block itself, false otherwise.

_objects

This member is either *None* or a dictionary containing Python objects that need to be kept alive so that the memory block contents is kept valid. This object is only exposed for debugging; never modify the contents of this dictionary.

Fundamental data types

class ctypes._SimpleCData

This non-public class is the base class of all fundamental ctypes data types. It is mentioned here because it contains the common attributes of the fundamental ctypes data types. *_SimpleCData* is a subclass of *_CData*, so it inherits their methods and attributes.

Modifié dans la version 2.6 : ctypes data types that are not and do not contain pointers can now be pickled.

Instances have a single attribute :

value

This attribute contains the actual value of the instance. For integer and pointer types, it is an integer, for character types, it is a single character string, for character pointer types it is a Python string or unicode string.

When the **value** attribute is retrieved from a ctypes instance, usually a new object is returned each time. *ctypes* does *not* implement original object return, always a new object is constructed. The same is true for all other ctypes object instances.

Fundamental data types, when returned as foreign function call results, or, for example, by retrieving structure field members or array items, are transparently converted to native Python types. In other words, if a foreign function has a **restype** of *c_char_p*, you will always receive a Python string, *not* a *c_char_p* instance.

Subclasses of fundamental data types do *not* inherit this behavior. So, if a foreign functions **restype** is a subclass of *c_void_p*, you will receive an instance of this subclass from the function call. Of course, you can

get the value of the pointer by accessing the `value` attribute.

These are the fundamental ctypes data types :

class ctypes.c_byte

Represents the C `signed char` datatype, and interprets the value as small integer. The constructor accepts an optional integer initializer ; no overflow checking is done.

class ctypes.c_char

Represents the C `char` datatype, and interprets the value as a single character. The constructor accepts an optional string initializer, the length of the string must be exactly one character.

class ctypes.c_char_p

Represents the C `char *` datatype when it points to a zero-terminated string. For a general character pointer that may also point to binary data, `POINTER(c_char)` must be used. The constructor accepts an integer address, or a string.

class ctypes.c_double

Represents the C `double` datatype. The constructor accepts an optional float initializer.

class ctypes.c_longdouble

Represents the C `long double` datatype. The constructor accepts an optional float initializer. On platforms where `sizeof(long double) == sizeof(double)` it is an alias to `c_double`.

Nouveau dans la version 2.6.

class ctypes.c_float

Represents the C `float` datatype. The constructor accepts an optional float initializer.

class ctypes.c_int

Represents the C `signed int` datatype. The constructor accepts an optional integer initializer ; no overflow checking is done. On platforms where `sizeof(int) == sizeof(long)` it is an alias to `c_long`.

class ctypes.c_int8

Represents the C 8-bit `signed int` datatype. Usually an alias for `c_byte`.

class ctypes.c_int16

Represents the C 16-bit `signed int` datatype. Usually an alias for `c_short`.

class ctypes.c_int32

Represents the C 32-bit `signed int` datatype. Usually an alias for `c_int`.

class ctypes.c_int64

Represents the C 64-bit `signed int` datatype. Usually an alias for `c_longlong`.

class ctypes.c_long

Represents the C `signed long` datatype. The constructor accepts an optional integer initializer ; no overflow checking is done.

class ctypes.c_longlong

Represents the C `signed long long` datatype. The constructor accepts an optional integer initializer ; no overflow checking is done.

class ctypes.c_short

Represents the C `signed short` datatype. The constructor accepts an optional integer initializer ; no overflow checking is done.

class ctypes.c_size_t

Represents the C `size_t` datatype.

class ctypes.c_ssize_t

Represents the C `ssize_t` datatype.

Nouveau dans la version 2.7.

class ctypes.c_ubyte

Represents the C `unsigned char` datatype, it interprets the value as small integer. The constructor accepts an optional integer initializer; no overflow checking is done.

class ctypes.c_uint

Represents the C `unsigned int` datatype. The constructor accepts an optional integer initializer; no overflow checking is done. On platforms where `sizeof(int) == sizeof(long)` it is an alias for `c_ulong`.

class ctypes.c_uint8

Represents the C 8-bit `unsigned int` datatype. Usually an alias for `c_ubyte`.

class ctypes.c_uint16

Represents the C 16-bit `unsigned int` datatype. Usually an alias for `c_ushort`.

class ctypes.c_uint32

Represents the C 32-bit `unsigned int` datatype. Usually an alias for `c_uint`.

class ctypes.c_uint64

Represents the C 64-bit `unsigned int` datatype. Usually an alias for `c_ulonglong`.

class ctypes.c_ulong

Represents the C `unsigned long` datatype. The constructor accepts an optional integer initializer; no overflow checking is done.

class ctypes.c_ulonglong

Represents the C `unsigned long long` datatype. The constructor accepts an optional integer initializer; no overflow checking is done.

class ctypes.c_ushort

Represents the C `unsigned short` datatype. The constructor accepts an optional integer initializer; no overflow checking is done.

class ctypes.c_void_p

Represents the C `void *` type. The value is represented as integer. The constructor accepts an optional integer initializer.

class ctypes.c_wchar

Represents the C `wchar_t` datatype, and interprets the value as a single character unicode string. The constructor accepts an optional string initializer, the length of the string must be exactly one character.

class ctypes.c_wchar_p

Represents the C `wchar_t *` datatype, which must be a pointer to a zero-terminated wide character string. The constructor accepts an integer address, or a string.

class ctypes.c_bool

Represent the C `bool` datatype (more accurately, `_Bool` from C99). Its value can be `True` or `False`, and the constructor accepts any object that has a truth value.

Nouveau dans la version 2.6.

class ctypes.HRESULT

Windows only : Represents a `HRESULT` value, which contains success or error information for a function or method call.

class ctypes.py_object

Represents the C `PyObject *` datatype. Calling this without an argument creates a `NULL PyObject *` pointer.

The `ctypes.wintypes` module provides quite some other Windows specific data types, for example `HWND`, `WPARAM`, or `DWORD`. Some useful structures like `MSG` or `RECT` are also defined.

Structured data types

`class ctypes.Union(*args, **kw)`

Abstract base class for unions in native byte order.

`class ctypes.BigEndianStructure(*args, **kw)`

Abstract base class for structures in *big endian* byte order.

`class ctypes.LittleEndianStructure(*args, **kw)`

Abstract base class for structures in *little endian* byte order.

Structures with non-native byte order cannot contain pointer type fields, or any other data types containing pointer type fields.

`class ctypes.Structure(*args, **kw)`

Abstract base class for structures in *native* byte order.

Concrete structure and union types must be created by subclassing one of these types, and at least define a `_fields_` class variable. `ctypes` will create *descriptors* which allow reading and writing the fields by direct attribute accesses. These are the

`_fields_`

A sequence defining the structure fields. The items must be 2-tuples or 3-tuples. The first item is the name of the field, the second item specifies the type of the field; it can be any `ctypes` data type.

For integer type fields like `c_int`, a third optional item can be given. It must be a small positive integer defining the bit width of the field.

Field names must be unique within one structure or union. This is not checked, only one field can be accessed when names are repeated.

It is possible to define the `_fields_` class variable *after* the class statement that defines the Structure subclass, this allows creating data types that directly or indirectly reference themselves :

```
class List(Structure):
    pass
List._fields_ = [("pNext", POINTER(List)),
                 ...
                 ]
```

The `_fields_` class variable must, however, be defined before the type is first used (an instance is created, `sizeof()` is called on it, and so on). Later assignments to the `_fields_` class variable will raise an `AttributeError`.

It is possible to defined sub-subclasses of structure types, they inherit the fields of the base class plus the `_fields_` defined in the sub-subclass, if any.

`_pack_`

An optional small integer that allows overriding the alignment of structure fields in the instance. `_pack_` must already be defined when `_fields_` is assigned, otherwise it will have no effect.

`_anonymous_`

An optional sequence that lists the names of unnamed (anonymous) fields. `_anonymous_` must be already defined when `_fields_` is assigned, otherwise it will have no effect.

The fields listed in this variable must be structure or union type fields. `ctypes` will create descriptors in the structure type that allow accessing the nested fields directly, without the need to create the structure or union field.

Here is an example type (Windows) :

```
class _U(Union):
    _fields_ = [("lptdesc", POINTER(TYPEDESC)),
                ("lpadesc", POINTER(ARRAYDESC)),
```

(suite sur la page suivante)

(suite de la page précédente)

```

        ("hreftype", HREFTYPE)]

class TYPEDESC(Structure):
    _anonymous_ = ("u",)
    _fields_ = [("u", _U),
                ("vt", VARTYPE)]

```

The TYPEDESC structure describes a COM data type, the `vt` field specifies which one of the union fields is valid. Since the `u` field is defined as anonymous field, it is now possible to access the members directly off the TYPEDESC instance. `td.lptdesc` and `td.u.lptdesc` are equivalent, but the former is faster since it does not need to create a temporary union instance :

```

td = TYPEDESC()
td.vt = VT_PTR
td.lptdesc = POINTER(some_type)
td.u.lptdesc = POINTER(some_type)

```

It is possible to defined sub-subclasses of structures, they inherit the fields of the base class. If the subclass definition has a separate `_fields_` variable, the fields specified in this are appended to the fields of the base class.

Structure and union constructors accept both positional and keyword arguments. Positional arguments are used to initialize member fields in the same order as they are appear in `_fields_`. Keyword arguments in the constructor are interpreted as attribute assignments, so they will initialize `_fields_` with the same name, or create new attributes for names not present in `_fields_`.

Arrays and pointers

class `ctypes.Array(*args)`

Classe de base abstraite pour les *arrays*.

The recommended way to create concrete array types is by multiplying any *ctypes* data type with a positive integer. Alternatively, you can subclass this type and define `_length_` and `_type_` class variables. Array elements can be read and written using standard subscript and slice accesses ; for slice reads, the resulting object is *not* itself an *Array*.

length

A positive integer specifying the number of elements in the array. Out-of-range subscripts result in an *IndexError*. Will be returned by `len()`.

type

Spécifie le type de chaque élément de l'*array*.

Array subclass constructors accept positional arguments, used to initialize the elements in order.

class `ctypes._Pointer`

Private, abstract base class for pointers.

Concrete pointer types are created by calling `POINTER()` with the type that will be pointed to ; this is done automatically by `pointer()`.

If a pointer points to an array, its elements can be read and written using standard subscript and slice accesses. Pointer objects have no size, so `len()` will raise *TypeError*. Negative subscripts will read from the memory *before* the pointer (as in C), and out-of-range subscripts will probably crash with an access violation (if you're lucky).

type

Specifies the type pointed to.

contents

Returns the object to which to pointer points. Assigning to this attribute changes the pointer to point to the assigned object.

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 modeled 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 :

16.1 `select` — Waiting for I/O completion

This module provides access to the `select()` and `poll()` functions available in most operating systems, `epoll()` available on Linux 2.5+ and `kqueue()` available on most BSD. Note that on Windows, it only works for sockets; on other operating systems, it also works for other file types (in particular, on Unix, it works on pipes). It cannot be used on regular files to determine whether a file has grown since it was last read.

Le module définit :

exception `select.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.epoll([sizehint=-1])`

(Only supported on Linux 2.5.44 and newer.) Returns an edge polling object, which can be used as Edge or Level Triggered interface for I/O events; see section *Edge and Level Trigger Polling (epoll) Objects* below for the methods supported by epolling objects.

Nouveau dans la version 2.6.

`select.poll()`

(Not supported by all operating systems.) Returns a polling object, which supports registering and unregistering file descriptors, and then polling them for I/O events; see section *Polling Objects* below for the methods supported by polling objects.

`select.kqueue()`

(Only supported on BSD.) Returns a kernel queue object; see section *Kqueue Objects* below for the methods supported by kqueue objects.

Nouveau dans la version 2.6.

`select.kevent(ident, filter=KQ_FILTER_READ, flags=KQ_EV_ADD, fflags=0, data=0, udata=0)`

(Only supported on BSD.) Returns a kernel event object; see section *Kevent Objects* below for the methods supported by kevent objects.

Nouveau dans la version 2.6.

`select.select(rlist, wlist, xlist[, timeout])`

This is a straightforward interface to the Unix `select()` system call. The first three arguments are sequences of “waitable objects”: either integers representing file descriptors or objects with a parameterless method named `fileno()` returning such an integer:

- `rlist`: wait until ready for reading
- `wlist`: wait until ready for writing
- `xlist`: wait for an « exceptional condition » (see the manual page for what your system considers such a condition)

Empty sequences are allowed, but acceptance of three empty sequences is platform-dependent. (It is known to work on Unix but not on Windows.) 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.

Among the acceptable object types in the sequences are Python file objects (e.g. `sys.stdin`, or objects returned by `open()` or `os.popen()`), socket objects returned by `socket.socket()`. You may also define a *wrapper* class yourself, as long as it has an appropriate `fileno()` method (that really returns a file descriptor, not just a random integer).

Note : File objects on Windows are not acceptable, but sockets are. On Windows, the underlying `select()` function is provided by the WinSock library, and does not handle file descriptors that don’t originate from WinSock.

`select.PIPE_BUF`

Files reported as ready for writing by `select()`, `poll()` or similar interfaces in this module are guaranteed to not block on a write of up to `PIPE_BUF` bytes. This value is guaranteed by POSIX to be at least 512. Availability: Unix.

Nouveau dans la version 2.7.

16.1.1 Edge and Level Trigger Polling (epoll) Objects

<http://linux.die.net/man/4/epoll>

eventmask

Constante	Signification
EPOLLIN	Available for read
EPOLLOUT	Available for write
EPOLLPRI	Urgent data for read
EPOLLERR	Error condition happened on the assoc. fd
EPOLLHUP	Hang up happened on the assoc. fd
EPOLLET	Set Edge Trigger behavior, the default is Level Trigger behavior
EPOLLONESHOT	Set one-shot behavior. After one event is pulled out, the fd is internally disabled
EPOLLRDNORM	Equivalent to EPOLLIN
EPOLLRDBAND	Priority data band can be read.
EPOLLWRNORM	Equivalent to EPOLLOUT
EPOLLWRBAND	Priority data may be written.
EPOLLMSG	Ignored.

`epoll.close()`
Close the control file descriptor of the `epoll` object.

`epoll.fileno()`
Return the file descriptor number of the control fd.

`epoll.fromfd(fd)`
Create an `epoll` object from a given file descriptor.

`epoll.register(fd[, eventmask])`
Register a fd descriptor with the `epoll` object.

Note : Registering a file descriptor that's already registered raises an `IOError` – contrary to *Polling Objects's* register.

`epoll.modify(fd, eventmask)`
Modify a register file descriptor.

`epoll.unregister(fd)`
Remove a registered file descriptor from the `epoll` object.

`epoll.poll([timeout=-1[, maxevents=-1]])`
Wait for events. timeout in seconds (float)

16.1.2 Polling Objects

The `poll()` system call, supported on most Unix systems, provides better scalability for network servers that service many, many clients at the same time. `poll()` scales better because the system call only requires listing the file descriptors of interest, while `select()` builds a bitmap, turns on bits for the fds of interest, and then afterward the whole bitmap has to be linearly scanned again. `select()` is $O(\text{highest file descriptor})$, while `poll()` is $O(\text{number of file descriptors})$.

`poll.register(fd[, eventmask])`
Register a file descriptor with the polling object. Future calls to the `poll()` method will then check whether the file descriptor has any pending I/O events. `fd` can be either an integer, or an object with a `fileno()` method that returns an integer. File objects implement `fileno()`, so they can also be used as the argument.

`eventmask` is an optional bitmask describing the type of events you want to check for, and can be a combination of the constants `POLLIN`, `POLLPRI`, and `POLLOUT`, described in the table below. If not specified, the default value used will check for all 3 types of events.

Constante	Signification
<code>POLLIN</code>	There is data to read
<code>POLLPRI</code>	There is urgent data to read
<code>POLLOUT</code>	Ready for output : writing will not block
<code>POLLERR</code>	Error condition of some sort
<code>POLLHUP</code>	Hung up
<code>POLLNVAL</code>	Invalid request : descriptor not open

Registering a file descriptor that's already registered is not an error, and has the same effect as registering the descriptor exactly once.

`poll.modify(fd, eventmask)`
Modifies an already registered fd. This has the same effect as `register(fd, eventmask)`. Attempting to modify a file descriptor that was never registered causes an `IOError` exception with `errno ENOENT` to be raised.

Nouveau dans la version 2.6.

`poll.unregister(fd)`

Remove a file descriptor being tracked by a polling object. Just like the `register()` method, *fd* can be an integer or an object with a `fileno()` method that returns an integer.

Attempting to remove a file descriptor that was never registered causes a `KeyError` exception to be raised.

`poll.poll([timeout])`

Polls the set of registered file descriptors, and returns a possibly-empty list containing (*fd*, *event*) 2-tuples for the descriptors that have events or errors to report. *fd* is the file descriptor, and *event* is a bitmask with bits set for the reported events for that descriptor — `POLLIN` for waiting input, `POLLOUT` to indicate that the descriptor can be written to, and so forth. An empty list indicates that the call timed out and no file descriptors had any events to report. If *timeout* is given, it specifies the length of time in milliseconds which the system will wait for events before returning. If *timeout* is omitted, negative, or `None`, the call will block until there is an event for this poll object.

16.1.3 Kqueue Objects

`kqueue.close()`

Close the control file descriptor of the kqueue object.

`kqueue.fileno()`

Return the file descriptor number of the control fd.

`kqueue.fromfd(fd)`

Create a kqueue object from a given file descriptor.

`kqueue.control(changelist, max_events[, timeout=None])` → eventlist

Low level interface to kevent

— *changelist* must be an iterable of kevent object or `None`

— *max_events* must be 0 or a positive integer

— *timeout* in seconds (floats possible)

16.1.4 Kevent Objects

<https://www.freebsd.org/cgi/man.cgi?query=kqueue&sektion=2>

`kevent.ident`

Value used to identify the event. The interpretation depends on the filter but it's usually the file descriptor. In the constructor *ident* can either be an int or an object with a `fileno()` function. `kevent` stores the integer internally.

`kevent.filter`

Name of the kernel filter.

Constante	Signification
<code>KQ_FILTER_READ</code>	Takes a descriptor and returns whenever there is data available to read
<code>KQ_FILTER_WRITE</code>	Takes a descriptor and returns whenever there is data available to write
<code>KQ_FILTER_AIO</code>	AIO requests
<code>KQ_FILTER_VNODE</code>	Returns when one or more of the requested events watched in <i>fflag</i> occurs
<code>KQ_FILTER_PROC</code>	Watch for events on a process id
<code>KQ_FILTER_NETDEV</code>	Watch for events on a network device [not available on Mac OS X]
<code>KQ_FILTER_SIGNAL</code>	Returns whenever the watched signal is delivered to the process
<code>KQ_FILTER_TIMER</code>	Establishes an arbitrary timer

`kevent.flags`

Filter action.

Constante	Signification
KQ_EV_ADD	Adds or modifies an event
KQ_EV_DELETE	Removes an event from the queue
KQ_EV_ENABLE	Permits <code>control()</code> to return the event
KQ_EV_DISABLE	Disables event
KQ_EV_ONESHOT	Removes event after first occurrence
KQ_EV_CLEAR	Reset the state after an event is retrieved
KQ_EV_SYSFLAGS	internal event
KQ_EV_FLAG1	internal event
KQ_EV_EOF	Filter specific EOF condition
KQ_EV_ERROR	See return values

kevent.fflags

Filter specific flags.

KQ_FILTER_READ and KQ_FILTER_WRITE filter flags :

Constante	Signification
KQ_NOTE_LOWAT	low water mark of a socket buffer

KQ_FILTER_VNODE filter flags :

Constante	Signification
KQ_NOTE_DELETE	<i>unlink()</i> was called
KQ_NOTE_WRITE	a write occurred
KQ_NOTE_EXTEND	the file was extended
KQ_NOTE_ATTRIB	an attribute was changed
KQ_NOTE_LINK	the link count has changed
KQ_NOTE_RENAME	the file was renamed
KQ_NOTE_REVOKE	access to the file was revoked

KQ_FILTER_PROC filter flags :

Constante	Signification
KQ_NOTE_EXIT	the process has exited
KQ_NOTE_FORK	the process has called <i>fork()</i>
KQ_NOTE_EXEC	the process has executed a new process
KQ_NOTE_PCTRLMASK	internal filter flag
KQ_NOTE_PDATAMASK	internal filter flag
KQ_NOTE_TRACK	follow a process across <i>fork()</i>
KQ_NOTE_CHILD	returned on the child process for <i>NOTE_TRACK</i>
KQ_NOTE_TRACKERR	unable to attach to a child

KQ_FILTER_NETDEV filter flags (not available on Mac OS X) :

Constante	Signification
KQ_NOTE_LINKUP	link is up
KQ_NOTE_LINKDOWN	link is down
KQ_NOTE_LINKINV	link state is invalid

kevent.data

Filter specific data.

kevent.udata

User defined value.

16.2 threading — Higher-level threading interface

Code source : [Lib/threading.py](#)

This module constructs higher-level threading interfaces on top of the lower level *thread* module. See also the *mutex* and *Queue* modules.

The *dummy_threading* module is provided for situations where *threading* cannot be used because *thread* is missing.

Note : Starting with Python 2.6, this module provides **PEP 8** compliant aliases and properties to replace the `camelCase` names that were inspired by Java's threading API. This updated API is compatible with that of the *multiprocessing* module. However, no schedule has been set for the deprecation of the `camelCase` names and they remain fully supported in both Python 2.x and 3.x.

Note : Starting with Python 2.5, several Thread methods raise *RuntimeError* instead of *AssertionError* if called erroneously.

CPython implementation detail : In CPython, due to the *Global Interpreter Lock*, only one thread can execute Python code at once (even though certain performance-oriented libraries might overcome this limitation). If you want your application to make better use of the computational resources of multi-core machines, you are advised to use *multiprocessing*. However, threading is still an appropriate model if you want to run multiple I/O-bound tasks simultaneously.

This module defines the following functions and objects :

`threading.active_count()`

`threading.activeCount()`

Return the number of *Thread* objects currently alive. The returned count is equal to the length of the list returned by *enumerate()*.

Modifié dans la version 2.6 : Added `active_count()` spelling.

`threading.Condition()`

A factory function that returns a new condition variable object. A condition variable allows one or more threads to wait until they are notified by another thread.

See *Condition Objects*.

`threading.current_thread()`

`threading.currentThread()`

Return the current *Thread* object, corresponding to the caller's thread of control. If the caller's thread of control was not created through the *threading* module, a dummy thread object with limited functionality is returned.

Modifié dans la version 2.6 : Added `current_thread()` spelling.

`threading.enumerate()`

Return a list of all *Thread* objects currently alive. The list includes daemon threads, dummy thread objects created by *current_thread()*, and the main thread. It excludes terminated threads and threads that have not yet been started.

`threading.Event()`

A factory function that returns a new event object. An event manages a flag that can be set to true with the *set()* method and reset to false with the *clear()* method. The *wait()* method blocks until the flag is true.

See *Event Objects*.

class `threading.local`

A class that represents thread-local data. Thread-local data are data whose values are thread specific. To manage thread-local data, just create an instance of `local` (or a subclass) and store attributes on it :

```
mydata = threading.local()
mydata.x = 1
```

The instance's values will be different for separate threads.

For more details and extensive examples, see the documentation string of the `_threading_local` module.

Nouveau dans la version 2.4.

`threading.Lock()`

A factory function that returns a new primitive lock object. Once a thread has acquired it, subsequent attempts to acquire it block, until it is released; any thread may release it.

See *Lock Objects*.

`threading.RLock()`

A factory function that returns a new reentrant lock object. A reentrant lock must be released by the thread that acquired it. Once a thread has acquired a reentrant lock, the same thread may acquire it again without blocking; the thread must release it once for each time it has acquired it.

See *RLock Objects*.

`threading.Semaphore([value])`

A factory function that returns a new semaphore object. A semaphore manages a counter representing the number of `release()` calls minus the number of `acquire()` calls, plus an initial value. The `acquire()` method blocks if necessary until it can return without making the counter negative. If not given, `value` defaults to 1.

See *Semaphore Objects*.

`threading.BoundedSemaphore([value])`

A factory function that returns a new bounded semaphore object. A bounded semaphore checks to make sure its current value doesn't exceed its initial value. If it does, `ValueError` is raised. In most situations semaphores are used to guard resources with limited capacity. If the semaphore is released too many times it's a sign of a bug. If not given, `value` defaults to 1.

class `threading.Thread`

A class that represents a thread of control. This class can be safely subclassed in a limited fashion.

See *Thread Objects*.

class `threading.Timer`

A thread that executes a function after a specified interval has passed.

See *Timer Objects*.

`threading.settrace(func)`

Set a trace function for all threads started from the `threading` module. The `func` will be passed to `sys.settrace()` for each thread, before its `run()` method is called.

Nouveau dans la version 2.3.

`threading.setprofile(func)`

Set a profile function for all threads started from the `threading` module. The `func` will be passed to `sys.setprofile()` for each thread, before its `run()` method is called.

Nouveau dans la version 2.3.

`threading.stack_size([size])`

Return the thread stack size used when creating new threads. The optional `size` argument specifies the stack size to be used for subsequently created threads, and must be 0 (use platform or configured

default) or a positive integer value of at least 32,768 (32 KiB). If *size* is not specified, 0 is used. If changing the thread stack size is unsupported, a *ThreadError* is raised. If the specified stack size is invalid, a *ValueError* is raised and the stack size is unmodified. 32kB is currently the minimum supported stack size value to guarantee sufficient stack space for the interpreter itself. Note that some platforms may have particular restrictions on values for the stack size, such as requiring a minimum stack size > 32kB or requiring allocation in multiples of the system memory page size - platform documentation should be referred to for more information (4kB pages are common; using multiples of 4096 for the stack size is the suggested approach in the absence of more specific information). Availability : Windows, systems with POSIX threads.

Nouveau dans la version 2.5.

exception threading.ThreadError

Raised for various threading-related errors as described below. Note that many interfaces use *RuntimeError* instead of *ThreadError*.

Detailed interfaces for the objects are documented below.

The design of this module is loosely based on Java's threading model. However, where Java makes locks and condition variables basic behavior of every object, they are separate objects in Python. Python's *Thread* class supports a subset of the behavior of Java's Thread class; currently, there are no priorities, no thread groups, and threads cannot be destroyed, stopped, suspended, resumed, or interrupted. The static methods of Java's Thread class, when implemented, are mapped to module-level functions.

All of the methods described below are executed atomically.

16.2.1 Thread Objects

This class represents an activity that is run in a separate thread of control. There are two ways to specify the activity : by passing a callable object to the constructor, or by overriding the *run()* method in a subclass. No other methods (except for the constructor) should be overridden in a subclass. In other words, *only* override the *__init__()* and *run()* methods of this class.

Once a thread object is created, its activity must be started by calling the thread's *start()* method. This invokes the *run()* method in a separate thread of control.

Once the thread's activity is started, the thread is considered "alive". It stops being alive when its *run()* method terminates – either normally, or by raising an unhandled exception. The *is_alive()* method tests whether the thread is alive.

Other threads can call a thread's *join()* method. This blocks the calling thread until the thread whose *join()* method is called is terminated.

A thread has a name. The name can be passed to the constructor, and read or changed through the *name* attribute.

A thread can be flagged as a « daemon thread ». The significance of this flag is that the entire Python program exits when only daemon threads are left. The initial value is inherited from the creating thread. The flag can be set through the *daemon* property.

Note : Daemon threads are abruptly stopped at shutdown. Their resources (such as open files, database transactions, etc.) may not be released properly. If you want your threads to stop gracefully, make them non-daemonic and use a suitable signalling mechanism such as an *Event*.

There is a « main thread » object; this corresponds to the initial thread of control in the Python program. It is not a daemon thread.

There is the possibility that « dummy thread objects » are created. These are thread objects corresponding to « alien threads », which are threads of control started outside the threading module, such as directly from

C code. Dummy thread objects have limited functionality; they are always considered alive and daemonic, and cannot be `join()`ed. They are never deleted, since it is impossible to detect the termination of alien threads.

class `threading.Thread`(*group=None*, *target=None*, *name=None*, *args=()*, *kwargs={}*)

This constructor should always be called with keyword arguments. Arguments are :

group should be `None`; reserved for future extension when a `ThreadGroup` class is implemented.

target is the callable object to be invoked by the `run()` method. Defaults to `None`, meaning nothing is called.

name is the thread name. By default, a unique name is constructed of the form « Thread-*N* » where *N* is a small decimal number.

args is the argument tuple for the target invocation. Defaults to `()`.

kwargs is a dictionary of keyword arguments for the target invocation. Defaults to `{}`.

If the subclass overrides the constructor, it must make sure to invoke the base class constructor (`Thread.__init__()`) before doing anything else to the thread.

start()

Start the thread's activity.

It must be called at most once per thread object. It arranges for the object's `run()` method to be invoked in a separate thread of control.

This method will raise a `RuntimeError` if called more than once on the same thread object.

run()

Method representing the thread's activity.

You may override this method in a subclass. The standard `run()` method invokes the callable object passed to the object's constructor as the *target* argument, if any, with sequential and keyword arguments taken from the *args* and *kwargs* arguments, respectively.

join([*timeout*])

Wait until the thread terminates. This blocks the calling thread until the thread whose `join()` method is called terminates – either normally or through an unhandled exception – or until the optional timeout occurs.

When the *timeout* argument is present and not `None`, it should be a floating point number specifying a timeout for the operation in seconds (or fractions thereof). As `join()` always returns `None`, you must call `isAlive()` after `join()` to decide whether a timeout happened – if the thread is still alive, the `join()` call timed out.

When the *timeout* argument is not present or `None`, the operation will block until the thread terminates.

A thread can be `join()`ed many times.

`join()` raises a `RuntimeError` if an attempt is made to join the current thread as that would cause a deadlock. It is also an error to `join()` a thread before it has been started and attempts to do so raises the same exception.

name

A string used for identification purposes only. It has no semantics. Multiple threads may be given the same name. The initial name is set by the constructor.

Nouveau dans la version 2.6.

getName()

setName()

Pre-2.6 API for *name*.

ident

The “thread identifier” of this thread or `None` if the thread has not been started. This is a nonzero integer. See the `thread.get_ident()` function. Thread identifiers may be recycled when a thread exits and another thread is created. The identifier is available even after the thread has exited.

Nouveau dans la version 2.6.

is_alive()

isAlive()

Return whether the thread is alive.

This method returns **True** just before the `run()` method starts until just after the `run()` method terminates. The module function `enumerate()` returns a list of all alive threads.

Modifié dans la version 2.6 : Added `is_alive()` spelling.

daemon

A boolean value indicating whether this thread is a daemon thread (**True**) or not (**False**). This must be set before `start()` is called, otherwise `RuntimeError` is raised. Its initial value is inherited from the creating thread ; the main thread is not a daemon thread and therefore all threads created in the main thread default to `daemon = False`.

The entire Python program exits when no alive non-daemon threads are left.

Nouveau dans la version 2.6.

isDaemon()**setDaemon()**

Pre-2.6 API for `daemon`.

16.2.2 Lock Objects

A primitive lock is a synchronization primitive that is not owned by a particular thread when locked. In Python, it is currently the lowest level synchronization primitive available, implemented directly by the `thread` extension module.

A primitive lock is in one of two states, « locked » or « unlocked ». It is created in the unlocked state. It has two basic methods, `acquire()` and `release()`. When the state is unlocked, `acquire()` changes the state to locked and returns immediately. When the state is locked, `acquire()` blocks until a call to `release()` in another thread changes it to unlocked, then the `acquire()` call resets it to locked and returns. The `release()` method should only be called in the locked state ; it changes the state to unlocked and returns immediately. If an attempt is made to release an unlocked lock, a `ThreadError` will be raised.

When more than one thread is blocked in `acquire()` waiting for the state to turn to unlocked, only one thread proceeds when a `release()` call resets the state to unlocked ; which one of the waiting threads proceeds is not defined, and may vary across implementations.

All methods are executed atomically.

Lock.acquire(*[blocking]*)

Acquire a lock, blocking or non-blocking.

When invoked with the *blocking* argument set to **True** (the default), block until the lock is unlocked, then set it to locked and return **True**.

When invoked with the *blocking* argument set to **False**, do not block. If a call with *blocking* set to **True** would block, return **False** immediately ; otherwise, set the lock to locked and return **True**.

Lock.release()

Libère un verrou.

When the lock is locked, reset it to unlocked, and return. If any other threads are blocked waiting for the lock to become unlocked, allow exactly one of them to proceed.

When invoked on an unlocked lock, a `ThreadError` is raised.

Il n'y a pas de valeur de retour.

16.2.3 RLock Objects

A reentrant lock is a synchronization primitive that may be acquired multiple times by the same thread. Internally, it uses the concepts of « owning thread » and « recursion level » in addition to the locked/unlocked state used by primitive locks. In the locked state, some thread owns the lock ; in the unlocked state, no thread owns it.

To lock the lock, a thread calls its `acquire()` method ; this returns once the thread owns the lock. To unlock the lock, a thread calls its `release()` method. `acquire()/release()` call pairs may be nested ; only the final `release()` (the `release()` of the outermost pair) resets the lock to unlocked and allows another thread blocked in `acquire()` to proceed.

`RLock.acquire([blocking=1])`

Acquire a lock, blocking or non-blocking.

When invoked without arguments : if this thread already owns the lock, increment the recursion level by one, and return immediately. Otherwise, if another thread owns the lock, block until the lock is unlocked. Once the lock is unlocked (not owned by any thread), then grab ownership, set the recursion level to one, and return. If more than one thread is blocked waiting until the lock is unlocked, only one at a time will be able to grab ownership of the lock. There is no return value in this case.

When invoked with the *blocking* argument set to true, do the same thing as when called without arguments, and return true.

When invoked with the *blocking* argument set to false, do not block. If a call without an argument would block, return false immediately ; otherwise, do the same thing as when called without arguments, and return true.

`RLock.release()`

Release a lock, decrementing the recursion level. If after the decrement it is zero, reset the lock to unlocked (not owned by any thread), and if any other threads are blocked waiting for the lock to become unlocked, allow exactly one of them to proceed. If after the decrement the recursion level is still nonzero, the lock remains locked and owned by the calling thread.

Only call this method when the calling thread owns the lock. A *RuntimeError* is raised if this method is called when the lock is unlocked.

Il n'y a pas de valeur de retour.

16.2.4 Condition Objects

A condition variable is always associated with some kind of lock ; this can be passed in or one will be created by default. (Passing one in is useful when several condition variables must share the same lock.)

A condition variable has `acquire()` and `release()` methods that call the corresponding methods of the associated lock. It also has a `wait()` method, and `notify()` and `notifyAll()` methods. These three must only be called when the calling thread has acquired the lock, otherwise a *RuntimeError* is raised.

The `wait()` method releases the lock, and then blocks until it is awakened by a `notify()` or `notifyAll()` call for the same condition variable in another thread. Once awakened, it re-acquires the lock and returns. It is also possible to specify a timeout.

The `notify()` method wakes up one of the threads waiting for the condition variable, if any are waiting. The `notifyAll()` method wakes up all threads waiting for the condition variable.

Note : the `notify()` and `notifyAll()` methods don't release the lock ; this means that the thread or threads awakened will not return from their `wait()` call immediately, but only when the thread that called `notify()` or `notifyAll()` finally relinquishes ownership of the lock.

Tip : the typical programming style using condition variables uses the lock to synchronize access to some shared state ; threads that are interested in a particular change of state call `wait()` repeatedly until they see the desired state, while threads that modify the state call `notify()` or `notifyAll()` when they change the state in such a way that it could possibly be a desired state for one of the waiters. For example, the following code is a generic producer-consumer situation with unlimited buffer capacity :

```
# Consume one item
cv.acquire()
while not an_item_is_available():
```

(suite sur la page suivante)

```

    cv.wait()
get_an_available_item()
cv.release()

# Produce one item
cv.acquire()
make_an_item_available()
cv.notify()
cv.release()

```

To choose between `notify()` and `notifyAll()`, consider whether one state change can be interesting for only one or several waiting threads. E.g. in a typical producer-consumer situation, adding one item to the buffer only needs to wake up one consumer thread.

class `threading.Condition([lock])`

If the *lock* argument is given and not `None`, it must be a *Lock* or *RLock* object, and it is used as the underlying lock. Otherwise, a new *RLock* object is created and used as the underlying lock.

acquire(**args*)

Acquire the underlying lock. This method calls the corresponding method on the underlying lock; the return value is whatever that method returns.

release()

Release the underlying lock. This method calls the corresponding method on the underlying lock; there is no return value.

wait([*timeout*])

Wait until notified or until a timeout occurs. If the calling thread has not acquired the lock when this method is called, a *RuntimeError* is raised.

This method releases the underlying lock, and then blocks until it is awakened by a *notify()* or *notifyAll()* call for the same condition variable in another thread, or until the optional timeout occurs. Once awakened or timed out, it re-acquires the lock and returns.

When the *timeout* argument is present and not `None`, it should be a floating point number specifying a timeout for the operation in seconds (or fractions thereof).

When the underlying lock is an *RLock*, it is not released using its *release()* method, since this may not actually unlock the lock when it was acquired multiple times recursively. Instead, an internal interface of the *RLock* class is used, which really unlocks it even when it has been recursively acquired several times. Another internal interface is then used to restore the recursion level when the lock is reacquired.

notify(*n=1*)

By default, wake up one thread waiting on this condition, if any. If the calling thread has not acquired the lock when this method is called, a *RuntimeError* is raised.

This method wakes up at most *n* of the threads waiting for the condition variable; it is a no-op if no threads are waiting.

The current implementation wakes up exactly *n* threads, if at least *n* threads are waiting. However, it's not safe to rely on this behavior. A future, optimized implementation may occasionally wake up more than *n* threads.

Note : an awakened thread does not actually return from its *wait()* call until it can reacquire the lock. Since *notify()* does not release the lock, its caller should.

notify_all()

notifyAll()

Wake up all threads waiting on this condition. This method acts like *notify()*, but wakes up all waiting threads instead of one. If the calling thread has not acquired the lock when this method is called, a *RuntimeError* is raised.

Modifié dans la version 2.6 : Added *notify_all()* spelling.

16.2.5 Semaphore Objects

This is one of the oldest synchronization primitives in the history of computer science, invented by the early Dutch computer scientist Edsger W. Dijkstra (he used `P()` and `V()` instead of `acquire()` and `release()`).

A semaphore manages an internal counter which is decremented by each `acquire()` call and incremented by each `release()` call. The counter can never go below zero; when `acquire()` finds that it is zero, it blocks, waiting until some other thread calls `release()`.

class `threading.Semaphore`(`[value]`)

The optional argument gives the initial *value* for the internal counter; it defaults to 1. If the *value* given is less than 0, *ValueError* is raised.

acquire(`[blocking]`)

Acquire a semaphore.

When invoked without arguments : if the internal counter is larger than zero on entry, decrement it by one and return immediately. If it is zero on entry, block, waiting until some other thread has called *release()* to make it larger than zero. This is done with proper interlocking so that if multiple *acquire()* calls are blocked, *release()* will wake exactly one of them up. The implementation may pick one at random, so the order in which blocked threads are awakened should not be relied on. There is no return value in this case.

When invoked with *blocking* set to true, do the same thing as when called without arguments, and return true.

When invoked with *blocking* set to false, do not block. If a call without an argument would block, return false immediately; otherwise, do the same thing as when called without arguments, and return true.

release()

Release a semaphore, incrementing the internal counter by one. When it was zero on entry and another thread is waiting for it to become larger than zero again, wake up that thread.

Semaphore Example

Semaphores are often used to guard resources with limited capacity, for example, a database server. In any situation where the size of the resource is fixed, you should use a bounded semaphore. Before spawning any worker threads, your main thread would initialize the semaphore :

```
maxconnections = 5
...
pool_sema = BoundedSemaphore(value=maxconnections)
```

Once spawned, worker threads call the semaphore's `acquire` and `release` methods when they need to connect to the server :

```
pool_sema.acquire()
conn = connectdb()
... use connection ...
conn.close()
pool_sema.release()
```

The use of a bounded semaphore reduces the chance that a programming error which causes the semaphore to be released more than it's acquired will go undetected.

16.2.6 Event Objects

This is one of the simplest mechanisms for communication between threads : one thread signals an event and other threads wait for it.

An event object manages an internal flag that can be set to true with the `set()` method and reset to false with the `clear()` method. The `wait()` method blocks until the flag is true.

class threading.Event

The internal flag is initially false.

`is_set()`

`isSet()`

Return true if and only if the internal flag is true.

Modifié dans la version 2.6 : Added `is_set()` spelling.

`set()`

Set the internal flag to true. All threads waiting for it to become true are awakened. Threads that call `wait()` once the flag is true will not block at all.

`clear()`

Reset the internal flag to false. Subsequently, threads calling `wait()` will block until `set()` is called to set the internal flag to true again.

`wait([timeout])`

Block until the internal flag is true. If the internal flag is true on entry, return immediately. Otherwise, block until another thread calls `set()` to set the flag to true, or until the optional timeout occurs.

When the timeout argument is present and not `None`, it should be a floating point number specifying a timeout for the operation in seconds (or fractions thereof).

This method returns the internal flag on exit, so it will always return `True` except if a timeout is given and the operation times out.

Modifié dans la version 2.7 : Previously, the method always returned `None`.

16.2.7 Timer Objects

This class represents an action that should be run only after a certain amount of time has passed — a timer. `Timer` is a subclass of `Thread` and as such also functions as an example of creating custom threads.

Timers are started, as with threads, by calling their `start()` method. The timer can be stopped (before its action has begun) by calling the `cancel()` method. The interval the timer will wait before executing its action may not be exactly the same as the interval specified by the user.

Par exemple :

```
def hello():
    print "hello, world"

t = Timer(30.0, hello)
t.start()  # after 30 seconds, "hello, world" will be printed
```

class threading.Timer(interval, function, args=[], kwargs={})

Create a timer that will run *function* with arguments *args* and keyword arguments *kwargs*, after *interval* seconds have passed.

`cancel()`

Stop the timer, and cancel the execution of the timer's action. This will only work if the timer is still in its waiting stage.

16.2.8 Using locks, conditions, and semaphores in the with statement

All of the objects provided by this module that have `acquire()` and `release()` methods can be used as context managers for a `with` statement. The `acquire()` method will be called when the block is entered, and `release()` will be called when the block is exited.

Currently, *Lock*, *RLock*, *Condition*, *Semaphore*, and *BoundedSemaphore* objects may be used as `with` statement context managers. For example :

```
import threading

some_rlock = threading.RLock()

with some_rlock:
    print "some_rlock is locked while this executes"
```

16.2.9 Importing in threaded code

While the import machinery is thread-safe, there are two key restrictions on threaded imports due to inherent limitations in the way that thread-safety is provided :

- Firstly, other than in the main module, an import should not have the side effect of spawning a new thread and then waiting for that thread in any way. Failing to abide by this restriction can lead to a deadlock if the spawned thread directly or indirectly attempts to import a module.
- Secondly, all import attempts must be completed before the interpreter starts shutting itself down. This can be most easily achieved by only performing imports from non-daemon threads created through the threading module. Daemon threads and threads created directly with the thread module will require some other form of synchronization to ensure they do not attempt imports after system shutdown has commenced. Failure to abide by this restriction will lead to intermittent exceptions and crashes during interpreter shutdown (as the late imports attempt to access machinery which is no longer in a valid state).

16.3 thread — Multiple threads of control

Note : The *thread* module has been renamed to *_thread* in Python 3. The *2to3* tool will automatically adapt imports when converting your sources to Python 3 ; however, you should consider using the high-level *threading* module instead.

This module provides low-level primitives for working with multiple threads (also called *light-weight processes* or *tasks*) — multiple threads of control sharing their global data space. For synchronization, simple locks (also called *mutexes* or *binary semaphores*) are provided. The *threading* module provides an easier to use and higher-level threading API built on top of this module.

The module is optional. It is supported on Windows, Linux, SGI IRIX, Solaris 2.x, as well as on systems that have a POSIX thread (a.k.a. « pthread ») implementation. For systems lacking the *thread* module, the *dummy_thread* module is available. It duplicates this module's interface and can be used as a drop-in replacement.

It defines the following constant and functions :

exception *thread.error*

Levée lors d'erreur spécifique aux fils d'exécution.

thread.LockType

C'est le type des verrous.

thread.start_new_thread(*function*, *args*[, *kwargs*])

Start a new thread and return its identifier. The thread executes the function *function* with the argument list *args* (which must be a tuple). The optional *kwargs* argument specifies a dictionary of keyword arguments. 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).

`thread.interrupt_main()`

Raise a `KeyboardInterrupt` exception in the main thread. A subthread can use this function to interrupt the main thread.

Nouveau dans la version 2.3.

`thread.exit()`

Raise the `SystemExit` exception. When not caught, this will cause the thread to exit silently.

`thread.allocate_lock()`

Renvoie un nouvel objet *lock*. Les méthodes de l'objet *lock* sont décrites ci-après. Le *lock* est initialement déverrouillé.

`thread.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.

`thread.stack_size([size])`

Return the thread stack size used when creating new threads. The optional *size* argument specifies the stack size to be used for subsequently created threads, and must be 0 (use platform or configured default) or a positive integer value of at least 32,768 (32kB). If *size* is not specified, 0 is used. If changing the thread stack size is unsupported, the `error` exception is raised. If the specified stack size is invalid, a `ValueError` is raised and the stack size is unmodified. 32kB is currently the minimum supported stack size value to guarantee sufficient stack space for the interpreter itself. Note that some platforms may have particular restrictions on values for the stack size, such as requiring a minimum stack size > 32kB or requiring allocation in multiples of the system memory page size - platform documentation should be referred to for more information (4kB pages are common; using multiples of 4096 for the stack size is the suggested approach in the absence of more specific information). Availability : Windows, systems with POSIX threads.

Nouveau dans la version 2.5.

Les verrous (*lock objects*) ont les méthodes suivantes :

`lock.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). 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. The return value is `True` if the lock is acquired successfully, `False` if not.

`lock.release()`

Releases the lock. The lock must have been acquired earlier, but not necessarily by the same thread.

`lock.locked()`

Return the status of the lock : `True` if it has been acquired by some thread, `False` if not.

In addition to these methods, lock objects can also be used via the `with` statement, e.g. :

```
import thread

a_lock = thread.allocate_lock()

with a_lock:
    print "a_lock is locked while this executes"
```

Avertissements :

- 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()*.
- 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 does not do any of its usual cleanup (except that *try ... finally* clauses are honored), and the standard I/O files are not flushed.

16.4 dummy_threading — Module de substitution au module threading

Code source : [Lib/dummy_threading.py](#)

This module provides a duplicate interface to the *threading* module. It is meant to be imported when the *thread* module is not provided on a platform.

Utilisation suggérée :

```
try:
    import threading as _threading
except ImportError:
    import dummy_threading as _threading
```

Be careful to not use this module where deadlock might occur from a thread being created that blocks waiting for another thread to be created. This often occurs with blocking I/O.

16.5 dummy_thread — Drop-in replacement for the thread module

Note : The *dummy_thread* module has been renamed to *_dummy_thread* in Python 3. The *2to3* tool will automatically adapt imports when converting your sources to Python 3; however, you should consider using the high-level *dummy_threading* module instead.

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

This module provides a duplicate interface to the *thread* module. It is meant to be imported when the *thread* module is not provided on a platform.

Utilisation suggérée :

```
try:
    import thread as _thread
except ImportError:
    import dummy_thread as _thread
```

Be careful to not use this module where deadlock might occur from a thread being created that blocks waiting for another thread to be created. This often occurs with blocking I/O.

16.6 multiprocessing — Process-based « threading » interface

Nouveau dans la version 2.6.

16.6.1 Introduction

multiprocessing is a package that supports spawning processes using an API similar to the *threading* module. The *multiprocessing* package offers both local and remote concurrency, effectively side-stepping the *Global Interpreter Lock* by using subprocesses instead of threads. Due to this, the *multiprocessing* module allows the programmer to fully leverage multiple processors on a given machine. It runs on both Unix and Windows.

The *multiprocessing* module also introduces APIs which do not have analogs in the *threading* module. A prime example of this is the *Pool* object which offers a convenient means of parallelizing the execution of a function across multiple input values, distributing the input data across processes (data parallelism). The following example demonstrates the common practice of defining such functions in a module so that child processes can successfully import that module. This basic example of data parallelism using *Pool*,

```
from multiprocessing import Pool

def f(x):
    return x*x

if __name__ == '__main__':
    p = Pool(5)
    print(p.map(f, [1, 2, 3]))
```

will print to standard output

```
[1, 4, 9]
```

The Process class

In *multiprocessing*, processes are spawned by creating a *Process* object and then calling its *start()* method. *Process* follows the API of *threading.Thread*. A trivial example of a multiprocess program is

```
from multiprocessing import Process

def f(name):
    print 'hello', name

if __name__ == '__main__':
    p = Process(target=f, args=('bob',))
    p.start()
    p.join()
```

To show the individual process IDs involved, here is an expanded example :

```
from multiprocessing import Process
import os

def info(title):
    print title
    print 'module name:', __name__
```

(suite sur la page suivante)

(suite de la page précédente)

```

if hasattr(os, 'getppid'): # only available on Unix
    print 'parent process:', os.getppid()
print 'process id:', os.getpid()

def f(name):
    info('function f')
    print 'hello', name

if __name__ == '__main__':
    info('main line')
    p = Process(target=f, args=('bob',))
    p.start()
    p.join()

```

For an explanation of why (on Windows) the `if __name__ == '__main__':` part is necessary, see *Programming guidelines*.

Exchanging objects between processes

multiprocessing supports two types of communication channel between processes :

Queues

The *Queue* class is a near clone of *Queue.Queue*. For example :

```

from multiprocessing import Process, Queue

def f(q):
    q.put([42, None, 'hello'])

if __name__ == '__main__':
    q = Queue()
    p = Process(target=f, args=(q,))
    p.start()
    print q.get()    # prints "[42, None, 'hello']"
    p.join()

```

Queues are thread and process safe.

Pipes

The *Pipe()* function returns a pair of connection objects connected by a pipe which by default is duplex (two-way). For example :

```

from multiprocessing import Process, Pipe

def f(conn):
    conn.send([42, None, 'hello'])
    conn.close()

if __name__ == '__main__':
    parent_conn, child_conn = Pipe()
    p = Process(target=f, args=(child_conn,))
    p.start()
    print parent_conn.recv()    # prints "[42, None, 'hello']"
    p.join()

```

The two connection objects returned by `Pipe()` represent the two ends of the pipe. Each connection object has `send()` and `recv()` methods (among others). Note that data in a pipe may become corrupted if two processes (or threads) try to read from or write to the *same* end of the pipe at the same time. Of course there is no risk of corruption from processes using different ends of the pipe at the same time.

Synchronization between processes

`multiprocessing` contains equivalents of all the synchronization primitives from `threading`. For instance one can use a lock to ensure that only one process prints to standard output at a time :

```
from multiprocessing import Process, Lock

def f(l, i):
    l.acquire()
    print 'hello world', i
    l.release()

if __name__ == '__main__':
    lock = Lock()

    for num in range(10):
        Process(target=f, args=(lock, num)).start()
```

Without using the lock output from the different processes is liable to get all mixed up.

Sharing state between processes

As mentioned above, when doing concurrent programming it is usually best to avoid using shared state as far as possible. This is particularly true when using multiple processes.

However, if you really do need to use some shared data then `multiprocessing` provides a couple of ways of doing so.

Shared memory

Data can be stored in a shared memory map using `Value` or `Array`. For example, the following code

```
from multiprocessing import Process, Value, Array

def f(n, a):
    n.value = 3.1415927
    for i in range(len(a)):
        a[i] = -a[i]

if __name__ == '__main__':
    num = Value('d', 0.0)
    arr = Array('i', range(10))

    p = Process(target=f, args=(num, arr))
    p.start()
    p.join()

    print num.value
    print arr[:]
```

will print

```
3.1415927
[0, -1, -2, -3, -4, -5, -6, -7, -8, -9]
```

The 'd' and 'i' arguments used when creating `num` and `arr` are typecodes of the kind used by the `array` module : 'd' indicates a double precision float and 'i' indicates a signed integer. These shared objects will be process and thread-safe.

For more flexibility in using shared memory one can use the `multiprocessing.sharedctypes` module which supports the creation of arbitrary ctypes objects allocated from shared memory.

Server process

A manager object returned by `Manager()` controls a server process which holds Python objects and allows other processes to manipulate them using proxies.

A manager returned by `Manager()` will support types `list`, `dict`, `Namespace`, `Lock`, `RLock`, `Semaphore`, `BoundedSemaphore`, `Condition`, `Event`, `Queue`, `Value` and `Array`. For example,

```
from multiprocessing import Process, Manager

def f(d, l):
    d[1] = '1'
    d['2'] = 2
    d[0.25] = None
    l.reverse()

if __name__ == '__main__':
    manager = Manager()

    d = manager.dict()
    l = manager.list(range(10))

    p = Process(target=f, args=(d, l))
    p.start()
    p.join()

    print d
    print l
```

will print

```
{0.25: None, 1: '1', '2': 2}
[9, 8, 7, 6, 5, 4, 3, 2, 1, 0]
```

Server process managers are more flexible than using shared memory objects because they can be made to support arbitrary object types. Also, a single manager can be shared by processes on different computers over a network. They are, however, slower than using shared memory.

Using a pool of workers

The `Pool` class represents a pool of worker processes. It has methods which allows tasks to be offloaded to the worker processes in a few different ways.

Par exemple :

```
from multiprocessing import Pool, TimeoutError
import time
```

(suite sur la page suivante)

(suite de la page précédente)

```

import os

def f(x):
    return x*x

if __name__ == '__main__':
    pool = Pool(processes=4)           # start 4 worker processes

    # print "[0, 1, 4,..., 81]"
    print pool.map(f, range(10))

    # print same numbers in arbitrary order
    for i in pool.imap_unordered(f, range(10)):
        print i

    # evaluate "f(20)" asynchronously
    res = pool.apply_async(f, (20,))   # runs in *only* one process
    print res.get(timeout=1)           # prints "400"

    # evaluate "os.getpid()" asynchronously
    res = pool.apply_async(os.getpid, ()) # runs in *only* one process
    print res.get(timeout=1)           # prints the PID of that process

    # launching multiple evaluations asynchronously *may* use more processes
    multiple_results = [pool.apply_async(os.getpid, ()) for i in range(4)]
    print [res.get(timeout=1) for res in multiple_results]

    # make a single worker sleep for 10 secs
    res = pool.apply_async(time.sleep, (10,))
    try:
        print res.get(timeout=1)
    except TimeoutError:
        print "We lacked patience and got a multiprocessing.TimeoutError"

```

Note that the methods of a pool should only ever be used by the process which created it.

Note : Functionality within this package requires that the `__main__` module be importable by the children. This is covered in *Programming guidelines* however it is worth pointing out here. This means that some examples, such as the Pool examples will not work in the interactive interpreter. For example :

```

>>> from multiprocessing import Pool
>>> p = Pool(5)
>>> def f(x):
...     return x*x
...
>>> p.map(f, [1,2,3])
Process PoolWorker-1:
Process PoolWorker-2:
Process PoolWorker-3:
Traceback (most recent call last):
AttributeError: 'module' object has no attribute 'f'

```

(suite sur la page suivante)

(suite de la page précédente)

```

AttributeError: 'module' object has no attribute 'f'
AttributeError: 'module' object has no attribute 'f'

```

(If you try this it will actually output three full tracebacks interleaved in a semi-random fashion, and then you may have to stop the master process somehow.)

16.6.2 Reference

The *multiprocessing* package mostly replicates the API of the *threading* module.

Process and exceptions

class multiprocessing.Process(*group=None*, *target=None*, *name=None*, *args=()*, *kwargs={}*)

Process objects represent activity that is run in a separate process. The *Process* class has equivalents of all the methods of *threading.Thread*.

The constructor should always be called with keyword arguments. *group* should always be *None*; it exists solely for compatibility with *threading.Thread*. *target* is the callable object to be invoked by the *run()* method. It defaults to *None*, meaning nothing is called. *name* is the process name. By default, a unique name is constructed of the form “Process- $N_1:N_2:\dots:N_k$ ” where N_1, N_2, \dots, N_k is a sequence of integers whose length is determined by the *generation* of the process. *args* is the argument tuple for the target invocation. *kwargs* is a dictionary of keyword arguments for the target invocation. By default, no arguments are passed to *target*.

If a subclass overrides the constructor, it must make sure it invokes the base class constructor (*Process.__init__()*) before doing anything else to the process.

run()

Method representing the process’s activity.

You may override this method in a subclass. The standard *run()* method invokes the callable object passed to the object’s constructor as the target argument, if any, with sequential and keyword arguments taken from the *args* and *kwargs* arguments, respectively.

start()

Start the process’s activity.

This must be called at most once per process object. It arranges for the object’s *run()* method to be invoked in a separate process.

join([*timeout*])

Block the calling thread until the process whose *join()* method is called terminates or until the optional timeout occurs.

If *timeout* is *None* then there is no timeout.

A process can be joined many times.

A process cannot join itself because this would cause a deadlock. It is an error to attempt to join a process before it has been started.

name

The process’s name.

The name is a string used for identification purposes only. It has no semantics. Multiple processes may be given the same name. The initial name is set by the constructor.

is_alive()

Return whether the process is alive.

Roughly, a process object is alive from the moment the *start()* method returns until the child process terminates.

daemon

The process’s daemon flag, a Boolean value. This must be set before *start()* is called.

The initial value is inherited from the creating process.

When a process exits, it attempts to terminate all of its daemon child processes.

Note that a daemon process is not allowed to create child processes. Otherwise a daemon process would leave its children orphaned if it gets terminated when its parent process exits. Additionally, these are **not** Unix daemons or services, they are normal processes that will be terminated (and not joined) if non-daemon processes have exited.

In addition to the `threading.Thread` API, `Process` objects also support the following attributes and methods :

pid

Return the process ID. Before the process is spawned, this will be `None`.

exitcode

The child's exit code. This will be `None` if the process has not yet terminated. A negative value `-N` indicates that the child was terminated by signal `N`.

authkey

The process's authentication key (a byte string).

When `multiprocessing` is initialized the main process is assigned a random string using `os.urandom()`.

When a `Process` object is created, it will inherit the authentication key of its parent process, although this may be changed by setting `authkey` to another byte string.

See *Authentication keys*.

terminate()

Terminate the process. On Unix this is done using the `SIGTERM` signal; on Windows `TerminateProcess()` is used. Note that exit handlers and finally clauses, etc., will not be executed.

Note that descendant processes of the process will *not* be terminated – they will simply become orphaned.

Avertissement : If this method is used when the associated process is using a pipe or queue then the pipe or queue is liable to become corrupted and may become unusable by other process. Similarly, if the process has acquired a lock or semaphore etc. then terminating it is liable to cause other processes to deadlock.

Note that the `start()`, `join()`, `is_alive()`, `terminate()` and `exitcode` methods should only be called by the process that created the process object.

Example usage of some of the methods of `Process` :

```
>>> import multiprocessing, time, signal
>>> p = multiprocessing.Process(target=time.sleep, args=(1000,))
>>> print p, p.is_alive()
<Process(Process-1, initial)> False
>>> p.start()
>>> print p, p.is_alive()
<Process(Process-1, started)> True
>>> p.terminate()
>>> time.sleep(0.1)
>>> print p, p.is_alive()
<Process(Process-1, stopped[SIGTERM])> False
>>> p.exitcode == -signal.SIGTERM
True
```

exception multiprocessing.BufferTooShort

Exception raised by `Connection.recv_bytes_into()` when the supplied buffer object is too small for the message read.

If `e` is an instance of `BufferTooShort` then `e.args[0]` will give the message as a byte string.

Pipes and Queues

When using multiple processes, one generally uses message passing for communication between processes and avoids having to use any synchronization primitives like locks.

For passing messages one can use `Pipe()` (for a connection between two processes) or a queue (which allows multiple producers and consumers).

The `Queue`, `multiprocessing.queues.SimpleQueue` and `JoinableQueue` types are multi-producer, multi-consumer FIFO queues modelled on the `Queue.Queue` class in the standard library. They differ in that `Queue` lacks the `task_done()` and `join()` methods introduced into Python 2.5's `Queue.Queue` class.

If you use `JoinableQueue` then you **must** call `JoinableQueue.task_done()` for each task removed from the queue or else the semaphore used to count the number of unfinished tasks may eventually overflow, raising an exception.

Note that one can also create a shared queue by using a manager object – see *Managers*.

Note : `multiprocessing` uses the usual `Queue.Empty` and `Queue.Full` exceptions to signal a timeout. They are not available in the `multiprocessing` namespace so you need to import them from `Queue`.

Note : When an object is put on a queue, the object is pickled and a background thread later flushes the pickled data to an underlying pipe. This has some consequences which are a little surprising, but should not cause any practical difficulties – if they really bother you then you can instead use a queue created with a *manager*.

- (1) After putting an object on an empty queue there may be an infinitesimal delay before the queue's `empty()` method returns `False` and `get_nowait()` can return without raising `Queue.Empty`.
 - (2) If multiple processes are enqueueing objects, it is possible for the objects to be received at the other end out-of-order. However, objects enqueueued by the same process will always be in the expected order with respect to each other.
-

Avertissement : If a process is killed using `Process.terminate()` or `os.kill()` while it is trying to use a `Queue`, then the data in the queue is likely to become corrupted. This may cause any other process to get an exception when it tries to use the queue later on.

Avertissement : As mentioned above, if a child process has put items on a queue (and it has not used `JoinableQueue.cancel_join_thread()`), then that process will not terminate until all buffered items have been flushed to the pipe.

This means that if you try joining that process you may get a deadlock unless you are sure that all items which have been put on the queue have been consumed. Similarly, if the child process is non-daemonic then the parent process may hang on exit when it tries to join all its non-daemonic children.

Note that a queue created using a manager does not have this issue. See *Programming guidelines*.

For an example of the usage of queues for interprocess communication see *Examples*.

```
multiprocessing.Pipe([duplex])
```

Returns a pair (`conn1`, `conn2`) of `Connection` objects representing the ends of a pipe.

If *duplex* is **True** (the default) then the pipe is bidirectional. If *duplex* is **False** then the pipe is unidirectional : *conn1* can only be used for receiving messages and *conn2* can only be used for sending messages.

class multiprocessing.Queue([*maxsize*])

Returns a process shared queue implemented using a pipe and a few locks/semaphores. When a process first puts an item on the queue a feeder thread is started which transfers objects from a buffer into the pipe.

The usual *Queue.Empty* and *Queue.Full* exceptions from the standard library's *Queue* module are raised to signal timeouts.

Queue implements all the methods of *Queue.Queue* except for *task_done()* and *join()*.

qsize()

Return the approximate size of the queue. Because of multithreading/multiprocessing semantics, this number is not reliable.

Note that this may raise *NotImplementedError* on Unix platforms like Mac OS X where *sem_getvalue()* is not implemented.

empty()

Return **True** if the queue is empty, **False** otherwise. Because of multithreading/multiprocessing semantics, this is not reliable.

full()

Return **True** if the queue is full, **False** otherwise. Because of multithreading/multiprocessing semantics, this is not reliable.

put(*obj*[, *block*[, *timeout*]])

Put *obj* into the queue. If the optional argument *block* is **True** (the default) and *timeout* is **None** (the default), block if necessary until a free slot is available. If *timeout* is a positive number, it blocks at most *timeout* seconds and raises the *Queue.Full* exception if no free slot was available within that time. Otherwise (*block* is **False**), put an item on the queue if a free slot is immediately available, else raise the *Queue.Full* exception (*timeout* is ignored in that case).

put_nowait(*obj*)

Equivalent to *put*(*obj*, **False**).

get([*block*[, *timeout*]])

Remove and return an item from the queue. If optional args *block* is **True** (the default) and *timeout* is **None** (the default), block if necessary until an item is available. If *timeout* is a positive number, it blocks at most *timeout* seconds and raises the *Queue.Empty* exception if no item was available within that time. Otherwise (*block* is **False**), return an item if one is immediately available, else raise the *Queue.Empty* exception (*timeout* is ignored in that case).

get_nowait()

Équivalent à *get*(**False**).

Queue has a few additional methods not found in *Queue.Queue*. These methods are usually unnecessary for most code :

close()

Indicate that no more data will be put on this queue by the current process. The background thread will quit once it has flushed all buffered data to the pipe. This is called automatically when the queue is garbage collected.

join_thread()

Join the background thread. This can only be used after *close()* has been called. It blocks until the background thread exits, ensuring that all data in the buffer has been flushed to the pipe.

By default if a process is not the creator of the queue then on exit it will attempt to join the queue's background thread. The process can call *cancel_join_thread()* to make *join_thread()* do nothing.

cancel_join_thread()

Prevent *join_thread()* from blocking. In particular, this prevents the background thread from being joined automatically when the process exits – see *join_thread()*.

A better name for this method might be `allow_exit_without_flush()`. It is likely to cause enqueued data to be lost, and you almost certainly will not need to use it. It is really only there if you need the current process to exit immediately without waiting to flush enqueued data to the underlying pipe, and you don't care about lost data.

Note : This class's functionality requires a functioning shared semaphore implementation on the host operating system. Without one, the functionality in this class will be disabled, and attempts to instantiate a *Queue* will result in an *ImportError*. See [bpo-3770](#) for additional information. The same holds true for any of the specialized queue types listed below.

`class multiprocessing.queues.SimpleQueue`

It is a simplified *Queue* type, very close to a locked *Pipe*.

`empty()`

Return `True` if the queue is empty, `False` otherwise.

`get()`

Supprime et donne un élément de la queue.

`put(item)`

Put *item* into the queue.

`class multiprocessing.JoinableQueue([maxsize])`

JoinableQueue, a *Queue* subclass, is a queue which additionally has *task_done()* and *join()* methods.

`task_done()`

Indicate that a formerly enqueued task is complete. Used by queue consumer threads. For each *get()* used to fetch a task, a subsequent call to *task_done()* tells the queue that the processing on the task is complete.

If a *join()* is currently blocking, it will resume when all items have been processed (meaning that a *task_done()* call was received for every item that had been *put()* into the queue).

Lève une exception *ValueError* si appelée plus de fois qu'il y avait d'éléments dans la file.

`join()`

Block until all items in the queue have been gotten and processed.

The count of unfinished tasks goes up whenever an item is added to the queue. The count goes down whenever a consumer thread calls *task_done()* to indicate that the item was retrieved and all work on it is complete. When the count of unfinished tasks drops to zero, *join()* unblocks.

Miscellaneous

`multiprocessing.active_children()`

Return list of all live children of the current process.

Calling this has the side effect of « joining » any processes which have already finished.

`multiprocessing.cpu_count()`

Return the number of CPUs in the system. May raise *NotImplementedError*.

`multiprocessing.current_process()`

Return the *Process* object corresponding to the current process.

An analogue of *threading.current_thread()*.

`multiprocessing.freeze_support()`

Add support for when a program which uses *multiprocessing* has been frozen to produce a Windows executable. (Has been tested with *py2exe*, *PyInstaller* and *cx_Freeze*.)

One needs to call this function straight after the `if __name__ == '__main__':` line of the main module. For example :

```
from multiprocessing import Process, freeze_support

def f():
    print 'hello world!'

if __name__ == '__main__':
    freeze_support()
    Process(target=f).start()
```

If the `freeze_support()` line is omitted then trying to run the frozen executable will raise *RuntimeError*.

Calling `freeze_support()` has no effect when invoked on any operating system other than Windows. In addition, if the module is being run normally by the Python interpreter on Windows (the program has not been frozen), then `freeze_support()` has no effect.

`multiprocessing.set_executable()`

Sets the path of the Python interpreter to use when starting a child process. (By default `sys.executable` is used). Embedders will probably need to do some thing like

```
set_executable(os.path.join(sys.exec_prefix, 'pythonw.exe'))
```

before they can create child processes. (Windows only)

Note : *multiprocessing* contains no analogues of *threading.active_count()*, *threading.enumerate()*, *threading.settrace()*, *threading.setprofile()*, *threading.Timer*, or *threading.local*.

Connection Objects

Connection objects allow the sending and receiving of picklable objects or strings. They can be thought of as message oriented connected sockets.

Connection objects are usually created using *Pipe* – see also *Listeners and Clients*.

class Connection

send(obj)

Send an object to the other end of the connection which should be read using *recv()*.

The object must be picklable. Very large pickles (approximately 32 MB+, though it depends on the OS) may raise a *ValueError* exception.

recv()

Return an object sent from the other end of the connection using *send()*. Blocks until there is something to receive. Raises *EOFError* if there is nothing left to receive and the other end was closed.

fileno()

Return the file descriptor or handle used by the connection.

close()

Close the connection.

This is called automatically when the connection is garbage collected.

poll([timeout])

Return whether there is any data available to be read.

If *timeout* is not specified then it will return immediately. If *timeout* is a number then this specifies the maximum time in seconds to block. If *timeout* is *None* then an infinite timeout is used.

`send_bytes(buffer[, offset[, size]])`

Send byte data from an object supporting the buffer interface as a complete message.

If *offset* is given then data is read from that position in *buffer*. If *size* is given then that many bytes will be read from buffer. Very large buffers (approximately 32 MB+, though it depends on the OS) may raise a *ValueError* exception

`recv_bytes([maxlength])`

Return a complete message of byte data sent from the other end of the connection as a string. Blocks until there is something to receive. Raises *EOFError* if there is nothing left to receive and the other end has closed.

If *maxlength* is specified and the message is longer than *maxlength* then *IOError* is raised and the connection will no longer be readable.

`recv_bytes_into(buffer[, offset])`

Read into *buffer* a complete message of byte data sent from the other end of the connection and return the number of bytes in the message. Blocks until there is something to receive. Raises *EOFError* if there is nothing left to receive and the other end was closed.

buffer must be an object satisfying the writable buffer interface. If *offset* is given then the message will be written into the buffer from that position. Offset must be a non-negative integer less than the length of *buffer* (in bytes).

If the buffer is too short then a *BufferTooShort* exception is raised and the complete message is available as `e.args[0]` where *e* is the exception instance.

Par exemple :

```
>>> from multiprocessing import Pipe
>>> a, b = Pipe()
>>> a.send([1, 'hello', None])
>>> b.recv()
[1, 'hello', None]
>>> b.send_bytes('thank you')
>>> a.recv_bytes()
'thank you'
>>> import array
>>> arr1 = array.array('i', range(5))
>>> arr2 = array.array('i', [0] * 10)
>>> a.send_bytes(arr1)
>>> count = b.recv_bytes_into(arr2)
>>> assert count == len(arr1) * arr1.itemsize
>>> arr2
array('i', [0, 1, 2, 3, 4, 0, 0, 0, 0, 0])
```

Avertissement : The `Connection.recv()` method automatically unpickles the data it receives, which can be a security risk unless you can trust the process which sent the message.

Therefore, unless the connection object was produced using `Pipe()` you should only use the `recv()` and `send()` methods after performing some sort of authentication. See *Authentication keys*.

Avertissement : If a process is killed while it is trying to read or write to a pipe then the data in the pipe is likely to become corrupted, because it may become impossible to be sure where the message boundaries lie.

Synchronization primitives

Generally synchronization primitives are not as necessary in a multiprocess program as they are in a multi-threaded program. See the documentation for *threading* module.

Note that one can also create synchronization primitives by using a manager object – see *Managers*.

class multiprocessing.BoundedSemaphore([*value*])

A bounded semaphore object : a close analog of *threading.BoundedSemaphore*.

A solitary difference from its close analog exists : its **acquire** method's first argument is named *block* and it supports an optional second argument *timeout*, as is consistent with *Lock.acquire()*.

Note : On Mac OS X, this is indistinguishable from *Semaphore* because *sem_getvalue()* is not implemented on that platform.

class multiprocessing.Condition([*lock*])

A condition variable : a clone of *threading.Condition*.

If *lock* is specified then it should be a *Lock* or *RLock* object from *multiprocessing*.

class multiprocessing.Event

A clone of *threading.Event*. This method returns the state of the internal semaphore on exit, so it will always return **True** except if a timeout is given and the operation times out.

Modifié dans la version 2.7 : Previously, the method always returned **None**.

class multiprocessing.Lock

A non-recursive lock object : a close analog of *threading.Lock*. Once a process or thread has acquired a lock, subsequent attempts to acquire it from any process or thread will block until it is released ; any process or thread may release it. The concepts and behaviors of *threading.Lock* as it applies to threads are replicated here in *multiprocessing.Lock* as it applies to either processes or threads, except as noted.

Note that *Lock* is actually a factory function which returns an instance of *multiprocessing.synchronize.Lock* initialized with a default context.

Lock supports the *context manager* protocol and thus may be used in **with** statements.

acquire(*block=True, timeout=None*)

Acquire a lock, blocking or non-blocking.

With the *block* argument set to **True** (the default), the method call will block until the lock is in an unlocked state, then set it to locked and return **True**. Note that the name of this first argument differs from that in *threading.Lock.acquire()*.

With the *block* argument set to **False**, the method call does not block. If the lock is currently in a locked state, return **False** ; otherwise set the lock to a locked state and return **True**.

When invoked with a positive, floating-point value for *timeout*, block for at most the number of seconds specified by *timeout* as long as the lock can not be acquired. Invocations with a negative value for *timeout* are equivalent to a *timeout* of zero. Invocations with a *timeout* value of **None** (the default) set the timeout period to infinite. The *timeout* argument has no practical implications if the *block* argument is set to **False** and is thus ignored. Returns **True** if the lock has been acquired or **False** if the timeout period has elapsed. Note that the *timeout* argument does not exist in this method's analog, *threading.Lock.acquire()*.

release()

Release a lock. This can be called from any process or thread, not only the process or thread which originally acquired the lock.

Behavior is the same as in *threading.Lock.release()* except that when invoked on an unlocked lock, a *ValueError* is raised.

class multiprocessing.RLock

A recursive lock object : a close analog of *threading.RLock*. A recursive lock must be released by the

process or thread that acquired it. Once a process or thread has acquired a recursive lock, the same process or thread may acquire it again without blocking; that process or thread must release it once for each time it has been acquired.

Note that `RLock` is actually a factory function which returns an instance of `multiprocessing.synchronize.RLock` initialized with a default context.

`RLock` supports the *context manager* protocol and thus may be used in `with` statements.

acquire(*block=True, timeout=None*)

Acquire a lock, blocking or non-blocking.

When invoked with the *block* argument set to `True`, block until the lock is in an unlocked state (not owned by any process or thread) unless the lock is already owned by the current process or thread. The current process or thread then takes ownership of the lock (if it does not already have ownership) and the recursion level inside the lock increments by one, resulting in a return value of `True`. Note that there are several differences in this first argument's behavior compared to the implementation of `threading.RLock.acquire()`, starting with the name of the argument itself.

When invoked with the *block* argument set to `False`, do not block. If the lock has already been acquired (and thus is owned) by another process or thread, the current process or thread does not take ownership and the recursion level within the lock is not changed, resulting in a return value of `False`. If the lock is in an unlocked state, the current process or thread takes ownership and the recursion level is incremented, resulting in a return value of `True`.

Use and behaviors of the *timeout* argument are the same as in `Lock.acquire()`. Note that the *timeout* argument does not exist in this method's analog, `threading.RLock.acquire()`.

release()

Release a lock, decrementing the recursion level. If after the decrement the recursion level is zero, reset the lock to unlocked (not owned by any process or thread) and if any other processes or threads are blocked waiting for the lock to become unlocked, allow exactly one of them to proceed. If after the decrement the recursion level is still nonzero, the lock remains locked and owned by the calling process or thread.

Only call this method when the calling process or thread owns the lock. An `AssertionError` is raised if this method is called by a process or thread other than the owner or if the lock is in an unlocked (unowned) state. Note that the type of exception raised in this situation differs from the implemented behavior in `threading.RLock.release()`.

class `multiprocessing.Semaphore`(*[value]*)

A semaphore object : a close analog of `threading.Semaphore`.

A solitary difference from its close analog exists : its `acquire` method's first argument is named *block* and it supports an optional second argument *timeout*, as is consistent with `Lock.acquire()`.

Note : The `acquire()` method of `BoundedSemaphore`, `Lock`, `RLock` and `Semaphore` has a timeout parameter not supported by the equivalents in `threading`. The signature is `acquire(block=True, timeout=None)` with keyword parameters being acceptable. If *block* is `True` and *timeout* is not `None` then it specifies a timeout in seconds. If *block* is `False` then *timeout* is ignored.

On Mac OS X, `sem_timedwait` is unsupported, so calling `acquire()` with a timeout will emulate that function's behavior using a sleeping loop.

Note : If the SIGINT signal generated by Ctrl-C arrives while the main thread is blocked by a call to `BoundedSemaphore.acquire()`, `Lock.acquire()`, `RLock.acquire()`, `Semaphore.acquire()`, `Condition.acquire()` or `Condition.wait()` then the call will be immediately interrupted and `KeyboardInterrupt` will be raised.

This differs from the behaviour of `threading` where SIGINT will be ignored while the equivalent blocking calls are in progress.

Note : Some of this package’s functionality requires a functioning shared semaphore implementation on the host operating system. Without one, the `multiprocessing.synchronize` module will be disabled, and attempts to import it will result in an `ImportError`. See [bpo-3770](#) for additional information.

Shared ctypes Objects

It is possible to create shared objects using shared memory which can be inherited by child processes.

`multiprocessing.Value(typecode_or_type, *args[, lock])`

Return a `ctypes` object allocated from shared memory. By default the return value is actually a synchronized wrapper for the object.

`typecode_or_type` determines the type of the returned object : it is either a `ctypes` type or a one character typecode of the kind used by the `array` module. `*args` is passed on to the constructor for the type.

If `lock` is `True` (the default) then a new recursive lock object is created to synchronize access to the value. If `lock` is a `Lock` or `RLock` object then that will be used to synchronize access to the value. If `lock` is `False` then access to the returned object will not be automatically protected by a lock, so it will not necessarily be « process-safe ».

Operations like `+=` which involve a read and write are not atomic. So if, for instance, you want to atomically increment a shared value it is insufficient to just do

```
counter.value += 1
```

Assuming the associated lock is recursive (which it is by default) you can instead do

```
with counter.get_lock():
    counter.value += 1
```

Note that `lock` is a keyword-only argument.

`multiprocessing.Array(typecode_or_type, size_or_initializer, *, lock=True)`

Return a `ctypes` array allocated from shared memory. By default the return value is actually a synchronized wrapper for the array.

`typecode_or_type` determines the type of the elements of the returned array : it is either a `ctypes` type or a one character typecode of the kind used by the `array` module. If `size_or_initializer` is an integer, then it determines the length of the array, and the array will be initially zeroed. Otherwise, `size_or_initializer` is a sequence which is used to initialize the array and whose length determines the length of the array.

If `lock` is `True` (the default) then a new lock object is created to synchronize access to the value. If `lock` is a `Lock` or `RLock` object then that will be used to synchronize access to the value. If `lock` is `False` then access to the returned object will not be automatically protected by a lock, so it will not necessarily be « process-safe ».

Note that `lock` is a keyword only argument.

Note that an array of `ctypes.c_char` has `value` and `raw` attributes which allow one to use it to store and retrieve strings.

The multiprocessing.sharedctypes module

The `multiprocessing.sharedctypes` module provides functions for allocating `ctypes` objects from shared memory which can be inherited by child processes.

Note : Although it is possible to store a pointer in shared memory remember that this will refer to a location in the address space of a specific process. However, the pointer is quite likely to be invalid in the

context of a second process and trying to dereference the pointer from the second process may cause a crash.

`multiprocessing.sharedctypes.RawArray(typecode_or_type, size_or_initializer)`

Return a ctypes array allocated from shared memory.

`typecode_or_type` determines the type of the elements of the returned array : it is either a ctypes type or a one character typecode of the kind used by the `array` module. If `size_or_initializer` is an integer then it determines the length of the array, and the array will be initially zeroed. Otherwise `size_or_initializer` is a sequence which is used to initialize the array and whose length determines the length of the array.

Note that setting and getting an element is potentially non-atomic – use `Array()` instead to make sure that access is automatically synchronized using a lock.

`multiprocessing.sharedctypes.RawValue(typecode_or_type, *args)`

Return a ctypes object allocated from shared memory.

`typecode_or_type` determines the type of the returned object : it is either a ctypes type or a one character typecode of the kind used by the `array` module. `*args` is passed on to the constructor for the type.

Note that setting and getting the value is potentially non-atomic – use `Value()` instead to make sure that access is automatically synchronized using a lock.

Note that an array of `ctypes.c_char` has `value` and `raw` attributes which allow one to use it to store and retrieve strings – see documentation for `ctypes`.

`multiprocessing.sharedctypes.Array(typecode_or_type, size_or_initializer, *args[, lock])`

The same as `RawArray()` except that depending on the value of `lock` a process-safe synchronization wrapper may be returned instead of a raw ctypes array.

If `lock` is `True` (the default) then a new lock object is created to synchronize access to the value. If `lock` is a `Lock` or `RLock` object then that will be used to synchronize access to the value. If `lock` is `False` then access to the returned object will not be automatically protected by a lock, so it will not necessarily be « process-safe ».

Note that `lock` is a keyword-only argument.

`multiprocessing.sharedctypes.Value(typecode_or_type, *args[, lock])`

The same as `RawValue()` except that depending on the value of `lock` a process-safe synchronization wrapper may be returned instead of a raw ctypes object.

If `lock` is `True` (the default) then a new lock object is created to synchronize access to the value. If `lock` is a `Lock` or `RLock` object then that will be used to synchronize access to the value. If `lock` is `False` then access to the returned object will not be automatically protected by a lock, so it will not necessarily be « process-safe ».

Note that `lock` is a keyword-only argument.

`multiprocessing.sharedctypes.copy(obj)`

Return a ctypes object allocated from shared memory which is a copy of the ctypes object `obj`.

`multiprocessing.sharedctypes.synchronized(obj[, lock])`

Return a process-safe wrapper object for a ctypes object which uses `lock` to synchronize access. If `lock` is `None` (the default) then a `multiprocessing.RLock` object is created automatically.

A synchronized wrapper will have two methods in addition to those of the object it wraps : `get_obj()` returns the wrapped object and `get_lock()` returns the lock object used for synchronization.

Note that accessing the ctypes object through the wrapper can be a lot slower than accessing the raw ctypes object.

The table below compares the syntax for creating shared ctypes objects from shared memory with the normal ctypes syntax. (In the table `MyStruct` is some subclass of `ctypes.Structure`.)

ctypes	sharedctypes using type	sharedctypes using typecode
c_double(2.4)	RawValue(c_double, 2.4)	RawValue("d", 2.4)
MyStruct(4, 6)	RawValue(MyStruct, 4, 6)	
(c_short * 7)()	RawArray(c_short, 7)	RawArray("h", 7)
(c_int * 3)(9, 2, 8)	RawArray(c_int, (9, 2, 8))	RawArray("i", (9, 2, 8))

Below is an example where a number of ctypes objects are modified by a child process :

```
from multiprocessing import Process, Lock
from multiprocessing.sharedctypes import Value, Array
from ctypes import Structure, c_double

class Point(Structure):
    _fields_ = [('x', c_double), ('y', c_double)]

def modify(n, x, s, A):
    n.value += 2
    x.value += 2
    s.value = s.value.upper()
    for a in A:
        a.x += 2
        a.y += 2

if __name__ == '__main__':
    lock = Lock()

    n = Value('i', 7)
    x = Value(c_double, 1.0/3.0, lock=False)
    s = Array('c', 'hello world', lock=lock)
    A = Array(Point, [(1.875,-6.25), (-5.75,2.0), (2.375,9.5)], lock=lock)

    p = Process(target=modify, args=(n, x, s, A))
    p.start()
    p.join()

    print n.value
    print x.value
    print s.value
    print [(a.x, a.y) for a in A]
```

The results printed are

```
49
0.1111111111111111
HELLO WORLD
[(3.515625, 39.0625), (33.0625, 4.0), (5.640625, 90.25)]
```

Managers

Managers provide a way to create data which can be shared between different processes. A manager object controls a server process which manages *shared objects*. Other processes can access the shared objects by using proxies.

`multiprocessing.Manager()`

Returns a started *SyncManager* object which can be used for sharing objects between processes. The returned manager object corresponds to a spawned child process and has methods which will create shared objects and return corresponding proxies.

Manager processes will be shutdown as soon as they are garbage collected or their parent process exits. The manager classes are defined in the *multiprocessing.managers* module :

class `multiprocessing.managers.BaseManager`(`[address[, authkey]]`)

Create a BaseManager object.

Once created one should call *start()* or *get_server().serve_forever()* to ensure that the manager object refers to a started manager process.

address is the address on which the manager process listens for new connections. If *address* is *None* then an arbitrary one is chosen.

authkey is the authentication key which will be used to check the validity of incoming connections to the server process. If *authkey* is *None* then *current_process().authkey*. Otherwise *authkey* is used and it must be a string.

start(`[initializer[, initargs]]`)

Start a subprocess to start the manager. If *initializer* is not *None* then the subprocess will call *initializer(*initargs)* when it starts.

get_server()

Returns a *Server* object which represents the actual server under the control of the Manager. The *Server* object supports the *serve_forever()* method :

```
>>> from multiprocessing.managers import BaseManager
>>> manager = BaseManager(address=(' ', 50000), authkey='abc')
>>> server = manager.get_server()
>>> server.serve_forever()
```

Server additionally has an *address* attribute.

connect()

Connect a local manager object to a remote manager process :

```
>>> from multiprocessing.managers import BaseManager
>>> m = BaseManager(address=('127.0.0.1', 5000), authkey='abc')
>>> m.connect()
```

shutdown()

Stop the process used by the manager. This is only available if *start()* has been used to start the server process.

This can be called multiple times.

register(`[typeid[, callable[, proxytype[, exposed[, method_to_typeid[, create_method]]]]]`)

A classmethod which can be used for registering a type or callable with the manager class.

typeid is a « type identifier » which is used to identify a particular type of shared object. This must be a string.

callable is a callable used for creating objects for this type identifier. If a manager instance will be created using the *from_address()* classmethod or if the *create_method* argument is *False* then this can be left as *None*.

proxytype is a subclass of *BaseProxy* which is used to create proxies for shared objects with this *typeid*. If *None* then a proxy class is created automatically.

exposed is used to specify a sequence of method names which proxies for this typeid should be allowed to access using *BaseProxy._callmethod()*. (If *exposed* is *None* then *proxytype._exposed_* is used instead if it exists.) In the case where no exposed list is specified, all « public methods » of the shared object will be accessible. (Here a « public method » means any attribute which has a *__call__()* method and whose name does not begin with *'_'*.)

method_to_typeid is a mapping used to specify the return type of those exposed methods which should return a proxy. It maps method names to typeid strings. (If *method_to_typeid* is `None` then `proxytype._method_to_typeid_` is used instead if it exists.) If a method's name is not a key of this mapping or if the mapping is `None` then the object returned by the method will be copied by value.

create_method determines whether a method should be created with name *typeid* which can be used to tell the server process to create a new shared object and return a proxy for it. By default it is `True`.

BaseManager instances also have one read-only property :

address

The address used by the manager.

class multiprocessing.managers.SyncManager

A subclass of *BaseManager* which can be used for the synchronization of processes. Objects of this type are returned by `multiprocessing.Manager()`.

It also supports creation of shared lists and dictionaries.

BoundedSemaphore(*[value]*)

Create a shared *threading.BoundedSemaphore* object and return a proxy for it.

Condition(*[lock]*)

Create a shared *threading.Condition* object and return a proxy for it.

If *lock* is supplied then it should be a proxy for a *threading.Lock* or *threading.RLock* object.

Event()

Create a shared *threading.Event* object and return a proxy for it.

Lock()

Create a shared *threading.Lock* object and return a proxy for it.

Namespace()

Create a shared *Namespace* object and return a proxy for it.

Queue(*[maxsize]*)

Create a shared *Queue.Queue* object and return a proxy for it.

RLock()

Create a shared *threading.RLock* object and return a proxy for it.

Semaphore(*[value]*)

Create a shared *threading.Semaphore* object and return a proxy for it.

Array(*typecode, sequence*)

Create an array and return a proxy for it.

Value(*typecode, value*)

Create an object with a writable *value* attribute and return a proxy for it.

dict()

dict(*mapping*)

dict(*sequence*)

Create a shared dict object and return a proxy for it.

list()

list(*sequence*)

Create a shared list object and return a proxy for it.

Note : Modifications to mutable values or items in dict and list proxies will not be propagated through the manager, because the proxy has no way of knowing when its values or items are modified. To modify such an item, you can re-assign the modified object to the container proxy :

```
# create a list proxy and append a mutable object (a dictionary)
lproxy = manager.list()
```

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(suite de la page précédente)

```

lproxy.append({})
# now mutate the dictionary
d = lproxy[0]
d['a'] = 1
d['b'] = 2
# at this point, the changes to d are not yet synced, but by
# reassigning the dictionary, the proxy is notified of the change
lproxy[0] = d

```

`class multiprocessing.managers.Namespace`

A type that can register with *SyncManager*.

A namespace object has no public methods, but does have writable attributes. Its representation shows the values of its attributes.

However, when using a proxy for a namespace object, an attribute beginning with '_' will be an attribute of the proxy and not an attribute of the referent :

```

>>> manager = multiprocessing.Manager()
>>> Global = manager.Namespace()
>>> Global.x = 10
>>> Global.y = 'hello'
>>> Global._z = 12.3    # this is an attribute of the proxy
>>> print Global
Namespace(x=10, y='hello')

```

Customized managers

To create one's own manager, one creates a subclass of *BaseManager* and uses the *register()* classmethod to register new types or callables with the manager class. For example :

```

from multiprocessing.managers import BaseManager

class MathsClass(object):
    def add(self, x, y):
        return x + y
    def mul(self, x, y):
        return x * y

class MyManager(BaseManager):
    pass

MyManager.register('Maths', MathsClass)

if __name__ == '__main__':
    manager = MyManager()
    manager.start()
    maths = manager.Maths()
    print maths.add(4, 3)    # prints 7
    print maths.mul(7, 8)   # prints 56

```

Using a remote manager

It is possible to run a manager server on one machine and have clients use it from other machines (assuming that the firewalls involved allow it).

Running the following commands creates a server for a single shared queue which remote clients can access :

```
>>> from multiprocessing.managers import BaseManager
>>> import Queue
>>> queue = Queue.Queue()
>>> class QueueManager(BaseManager): pass
>>> QueueManager.register('get_queue', callable=lambda: queue)
>>> m = QueueManager(address=(' ', 50000), authkey='abracadabra')
>>> s = m.get_server()
>>> s.serve_forever()
```

One client can access the server as follows :

```
>>> from multiprocessing.managers import BaseManager
>>> class QueueManager(BaseManager): pass
>>> QueueManager.register('get_queue')
>>> m = QueueManager(address=('foo.bar.org', 50000), authkey='abracadabra')
>>> m.connect()
>>> queue = m.get_queue()
>>> queue.put('hello')
```

Another client can also use it :

```
>>> from multiprocessing.managers import BaseManager
>>> class QueueManager(BaseManager): pass
>>> QueueManager.register('get_queue')
>>> m = QueueManager(address=('foo.bar.org', 50000), authkey='abracadabra')
>>> m.connect()
>>> queue = m.get_queue()
>>> queue.get()
'hello'
```

Local processes can also access that queue, using the code from above on the client to access it remotely :

```
>>> from multiprocessing import Process, Queue
>>> from multiprocessing.managers import BaseManager
>>> class Worker(Process):
...     def __init__(self, q):
...         self.q = q
...         super(Worker, self).__init__()
...     def run(self):
...         self.q.put('local hello')
...
>>> queue = Queue()
>>> w = Worker(queue)
>>> w.start()
>>> class QueueManager(BaseManager): pass
...
>>> QueueManager.register('get_queue', callable=lambda: queue)
>>> m = QueueManager(address=(' ', 50000), authkey='abracadabra')
```

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(suite de la page précédente)

```
>>> s = m.get_server()
>>> s.serve_forever()
```

Proxy Objects

A proxy is an object which *refers* to a shared object which lives (presumably) in a different process. The shared object is said to be the *referent* of the proxy. Multiple proxy objects may have the same referent.

A proxy object has methods which invoke corresponding methods of its referent (although not every method of the referent will necessarily be available through the proxy). A proxy can usually be used in most of the same ways that its referent can :

```
>>> from multiprocessing import Manager
>>> manager = Manager()
>>> l = manager.list([i*i for i in range(10)])
>>> print l
[0, 1, 4, 9, 16, 25, 36, 49, 64, 81]
>>> print repr(l)
<ListProxy object, typeid 'list' at 0x...>
>>> l[4]
16
>>> l[2:5]
[4, 9, 16]
```

Notice that applying `str()` to a proxy will return the representation of the referent, whereas applying `repr()` will return the representation of the proxy.

An important feature of proxy objects is that they are picklable so they can be passed between processes. Note, however, that if a proxy is sent to the corresponding manager's process then unpickling it will produce the referent itself. This means, for example, that one shared object can contain a second :

```
>>> a = manager.list()
>>> b = manager.list()
>>> a.append(b)           # referent of a now contains referent of b
>>> print a, b
[[]] []
>>> b.append('hello')
>>> print a, b
[['hello']] ['hello']
```

Note : The proxy types in `multiprocessing` do nothing to support comparisons by value. So, for instance, we have :

```
>>> manager.list([1,2,3]) == [1,2,3]
False
```

One should just use a copy of the referent instead when making comparisons.

```
class multiprocessing.managers.BaseProxy
    Proxy objects are instances of subclasses of BaseProxy.
    _callmethod(methodname[, args[, kwds]])
        Call and return the result of a method of the proxy's referent.
```

If `proxy` is a proxy whose referent is `obj` then the expression

```
proxy._callmethod(methodname, args, kwds)
```

will evaluate the expression

```
getattr(obj, methodname)(*args, **kwds)
```

in the manager's process.

The returned value will be a copy of the result of the call or a proxy to a new shared object – see documentation for the `method_to_typeid` argument of `BaseManager.register()`.

If an exception is raised by the call, then is re-raised by `_callmethod()`. If some other exception is raised in the manager's process then this is converted into a `RemoteError` exception and is raised by `_callmethod()`.

Note in particular that an exception will be raised if `methodname` has not been *exposed*.

An example of the usage of `_callmethod()` :

```
>>> l = manager.list(range(10))
>>> l._callmethod('__len__')
10
>>> l._callmethod('__getslice__', (2, 7))    # equiv to `l[2:7]`
[2, 3, 4, 5, 6]
>>> l._callmethod('__getitem__', (20,))      # equiv to `l[20]`
Traceback (most recent call last):
...
IndexError: list index out of range
```

`_getvalue()`

Return a copy of the referent.

If the referent is unpicklable then this will raise an exception.

`__repr__()`

Return a representation of the proxy object.

`__str__()`

Return the representation of the referent.

Cleanup

A proxy object uses a weakref callback so that when it gets garbage collected it deregisters itself from the manager which owns its referent.

A shared object gets deleted from the manager process when there are no longer any proxies referring to it.

Process Pools

One can create a pool of processes which will carry out tasks submitted to it with the `Pool` class.

```
class multiprocessing.Pool([processes[, initializer[, initargs[, maxtasksperchild]]])
```

A process pool object which controls a pool of worker processes to which jobs can be submitted. It supports asynchronous results with timeouts and callbacks and has a parallel map implementation.

`processes` is the number of worker processes to use. If `processes` is `None` then the number returned by `cpu_count()` is used. If `initializer` is not `None` then each worker process will call `initializer(*initargs)` when it starts.

Note that the methods of the pool object should only be called by the process which created the pool. Nouveau dans la version 2.7 : `maxtasksperchild` is the number of tasks a worker process can complete before it will exit and be replaced with a fresh worker process, to enable unused resources to be freed. The default `maxtasksperchild` is `None`, which means worker processes will live as long as the pool.

Note : Worker processes within a `Pool` typically live for the complete duration of the `Pool`'s work queue. A frequent pattern found in other systems (such as Apache, `mod_wsgi`, etc) to free resources held by workers is to allow a worker within a pool to complete only a set amount of work before being exiting, being cleaned up and a new process spawned to replace the old one. The `maxtasksperchild` argument to the `Pool` exposes this ability to the end user.

apply(*func*[, *args*[, *kwds*]])

Equivalent of the `apply()` built-in function. It blocks until the result is ready, so `apply_async()` is better suited for performing work in parallel. Additionally, *func* is only executed in one of the workers of the pool.

apply_async(*func*[, *args*[, *kwds*[, *callback*]]])

A variant of the `apply()` method which returns a result object.

If *callback* is specified then it should be a callable which accepts a single argument. When the result becomes ready *callback* is applied to it (unless the call failed). *callback* should complete immediately since otherwise the thread which handles the results will get blocked.

map(*func*, *iterable*[, *chunksize*])

A parallel equivalent of the `map()` built-in function (it supports only one *iterable* argument though). It blocks until the result is ready.

This method chops the iterable into a number of chunks which it submits to the process pool as separate tasks. The (approximate) size of these chunks can be specified by setting *chunksize* to a positive integer.

map_async(*func*, *iterable*[, *chunksize*[, *callback*]]])

A variant of the `map()` method which returns a result object.

If *callback* is specified then it should be a callable which accepts a single argument. When the result becomes ready *callback* is applied to it (unless the call failed). *callback* should complete immediately since otherwise the thread which handles the results will get blocked.

imap(*func*, *iterable*[, *chunksize*])

An equivalent of `itertools.imap()`.

The *chunksize* argument is the same as the one used by the `map()` method. For very long iterables using a large value for *chunksize* can make the job complete **much** faster than using the default value of 1.

Also if *chunksize* is 1 then the `next()` method of the iterator returned by the `imap()` method has an optional *timeout* parameter : `next(timeout)` will raise `multiprocessing.TimeoutError` if the result cannot be returned within *timeout* seconds.

imap_unordered(*func*, *iterable*[, *chunksize*])

The same as `imap()` except that the ordering of the results from the returned iterator should be considered arbitrary. (Only when there is only one worker process is the order guaranteed to be « correct ».)

close()

Prevents any more tasks from being submitted to the pool. Once all the tasks have been completed the worker processes will exit.

terminate()

Stops the worker processes immediately without completing outstanding work. When the pool object is garbage collected `terminate()` will be called immediately.

join()

Wait for the worker processes to exit. One must call `close()` or `terminate()` before using `join()`.

class multiprocessing.pool.AsyncResult

The class of the result returned by `Pool.apply_async()` and `Pool.map_async()`.

get([*timeout*])

Return the result when it arrives. If *timeout* is not `None` and the result does not arrive within

timeout seconds then `multiprocessing.TimeoutError` is raised. If the remote call raised an exception then that exception will be reraised by `get()`.

`wait([timeout])`
Wait until the result is available or until *timeout* seconds pass.

`ready()`
Return whether the call has completed.

`successful()`
Return whether the call completed without raising an exception. Will raise `AssertionError` if the result is not ready.

The following example demonstrates the use of a pool :

```
from multiprocessing import Pool
import time

def f(x):
    return x*x

if __name__ == '__main__':
    pool = Pool(processes=4)           # start 4 worker processes

    result = pool.apply_async(f, (10,)) # evaluate "f(10)" asynchronously in a single
    ↪ process
    print result.get(timeout=1)         # prints "100" unless your computer is *very*
    ↪ slow

    print pool.map(f, range(10))       # prints "[0, 1, 4, ..., 81]"

    it = pool.imap(f, range(10))
    print it.next()                    # prints "0"
    print it.next()                    # prints "1"
    print it.next(timeout=1)           # prints "4" unless your computer is *very*
    ↪ slow

    result = pool.apply_async(time.sleep, (10,))
    print result.get(timeout=1)         # raises multiprocessing.TimeoutError
```

Listeners and Clients

Usually message passing between processes is done using queues or by using `Connection` objects returned by `Pipe()`.

However, the `multiprocessing.connection` module allows some extra flexibility. It basically gives a high level message oriented API for dealing with sockets or Windows named pipes, and also has support for *digest authentication* using the `hmac` module.

`multiprocessing.connection.deliver_challenge(connection, authkey)`

Send a randomly generated message to the other end of the connection and wait for a reply.

If the reply matches the digest of the message using *authkey* as the key then a welcome message is sent to the other end of the connection. Otherwise `AuthenticationError` is raised.

`multiprocessing.connection.answer_challenge(connection, authkey)`

Receive a message, calculate the digest of the message using *authkey* as the key, and then send the digest back.

If a welcome message is not received, then `AuthenticationError` is raised.

`multiprocessing.connection.Client(address[, family[, authenticate[, authkey]]])`

Attempt to set up a connection to the listener which is using address *address*, returning a *Connection*.

The type of the connection is determined by *family* argument, but this can generally be omitted since it can usually be inferred from the format of *address*. (See *Address Formats*)

If *authenticate* is `True` or *authkey* is a string then digest authentication is used. The key used for authentication will be either *authkey* or `current_process().authkey` if *authkey* is `None`. If authentication fails then *AuthenticationError* is raised. See *Authentication keys*.

`class multiprocessing.connection.Listener([address[, family[, backlog[, authenticate[, authkey]]]])`

A wrapper for a bound socket or Windows named pipe which is “listening” for connections.

address is the address to be used by the bound socket or named pipe of the listener object.

Note : If an address of “0.0.0.0” is used, the address will not be a connectable end point on Windows. If you require a connectable end-point, you should use “127.0.0.1”.

family is the type of socket (or named pipe) to use. This can be one of the strings 'AF_INET' (for a TCP socket), 'AF_UNIX' (for a Unix domain socket) or 'AF_PIPE' (for a Windows named pipe). Of these only the first is guaranteed to be available. If *family* is `None` then the family is inferred from the format of *address*. If *address* is also `None` then a default is chosen. This default is the family which is assumed to be the fastest available. See *Address Formats*. Note that if *family* is 'AF_UNIX' and *address* is `None` then the socket will be created in a private temporary directory created using *tempfile.mkstemp()*.

If the listener object uses a socket then *backlog* (1 by default) is passed to the *listen()* method of the socket once it has been bound.

If *authenticate* is `True` (`False` by default) or *authkey* is not `None` then digest authentication is used.

If *authkey* is a string then it will be used as the authentication key; otherwise it must be `None`.

If *authkey* is `None` and *authenticate* is `True` then `current_process().authkey` is used as the authentication key. If *authkey* is `None` and *authenticate* is `False` then no authentication is done. If authentication fails then *AuthenticationError* is raised. See *Authentication keys*.

accept()

Accept a connection on the bound socket or named pipe of the listener object and return a *Connection* object. If authentication is attempted and fails, then *AuthenticationError* is raised.

close()

Close the bound socket or named pipe of the listener object. This is called automatically when the listener is garbage collected. However it is advisable to call it explicitly.

Listener objects have the following read-only properties :

address

The address which is being used by the Listener object.

last_accepted

The address from which the last accepted connection came. If this is unavailable then it is `None`.

The module defines the following exceptions :

exception multiprocessing.connection.ProcessError

The base class of all *multiprocessing* exceptions.

exception multiprocessing.connection.BufferTooShort

Exception raised by *Connection.recv_bytes_into()* when the supplied buffer object is too small for the message read.

exception multiprocessing.connection.AuthenticationError

Raised when there is an authentication error.

exception multiprocessing.connection.TimeoutError

Raised by methods with a timeout when the timeout expires.

Examples

The following server code creates a listener which uses 'secret password' as an authentication key. It then waits for a connection and sends some data to the client :

```
from multiprocessing.connection import Listener
from array import array

address = ('localhost', 6000)      # family is deduced to be 'AF_INET'
listener = Listener(address, authkey='secret password')

conn = listener.accept()
print 'connection accepted from', listener.last_accepted

conn.send([2.25, None, 'junk', float])

conn.send_bytes('hello')

conn.send_bytes(array('i', [42, 1729]))

conn.close()
listener.close()
```

The following code connects to the server and receives some data from the server :

```
from multiprocessing.connection import Client
from array import array

address = ('localhost', 6000)
conn = Client(address, authkey='secret password')

print conn.recv()                # => [2.25, None, 'junk', float]

print conn.recv_bytes()          # => 'hello'

arr = array('i', [0, 0, 0, 0, 0])
print conn.recv_bytes_into(arr)  # => 8
print arr                        # => array('i', [42, 1729, 0, 0, 0])

conn.close()
```

Address Formats

- An 'AF_INET' address is a tuple of the form (hostname, port) where *hostname* is a string and *port* is an integer.
- An 'AF_UNIX' address is a string representing a filename on the filesystem.
- An 'AF_PIPE' address is a string of the form `r'\\.\pipe{PipeName}'`. To use `Client()` to connect to a named pipe on a remote computer called *ServerName* one should use an address of the form `r'\\ServerName\pipe{PipeName}'` instead.

Note that any string beginning with two backslashes is assumed by default to be an 'AF_PIPE' address rather than an 'AF_UNIX' address.

Authentication keys

When one uses `Connection.recv()`, the data received is automatically unpickled. Unfortunately unpickling data from an untrusted source is a security risk. Therefore `Listener` and `Client()` use the `hmac` module to provide digest authentication.

An authentication key is a string which can be thought of as a password : once a connection is established both ends will demand proof that the other knows the authentication key. (Demonstrating that both ends are using the same key does **not** involve sending the key over the connection.)

If authentication is requested but no authentication key is specified then the return value of `current_process().authkey` is used (see `Process`). This value will be automatically inherited by any `Process` object that the current process creates. This means that (by default) all processes of a multi-process program will share a single authentication key which can be used when setting up connections between themselves.

Suitable authentication keys can also be generated by using `os.urandom()`.

Journalisation

Some support for logging is available. Note, however, that the `logging` package does not use process shared locks so it is possible (depending on the handler type) for messages from different processes to get mixed up.

`multiprocessing.get_logger()`

Returns the logger used by `multiprocessing`. If necessary, a new one will be created.

When first created the logger has level `logging.NOTSET` and no default handler. Messages sent to this logger will not by default propagate to the root logger.

Note that on Windows child processes will only inherit the level of the parent process's logger – any other customization of the logger will not be inherited.

`multiprocessing.log_to_stderr()`

This function performs a call to `get_logger()` but in addition to returning the logger created by `get_logger`, it adds a handler which sends output to `sys.stderr` using format `'[% (levelname)s/ %(processName)s] %(message)s'`.

Below is an example session with logging turned on :

```
>>> import multiprocessing, logging
>>> logger = multiprocessing.log_to_stderr()
>>> logger.setLevel(logging.INFO)
>>> logger.warning('doomed')
[WARNING/MainProcess] doomed
>>> m = multiprocessing.Manager()
[INFO/SyncManager-...] child process calling self.run()
[INFO/SyncManager-...] created temp directory /.../pypm-...
[INFO/SyncManager-...] manager serving at '/.../listener-...'
>>> del m
[INFO/MainProcess] sending shutdown message to manager
[INFO/SyncManager-...] manager exiting with exitcode 0
```

In addition to having these two logging functions, the `multiprocessing` also exposes two additional logging level attributes. These are `SUBWARNING` and `SUBDEBUG`. The table below illustrates where these fit in the normal level hierarchy.

Level	Numeric value
<code>SUBWARNING</code>	25
<code>SUBDEBUG</code>	5

For a full table of logging levels, see the *logging* module.

These additional logging levels are used primarily for certain debug messages within the multiprocessing module. Below is the same example as above, except with SUBDEBUG enabled :

```
>>> import multiprocessing, logging
>>> logger = multiprocessing.log_to_stderr()
>>> logger.setLevel(multiprocessing.SUBDEBUG)
>>> logger.warning('doomed')
[WARNING/MainProcess] doomed
>>> m = multiprocessing.Manager()
[INFO/SyncManager-...] child process calling self.run()
[INFO/SyncManager-...] created temp directory /.../pypm-...
[INFO/SyncManager-...] manager serving at '/.../pypm-djGBXN/listener-...'
>>> del m
[SUBDEBUG/MainProcess] finalizer calling ...
[INFO/MainProcess] sending shutdown message to manager
[DEBUG/SyncManager-...] manager received shutdown message
[SUBDEBUG/SyncManager-...] calling <Finalize object, callback=unlink, ...
[SUBDEBUG/SyncManager-...] finalizer calling <built-in function unlink> ...
[SUBDEBUG/SyncManager-...] calling <Finalize object, dead>
[SUBDEBUG/SyncManager-...] finalizer calling <function rmtree at 0x5aa730> ...
[INFO/SyncManager-...] manager exiting with exitcode 0
```

The multiprocessing.dummy module

multiprocessing.dummy replicates the API of *multiprocessing* but is no more than a wrapper around the *threading* module.

16.6.3 Programming guidelines

There are certain guidelines and idioms which should be adhered to when using *multiprocessing*.

All platforms

Avoid shared state

As far as possible one should try to avoid shifting large amounts of data between processes.

It is probably best to stick to using queues or pipes for communication between processes rather than using the lower level synchronization primitives from the *threading* module.

Picklability

Ensure that the arguments to the methods of proxies are picklable.

Thread safety of proxies

Do not use a proxy object from more than one thread unless you protect it with a lock.

(There is never a problem with different processes using the *same* proxy.)

Joining zombie processes

On Unix when a process finishes but has not been joined it becomes a zombie. There should never be very many because each time a new process starts (or *active_children()* is called) all completed processes which have not yet been joined will be joined. Also calling a finished process's *Process.is_alive* will join the process. Even so it is probably good practice to explicitly join all the processes that you start.

Better to inherit than pickle/unpickle

On Windows many types from *multiprocessing* need to be picklable so that child processes can use them. However, one should generally avoid sending shared objects to other processes using pipes or queues. Instead you should arrange the program so that a process which needs access to a shared resource created elsewhere can inherit it from an ancestor process.

Avoid terminating processes

Using the *Process.terminate* method to stop a process is liable to cause any shared resources (such as locks, semaphores, pipes and queues) currently being used by the process to become broken or unavailable to other processes.

Therefore it is probably best to only consider using *Process.terminate* on processes which never use any shared resources.

Joining processes that use queues

Bear in mind that a process that has put items in a queue will wait before terminating until all the buffered items are fed by the « feeder » thread to the underlying pipe. (The child process can call the *cancel_join_thread()* method of the queue to avoid this behaviour.)

This means that whenever you use a queue you need to make sure that all items which have been put on the queue will eventually be removed before the process is joined. Otherwise you cannot be sure that processes which have put items on the queue will terminate. Remember also that non-daemonic processes will be joined automatically.

An example which will deadlock is the following :

```
from multiprocessing import Process, Queue

def f(q):
    q.put('X' * 1000000)

if __name__ == '__main__':
    queue = Queue()
    p = Process(target=f, args=(queue,))
    p.start()
    p.join()                # this deadlocks
    obj = queue.get()
```

A fix here would be to swap the last two lines (or simply remove the *p.join()* line).

Explicitly pass resources to child processes

On Unix a child process can make use of a shared resource created in a parent process using a global resource. However, it is better to pass the object as an argument to the constructor for the child process.

Apart from making the code (potentially) compatible with Windows this also ensures that as long as the child process is still alive the object will not be garbage collected in the parent process. This might be important if some resource is freed when the object is garbage collected in the parent process.

So for instance

```
from multiprocessing import Process, Lock

def f():
    ... do something using "lock" ...

if __name__ == '__main__':
    lock = Lock()
    for i in range(10):
        Process(target=f).start()
```

should be rewritten as

```
from multiprocessing import Process, Lock

def f(l):
    ... do something using "l" ...

if __name__ == '__main__':
    lock = Lock()
    for i in range(10):
        Process(target=f, args=(lock,)).start()
```

Beware of replacing `sys.stdin` with a « file like object »

`multiprocessing` originally unconditionally called :

```
os.close(sys.stdin.fileno())
```

in the `multiprocessing.Process._bootstrap()` method — this resulted in issues with processes-in-processes. This has been changed to :

```
sys.stdin.close()
sys.stdin = open(os.devnull)
```

Which solves the fundamental issue of processes colliding with each other resulting in a bad file descriptor error, but introduces a potential danger to applications which replace `sys.stdin()` with a « file-like object » with output buffering. This danger is that if multiple processes call `close()` on this file-like object, it could result in the same data being flushed to the object multiple times, resulting in corruption.

If you write a file-like object and implement your own caching, you can make it fork-safe by storing the pid whenever you append to the cache, and discarding the cache when the pid changes. For example :

```
@property
def cache(self):
    pid = os.getpid()
    if pid != self._pid:
        self._pid = pid
        self._cache = []
    return self._cache
```

For more information, see [bpo-5155](#), [bpo-5313](#) and [bpo-5331](#)

Windows

Since Windows lacks `os.fork()` it has a few extra restrictions :

More picklability

Ensure that all arguments to `Process.__init__()` are picklable. This means, in particular, that bound or unbound methods cannot be used directly as the `target` argument on Windows — just define a function and use that instead.

Also, if you subclass `Process` then make sure that instances will be picklable when the `Process.start` method is called.

Global variables

Bear in mind that if code run in a child process tries to access a global variable, then the value it sees (if any) may not be the same as the value in the parent process at the time that `Process.start` was called.

However, global variables which are just module level constants cause no problems.

Safe importing of main module

Make sure that the main module can be safely imported by a new Python interpreter without causing unintended side effects (such as starting a new process).

For example, under Windows running the following module would fail with a *RuntimeError* :

```
from multiprocessing import Process

def foo():
    print 'hello'

p = Process(target=foo)
p.start()
```

Instead one should protect the « entry point » of the program by using `if __name__ == '__main__':` as follows :

```
from multiprocessing import Process, freeze_support

def foo():
    print 'hello'

if __name__ == '__main__':
    freeze_support()
    p = Process(target=foo)
    p.start()
```

(The `freeze_support()` line can be omitted if the program will be run normally instead of frozen.)

This allows the newly spawned Python interpreter to safely import the module and then run the module's `foo()` function.

Similar restrictions apply if a pool or manager is created in the main module.

16.6.4 Examples

Demonstration of how to create and use customized managers and proxies :

```
#
# This module shows how to use arbitrary callables with a subclass of
# `BaseManager`.
#
# Copyright (c) 2006-2008, R Oudkerk
# All rights reserved.
#

from multiprocessing import freeze_support
from multiprocessing.managers import BaseManager, BaseProxy
import operator

##

class Foo(object):
    def f(self):
        print 'you called Foo.f()'
```

(suite sur la page suivante)

(suite de la page précédente)

```

def g(self):
    print 'you called Foo.g()'
def _h(self):
    print 'you called Foo._h()'

# A simple generator function
def baz():
    for i in xrange(10):
        yield i*i

# Proxy type for generator objects
class GeneratorProxy(BaseProxy):
    _exposed_ = ('next', '__next__')
    def __iter__(self):
        return self
    def next(self):
        return self._callmethod('next')
    def __next__(self):
        return self._callmethod('__next__')

# Function to return the operator module
def get_operator_module():
    return operator

##

class MyManager(BaseManager):
    pass

# register the Foo class; make `f()` and `g()` accessible via proxy
MyManager.register('Foo1', Foo)

# register the Foo class; make `g()` and `_h()` accessible via proxy
MyManager.register('Foo2', Foo, exposed=('g', '_h'))

# register the generator function baz; use `GeneratorProxy` to make proxies
MyManager.register('baz', baz, proxytype=GeneratorProxy)

# register get_operator_module(); make public functions accessible via proxy
MyManager.register('operator', get_operator_module)

##

def test():
    manager = MyManager()
    manager.start()

    print '-' * 20

    f1 = manager.Foo1()
    f1.f()
    f1.g()

```

(suite sur la page suivante)

(suite de la page précédente)

```

assert not hasattr(f1, '_h')
assert sorted(f1._exposed_) == sorted(['f', 'g'])

print '-' * 20

f2 = manager.Foo2()
f2.g()
f2._h()
assert not hasattr(f2, 'f')
assert sorted(f2._exposed_) == sorted(['g', '_h'])

print '-' * 20

it = manager.baz()
for i in it:
    print '<%d>' % i,
print

print '-' * 20

op = manager.operator()
print 'op.add(23, 45) =', op.add(23, 45)
print 'op.pow(2, 94) =', op.pow(2, 94)
print 'op.getslice(range(10), 2, 6) =', op.getslice(range(10), 2, 6)
print 'op.repeat(range(5), 3) =', op.repeat(range(5), 3)
print 'op._exposed_ =', op._exposed_

##

if __name__ == '__main__':
    freeze_support()
    test()

```

Using Pool :

```

#
# A test of `multiprocessing.Pool` class
#
# Copyright (c) 2006-2008, R Oudkerk
# All rights reserved.
#

import multiprocessing
import time
import random
import sys

#
# Functions used by test code
#

def calculate(func, args):

```

(suite sur la page suivante)

(suite de la page précédente)

```

    result = func(*args)
    return '%s says that %s%s = %s' % (
        multiprocessing.current_process().name,
        func.__name__, args, result
    )

def calculatestar(args):
    return calculate(*args)

def mul(a, b):
    time.sleep(0.5*random.random())
    return a * b

def plus(a, b):
    time.sleep(0.5*random.random())
    return a + b

def f(x):
    return 1.0 / (x-5.0)

def pow3(x):
    return x**3

def noop(x):
    pass

#
# Test code
#

def test():
    print 'cpu_count() = %d\n' % multiprocessing.cpu_count()

    #
    # Create pool
    #

    PROCESSES = 4
    print 'Creating pool with %d processes\n' % PROCESSES
    pool = multiprocessing.Pool(PROCESSES)
    print 'pool = %s' % pool
    print

    #
    # Tests
    #

    TASKS = [(mul, (i, 7)) for i in range(10)] + \
        [(plus, (i, 8)) for i in range(10)]

    results = [pool.apply_async(calculate, t) for t in TASKS]
    imap_it = pool.imap(calculatestar, TASKS)

```

(suite sur la page suivante)

(suite de la page précédente)

```

imap_unordered_it = pool.imap_unordered(calculatestar, TASKS)

print 'Ordered results using pool.apply_async():'
for r in results:
    print '\t', r.get()
print

print 'Ordered results using pool.imap():'
for x in imap_it:
    print '\t', x
print

print 'Unordered results using pool.imap_unordered():'
for x in imap_unordered_it:
    print '\t', x
print

print 'Ordered results using pool.map() --- will block till complete:'
for x in pool.map(calculatestar, TASKS):
    print '\t', x
print

#
# Simple benchmarks
#

N = 100000
print 'def pow3(x): return x**3'

t = time.time()
A = map(pow3, xrange(N))
print '\tmap(pow3, xrange(%d)):\n\t\t%s seconds' % \
      (N, time.time() - t)

t = time.time()
B = pool.map(pow3, xrange(N))
print '\tpool.map(pow3, xrange(%d)):\n\t\t%s seconds' % \
      (N, time.time() - t)

t = time.time()
C = list(pool.imap(pow3, xrange(N), chunksize=N//8))
print '\tlist(pool.imap(pow3, xrange(%d), chunksize=%d)):\n\t\t%s' \
      ' seconds' % (N, N//8, time.time() - t)

assert A == B == C, (len(A), len(B), len(C))
print

L = [None] * 1000000
print 'def noop(x): pass'
print 'L = [None] * 1000000'

t = time.time()

```

(suite sur la page suivante)

(suite de la page précédente)

```

A = map(noop, L)
print '\tmap(noop, L):\n\t\t%s seconds' % \
      (time.time() - t)

t = time.time()
B = pool.map(noop, L)
print '\tpool.map(noop, L):\n\t\t%s seconds' % \
      (time.time() - t)

t = time.time()
C = list(pool.imap(noop, L, chunksize=len(L)//8))
print '\tlist(pool.imap(noop, L, chunksize=%d)):\n\t\t%s seconds' % \
      (len(L)//8, time.time() - t)

assert A == B == C, (len(A), len(B), len(C))
print

del A, B, C, L

#
# Test error handling
#

print 'Testing error handling:'

try:
    print pool.apply(f, (5,))
except ZeroDivisionError:
    print '\tGot ZeroDivisionError as expected from pool.apply()'
else:
    raise AssertionError('expected ZeroDivisionError')

try:
    print pool.map(f, range(10))
except ZeroDivisionError:
    print '\tGot ZeroDivisionError as expected from pool.map()'
else:
    raise AssertionError('expected ZeroDivisionError')

try:
    print list(pool.imap(f, range(10)))
except ZeroDivisionError:
    print '\tGot ZeroDivisionError as expected from list(pool.imap())'
else:
    raise AssertionError('expected ZeroDivisionError')

it = pool.imap(f, range(10))
for i in range(10):
    try:
        x = it.next()
    except ZeroDivisionError:
        if i == 5:

```

(suite sur la page suivante)

(suite de la page précédente)

```

        pass
    except StopIteration:
        break
    else:
        if i == 5:
            raise AssertionError('expected ZeroDivisionError')

assert i == 9
print '\tGot ZeroDivisionError as expected from IMapIterator.next()'
print

#
# Testing timeouts
#

print 'Testing ApplyResult.get() with timeout:',
res = pool.apply_async(calculate, TASKS[0])
while 1:
    sys.stdout.flush()
    try:
        sys.stdout.write('\n\t%s' % res.get(0.02))
        break
    except multiprocessing.TimeoutError:
        sys.stdout.write('.')
print
print

print 'Testing IMapIterator.next() with timeout:',
it = pool.imap(calculatestar, TASKS)
while 1:
    sys.stdout.flush()
    try:
        sys.stdout.write('\n\t%s' % it.next(0.02))
    except StopIteration:
        break
    except multiprocessing.TimeoutError:
        sys.stdout.write('.')
print
print

#
# Testing callback
#

print 'Testing callback:'

A = []
B = [56, 0, 1, 8, 27, 64, 125, 216, 343, 512, 729]

r = pool.apply_async(mul, (7, 8), callback=A.append)
r.wait()

```

(suite sur la page suivante)

(suite de la page précédente)

```

r = pool.map_async(pow3, range(10), callback=A.extend)
r.wait()

if A == B:
    print '\tcallbacks succeeded\n'
else:
    print '\t*** callbacks failed\n\t\t%s != %s\n' % (A, B)

#
# Check there are no outstanding tasks
#

assert not pool._cache, 'cache = %r' % pool._cache

#
# Check close() methods
#

print 'Testing close():'

for worker in pool._pool:
    assert worker.is_alive()

result = pool.apply_async(time.sleep, [0.5])
pool.close()
pool.join()

assert result.get() is None

for worker in pool._pool:
    assert not worker.is_alive()

print '\tclose() succeeded\n'

#
# Check terminate() method
#

print 'Testing terminate():'

pool = multiprocessing.Pool(2)
DELTA = 0.1
ignore = pool.apply(pow3, [2])
results = [pool.apply_async(time.sleep, [DELTA]) for i in range(100)]
pool.terminate()
pool.join()

for worker in pool._pool:
    assert not worker.is_alive()

print '\tterminate() succeeded\n'

```

(suite sur la page suivante)

(suite de la page précédente)

```

#
# Check garbage collection
#

print 'Testing garbage collection:'

pool = multiprocessing.Pool(2)
DELTA = 0.1
processes = pool._pool
ignore = pool.apply(pow3, [2])
results = [pool.apply_async(time.sleep, [DELTA]) for i in range(100)]

results = pool = None

time.sleep(DELTA * 2)

for worker in processes:
    assert not worker.is_alive()

print '\tgarbage collection succeeded\n'

if __name__ == '__main__':
    multiprocessing.freeze_support()

    assert len(sys.argv) in (1, 2)

    if len(sys.argv) == 1 or sys.argv[1] == 'processes':
        print 'Using processes '.center(79, '-')
    elif sys.argv[1] == 'threads':
        print 'Using threads '.center(79, '-')
        import multiprocessing.dummy as multiprocessing
    else:
        print 'Usage:\n\t%s [processes | threads]' % sys.argv[0]
        raise SystemExit(2)

    test()

```

Synchronization types like locks, conditions and queues :

```

#
# A test file for the `multiprocessing` package
#
# Copyright (c) 2006-2008, R Oudkerk
# All rights reserved.
#

import time, sys, random
from Queue import Empty

import multiprocessing                # may get overwritten

```

(suite sur la page suivante)

(suite de la page précédente)

```

#### TEST_VALUE

def value_func(running, mutex):
    random.seed()
    time.sleep(random.random()*4)

    mutex.acquire()
    print '\n\t\t\t' + str(multiprocessing.current_process()) + ' has finished'
    running.value -= 1
    mutex.release()

def test_value():
    TASKS = 10
    running = multiprocessing.Value('i', TASKS)
    mutex = multiprocessing.Lock()

    for i in range(TASKS):
        p = multiprocessing.Process(target=value_func, args=(running, mutex))
        p.start()

    while running.value > 0:
        time.sleep(0.08)
        mutex.acquire()
        print running.value,
        sys.stdout.flush()
        mutex.release()

    print
    print 'No more running processes'

#### TEST_QUEUE

def queue_func(queue):
    for i in range(30):
        time.sleep(0.5 * random.random())
        queue.put(i*i)
    queue.put('STOP')

def test_queue():
    q = multiprocessing.Queue()

    p = multiprocessing.Process(target=queue_func, args=(q,))
    p.start()

    o = None
    while o != 'STOP':
        try:
            o = q.get(timeout=0.3)
            print o,
            sys.stdout.flush()

```

(suite sur la page suivante)

(suite de la page précédente)

```

        except Empty:
            print 'TIMEOUT'

    print

#### TEST_CONDITION

def condition_func(cond):
    cond.acquire()
    print '\t' + str(cond)
    time.sleep(2)
    print '\tchild is notifying'
    print '\t' + str(cond)
    cond.notify()
    cond.release()

def test_condition():
    cond = multiprocessing.Condition()

    p = multiprocessing.Process(target=condition_func, args=(cond,))
    print cond

    cond.acquire()
    print cond
    cond.acquire()
    print cond

    p.start()

    print 'main is waiting'
    cond.wait()
    print 'main has woken up'

    print cond
    cond.release()
    print cond
    cond.release()

    p.join()
    print cond

#### TEST_SEMAPHORE

def semaphore_func(sema, mutex, running):
    sema.acquire()

    mutex.acquire()
    running.value += 1
    print running.value, 'tasks are running'
    mutex.release()

```

(suite sur la page suivante)

(suite de la page précédente)

```
random.seed()
time.sleep(random.random()*2)

mutex.acquire()
running.value -= 1
print '%s has finished' % multiprocessing.current_process()
mutex.release()

sema.release()

def test_semaphore():
    sema = multiprocessing.Semaphore(3)
    mutex = multiprocessing.RLock()
    running = multiprocessing.Value('i', 0)

    processes = [
        multiprocessing.Process(target=semaphore_func,
                                args=(sema, mutex, running))
        for i in range(10)
    ]

    for p in processes:
        p.start()

    for p in processes:
        p.join()

#### TEST_JOIN_TIMEOUT

def join_timeout_func():
    print '\tchild sleeping'
    time.sleep(5.5)
    print '\n\tchild terminating'

def test_join_timeout():
    p = multiprocessing.Process(target=join_timeout_func)
    p.start()

    print 'waiting for process to finish'

    while 1:
        p.join(timeout=1)
        if not p.is_alive():
            break
        print '.',
        sys.stdout.flush()

#### TEST_EVENT
```

(suite sur la page suivante)

(suite de la page précédente)

```

def event_func(event):
    print '\t%r is waiting' % multiprocessing.current_process()
    event.wait()
    print '\t%r has woken up' % multiprocessing.current_process()

def test_event():
    event = multiprocessing.Event()

    processes = [multiprocessing.Process(target=event_func, args=(event,))
                  for i in range(5)]

    for p in processes:
        p.start()

    print 'main is sleeping'
    time.sleep(2)

    print 'main is setting event'
    event.set()

    for p in processes:
        p.join()

#### TEST_SHAREDVALUES

def sharedvalues_func(values, arrays, shared_values, shared_arrays):
    for i in range(len(values)):
        v = values[i][1]
        sv = shared_values[i].value
        assert v == sv

    for i in range(len(values)):
        a = arrays[i][1]
        sa = list(shared_arrays[i][:])
        assert a == sa

    print 'Tests passed'

def test_sharedvalues():
    values = [
        ('i', 10),
        ('h', -2),
        ('d', 1.25)
    ]
    arrays = [
        ('i', range(100)),
        ('d', [0.25 * i for i in range(100)]),
        ('H', range(1000))
    ]

    shared_values = [multiprocessing.Value(id, v) for id, v in values]

```

(suite sur la page suivante)

(suite de la page précédente)

```

shared_arrays = [multiprocessing.Array(id, a) for id, a in arrays]

p = multiprocessing.Process(
    target=sharedvalues_func,
    args=(values, arrays, shared_values, shared_arrays)
)
p.start()
p.join()

assert p.exitcode == 0

####

def test(namespace=multiprocessing):
    global multiprocessing

    multiprocessing = namespace

    for func in [ test_value, test_queue, test_condition,
                  test_semaphore, test_join_timeout, test_event,
                  test_sharedvalues ]:

        print '\n\t##### %s\n' % func.__name__
        func()

    ignore = multiprocessing.active_children()          # cleanup any old processes
    if hasattr(multiprocessing, '_debug_info'):
        info = multiprocessing._debug_info()
        if info:
            print info
            raise ValueError('there should be no positive refcounts left')

if __name__ == '__main__':
    multiprocessing.freeze_support()

    assert len(sys.argv) in (1, 2)

    if len(sys.argv) == 1 or sys.argv[1] == 'processes':
        print ' Using processes '.center(79, '-')
        namespace = multiprocessing
    elif sys.argv[1] == 'manager':
        print ' Using processes and a manager '.center(79, '-')
        namespace = multiprocessing.Manager()
        namespace.Process = multiprocessing.Process
        namespace.current_process = multiprocessing.current_process
        namespace.active_children = multiprocessing.active_children
    elif sys.argv[1] == 'threads':
        print ' Using threads '.center(79, '-')
        import multiprocessing.dummy as namespace
    else:

```

(suite sur la page suivante)

(suite de la page précédente)

```

print 'Usage:\n\t%s [processes | manager | threads]' % sys.argv[0]
raise SystemExit(2)

test(namespace)

```

An example showing how to use queues to feed tasks to a collection of worker processes and collect the results :

```

#
# Simple example which uses a pool of workers to carry out some tasks.
#
# Notice that the results will probably not come out of the output
# queue in the same in the same order as the corresponding tasks were
# put on the input queue.  If it is important to get the results back
# in the original order then consider using `Pool.map()` or
# `Pool.imap()` (which will save on the amount of code needed anyway).
#
# Copyright (c) 2006-2008, R Oudkerk
# All rights reserved.
#

import time
import random

from multiprocessing import Process, Queue, current_process, freeze_support

#
# Function run by worker processes
#

def worker(input, output):
    for func, args in iter(input.get, 'STOP'):
        result = calculate(func, args)
        output.put(result)

#
# Function used to calculate result
#

def calculate(func, args):
    result = func(*args)
    return '%s says that %s%s = %s' % \
        (current_process().name, func.__name__, args, result)

#
# Functions referenced by tasks
#

def mul(a, b):
    time.sleep(0.5*random.random())
    return a * b

```

(suite sur la page suivante)

(suite de la page précédente)

```

def plus(a, b):
    time.sleep(0.5*random.random())
    return a + b

#
#
#

def test():
    NUMBER_OF_PROCESSES = 4
    TASKS1 = [(mul, (i, 7)) for i in range(20)]
    TASKS2 = [(plus, (i, 8)) for i in range(10)]

    # Create queues
    task_queue = Queue()
    done_queue = Queue()

    # Submit tasks
    for task in TASKS1:
        task_queue.put(task)

    # Start worker processes
    for i in range(NUMBER_OF_PROCESSES):
        Process(target=worker, args=(task_queue, done_queue)).start()

    # Get and print results
    print 'Unordered results:'
    for i in range(len(TASKS1)):
        print '\t', done_queue.get()

    # Add more tasks using `put()`
    for task in TASKS2:
        task_queue.put(task)

    # Get and print some more results
    for i in range(len(TASKS2)):
        print '\t', done_queue.get()

    # Tell child processes to stop
    for i in range(NUMBER_OF_PROCESSES):
        task_queue.put('STOP')

if __name__ == '__main__':
    freeze_support()
    test()

```

An example of how a pool of worker processes can each run a `SimpleHTTPServer.HTTPServer` instance while sharing a single listening socket.

```

#
# Example where a pool of http servers share a single listening socket

```

(suite sur la page suivante)

(suite de la page précédente)

```

#
# On Windows this module depends on the ability to pickle a socket
# object so that the worker processes can inherit a copy of the server
# object. (We import `multiprocessing.reduction` to enable this pickling.)
#
# Not sure if we should synchronize access to `socket.accept()` method by
# using a process-shared lock -- does not seem to be necessary.
#
# Copyright (c) 2006-2008, R Oudkerk
# All rights reserved.
#

import os
import sys

from multiprocessing import Process, current_process, freeze_support
from BaseHTTPServer import HTTPServer
from SimpleHTTPServer import SimpleHTTPRequestHandler

if sys.platform == 'win32':
    import multiprocessing.reduction    # make sockets pickable/inheritable

def note(format, *args):
    sys.stderr.write('[%s]\t%s\n' % (current_process().name, format%args))

class RequestHandler(SimpleHTTPRequestHandler):
    # we override log_message() to show which process is handling the request
    def log_message(self, format, *args):
        note(format, *args)

def serve_forever(server):
    note('starting server')
    try:
        server.serve_forever()
    except KeyboardInterrupt:
        pass

def runpool(address, number_of_processes):
    # create a single server object -- children will each inherit a copy
    server = HTTPServer(address, RequestHandler)

    # create child processes to act as workers
    for i in range(number_of_processes-1):
        Process(target=serve_forever, args=(server,)).start()

    # main process also acts as a worker
    serve_forever(server)

```

(suite sur la page suivante)

(suite de la page précédente)

```

def test():
    DIR = os.path.join(os.path.dirname(__file__), '..')
    ADDRESS = ('localhost', 8000)
    NUMBER_OF_PROCESSES = 4

    print 'Serving at http://%s:%d using %d worker processes' % \
        (ADDRESS[0], ADDRESS[1], NUMBER_OF_PROCESSES)
    print 'To exit press Ctrl-' + ['C', 'Break'][sys.platform=='win32']

    os.chdir(DIR)
    runpool(ADDRESS, NUMBER_OF_PROCESSES)

if __name__ == '__main__':
    freeze_support()
    test()

```

Some simple benchmarks comparing *multiprocessing* with *threading*:

```

#
# Simple benchmarks for the multiprocessing package
#
# Copyright (c) 2006-2008, R Oudkerk
# All rights reserved.
#

import time, sys, multiprocessing, threading, Queue, gc

if sys.platform == 'win32':
    _timer = time.clock
else:
    _timer = time.time

delta = 1

#### TEST_QUEUESPEED

def queuespeed_func(q, c, iterations):
    a = '0' * 256
    c.acquire()
    c.notify()
    c.release()

    for i in xrange(iterations):
        q.put(a)

    q.put('STOP')

def test_queuespeed(Process, q, c):
    elapsed = 0
    iterations = 1

```

(suite sur la page suivante)

(suite de la page précédente)

```

while elapsed < delta:
    iterations *= 2

    p = Process(target=queuespeed_func, args=(q, c, iterations))
    c.acquire()
    p.start()
    c.wait()
    c.release()

    result = None
    t = _timer()

    while result != 'STOP':
        result = q.get()

    elapsed = _timer() - t

    p.join()

print iterations, 'objects passed through the queue in', elapsed, 'seconds'
print 'average number/sec:', iterations/elapsed

#### TEST_PIPESPEED

def pipe_func(c, cond, iterations):
    a = '0' * 256
    cond.acquire()
    cond.notify()
    cond.release()

    for i in xrange(iterations):
        c.send(a)

    c.send('STOP')

def test_pipespeed():
    c, d = multiprocessing.Pipe()
    cond = multiprocessing.Condition()
    elapsed = 0
    iterations = 1

    while elapsed < delta:
        iterations *= 2

        p = multiprocessing.Process(target=pipe_func,
                                    args=(d, cond, iterations))

        cond.acquire()
        p.start()
        cond.wait()
        cond.release()

```

(suite sur la page suivante)

(suite de la page précédente)

```
result = None
t = _timer()

while result != 'STOP':
    result = c.recv()

elapsed = _timer() - t
p.join()

print iterations, 'objects passed through connection in', elapsed, 'seconds'
print 'average number/sec:', iterations/elapsed

#### TEST_SEQSPEED

def test_seqspeak(seq):
    elapsed = 0
    iterations = 1

    while elapsed < delta:
        iterations *= 2

        t = _timer()

        for i in xrange(iterations):
            a = seq[5]

        elapsed = _timer()-t

    print iterations, 'iterations in', elapsed, 'seconds'
    print 'average number/sec:', iterations/elapsed

#### TEST_LOCK

def test_lockspeed(l):
    elapsed = 0
    iterations = 1

    while elapsed < delta:
        iterations *= 2

        t = _timer()

        for i in xrange(iterations):
            l.acquire()
            l.release()

        elapsed = _timer()-t

    print iterations, 'iterations in', elapsed, 'seconds'
```

(suite sur la page suivante)

(suite de la page précédente)

```

    print 'average number/sec:', iterations/elapsed

#### TEST_CONDITION

def conditionspeed_func(c, N):
    c.acquire()
    c.notify()

    for i in xrange(N):
        c.wait()
        c.notify()

    c.release()

def test_conditionspeed(Process, c):
    elapsed = 0
    iterations = 1

    while elapsed < delta:
        iterations *= 2

        c.acquire()
        p = Process(target=conditionspeed_func, args=(c, iterations))
        p.start()

        c.wait()

        t = _timer()

        for i in xrange(iterations):
            c.notify()
            c.wait()

        elapsed = _timer()-t

        c.release()
        p.join()

    print iterations * 2, 'waits in', elapsed, 'seconds'
    print 'average number/sec:', iterations * 2 / elapsed

####

def test():
    manager = multiprocessing.Manager()

    gc.disable()

    print '\n\t##### testing Queue.Queue\n'
    test_queuespeed(threading.Thread, Queue.Queue(),
                    threading.Condition())

```

(suite sur la page suivante)

```

print '\n\t##### testing multiprocessing.Queue\n'
test_queuespeed(multiprocessing.Process, multiprocessing.Queue(),
                 multiprocessing.Condition())
print '\n\t##### testing Queue managed by server process\n'
test_queuespeed(multiprocessing.Process, manager.Queue(),
                 manager.Condition())
print '\n\t##### testing multiprocessing.Pipe\n'
test_pipespeed()

print

print '\n\t##### testing list\n'
test_seqspeak(range(10))
print '\n\t##### testing list managed by server process\n'
test_seqspeak(manager.list(range(10)))
print '\n\t##### testing Array("i", ..., lock=False)\n'
test_seqspeak(multiprocessing.Array('i', range(10), lock=False))
print '\n\t##### testing Array("i", ..., lock=True)\n'
test_seqspeak(multiprocessing.Array('i', range(10), lock=True))

print

print '\n\t##### testing threading.Lock\n'
test_lockspeed(threading.Lock())
print '\n\t##### testing threading.RLock\n'
test_lockspeed(threading.RLock())
print '\n\t##### testing multiprocessing.Lock\n'
test_lockspeed(multiprocessing.Lock())
print '\n\t##### testing multiprocessing.RLock\n'
test_lockspeed(multiprocessing.RLock())
print '\n\t##### testing lock managed by server process\n'
test_lockspeed(manager.Lock())
print '\n\t##### testing rlock managed by server process\n'
test_lockspeed(manager.RLock())

print

print '\n\t##### testing threading.Condition\n'
test_conditionspeed(threading.Thread, threading.Condition())
print '\n\t##### testing multiprocessing.Condition\n'
test_conditionspeed(multiprocessing.Process, multiprocessing.Condition())
print '\n\t##### testing condition managed by a server process\n'
test_conditionspeed(multiprocessing.Process, manager.Condition())

gc.enable()

if __name__ == '__main__':
    multiprocessing.freeze_support()
    test()

```

16.7 mmap — Memory-mapped file support

Memory-mapped file objects behave like both strings and like file objects. Unlike normal string objects, however, these are mutable. You can use mmap objects in most places where strings are expected; for example, you can use the `re` module to search through a memory-mapped file. Since they're mutable, you can change a single character by doing `obj[index] = 'a'`, or change a substring by assigning to a slice : `obj[i1:i2] = '...'`. You can also read and write data starting at the current file position, and `seek()` through the file to different positions.

A memory-mapped file is created by the `mmap` constructor, which is different on Unix and on Windows. In either case you must provide a file descriptor for a file opened for update. If you wish to map an existing Python file object, use its `fileno()` method to obtain the correct value for the `fileno` parameter. Otherwise, you can open the file using the `os.open()` function, which returns a file descriptor directly (the file still needs to be closed when done).

Note : If you want to create a memory-mapping for a writable, buffered file, you should `flush()` the file first. This is necessary to ensure that local modifications to the buffers are actually available to the mapping.

For both the Unix and Windows versions of the constructor, `access` may be specified as an optional keyword parameter. `access` accepts one of three values : `ACCESS_READ`, `ACCESS_WRITE`, or `ACCESS_COPY` to specify read-only, write-through or copy-on-write memory respectively. `access` can be used on both Unix and Windows. If `access` is not specified, Windows mmap returns a write-through mapping. The initial memory values for all three access types are taken from the specified file. Assignment to an `ACCESS_READ` memory map raises a `TypeError` exception. Assignment to an `ACCESS_WRITE` memory map affects both memory and the underlying file. Assignment to an `ACCESS_COPY` memory map affects memory but does not update the underlying file.

Modifié dans la version 2.5 : To map anonymous memory, -1 should be passed as the `fileno` along with the `length`.

Modifié dans la version 2.6 : `mmap.mmap` has formerly been a factory function creating mmap objects. Now `mmap.mmap` is the class itself.

```
class mmap.mmap(fileno, length[, tagname[, access[, offset]]])
```

(Windows version) Maps `length` bytes from the file specified by the file handle `fileno`, and creates a mmap object. If `length` is larger than the current size of the file, the file is extended to contain `length` bytes. If `length` is 0, the maximum length of the map is the current size of the file, except that if the file is empty Windows raises an exception (you cannot create an empty mapping on Windows).

`tagname`, if specified and not `None`, is a string giving a tag name for the mapping. Windows allows you to have many different mappings against the same file. If you specify the name of an existing tag, that tag is opened, otherwise a new tag of this name is created. If this parameter is omitted or `None`, the mapping is created without a name. Avoiding the use of the tag parameter will assist in keeping your code portable between Unix and Windows.

`offset` may be specified as a non-negative integer offset. mmap references will be relative to the offset from the beginning of the file. `offset` defaults to 0. `offset` must be a multiple of the `ALLOCATIONGRANULARITY`.

```
class mmap.mmap(fileno, length[, flags[, prot[, access[, offset]]]])
```

(Unix version) Maps `length` bytes from the file specified by the file descriptor `fileno`, and returns a mmap object. If `length` is 0, the maximum length of the map will be the current size of the file when `mmap` is called.

`flags` specifies the nature of the mapping. `MAP_PRIVATE` creates a private copy-on-write mapping, so changes to the contents of the mmap object will be private to this process, and `MAP_SHARED` creates a mapping that's shared with all other processes mapping the same areas of the file. The default value is `MAP_SHARED`.

prot, if specified, gives the desired memory protection; the two most useful values are `PROT_READ` and `PROT_WRITE`, to specify that the pages may be read or written. *prot* defaults to `PROT_READ | PROT_WRITE`.

access may be specified in lieu of *flags* and *prot* as an optional keyword parameter. It is an error to specify both *flags*, *prot* and *access*. See the description of *access* above for information on how to use this parameter.

offset may be specified as a non-negative integer offset. `mmap` references will be relative to the offset from the beginning of the file. *offset* defaults to 0. *offset* must be a multiple of `ALLOCATIONGRANULARITY` which is equal to `PAGESIZE` on Unix systems.

To ensure validity of the created memory mapping the file specified by the descriptor *fileno* is internally automatically synchronized with physical backing store on Mac OS X and OpenVMS.

This example shows a simple way of using `mmap` :

```
import mmap

# write a simple example file
with open("hello.txt", "wb") as f:
    f.write("Hello Python!\n")

with open("hello.txt", "r+b") as f:
    # memory-map the file, size 0 means whole file
    mm = mmap.mmap(f.fileno(), 0)
    # read content via standard file methods
    print mm.readline() # prints "Hello Python!"
    # read content via slice notation
    print mm[:5] # prints "Hello"
    # update content using slice notation;
    # note that new content must have same size
    mm[6:] = " world!\n"
    # ... and read again using standard file methods
    mm.seek(0)
    print mm.readline() # prints "Hello world!"
    # close the map
    mm.close()
```

The next example demonstrates how to create an anonymous map and exchange data between the parent and child processes :

```
import mmap
import os

mm = mmap.mmap(-1, 13)
mm.write("Hello world!")

pid = os.fork()

if pid == 0: # In a child process
    mm.seek(0)
    print mm.readline()

    mm.close()
```

Memory-mapped file objects support the following methods :

close()

Closes the `mmap`. Subsequent calls to other methods of the object will result in a `ValueError`

exception being raised. This will not close the open file.

find(*string*[, *start*[, *end*]])

Returns the lowest index in the object where the substring *string* is found, such that *string* is contained in the range [*start*, *end*]. Optional arguments *start* and *end* are interpreted as in slice notation. Returns -1 on failure.

flush([*offset*, *size*])

Flushes changes made to the in-memory copy of a file back to disk. Without use of this call there is no guarantee that changes are written back before the object is destroyed. If *offset* and *size* are specified, only changes to the given range of bytes will be flushed to disk; otherwise, the whole extent of the mapping is flushed. *offset* must be a multiple of the `PAGESIZE` or `ALLOCATIONGRANULARITY`.
(Windows version) A nonzero value returned indicates success; zero indicates failure.
(Unix version) A zero value is returned to indicate success. An exception is raised when the call failed.

move(*dest*, *src*, *count*)

Copy the *count* bytes starting at offset *src* to the destination index *dest*. If the mmap was created with `ACCESS_READ`, then calls to move will raise a *TypeError* exception.

read(*num*)

Return a string containing up to *num* bytes starting from the current file position; the file position is updated to point after the bytes that were returned.

read_byte()

Returns a string of length 1 containing the character at the current file position, and advances the file position by 1.

readline()

Returns a single line, starting at the current file position and up to the next newline.

resize(*newsize*)

Resizes the map and the underlying file, if any. If the mmap was created with `ACCESS_READ` or `ACCESS_COPY`, resizing the map will raise a *TypeError* exception.

rfind(*string*[, *start*[, *end*]])

Returns the highest index in the object where the substring *string* is found, such that *string* is contained in the range [*start*, *end*]. Optional arguments *start* and *end* are interpreted as in slice notation. Returns -1 on failure.

seek(*pos*[, *whence*])

Set the file's current position. *whence* argument is optional and defaults to `os.SEEK_SET` or 0 (absolute file positioning); other values are `os.SEEK_CUR` or 1 (seek relative to the current position) and `os.SEEK_END` or 2 (seek relative to the file's end).

size()

Return the length of the file, which can be larger than the size of the memory-mapped area.

tell()

Returns the current position of the file pointer.

write(*string*)

Write the bytes in *string* into memory at the current position of the file pointer; the file position is updated to point after the bytes that were written. If the mmap was created with `ACCESS_READ`, then writing to it will raise a *TypeError* exception.

write_byte(*byte*)

Write the single-character string *byte* into memory at the current position of the file pointer; the file position is advanced by 1. If the mmap was created with `ACCESS_READ`, then writing to it will raise a *TypeError* exception.

16.8 readline — interface pour GNU readline

The *readline* module defines a number of functions to facilitate completion and reading/writing of history files from the Python interpreter. This module can be used directly, or via the *rlcompleter* module, which

supports completion of Python identifiers at the interactive prompt. Settings made using this module affect the behaviour of both the interpreter's interactive prompt and the prompts offered by the `raw_input()` and `input()` built-in functions.

Note : The underlying Readline library API may be implemented by the `libedit` library instead of GNU readline. On MacOS X the `readline` module detects which library is being used at run time.

Le fichier de configuration pour *libedit* est différent de celui de *GNU readline*. Si, dans votre programme, vous chargez les chaînes de configuration vous pouvez valider le texte *libedit* dans `readline.__doc__` pour faire la différence entre *GNU readline* et *libedit*.

L'association de touches de *readline* peut être configurée via un fichier d'initialisation, typiquement nommé `.inputrc` dans votre répertoire utilisateur. Voir [Readline Init File](#) dans le manuel GNU pour *readline* pour des informations à propos du format et de la construction autorisée de ce fichier, ainsi que les possibilités de la bibliothèque *readline* en général.

16.8.1 Fichier d'initialisation

Les fonctions suivantes se rapportent au fichier d'initialisation et à la configuration utilisateur.

`readline.parse_and_bind(string)`

Exécute la ligne d'initialisation fournie dans l'argument *string*. Cela appelle la fonction `rl_parse_and_bind()` de la bibliothèque sous-jacente.

`readline.read_init_file([filename])`

Exécute un fichier d'initialisation *readline*. Le nom de fichier par défaut est le dernier nom de fichier utilisé. Cela appelle la fonction `rl_read_init_file()` de la bibliothèque sous-jacente.

16.8.2 Tampon de ligne

Les fonctions suivantes opèrent sur le tampon de ligne :

`readline.get_line_buffer()`

Renvoie le contenu courant du tampon de ligne (`rl_line_buffer` dans la bibliothèque sous-jacente).

`readline.insert_text(string)`

Insère du texte dans le tampon de ligne à la position du curseur. Cela appelle la fonction `rl_insert_text()` de la bibliothèque sous-jacente, mais ignore la valeur de retour.

`readline.redisplay()`

Change ce qui est affiché sur l'écran pour représenter le contenu courant de la ligne de tampon. Cela appelle la fonction `rl_redisplay()` dans la bibliothèque sous-jacente.

16.8.3 Fichier d'historique

les fonctions suivantes opèrent sur un fichier d'historique :

`readline.read_history_file([filename])`

Charge un fichier d'historique de *readline*, et l'ajoute à la liste d'historique. Le fichier par défaut est `~/.history`. Cela appelle la fonction `read_history()` de la bibliothèque sous-jacente.

`readline.write_history_file([filename])`

Enregistre la liste de l'historique dans un fichier d'historique de *readline*, en écrasant un éventuel fichier existant. Le nom de fichier par défaut est `~/.history`. Cela appelle la fonction `write_history()` de la bibliothèque sous-jacente.

`readline.get_history_length()`

`readline.set_history_length(length)`

Définit ou renvoie le nombre souhaité de lignes à enregistrer dans le fichier d'historique. La fonction `write_history_file()` utilise cette valeur pour tronquer le fichier d'historique, en appelant `history_truncate_file()` de la bibliothèque sous-jacente. Les valeurs négatives impliquent une taille de fichier d'historique illimitée.

16.8.4 Liste d'historique

Les fonctions suivantes opèrent sur une liste d'historique globale :

`readline.clear_history()`

Effacer l'historique courant. Cela appelle la fonction `clear_history()` de la bibliothèque sous-jacente. La fonction Python existe seulement si Python a été compilé pour une version de la bibliothèque qui le gère.

Nouveau dans la version 2.4.

`readline.get_current_history_length()`

Renvoie le nombre d'objets actuellement dans l'historique. (C'est différent de `get_history_length()`, qui renvoie le nombre maximum de lignes qui vont être écrites dans un fichier d'historique.)

Nouveau dans la version 2.3.

`readline.get_history_item(index)`

Renvoie le contenu courant de l'objet d'historique à *index*. L'index de l'objet commence à 1. Cela appelle `history_get()` de la bibliothèque sous-jacente.

Nouveau dans la version 2.3.

`readline.remove_history_item(pos)`

Supprime l'objet de l'historique défini par sa position depuis l'historique. L'index de la position commence à zéro. Cela appelle la fonction `remove_history()` de la bibliothèque sous-jacente.

Nouveau dans la version 2.4.

`readline.replace_history_item(pos, line)`

Remplace un objet de l'historique à la position définie par *line*. L'index de la position commence à zéro. Cela appelle `replace_history_entry()` de la bibliothèque sous-jacente.

Nouveau dans la version 2.4.

`readline.add_history(line)`

Ajoute *line* au tampon d'historique, comme si c'était la dernière ligne saisie. Cela appelle la fonction `add_history()` de la librairie sous-jacente.

16.8.5 Fonctions de rappel au démarrage

Nouveau dans la version 2.3.

`readline.set_startup_hook([function])`

Définit ou supprime la fonction invoquée par la fonction de retour `rl_startup_hook` de la bibliothèque sous-jacente. Si *function* est spécifié, il est utilisé en tant que nouvelle fonction de rappel ; si omis ou `None`, toute fonction déjà installée est supprimée. La fonction de rappel est appelée sans arguments juste avant que *readline* affiche la première invite de commande.

`readline.set_pre_input_hook([function])`

Définit ou supprime la fonction invoquée par la fonction de retour `rl_pre_input_hook` de la bibliothèque sous-jacente. Si *function* est spécifié, il sera utilisé par la nouvelle fonction de rappel ; si omis ou `None`, toute fonction déjà installée est supprimée. La fonction de rappel est appelée sans arguments après que la première invite de commande ait été affichée et juste avant que *readline* commence à lire les caractères saisis. Cette fonction existe seulement si Python a été compilé pour une version de la bibliothèque qui le gère.

16.8.6 Complétion

Les fonctions suivantes relatent comment implémenter une fonction de complétion d'un mot spécifique. C'est typiquement déclenché par la touche Tab, et peut suggérer et automatiquement compléter un mot en cours de saisie. Par défaut, Readline est configuré pour être utilisé par `rlcompleter` pour compléter les mots clefs de Python pour l'interpréteur interactif. Si le module `readline` doit être utilisé avec une complétion spécifique, un ensemble de mots délimiteurs doivent être définis.

`readline.set_completer([function])`

Définit ou supprime la fonction de complétion. Si *function* est spécifié, il sera utilisé en tant que nouvelle fonction de complétion ; si omis ou `None`, toute fonction de complétion déjà installé est supprimé. La fonction de complétion est appelée telle que `function(text, state)`, pour *state* valant 0, 1, 2, ..., jusqu'à ce qu'elle renvoie une valeur qui n'est pas une chaîne de caractères. Elle doit renvoyer les prochaines complétions possibles commençant par *text*.

La fonction de complétion installée est invoquée par la fonction de retour *entry_func* passée à `rl_completion_matches()` de la bibliothèque sous-jacente. La chaîne de caractère *text* va du premier paramètres vers la fonction de retour `rl_attempted_completion_function` de la bibliothèque sous-jacente.

`readline.get_completer()`

Récupère la fonction de complétion, ou `None` si aucune fonction de complétion n'a été définie.

Nouveau dans la version 2.3.

`readline.get_completion_type()`

Récupère le type de complétion essayé. Cela renvoie la variable `rl_completion_type` dans la bibliothèque sous-jacente en tant qu'entier.

Nouveau dans la version 2.6.

`readline.get_begidx()`

`readline.get_endidx()`

Récupère l'indexe de début ou de fin d'un contexte de complétion. Ces indexes sont les arguments *start* et *end* passés à la fonction de retour `rl_attempted_completion_function` de la bibliothèque sous-jacente.

`readline.set_completer_delims(string)`

`readline.get_completer_delims()`

Définit ou récupère les mots délimitants pour la complétion. Ceux-ci déterminent le début du mot devant être considéré pour la complétion (le contexte de la complétion). Ces fonctions accèdent à la variable `rl_completer_word_break_characters` de la bibliothèque sous-jacente.

`readline.set_completion_display_matches_hook([function])`

Définit ou supprime la fonction d'affichage de la complétion. Si *function* est spécifié, il sera utilisé en tant que nouvelle fonction d'affichage de complétion ; si omis ou `None`, toute fonction de complétion déjà installée est supprimée. Cela définit ou supprime la fonction de retour `rl_completion_display_matches_hook` dans la bibliothèque sous-jacente. La fonction d'affichage de complétion est appelée telle que `function(substitution, [matches], longest_match_length)` une seule fois lorsque les correspondances doivent être affichées.

Nouveau dans la version 2.6.

16.8.7 Exemple

The following example demonstrates how to use the `readline` module's history reading and writing functions to automatically load and save a history file named `.pyhist` from the user's home directory. The code below would normally be executed automatically during interactive sessions from the user's `PYTHONSTARTUP` file.

```

import os
import readline
histfile = os.path.join(os.path.expanduser("~"), ".pyhist")
try:
    readline.read_history_file(histfile)
    # default history len is -1 (infinite), which may grow unruly
    readline.set_history_length(1000)
except IOError:
    pass
import atexit
atexit.register(readline.write_history_file, histfile)
del os, histfile

```

L'exemple suivant étend la classe `code.InteractiveConsole` pour gérer la sauvegarde/restauration de l'historique. :

```

import code
import readline
import atexit
import os

class HistoryConsole(code.InteractiveConsole):
    def __init__(self, locals=None, filename="<console>",
                 histfile=os.path.expanduser("~/console-history")):
        code.InteractiveConsole.__init__(self, locals, filename)
        self.init_history(histfile)

    def init_history(self, histfile):
        readline.parse_and_bind("tab: complete")
        if hasattr(readline, "read_history_file"):
            try:
                readline.read_history_file(histfile)
            except IOError:
                pass
        atexit.register(self.save_history, histfile)

    def save_history(self, histfile):
        readline.set_history_length(1000)
        readline.write_history_file(histfile)

```

16.9 rlcompleter — Fonction de complétion pour GNU readline

Code source : `Lib/rlcompleter.py`

Le module `rlcompleter` définit une fonction de complétion appropriée pour le module `readline` en complétant des identifiants et mots-clés Python valides.

Quand le module est importé dans une plate-forme Unix et la méthode `complete()` est configurée pour assurer la complétion de `readline`, une instance de classe `Completer` est automatiquement créée et la méthode est configurée au finisseur `complete()`

Exemple :

```
>>> import rlcompleter
>>> import readline
>>> readline.parse_and_bind("tab: complete")
>>> readline. <TAB PRESSED>
readline.__doc__      readline.get_line_buffer(  readline.read_init_file(
readline.__file__    readline.insert_text(      readline.set_completer(
readline.__name__    readline.parse_and_bind(
>>> readline.
```

The *rlcompleter* module is designed for use with Python's interactive mode. A user can add the following lines to his or her initialization file (identified by the PYTHONSTARTUP environment variable) to get automatic Tab completion :

```
try:
    import readline
except ImportError:
    print "Module readline not available."
else:
    import rlcompleter
    readline.parse_and_bind("tab: complete")
```

Sur les plate-formes sans *readline*, la classe *Completer* définie par ce module peut quand même être utilisée pour des fins personnalisées.

16.9.1 Objets pour la complétion (*Completer Objects*)

Les objets pour la complétion (*Completer objects* en anglais) disposent de la méthode suivante :

Completer.complete(text, state)

Renvoie la *state*-ième complétion pour *text*.

If called for *text* that doesn't include a period character ('.'), it will complete from names currently defined in *__main__*, *__builtin__* and keywords (as defined by the *keyword* module).

Quand elle est appelée pour un nom qui comporte un point, elle ne tente d'évaluer que ce qui n'a pas d'effet secondaire (les fonctions ne sont pas évaluées, mais elle peut faire des appels à *__getattr__()*), jusqu'à la dernière partie, et trouve des équivalents pour le reste via la fonction *dir()*. Toute exception levée durant l'évaluation de l'expression est interceptée, mise sous silence, et *None* est renvoyé.

Communication et réseau entre processus

Les modules décrits dans ce chapitre fournissent différents mécanismes permettant à des processus de communiquer.

Some modules only work for two processes that are on the same machine, e.g. *signal* and *subprocess*. Other modules support networking protocols that two or more processes can use to communicate across machines.

La liste des modules documentés dans ce chapitre est :

17.1 subprocess — Gestion de sous-processus

Nouveau dans la version 2.4.

Le module *subprocess* vous permet de lancer de nouveaux processus, les connecter à des tubes d'entrée/sortie/erreur, et d'obtenir leurs codes de retour. Ce module a l'intention de remplacer plusieurs anciens modules et fonctions :

```
os.system
os.spawn*
os.popen*
popen2.*
commands.*
```

Information about how this module can be used to replace the older functions can be found in the *subprocess-replacements* section.

Voir aussi :

POSIX users (Linux, BSD, etc.) are strongly encouraged to install and use the much more recent *subprocess32* module instead of the version included with python 2.7. It is a drop in replacement with better behavior in many situations.

PEP 324 – PEP proposant le module *subprocess*

17.1.1 Utiliser le module subprocess

The recommended way to launch subprocesses is to use the following convenience functions. For more advanced use cases when these do not meet your needs, use the underlying *Popen* interface.

`subprocess.call(args, *, stdin=None, stdout=None, stderr=None, shell=False)`

Run the command described by *args*. Wait for command to complete, then return the `returncode` attribute.

The arguments shown above are merely the most common ones, described below in *Arguments fréquemment utilisés* (hence the slightly odd notation in the abbreviated signature). The full function signature is the same as that of the *Popen* constructor - this functions passes all supplied arguments directly through to that interface.

Exemples :

```
>>> subprocess.call(["ls", "-l"])
0

>>> subprocess.call("exit 1", shell=True)
1
```

Avertissement : Using `shell=True` can be a security hazard. See the warning under *Arguments fréquemment utilisés* for details.

Note : Do not use `stdout=PIPE` or `stderr=PIPE` with this function as that can deadlock based on the child process output volume. Use *Popen* with the `communicate()` method when you need pipes.

`subprocess.check_call(args, *, stdin=None, stdout=None, stderr=None, shell=False)`

Lance la commande avec les arguments et attend qu'elle se termine. Se termine normalement si le code de retour est zéro, et lève une *CalledProcessError* autrement. L'objet *CalledProcessError* contiendra le code de retour dans son attribut `returncode`.

The arguments shown above are merely the most common ones, described below in *Arguments fréquemment utilisés* (hence the slightly odd notation in the abbreviated signature). The full function signature is the same as that of the *Popen* constructor - this functions passes all supplied arguments directly through to that interface.

Exemples :

```
>>> subprocess.check_call(["ls", "-l"])
0

>>> subprocess.check_call("exit 1", shell=True)
Traceback (most recent call last):
...
subprocess.CalledProcessError: Command 'exit 1' returned non-zero exit status 1
```

Nouveau dans la version 2.5.

Avertissement : Using `shell=True` can be a security hazard. See the warning under *Arguments fréquemment utilisés* for details.

Note : Do not use `stdout=PIPE` or `stderr=PIPE` with this function as that can deadlock based on

the child process output volume. Use [Popen](#) with the `communicate()` method when you need pipes.

`subprocess.check_output(args, *, stdin=None, stderr=None, shell=False, universal_newlines=False)`

Run command with arguments and return its output as a byte string.

Si le code de retour est non-nul, la fonction lève une `CalledProcessError`. L'objet `CalledProcessError` contiendra le code de retour dans son attribut `returncode`, et la sortie du programme dans son attribut `output`.

The arguments shown above are merely the most common ones, described below in *Arguments fréquemment utilisés* (hence the slightly odd notation in the abbreviated signature). The full function signature is largely the same as that of the [Popen](#) constructor, except that `stdout` is not permitted as it is used internally. All other supplied arguments are passed directly through to the [Popen](#) constructor.

Exemples :

```
>>> subprocess.check_output(["echo", "Hello World!"])
'Hello World!\n'

>>> subprocess.check_output("exit 1", shell=True)
Traceback (most recent call last):
...
subprocess.CalledProcessError: Command 'exit 1' returned non-zero exit status 1
```

Pour capturer aussi la sortie d'erreur dans le résultat, utilisez `stderr=subprocess.STDOUT` :

```
>>> subprocess.check_output(
...     "ls non_existent_file; exit 0",
...     stderr=subprocess.STDOUT,
...     shell=True)
'ls: non_existent_file: No such file or directory\n'
```

Nouveau dans la version 2.7.

Avertissement : Using `shell=True` can be a security hazard. See the warning under *Arguments fréquemment utilisés* for details.

Note : Do not use `stderr=PIPE` with this function as that can deadlock based on the child process error volume. Use [Popen](#) with the `communicate()` method when you need a `stderr` pipe.

`subprocess.PIPE`

Special value that can be used as the `stdin`, `stdout` or `stderr` argument to [Popen](#) and indicates that a pipe to the standard stream should be opened.

`subprocess.STDOUT`

Valeur spéciale qui peut être utilisée pour l'argument `stderr` de [Popen](#) et qui indique que la sortie d'erreur doit être redirigée vers le même gestionnaire que la sortie standard.

exception `subprocess.CalledProcessError`

Exception raised when a process run by `check_call()` or `check_output()` returns a non-zero exit status.

`returncode`

Exit status of the child process.

`cmd`

La commande utilisée pour instancier le processus fils.

output

Output of the child process if this exception is raised by `check_output()`. Otherwise, `None`.

Arguments fréquemment utilisés

Pour supporter un large ensemble de cas, la constructeur de `Popen` (et les fonctions de convenance) acceptent de nombreux arguments optionnels. Pour les cas d'utilisation les plus typiques, beaucoup de ces arguments peuvent sans problème être laissés à leurs valeurs par défaut. Les arguments les plus communément nécessaires sont :

`args` est requis pour tous les appels et doit être une chaîne de caractères ou une séquence d'arguments du programme. Il est généralement préférable de fournir une séquence d'arguments, puisque cela permet au module de s'occuper des potentiels échappements ou guillemets autour des arguments (p. ex. pour permettre des espaces dans des noms de fichiers). Si l'argument est passé comme une simple chaîne, soit `shell` doit valoir `True` (voir ci-dessous) soit la chaîne doit simplement contenir le nom du programme à exécuter sans spécifier d'arguments supplémentaires. `stdin`, `stdout` and `stderr` specify the executed program's standard input, standard output and standard error file handles, respectively. Valid values are `PIPE`, an existing file descriptor (a positive integer), an existing file object, and `None`. `PIPE` indicates that a new pipe to the child should be created. With the default settings of `None`, no redirection will occur; the child's file handles will be inherited from the parent. Additionally, `stderr` can be `STDOUT`, which indicates that the `stderr` data from the child process should be captured into the same file handle as for `stdout`.

When `stdout` or `stderr` are pipes and `universal_newlines` is `True` then all line endings will be converted to `'\n'` as described for the `universal_newlines 'U'` mode argument to `open()`.

Si `shell` vaut `True`, la commande spécifiée sera exécutée à travers un `shell`. Cela peut être utile si vous utilisez Python pour le contrôle de flot qu'il propose par rapport à beaucoup de `shells` système et voulez tout de même profiter des autres fonctionnalités des `shells` telles que les tubes (`pipes`), les motifs de fichiers, l'expansion des variables d'environnement, et l'expansion du `~` vers le répertoire principal de l'utilisateur. Cependant, notez que Python lui-même propose l'implémentation de beaucoup de ces fonctionnalités (en particulier `glob`, `fnmatch`, `os.walk()`, `os.path.expandvars()`, `os.path.expanduser()` et `shutil`).

Avertissement : Executing shell commands that incorporate unsanitized input from an untrusted source makes a program vulnerable to [shell injection](#), a serious security flaw which can result in arbitrary command execution. For this reason, the use of `shell=True` is **strongly discouraged** in cases where the command string is constructed from external input :

```
>>> from subprocess import call
>>> filename = input("What file would you like to display?\n")
What file would you like to display?
non_existent; rm -rf / #
>>> call("cat " + filename, shell=True) # Uh-oh. This will end badly...
```

`shell=False` disables all shell based features, but does not suffer from this vulnerability; see the Note in the `Popen` constructor documentation for helpful hints in getting `shell=False` to work.

When using `shell=True`, `pipes.quote()` can be used to properly escape whitespace and shell metacharacters in strings that are going to be used to construct shell commands.

Ces options, ainsi que toutes les autres, sont décrites plus en détails dans la documentation du constructeur de `Popen`.

Constructeur de *Popen*

La création et la gestion sous-jacentes des processus est gérée par la classe *Popen*. Elle offre beaucoup de flexibilité de façon à ce que les développeurs soient capables de gérer les cas d'utilisation les moins communs, non couverts par les fonctions de convenance.

```
class subprocess.Popen(args, bufsize=0, executable=None, stdin=None, stdout=None, st-
                        derr=None, preexec_fn=None, close_fds=False, shell=False, cwd=None,
                        env=None, universal_newlines=False, startupinfo=None, creation-
                        flags=0)
```

Execute a child program in a new process. On Unix, the class uses *os.execvp()*-like behavior to execute the child program. On Windows, the class uses the Windows *CreateProcess()* function. The arguments to *Popen* are as follows.

args doit être une séquence d'arguments du programme ou une chaîne seule. Par défaut, le programme à exécuter est le premier élément de *args* si *args* est une séquence. Si *args* est une chaîne, l'interprétation dépend de la plateforme et est décrite plus bas. Voir les arguments *shell* et *executable* pour d'autres différences avec le comportement par défaut. Sans autre indication, il est recommandé de passer *args* comme une séquence.

On Unix, if *args* is a string, the string is interpreted as the name or path of the program to execute. However, this can only be done if not passing arguments to the program.

Note : *shlex.split()* peut être utilisée pour déterminer le découpage correct de *args*, spécifiquement dans les cas complexes :

```
>>> import shlex, subprocess
>>> command_line = raw_input()
/bin/vikings -input eggs.txt -output "spam spam.txt" -cmd "echo '$MONEY'"
>>> args = shlex.split(command_line)
>>> print args
['/bin/vikings', '-input', 'eggs.txt', '-output', 'spam spam.txt', '-cmd', 'echo '
↳ '$MONEY''']
>>> p = subprocess.Popen(args) # Success!
```

Notez en particulier que les options (comme *-input*) et arguments (comme *eggs.txt*) qui sont séparés par des espaces dans le *shell* iront dans des éléments séparés de la liste, alors que les arguments qui nécessitent des guillemets et échappements quand utilisés dans le *shell* (comme les noms de fichiers contenant des espaces ou la commande *echo* montrée plus haut) forment des éléments uniques.

Sous Windows, si *args* est une séquence, elle sera convertie vers une chaîne de caractères de la manière décrite dans *Convertir une séquence d'arguments vers une chaîne de caractères sous Windows*. Cela fonctionne ainsi parce que la fonction *CreateProcess()* opère sur des chaînes.

L'argument *shell* (qui vaut *False* par défaut) spécifie s'il faut utiliser un *shell* comme programme à exécuter. Si *shell* vaut *True*, il est recommandé de passer *args* comme une chaîne de caractères plutôt qu'une séquence.

On Unix with *shell=True*, the shell defaults to */bin/sh*. If *args* is a string, the string specifies the command to execute through the shell. This means that the string must be formatted exactly as it would be when typed at the shell prompt. This includes, for example, quoting or backslash escaping filenames with spaces in them. If *args* is a sequence, the first item specifies the command string, and any additional items will be treated as additional arguments to the shell itself. That is to say, *Popen* does the equivalent of :

```
Popen(['/bin/sh', '-c', args[0], args[1], ...])
```

Sous Windows avec *shell=True*, la variable d'environnement *COMSPEC* spécifie le *shell* par défaut. La seule raison pour laquelle vous devriez spécifier *shell=True* sous Windows est quand la commande

que vous souhaitez exécuter est une *built-in* du *shell* (p. ex. **dir** ou **copy**). Vous n'avez pas besoin de `shell=True` pour lancer un fichier batch ou un exécutable console.

Avertissement : Passing `shell=True` can be a security hazard if combined with untrusted input. See the warning under *Arguments fréquemment utilisés* for details.

bufsize, if given, has the same meaning as the corresponding argument to the built-in `open()` function : 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 usually means fully buffered. The default value for *bufsize* is 0 (unbuffered).

Note : If you experience performance issues, it is recommended that you try to enable buffering by setting *bufsize* to either -1 or a large enough positive value (such as 4096).

The *executable* argument specifies a replacement program to execute. It is very seldom needed. When `shell=False`, *executable* replaces the program to execute specified by *args*. However, the original *args* is still passed to the program. Most programs treat the program specified by *args* as the command name, which can then be different from the program actually executed. On Unix, the *args* name becomes the display name for the executable in utilities such as **ps**. If `shell=True`, on Unix the *executable* argument specifies a replacement shell for the default `/bin/sh`.

stdin, *stdout* and *stderr* specify the executed program's standard input, standard output and standard error file handles, respectively. Valid values are *PIPE*, an existing file descriptor (a positive integer), an existing file object, and **None**. *PIPE* indicates that a new pipe to the child should be created. With the default settings of **None**, no redirection will occur ; the child's file handles will be inherited from the parent. Additionally, *stderr* can be *STDOUT*, which indicates that the *stderr* data from the child process should be captured into the same file handle as for *stdout*.

If *preexec_fn* is set to a callable object, this object will be called in the child process just before the child is executed. (Unix only)

If *close_fds* is true, all file descriptors except 0, 1 and 2 will be closed before the child process is executed. (Unix only). Or, on Windows, if *close_fds* is true then no handles will be inherited by the child process. Note that on Windows, you cannot set *close_fds* to true and also redirect the standard handles by setting *stdin*, *stdout* or *stderr*.

If *cwd* is not **None**, the child's current directory will be changed to *cwd* before it is executed. Note that this directory is not considered when searching the executable, so you can't specify the program's path relative to *cwd*.

If *env* is not **None**, it must be a mapping that defines the environment variables for the new process ; these are used instead of inheriting the current process' environment, which is the default behavior.

Note : Si spécifié, *env* doit fournir chaque variable requise pour l'exécution du programme. Sous Windows, afin d'exécuter un *side-by-side assembly*, l'environnement *env* spécifié **doit** contenir une variable **SystemRoot** valide.

If *universal_newlines* is **True**, the file objects *stdout* and *stderr* are opened as text files in *universal newlines* mode. Lines may be terminated by any of `'\n'`, the Unix end-of-line convention, `'\r'`, the old Macintosh convention or `'\r\n'`, the Windows convention. All of these external representations are seen as `'\n'` by the Python program.

Note : This feature is only available if Python is built with universal newline support (the default). Also, the *newlines* attribute of the file objects *stdout*, *stdin* and *stderr* are not updated by the `communicate()` method.

Si fourni, *startupinfo* sera un objet *STARTUPINFO*, qui sera passé à la fonction `CreateProcess` inhérente.

creationflags, si fourni, peut valoir `CREATE_NEW_CONSOLE` ou `CREATE_NEW_PROCESS_GROUP`. (Windows seulement)

Exceptions

Les exceptions levées dans le processus fils, avant que le nouveau programme n'ait commencé son exécution, seront relayées dans le parent. Additionnellement, l'objet de l'exception aura un attribut supplémentaire appelé `child_traceback`, une chaîne de caractères contenant la trace de l'exception du point de vue du fils.

L'exception la plus communément levée est `OSError`. Elle survient, par exemple, si vous essayez d'exécuter un fichier inexistant. Les applications doivent se préparer à traiter des exceptions `OSError`.

Une `ValueError` sera levée si `Popen` est appelé avec des arguments invalides.

`check_call()` et `check_output()` lèveront une `CalledProcessError` si le processus appelé renvoie un code de retour non nul.

Security

Unlike some other popen functions, this implementation will never call a system shell implicitly. This means that all characters, including shell metacharacters, can safely be passed to child processes. Obviously, if the shell is invoked explicitly, then it is the application's responsibility to ensure that all whitespace and metacharacters are quoted appropriately.

17.1.2 Objets `Popen`

Les instances de la classe `Popen` possèdent les méthodes suivantes :

`Popen.poll()`

Vérifie que le processus enfant s'est terminé. Modifie l'attribut `returncode` et le renvoie.

`Popen.wait()`

Attend qu'un processus enfant se termine. Modifie l'attribut `returncode` et le renvoie.

Avertissement : This will deadlock when using `stdout=PIPE` and/or `stderr=PIPE` and the child process generates enough output to a pipe such that it blocks waiting for the OS pipe buffer to accept more data. Use `communicate()` to avoid that.

`Popen.communicate(input=None)`

Interact with process : Send data to stdin. Read data from stdout and stderr, until end-of-file is reached. Wait for process to terminate. The optional *input* argument should be a string to be sent to the child process, or `None`, if no data should be sent to the child.

`communicate()` returns a tuple (`stdoutdata`, `stderrdata`).

Notez que si vous souhaitez envoyer des données sur l'entrée standard du processus, vous devez créer l'objet `Popen` avec `stdin=PIPE`. Similairement, pour obtenir autre chose que `None` dans le *tuple* résultant, vous devez aussi préciser `stdout=PIPE` et/ou `stderr=PIPE`.

Note : Les données lues sont mises en cache en mémoire, donc n'utilisez pas cette méthode si la taille des données est importante voire illimitée.

`Popen.send_signal(signal)`

Envoie le signal *signal* au fils.

Note : Sous Windows, `SIGTERM` est un alias pour `terminate()`. `CTRL_C_EVENT` et

`CTRL_BREAK_EVENT` peuvent être envoyés aux processus démarrés avec un paramètre *creation-flags* incluant `CREATE_NEW_PROCESS_GROUP`.

Nouveau dans la version 2.6.

Popen.terminate()

Stoppe le processus fils. Sur les systèmes POSIX, la méthode envoie un signal `SIGTERM` au fils. Sous Windows, la fonction `TerminateProcess()` de l'API *Win32* est appelée pour arrêter le fils.

Nouveau dans la version 2.6.

Popen.kill()

Tue le processus fils. Sur les systèmes POSIX, la fonction envoie un signal `SIGKILL` au fils. Sous Windows, *kill()* est un alias pour *terminate()*.

Nouveau dans la version 2.6.

Les attributs suivants sont aussi disponibles :

Avertissement : Utilisez *communicate()* plutôt que *.stdin.write*, *.stdout.read* ou *.stderr.read* pour empêcher les *deadlocks* dus au remplissage des tampons des tubes de l'OS et bloquant le processus enfant.

Popen.stdin

If the *stdin* argument was *PIPE*, this attribute is a file object that provides input to the child process. Otherwise, it is `None`.

Popen.stdout

If the *stdout* argument was *PIPE*, this attribute is a file object that provides output from the child process. Otherwise, it is `None`.

Popen.stderr

If the *stderr* argument was *PIPE*, this attribute is a file object that provides error output from the child process. Otherwise, it is `None`.

Popen.pid

L'identifiant de processus du processus enfant.

Notez que si vous passez l'argument *shell* à `True`, il s'agit alors de l'identifiant du *shell* instancié.

Popen.returncode

Le code de retour de l'enfant, attribué par *poll()* et *wait()* (et indirectement par *communicate()*).

Une valeur `None` indique que le processus ne s'est pas encore terminé.

A negative value `-N` indicates that the child was terminated by signal `N` (Unix only).

17.1.3 Utilitaires *Popen* pour Windows

La classe *STARTUPINFO* et les constantes suivantes sont seulement disponibles sous Windows.

class subprocess.STARTUPINFO

Un support partiel de la structure *STARTUPINFO* de Windows est utilisé lors de la création d'un objet *Popen*.

dwFlags

Un champ de bits déterminant si certains attributs *STARTUPINFO* sont utilisés quand le processus crée une fenêtre :

```
si = subprocess.STARTUPINFO()
si.dwFlags = subprocess.STARTF_USESTDHANDLES | subprocess.STARTF_USESHOWWINDOW
```

hStdInput

Si *dwFlags* spécifie *STARTF_USESTDHANDLES*, cet attribut est le gestionnaire d'entrée standard du processus. Si *STARTF_USESTDHANDLES* n'est pas spécifié, l'entrée standard par défaut est le tampon du clavier.

hStdOutput

Si *dwFlags* spécifie *STARTF_USESTDHANDLES*, cet attribut est le gestionnaire de sortie standard du processus. Autrement, l'attribut est ignoré et la sortie standard par défaut est le tampon de la console.

hStdError

Si *dwFlags* spécifie *STARTF_USESTDHANDLES*, cet attribut est le gestionnaire de sortie d'erreur du processus. Autrement, l'attribut est ignoré et la sortie d'erreur par défaut est le tampon de la console.

wShowWindow

Si *dwFlags* spécifie *STARTF_USESHOWWINDOW*, cet attribut peut-être n'importe quel attribut valide pour le paramètre *nCmdShow* de la fonction *ShowWindow*, à l'exception de *SW_SHOWDEFAULT*. Autrement, cet attribut est ignoré.

SW_HIDE est fourni pour cet attribut. Il est utilisé quand *Popen* est appelée avec *shell=True*.

Constantes

Le module *subprocess* expose les constantes suivantes.

subprocess.STD_INPUT_HANDLE

Le périphérique d'entrée standard. Initialement, il s'agit du tampon de la console d'entrée, *CONIN\$*.

subprocess.STD_OUTPUT_HANDLE

Le périphérique de sortie standard. Initialement, il s'agit du tampon de l'écran de console actif, *CONOUT\$*.

subprocess.STD_ERROR_HANDLE

Le périphérique de sortie d'erreur. Initialement, il s'agit du tampon de l'écran de console actif, *CONOUT\$*.

subprocess.SW_HIDE

Cache la fenêtre. Une autre fenêtre sera activée.

subprocess.STARTF_USESTDHANDLES

Spécifie que les attributs *STARTUPINFO.hStdInput*, *STARTUPINFO.hStdOutput* et *STARTUPINFO.hStdError* contiennent des informations additionnelles.

subprocess.STARTF_USESHOWWINDOW

Spécifie que l'attribut *STARTUPINFO.wShowWindow* contient des informations additionnelles.

subprocess.CREATE_NEW_CONSOLE

Le nouveau processus instancie une nouvelle console, plutôt que d'hériter de celle de son père (par défaut).

This flag is always set when *Popen* is created with *shell=True*.

subprocess.CREATE_NEW_PROCESS_GROUP

Un paramètre *creationflags* de *Popen* pour spécifier si un nouveau groupe de processus doit être créé. Cette option est nécessaire pour utiliser *os.kill()* sur le sous-processus.

L'option est ignorée si *CREATE_NEW_CONSOLE* est spécifié.

17.1.4 Remplacer les fonctions plus anciennes par le module subprocess

Dans cette section, « a devient b » signifie que b peut être utilisée en remplacement de a.

Note : Toutes les fonctions « a » dans cette section échouent (plus ou moins) silencieusement si le programme à exécuter ne peut être trouvé ; les fonctions « b » de remplacement lèvent à la place une *OSError*.

De plus, les remplacements utilisant `check_output()` échoueront avec une `CalledProcessError` si l'opération requise produit un code de retour non-nul. La sortie est toujours disponible par l'attribut `output` de l'exception levée.

Dans les exemples suivants, nous supposons que les fonctions utilisées ont déjà été importées depuis le module `subprocess`.

Remplacement des *backquotes* des *shells* `/bin/sh`

```
output=`mycmd myarg`
```

devient :

```
output = check_output(["mycmd", "myarg"])
```

Remplacer les *pipes* du *shell*

```
output=`dmesg | grep hda`
```

devient :

```
p1 = Popen(["dmesg"], stdout=PIPE)
p2 = Popen(["grep", "hda"], stdin=p1.stdout, stdout=PIPE)
p1.stdout.close() # Allow p1 to receive a SIGPIPE if p2 exits.
output = p2.communicate()[0]
```

L'appel à `p1.stdout.close()` après le démarrage de `p2` est important pour que `p1` reçoive un `SIGPIPE` si `p2` se termine avant lui.

Alternativement, pour des entrées fiables, le support des tubes du *shell* peut directement être utilisé :

```
output=`dmesg | grep hda`
```

devient :

```
output=check_output("dmesg | grep hda", shell=True)
```

Remplacer `os.system()`

```
status = os.system("mycmd" + " myarg")
# becomes
status = subprocess.call("mycmd" + " myarg", shell=True)
```

Notes :

— Appeler le programme à travers un *shell* n'est habituellement pas requis.

Un exemple plus réaliste ressemblerait à cela :

```
try:
    retcode = call("mycmd" + " myarg", shell=True)
    if retcode < 0:
        print >>sys.stderr, "Child was terminated by signal", -retcode
    else:
        print >>sys.stderr, "Child returned", retcode
```

(suite sur la page suivante)

(suite de la page précédente)

```
except OSError as e:
    print >>sys.stderr, "Execution failed:", e
```

Remplacer les fonctions de la famille `os.spawn`

Exemple avec `P_NOWAIT` :

```
pid = os.spawnlp(os.P_NOWAIT, "/bin/mycmd", "mycmd", "myarg")
==>
pid = Popen(["/bin/mycmd", "myarg"]).pid
```

Exemple avec `P_WAIT` :

```
retcode = os.spawnlp(os.P_WAIT, "/bin/mycmd", "mycmd", "myarg")
==>
retcode = call(["/bin/mycmd", "myarg"])
```

Exemple avec un tableau :

```
os.spawnvp(os.P_NOWAIT, path, args)
==>
Popen([path] + args[1:])
```

Exemple en passant un environnement :

```
os.spawnlpe(os.P_NOWAIT, "/bin/mycmd", "mycmd", "myarg", env)
==>
Popen(["/bin/mycmd", "myarg"], env={"PATH": "/usr/bin"})
```

Remplacer `os.popen()`, `os.popen2()`, `os.popen3()` etc.

```
pipe = os.popen("cmd", 'r', bufsize)
==>
pipe = Popen("cmd", shell=True, bufsize=bufsize, stdout=PIPE).stdout
```

```
pipe = os.popen("cmd", 'w', bufsize)
==>
pipe = Popen("cmd", shell=True, bufsize=bufsize, stdin=PIPE).stdin
```

```
(child_stdin, child_stdout) = os.popen2("cmd", mode, bufsize)
==>
p = Popen("cmd", shell=True, bufsize=bufsize,
          stdin=PIPE, stdout=PIPE, close_fds=True)
(child_stdin, child_stdout) = (p.stdin, p.stdout)
```

```
(child_stdin,
 child_stdout,
 child_stderr) = os.popen3("cmd", mode, bufsize)
==>
p = Popen("cmd", shell=True, bufsize=bufsize,
          stdin=PIPE, stdout=PIPE, stderr=PIPE, close_fds=True)
```

(suite sur la page suivante)

(suite de la page précédente)

```
(child_stdin,
 child_stdout,
 child_stderr) = (p.stdin, p.stdout, p.stderr)
```

```
(child_stdin, child_stdout_and_stderr) = os.popen4("cmd", mode,
                                                    bufsize)
==>
p = Popen("cmd", shell=True, bufsize=bufsize,
          stdin=PIPE, stdout=PIPE, stderr=STDOUT, close_fds=True)
(child_stdin, child_stdout_and_stderr) = (p.stdin, p.stdout)
```

On Unix, `os.popen2`, `os.popen3` and `os.popen4` also accept a sequence as the command to execute, in which case arguments will be passed directly to the program without shell intervention. This usage can be replaced as follows :

```
(child_stdin, child_stdout) = os.popen2(["/bin/ls", "-l"], mode,
                                         bufsize)
==>
p = Popen(["/bin/ls", "-l"], bufsize=bufsize, stdin=PIPE, stdout=PIPE)
(child_stdin, child_stdout) = (p.stdin, p.stdout)
```

La gestion du code de retour se traduit comme suit :

```
pipe = os.popen("cmd", 'w')
...
rc = pipe.close()
if rc is not None and rc >> 8:
    print "There were some errors"
==>
process = Popen("cmd", shell=True, stdin=PIPE)
...
process.stdin.close()
if process.wait() != 0:
    print "There were some errors"
```

Remplacer les fonctions du module `popen2`

```
(child_stdout, child_stdin) = popen2.popen2("somestring", bufsize, mode)
==>
p = Popen("somestring", shell=True, bufsize=bufsize,
          stdin=PIPE, stdout=PIPE, close_fds=True)
(child_stdout, child_stdin) = (p.stdout, p.stdin)
```

On Unix, `popen2` also accepts a sequence as the command to execute, in which case arguments will be passed directly to the program without shell intervention. This usage can be replaced as follows :

```
(child_stdout, child_stdin) = popen2.popen2(["mycmd", "myarg"], bufsize,
                                             mode)
==>
p = Popen(["mycmd", "myarg"], bufsize=bufsize,
          stdin=PIPE, stdout=PIPE, close_fds=True)
(child_stdout, child_stdin) = (p.stdout, p.stdin)
```


`popen2.Popen3` et `popen2.Popen4` fonctionnent basiquement comme `subprocess.Popen`, excepté que :

- `Popen` lève une exception si l'exécution échoue.
- L'argument `capturestderr` est remplacé par `stderr`.
- `stdin=PIPE` et `stdout=PIPE` doivent être spécifiés.
- `popen2` closes all file descriptors by default, but you have to specify `close_fds=True` with `Popen`.

17.1.5 Notes

Convertir une séquence d'arguments vers une chaîne de caractères sous Windows

Sous Windows, une séquence *args* est convertie vers une chaîne qui peut être analysée avec les règles suivantes (qui correspondent aux règles utilisées par l'environnement *MS C*) :

1. Les arguments sont délimités par des espaces, qui peuvent être des espaces ou des tabulations.
2. Une chaîne entourée de double guillemets est interprétée comme un argument seul, qu'elle contienne ou non des espaces. Une chaîne entre guillemets peut être intégrée dans un argument.
3. Un guillemet double précédé d'un *backslash* est interprété comme un guillemet double littéral.
4. Les *backslashes* sont interprétés littéralement, à moins qu'ils précèdent immédiatement un guillemet double.
5. Si des *backslashes* précèdent directement un guillemet double, toute paire de *backslashes* est interprétée comme un *backslash* littéral. Si le nombre de *backslashes* est impair, le dernier *backslash* échappe le prochain guillemet double comme décrit en règle 3.

17.2 socket — Low-level networking interface

This module provides access to the BSD *socket* interface. It is available on all modern Unix systems, Windows, Mac OS X, BeOS, OS/2, and probably additional platforms.

Note : Some behavior may be platform dependent, since calls are made to the operating system socket APIs.

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 platform-specific reference material for the various socket-related system calls are also a valuable source of information on the details of socket semantics. For Unix, refer to the manual pages; for Windows, see the WinSock (or Winsock 2) specification. For IPv6-ready APIs, readers may want to refer to **RFC 3493** titled Basic Socket Interface Extensions for IPv6.

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 follows : A single string is used for the `AF_UNIX` address family. A pair (*host*, *port*) is used 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 IPv4 address like '100.50.200.5', and *port* is an integer. For `AF_INET6` address family, a four-tuple (*host*, *port*, *flowinfo*, *scopeid*) is used, where *flowinfo* and *scopeid* represents `sin6_flowinfo` and `sin6_scope_id` member in `struct sockaddr_in6` in C. For `socket` module methods, *flowinfo* and *scopeid* can be omitted just for backward compatibility. Note, however, omission of *scopeid* can cause problems in manipulating scoped IPv6 addresses. 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 IPv4 addresses, two special forms are accepted instead of a host address : the empty string represents `INADDR_ANY`, and the string '`<broadcast>`' represents `INADDR_BROADCAST`. The behavior is not available for IPv6 for backward compatibility, therefore, you may want to avoid these if you intend to support IPv6 with your Python programs.

If you use a hostname in the *host* portion of IPv4/v6 socket address, the program may show a nondeterministic behavior, as Python uses the first address returned from the DNS resolution. The socket address will be resolved differently into an actual IPv4/v6 address, depending on the results from DNS resolution and/or the host configuration. For deterministic behavior use a numeric address in *host* portion.

Nouveau dans la version 2.5 : `AF_NETLINK` sockets are represented as pairs `pid, groups`.

Nouveau dans la version 2.6 : Linux-only support for TIPC is also available using the `AF_TIPC` address family. TIPC is an open, non-IP based networked protocol designed for use in clustered computer environments. Addresses are represented by a tuple, and the fields depend on the address type. The general tuple form is `(addr_type, v1, v2, v3 [, scope])`, where :

- *addr_type* is one of `TIPC_ADDR_NAMESEQ`, `TIPC_ADDR_NAME`, or `TIPC_ADDR_ID`.
- *scope* is one of `TIPC_ZONE_SCOPE`, `TIPC_CLUSTER_SCOPE`, and `TIPC_NODE_SCOPE`.
- If *addr_type* is `TIPC_ADDR_NAME`, then *v1* is the server type, *v2* is the port identifier, and *v3* should be 0.
 - If *addr_type* is `TIPC_ADDR_NAMESEQ`, then *v1* is the server type, *v2* is the lower port number, and *v3* is the upper port number.
 - If *addr_type* is `TIPC_ADDR_ID`, then *v1* is the node, *v2* is the reference, and *v3* should be set to 0.

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 `setblocking()`. A generalization of this based on timeouts is supported through `settimeout()`.

The module `socket` exports the following constants and functions :

exception `socket.error`

This exception is raised for socket-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 `os.error`. See the module `errno`, which contains names for the error codes defined by the underlying operating system.

Modifié dans la version 2.6 : `socket.error` is now a child class of `IOError`.

exception `socket.herror`

This exception is raised for address-related errors, i.e. for functions that use `h_errno` in the C API, including `gethostbyname_ex()` and `gethostbyaddr()`.

The accompanying value is a pair `(h_errno, string)` representing an error returned by a library call. *string* represents the description of `h_errno`, as returned by the `hstrerror()` C function.

exception `socket.gaierror`

This exception is raised for address-related errors, for `getaddrinfo()` and `getnameinfo()`. The accompanying value is a pair `(error, string)` representing an error returned by a library call. *string* represents the description of *error*, as returned by the `gai_strerror()` C function. The *error* value will match one of the `EAI_*` constants defined in this module.

exception `socket.timeout`

This exception is raised when a timeout occurs on a socket which has had timeouts enabled via a prior call to `settimeout()`. The accompanying value is a string whose value is currently always « timed out ».

Nouveau dans la version 2.3.

`socket.AF_UNIX`

`socket.AF_INET`

`socket.AF_INET6`

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.

`socket.SOCK_STREAM`

`socket.SOCK_DGRAM`

`socket.SOCK_RAW`

`socket.SOCK_RDM`

`socket.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_*`

`socket.SOMAXCONN`

`MSG_*`

`SOL_*`

`IPPROTO_*`

`IPPORT_*`

`INADDR_*`

`IP_*`

`IPV6_*`

`EAI_*`

`AI_*`

`NI_*`

`TCP_*`

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.

`SIO_*`

`RCVALL_*`

Constants for Windows' `WSAIoctl()`. The constants are used as arguments to the `ioctl()` method of socket objects.

Nouveau dans la version 2.6.

`TIPC_*`

TIPC related constants, matching the ones exported by the C socket API. See the TIPC documentation for more information.

Nouveau dans la version 2.6.

`socket.has_ipv6`

This constant contains a boolean value which indicates if IPv6 is supported on this platform.

Nouveau dans la version 2.3.

`socket.create_connection(address[, timeout[, source_address]])`

Connect to a TCP service listening on the Internet *address* (a 2-tuple (*host*, *port*)), and return the socket object. This is a higher-level function than `socket.connect()`: if *host* is a non-numeric hostname, it will try to resolve it for both `AF_INET` and `AF_INET6`, and then try to connect to all possible addresses in turn until a connection succeeds. This makes it easy to write clients that are compatible to both IPv4 and IPv6.

Passing the optional *timeout* parameter will set the timeout on the socket instance before attempting to connect. If no *timeout* is supplied, the global default timeout setting returned by `getdefaulttimeout()` is used.

If supplied, *source_address* must be a 2-tuple (*host*, *port*) for the socket to bind to as its source address before connecting. If *host* or *port* are "" or 0 respectively the OS default behavior will be used.

Nouveau dans la version 2.6.

Modifié dans la version 2.7 : `source_address` was added.

`socket.getaddrinfo(host, port[, family[, socktype[, proto[, flags]]]])`

Translate the *host/port* argument into a sequence of 5-tuples that contain all the necessary arguments for creating a socket connected to that service. *host* is a domain name, a string representation of an IPv4/v6 address or `None`. *port* is a string service name such as `'http'`, a numeric port number or `None`. By passing `None` as the value of *host* and *port*, you can pass `NULL` to the underlying C API.

The *family*, *socktype* and *proto* arguments can be optionally specified in order to narrow the list of addresses returned. By default, their value is 0, meaning that the full range of results is selected. The *flags* argument can be one or several of the `AI_*` constants, and will influence how results are computed and returned. Its default value is 0. For example, `AI_NUMERICHOST` will disable domain name resolution and will raise an error if *host* is a domain name.

The function returns a list of 5-tuples with the following structure :

(family, socktype, proto, canonname, sockaddr)

In these tuples, *family*, *socktype*, *proto* are all integers and are meant to be passed to the `socket()` function. *canonname* will be a string representing the canonical name of the *host* if `AI_CANONNAME` is part of the *flags* argument; else *canonname* will be empty. *sockaddr* is a tuple describing a socket address, whose format depends on the returned *family* (a (address, port) 2-tuple for `AF_INET`, a (address, port, flow info, scope id) 4-tuple for `AF_INET6`), and is meant to be passed to the `socket.connect()` method.

The following example fetches address information for a hypothetical TCP connection to `example.org` on port 80 (results may differ on your system if IPv6 isn't enabled) :

```
>>> socket.getaddrinfo("example.org", 80, 0, 0, socket.IPPROTO_TCP)
[(10, 1, 6, '', ('2606:2800:220:1:248:1893:25c8:1946', 80, 0, 0)),
 (2, 1, 6, '', ('93.184.216.34', 80))]
```

Nouveau dans la version 2.2.

`socket.getfqdn([name])`

Return a fully qualified domain name for *name*. If *name* is omitted or empty, it is interpreted as the local host. To find the fully qualified name, the hostname returned by `gethostbyaddr()` is checked, followed by aliases for the host, if available. The first name which includes a period is selected. In case no fully qualified domain name is available, the hostname as returned by `gethostname()` is returned.

Nouveau dans la version 2.0.

`socket.gethostbyname(hostname)`

Translate a host name to IPv4 address format. The IPv4 address is returned as a string, such as `'100.50.200.5'`. If the host name is an IPv4 address itself it is returned unchanged. See `gethostbyname_ex()` for a more complete interface. `gethostbyname()` does not support IPv6 name resolution, and `getaddrinfo()` should be used instead for IPv4/v6 dual stack support.

`socket.gethostbyname_ex(hostname)`

Translate a host name to IPv4 address format, extended interface. 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 IPv4 addresses for the same interface on the same host (often but not always a single address). `gethostbyname_ex()` does not support IPv6 name resolution, and `getaddrinfo()` should be used instead for IPv4/v6 dual stack support.

`socket.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, you may want to use `gethostbyname(gethostname())`. This operation assumes that there is a valid address-to-host

mapping for the host, and the assumption does not always hold.

Note : `gethostname()` doesn't always return the fully qualified domain name; use `getfqdn()` (see above).

`socket.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 IPv4/v6 addresses for the same interface on the same host (most likely containing only a single address). To find the fully qualified domain name, use the function `getfqdn()`. `gethostbyaddr()` supports both IPv4 and IPv6.

`socket.getnameinfo(sockaddr, flags)`

Translate a socket address *sockaddr* into a 2-tuple (`host`, `port`). Depending on the settings of *flags*, the result can contain a fully-qualified domain name or numeric address representation in *host*. Similarly, *port* can contain a string port name or a numeric port number.

Nouveau dans la version 2.2.

`socket.getprotobyname(protocolname)`

Translate an Internet protocol name (for example, '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.

`socket.getservbyname(servicename[, protocolname])`

Translate an Internet service name and protocol name to a port number for that service. The optional protocol name, if given, should be 'tcp' or 'udp', otherwise any protocol will match.

`socket.getservbyport(port[, protocolname])`

Translate an Internet port number and protocol name to a service name for that service. The optional protocol name, if given, should be 'tcp' or 'udp', otherwise any protocol will match.

`socket.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` (the default), `AF_INET6` or `AF_UNIX`. The socket type should be `SOCK_STREAM` (the default), `SOCK_DGRAM` or perhaps one of the other `SOCK_` constants. The protocol number is usually zero and may be omitted in that case.

`socket.socketpair([family[, type[, proto]]])`

Build a pair of connected socket objects using the given address family, socket type, and protocol number. Address family, socket type, and protocol number are as for the `socket()` function above. The default family is `AF_UNIX` if defined on the platform; otherwise, the default is `AF_INET`. Availability : Unix.

Nouveau dans la version 2.4.

`socket.fromfd(fd, family, type[, proto])`

Duplicate the file descriptor *fd* (an integer as returned by a file object's `fileno()` method) and build a socket object from the result. 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 (such as a server started by the Unix inet daemon). The socket is assumed to be in blocking mode. Availability : Unix.

`socket.ntohl(x)`

Convert 32-bit positive 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.

socket.ntohs(*x*)

Convert 16-bit positive 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.

socket.htonl(*x*)

Convert 32-bit positive 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.

socket.htons(*x*)

Convert 16-bit positive 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.

socket.inet_aton(*ip_string*)

Convert an IPv4 address from dotted-quad string format (for example, "123.45.67.89") to 32-bit packed binary format, as a string four characters in length. This is useful when conversing with a program that uses the standard C library and needs objects of type `struct in_addr`, which is the C type for the 32-bit packed binary this function returns.

`inet_aton()` also accepts strings with less than three dots; see the Unix manual page `inet(3)` for details.

If the IPv4 address string passed to this function is invalid, `socket.error` will be raised. Note that exactly what is valid depends on the underlying C implementation of `inet_aton()`.

`inet_aton()` does not support IPv6, and `inet_pton()` should be used instead for IPv4/v6 dual stack support.

socket.inet_ntoa(*packed_ip*)

Convert a 32-bit packed IPv4 address (a string four characters in length) to its standard dotted-quad string representation (for example, "123.45.67.89"). This is useful when conversing with a program that uses the standard C library and needs objects of type `struct in_addr`, which is the C type for the 32-bit packed binary data this function takes as an argument.

If the string passed to this function is not exactly 4 bytes in length, `socket.error` will be raised.

`inet_ntoa()` does not support IPv6, and `inet_ntop()` should be used instead for IPv4/v6 dual stack support.

socket.inet_pton(*address_family*, *ip_string*)

Convert an IP address from its family-specific string format to a packed, binary format. `inet_pton()` is useful when a library or network protocol calls for an object of type `struct in_addr` (similar to `inet_aton()`) or `struct in6_addr`.

Supported values for `address_family` are currently `AF_INET` and `AF_INET6`. If the IP address string `ip_string` is invalid, `socket.error` will be raised. Note that exactly what is valid depends on both the value of `address_family` and the underlying implementation of `inet_pton()`.

Availability : Unix (maybe not all platforms).

Nouveau dans la version 2.3.

socket.inet_ntop(*address_family*, *packed_ip*)

Convert a packed IP address (a string of some number of characters) to its standard, family-specific string representation (for example, '7.10.0.5' or '5aef:2b::8') `inet_ntop()` is useful when a library or network protocol returns an object of type `struct in_addr` (similar to `inet_ntoa()`) or `struct in6_addr`.

Supported values for `address_family` are currently `AF_INET` and `AF_INET6`. If the string `packed_ip` is not the correct length for the specified address family, `ValueError` will be raised. A `socket.error` is raised for errors from the call to `inet_ntop()`.

Availability : Unix (maybe not all platforms).

Nouveau dans la version 2.3.

socket.getdefaulttimeout()

Return the default timeout in seconds (float) for new socket objects. A value of `None` indicates that new socket objects have no timeout. When the socket module is first imported, the default is `None`.

Nouveau dans la version 2.3.

`socket.setdefaulttimeout(timeout)`

Set the default timeout in seconds (float) for new socket objects. A value of `None` indicates that new socket objects have no timeout. When the socket module is first imported, the default is `None`.

Nouveau dans la version 2.3.

`socket.SocketType`

This is a Python type object that represents the socket object type. It is the same as `type(socket(...))`.

Voir aussi :

Module `SocketServer` Classes that simplify writing network servers.

Module `ssl` A TLS/SSL wrapper for socket objects.

17.2.1 Socket Objects

Socket objects have the following methods. Except for `makefile()` these correspond to Unix system calls applicable to sockets.

`socket.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.

`socket.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.)

Note : This method has historically accepted a pair of parameters for `AF_INET` addresses instead of only a tuple. This was never intentional and is no longer available in Python 2.0 and later.

`socket.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.

Note : `close()` releases the resource associated with a connection but does not necessarily close the connection immediately. If you want to close the connection in a timely fashion, call `shutdown()` before `close()`.

`socket.connect(address)`

Connect to a remote socket at `address`. (The format of `address` depends on the address family — see above.)

Note : This method has historically accepted a pair of parameters for `AF_INET` addresses instead of only a tuple. This was never intentional and is no longer available in Python 2.0 and later.

`socket.connect_ex(address)`

Like `connect(address)`, but return an error indicator instead of raising an exception for errors returned by the C-level `connect()` call (other problems, such as « host not found, » can still raise exceptions). The error indicator is 0 if the operation succeeded, otherwise the value of the `errno` variable. This is useful to support, for example, asynchronous connects.

Note : This method has historically accepted a pair of parameters for [AF_INET](#) addresses instead of only a tuple. This was never intentional and is no longer available in Python 2.0 and later.

`socket.fileno()`

Return the socket's file descriptor (a small integer). This is useful with [select.select\(\)](#).

Under Windows the small integer returned by this method cannot be used where a file descriptor can be used (such as [os.fdopen\(\)](#)). Unix does not have this limitation.

`socket.getpeername()`

Return the remote address to which the socket is connected. This is useful to find out the port number of a remote IPv4/v6 socket, for instance. (The format of the address returned depends on the address family — see above.) On some systems this function is not supported.

`socket.getsockname()`

Return the socket's own address. This is useful to find out the port number of an IPv4/v6 socket, for instance. (The format of the address returned depends on the address family — see above.)

`socket.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).

`socket.ioctl(control, option)`

Platform Windows

The [ioctl\(\)](#) method is a limited interface to the `WSAIoctl` system interface. Please refer to the [Win32 documentation](#) for more information.

On other platforms, the generic [fcntl.fcntl\(\)](#) and [fcntl.ioctl\(\)](#) functions may be used; they accept a socket object as their first argument.

Nouveau dans la version 2.6.

`socket.listen(backlog)`

Listen for connections made to the socket. The *backlog* argument specifies the maximum number of queued connections and should be at least 0; the maximum value is system-dependent (usually 5), the minimum value is forced to 0.

`socket.makefile([mode[, bufsize]])`

Return a *file object* associated with the socket. (File objects are described in [Objets fichiers](#).) The file object does not close the socket explicitly when its [close\(\)](#) method is called, but only removes its reference to the socket object, so that the socket will be closed if it is not referenced from anywhere else.

The socket must be in blocking mode (it can not have a timeout). The optional *mode* and *bufsize* arguments are interpreted the same way as by the built-in [file\(\)](#) function.

Note : On Windows, the file-like object created by [makefile\(\)](#) cannot be used where a file object with a file descriptor is expected, such as the stream arguments of [subprocess.Popen\(\)](#).

`socket.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 [recv\(2\)](#) for the meaning of the optional argument *flags*; it defaults to zero.

Note : For best match with hardware and network realities, the value of *bufsize* should be a relatively small power of 2, for example, 4096.

`socket.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. See the Unix manual page *recv(2)* for the meaning of the optional argument *flags*; it defaults to zero. (The format of *address* depends on the address family — see above.)

`socket.recvfrom_into(buffer[, nbytes[, flags]])`

Receive data from the socket, writing it into *buffer* instead of creating a new string. The return value is a pair (*nbytes*, *address*) where *nbytes* is the number of bytes received and *address* is the address of the socket sending the data. See the Unix manual page *recv(2)* for the meaning of the optional argument *flags*; it defaults to zero. (The format of *address* depends on the address family — see above.)
Nouveau dans la version 2.5.

`socket.recv_into(buffer[, nbytes[, flags]])`

Receive up to *nbytes* bytes from the socket, storing the data into a buffer rather than creating a new string. If *nbytes* is not specified (or 0), receive up to the size available in the given buffer. Returns the number of bytes received. See the Unix manual page *recv(2)* for the meaning of the optional argument *flags*; it defaults to zero.
Nouveau dans la version 2.5.

`socket.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. Returns the number of bytes sent. Applications are responsible for checking that all data has been sent; if only some of the data was transmitted, the application needs to attempt delivery of the remaining data. For further information on this concept, consult the socket-howto.

`socket.sendall(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. Unlike *send()*, this method continues to send data from *string* until either all data has been sent or an error occurs. *None* is returned on success. On error, an exception is raised, and there is no way to determine how much data, if any, was successfully sent.

`socket.sendto(string, address)`

`socket.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.)

`socket.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, an *error* exception is raised; in blocking mode, the calls block until they can proceed. *s.setblocking(0)* is equivalent to *s.settimeout(0.0)*; *s.setblocking(1)* is equivalent to *s.settimeout(None)*.

`socket.settimeout(value)`

Set a timeout on blocking socket operations. The *value* argument can be a nonnegative float expressing seconds, or *None*. If a float is given, subsequent socket operations will raise a *timeout* exception if the timeout period *value* has elapsed before the operation has completed. Setting a timeout of *None* disables timeouts on socket operations. *s.settimeout(0.0)* is equivalent to *s.setblocking(0)*; *s.settimeout(None)* is equivalent to *s.setblocking(1)*.

Nouveau dans la version 2.3.

`socket.gettimeout()`

Return the timeout in seconds (float) associated with socket operations, or `None` if no timeout is set. This reflects the last call to `setblocking()` or `settimeout()`.

Nouveau dans la version 2.3.

Some notes on socket blocking and timeouts : A socket object can be in one of three modes : blocking, non-blocking, or timeout. Sockets are always created in blocking mode. In blocking mode, operations block until complete or the system returns an error (such as connection timed out). In non-blocking mode, operations fail (with an error that is unfortunately system-dependent) if they cannot be completed immediately. In timeout mode, operations fail if they cannot be completed within the timeout specified for the socket or if the system returns an error. The `setblocking()` method is simply a shorthand for certain `settimeout()` calls.

Timeout mode internally sets the socket in non-blocking mode. The blocking and timeout modes are shared between file descriptors and socket objects that refer to the same network endpoint. A consequence of this is that file objects returned by the `makefile()` method must only be used when the socket is in blocking mode ; in timeout or non-blocking mode file operations that cannot be completed immediately will fail.

Note that the `connect()` operation is subject to the timeout setting, and in general it is recommended to call `settimeout()` before calling `connect()` or pass a timeout parameter to `create_connection()`. The system network stack may return a connection timeout error of its own regardless of any Python socket timeout setting.

`socket.setsockopt(level, optname, value)`

Set the value of the given socket option (see the Unix manual 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).

`socket.shutdown(how)`

Shut down one or both halves of the connection. If `how` is `SHUT_RD`, further receives are disallowed. If `how` is `SHUT_WR`, further sends are disallowed. If `how` is `SHUT_RDWR`, further sends and receives are disallowed. Depending on the platform, shutting down one half of the connection can also close the opposite half (e.g. on Mac OS X, `shutdown(SHUT_WR)` does not allow further reads on the other end of the connection).

Note that there are no methods `read()` or `write()` ; use `recv()` and `send()` without `flags` argument instead.

Socket objects also have these (read-only) attributes that correspond to the values given to the `socket` constructor.

`socket.family`

The socket family.

Nouveau dans la version 2.5.

`socket.type`

The socket type.

Nouveau dans la version 2.5.

`socket.proto`

The socket protocol.

Nouveau dans la version 2.5.

17.2.2 Exemple

Here are four 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 `sendall()/recv()` on the socket it is listening on but on the new socket returned by `accept()`.

The first two examples support IPv4 only.

```
# Echo server program
import socket

HOST = ''          # Symbolic name meaning all available interfaces
PORT = 50007       # Arbitrary non-privileged port
s = socket.socket(socket.AF_INET, socket.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.sendall(data)
conn.close()
```

```
# Echo client program
import socket

HOST = 'daring.cwi.nl'    # The remote host
PORT = 50007              # The same port as used by the server
s = socket.socket(socket.AF_INET, socket.SOCK_STREAM)
s.connect((HOST, PORT))
s.sendall('Hello, world')
data = s.recv(1024)
s.close()
print 'Received', repr(data)
```

The next two examples are identical to the above two, but support both IPv4 and IPv6. The server side will listen to the first address family available (it should listen to both instead). On most of IPv6-ready systems, IPv6 will take precedence and the server may not accept IPv4 traffic. The client side will try to connect to the all addresses returned as a result of the name resolution, and sends traffic to the first one connected successfully.

```
# Echo server program
import socket
import sys

HOST = None          # Symbolic name meaning all available interfaces
PORT = 50007         # Arbitrary non-privileged port
s = None
for res in socket.getaddrinfo(HOST, PORT, socket.AF_UNSPEC,
                              socket.SOCK_STREAM, 0, socket.AI_PASSIVE):
    af, socktype, proto, canonname, sa = res
    try:
        s = socket.socket(af, socktype, proto)
    except socket.error as msg:
        s = None
```

(suite sur la page suivante)

(suite de la page précédente)

```

        continue
    try:
        s.bind(sa)
        s.listen(1)
    except socket.error as msg:
        s.close()
        s = None
        continue
    break
if s is None:
    print 'could not open socket'
    sys.exit(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
import socket
import sys

HOST = 'daring.cwi.nl'      # The remote host
PORT = 50007                # The same port as used by the server
s = None
for res in socket.getaddrinfo(HOST, PORT, socket.AF_UNSPEC, socket.SOCK_STREAM):
    af, socktype, proto, canonname, sa = res
    try:
        s = socket.socket(af, socktype, proto)
    except socket.error as msg:
        s = None
        continue
    try:
        s.connect(sa)
    except socket.error as msg:
        s.close()
        s = None
        continue
    break
if s is None:
    print 'could not open socket'
    sys.exit(1)
s.sendall('Hello, world')
data = s.recv(1024)
s.close()
print 'Received', repr(data)

```

The last example shows how to write a very simple network sniffer with raw sockets on Windows. The example requires administrator privileges to modify the interface :

```
import socket

# the public network interface
HOST = socket.gethostname(socket.gethostname())

# create a raw socket and bind it to the public interface
s = socket.socket(socket.AF_INET, socket.SOCK_RAW, socket.IPPROTO_IP)
s.bind((HOST, 0))

# Include IP headers
s.setsockopt(socket.IPPROTO_IP, socket.IP_HDRINCL, 1)

# receive all packages
s.ioctl(socket.SIO_RCVALL, socket.RCVALL_ON)

# receive a package
print s.recvfrom(65565)

# disabled promiscuous mode
s.ioctl(socket.SIO_RCVALL, socket.RCVALL_OFF)
```

Running an example several times with too small delay between executions, could lead to this error :

```
socket.error: [Errno 98] Address already in use
```

This is because the previous execution has left the socket in a `TIME_WAIT` state, and can't be immediately reused.

There is a `socket` flag to set, in order to prevent this, `socket.SO_REUSEADDR` :

```
s = socket.socket(socket.AF_INET, socket.SOCK_STREAM)
s.setsockopt(socket.SOL_SOCKET, socket.SO_REUSEADDR, 1)
s.bind((HOST, PORT))
```

the `SO_REUSEADDR` flag tells the kernel to reuse a local socket in `TIME_WAIT` state, without waiting for its natural timeout to expire.

17.3 ssl — TLS/SSL wrapper for socket objects

Nouveau dans la version 2.6.

Code source : [Lib/ssl.py](#)

This module provides access to Transport Layer Security (often known as « Secure Sockets Layer ») encryption and peer authentication facilities for network sockets, both client-side and server-side. This module uses the OpenSSL library. It is available on all modern Unix systems, Windows, Mac OS X, and probably additional platforms, as long as OpenSSL is installed on that platform.

Modifié dans la version 2.7.13 : Updated to support linking with OpenSSL 1.1.0

Note : Some behavior may be platform dependent, since calls are made to the operating system socket APIs. The installed version of OpenSSL may also cause variations in behavior. For example, TLSv1.1 and TLSv1.2 come with openssl version 1.0.1.

Avertissement : Don't use this module without reading the *Security considerations*. Doing so may lead to a false sense of security, as the default settings of the `ssl` module are not necessarily appropriate for your application.

This section documents the objects and functions in the `ssl` module; for more general information about TLS, SSL, and certificates, the reader is referred to the documents in the « See Also » section at the bottom.

This module provides a class, `ssl.SSLSocket`, which is derived from the `socket.socket` type, and provides a socket-like wrapper that also encrypts and decrypts the data going over the socket with SSL. It supports additional methods such as `getpeercert()`, which retrieves the certificate of the other side of the connection, and `cipher()`, which retrieves the cipher being used for the secure connection.

For more sophisticated applications, the `ssl.SSLContext` class helps manage settings and certificates, which can then be inherited by SSL sockets created through the `SSLContext.wrap_socket()` method.

17.3.1 Functions, Constants, and Exceptions

exception `ssl.SSLError`

Raised to signal an error from the underlying SSL implementation (currently provided by the OpenSSL library). This signifies some problem in the higher-level encryption and authentication layer that's superimposed on the underlying network connection. This error is a subtype of `socket.error`, which in turn is a subtype of `IOError`. The error code and message of `SSLError` instances are provided by the OpenSSL library.

library

A string mnemonic designating the OpenSSL submodule in which the error occurred, such as `SSL`, `PEM` or `X509`. The range of possible values depends on the OpenSSL version.

Nouveau dans la version 2.7.9.

reason

A string mnemonic designating the reason this error occurred, for example `CERTIFICATE_VERIFY_FAILED`. The range of possible values depends on the OpenSSL version.

Nouveau dans la version 2.7.9.

exception `ssl.SSLZeroReturnError`

A subclass of `SSLError` raised when trying to read or write and the SSL connection has been closed cleanly. Note that this doesn't mean that the underlying transport (read TCP) has been closed.

Nouveau dans la version 2.7.9.

exception `ssl.SSLWantReadError`

A subclass of `SSLError` raised by a *non-blocking SSL socket* when trying to read or write data, but more data needs to be received on the underlying TCP transport before the request can be fulfilled.

Nouveau dans la version 2.7.9.

exception `ssl.SSLWantWriteError`

A subclass of `SSLError` raised by a *non-blocking SSL socket* when trying to read or write data, but more data needs to be sent on the underlying TCP transport before the request can be fulfilled.

Nouveau dans la version 2.7.9.

exception `ssl.SSLSyscallError`

A subclass of `SSLError` raised when a system error was encountered while trying to fulfill an operation on a SSL socket. Unfortunately, there is no easy way to inspect the original `errno` number.

Nouveau dans la version 2.7.9.

exception `ssl.SSLEOFError`

A subclass of `SSLError` raised when the SSL connection has been terminated abruptly. Generally, you shouldn't try to reuse the underlying transport when this error is encountered.

Nouveau dans la version 2.7.9.

exception `ssl.CertificateError`

Raised to signal an error with a certificate (such as mismatching hostname). Certificate errors detected by OpenSSL, though, raise an *SSL*[Error](#).

Socket creation

The following function allows for standalone socket creation. Starting from Python 2.7.9, it can be more flexible to use *SSLContext.wrap_socket()* instead.

```
ssl.wrap_socket(sock, keyfile=None, certfile=None, server_side=False, cert_reqs=CERT_NONE,
                 ssl_version={see docs}, ca_certs=None, do_handshake_on_connect=True,
                 suppress_ragged_eofs=True, ciphers=None)
```

Takes an instance `sock` of *socket.socket*, and returns an instance of *ssl.SSLSocket*, a subtype of *socket.socket*, which wraps the underlying socket in an SSL context. `sock` must be a *SOCK_STREAM* socket; other socket types are unsupported.

For client-side sockets, the context construction is lazy; if the underlying socket isn't connected yet, the context construction will be performed after `connect()` is called on the socket. For server-side sockets, if the socket has no remote peer, it is assumed to be a listening socket, and the server-side SSL wrapping is automatically performed on client connections accepted via the `accept()` method. *wrap_socket()* may raise *SSL*[Error](#).

The `keyfile` and `certfile` parameters specify optional files which contain a certificate to be used to identify the local side of the connection. See the discussion of *Certificates* for more information on how the certificate is stored in the `certfile`.

The parameter `server_side` is a boolean which identifies whether server-side or client-side behavior is desired from this socket.

The parameter `cert_reqs` specifies whether a certificate is required from the other side of the connection, and whether it will be validated if provided. It must be one of the three values *CERT_NONE* (certificates ignored), *CERT_OPTIONAL* (not required, but validated if provided), or *CERT_REQUIRED* (required and validated). If the value of this parameter is not *CERT_NONE*, then the `ca_certs` parameter must point to a file of CA certificates.

The `ca_certs` file contains a set of concatenated « certification authority » certificates, which are used to validate certificates passed from the other end of the connection. See the discussion of *Certificates* for more information about how to arrange the certificates in this file.

The parameter `ssl_version` specifies which version of the SSL protocol to use. Typically, the server chooses a particular protocol version, and the client must adapt to the server's choice. Most of the versions are not interoperable with the other versions. If not specified, the default is *PROTOCOL_SSLv23*; it provides the most compatibility with other versions.

Here's a table showing which versions in a client (down the side) can connect to which versions in a server (along the top) :

<i>client</i> / server	SSLv2	SSLv3	SSLv23	TLSv1	TLSv1.1	TLSv1.2
<i>SSLv2</i>	oui	non	oui	non	non	non
<i>SSLv3</i>	non	oui	oui	non	non	non
<i>SSLv23</i> ¹	non	oui	oui	oui	oui	oui
<i>TLSv1</i>	non	non	oui	oui	non	non
<i>TLSv1.1</i>	non	non	oui	non	oui	non
<i>TLSv1.2</i>	non	non	oui	non	non	oui

1. TLS 1.3 protocol will be available with *PROTOCOL_SSLv23* in OpenSSL >= 1.1.1. There is no dedicated *PROTOCOL* constant for just TLS 1.3.

Note : Which connections succeed will vary depending on the version of OpenSSL. For example, before OpenSSL 1.0.0, an SSLv23 client would always attempt SSLv2 connections.

The *ciphers* parameter sets the available ciphers for this SSL object. It should be a string in the OpenSSL cipher list format.

The parameter *do_handshake_on_connect* specifies whether to do the SSL handshake automatically after doing a `socket.connect()`, or whether the application program will call it explicitly, by invoking the `SSLSocket.do_handshake()` method. Calling `SSLSocket.do_handshake()` explicitly gives the program control over the blocking behavior of the socket I/O involved in the handshake.

The parameter *suppress_ragged_eofs* specifies how the `SSLSocket.read()` method should signal unexpected EOF from the other end of the connection. If specified as *True* (the default), it returns a normal EOF (an empty bytes object) in response to unexpected EOF errors raised from the underlying socket; if *False*, it will raise the exceptions back to the caller.

Modifié dans la version 2.7 : New optional argument *ciphers*.

Context creation

A convenience function helps create *SSLContext* objects for common purposes.

`ssl.create_default_context(purpose=Purpose.SERVER_AUTH, cafile=None, capath=None, cadata=None)`

Return a new *SSLContext* object with default settings for the given *purpose*. The settings are chosen by the *ssl* module, and usually represent a higher security level than when calling the *SSLContext* constructor directly.

cafile, *capath*, *cadata* represent optional CA certificates to trust for certificate verification, as in *SSLContext.load_verify_locations()*. If all three are *None*, this function can choose to trust the system's default CA certificates instead.

The settings are : *PROTOCOL_SSLv23*, *OP_NO_SSLv2*, and *OP_NO_SSLv3* with high encryption cipher suites without RC4 and without unauthenticated cipher suites. Passing *SERVER_AUTH* as *purpose* sets *verify_mode* to *CERT_REQUIRED* and either loads CA certificates (when at least one of *cafile*, *capath* or *cadata* is given) or uses *SSLContext.load_default_certs()* to load default CA certificates.

Note : The protocol, options, cipher and other settings may change to more restrictive values anytime without prior deprecation. The values represent a fair balance between compatibility and security.

If your application needs specific settings, you should create a *SSLContext* and apply the settings yourself.

Note : If you find that when certain older clients or servers attempt to connect with a *SSLContext* created by this function that they get an error stating « Protocol or cipher suite mismatch », it may be that they only support SSL3.0 which this function excludes using the *OP_NO_SSLv3*. SSL3.0 is widely considered to be *completely broken*. If you still wish to continue to use this function but still allow SSL 3.0 connections you can re-enable them using :

```
ctx = ssl.create_default_context(Purpose.CLIENT_AUTH)
ctx.options &= ~ssl.OP_NO_SSLv3
```

Nouveau dans la version 2.7.9.

Modifié dans la version 2.7.10 : RC4 was dropped from the default cipher string.

Modifié dans la version 2.7.13 : ChaCha20/Poly1305 was added to the default cipher string.

3DES was dropped from the default cipher string.

Modifié dans la version 2.7.15 : TLS 1.3 cipher suites `TLS_AES_128_GCM_SHA256`, `TLS_AES_256_GCM_SHA384`, and `TLS_CHACHA20_POLY1305_SHA256` were added to the default cipher string.

`ssl._https_verify_certificates(enable=True)`

Specifies whether or not server certificates are verified when creating client HTTPS connections without specifying a particular SSL context.

Starting with Python 2.7.9, `httpplib` and modules which use it, such as `urllib2` and `xmllib`, default to verifying remote server certificates received when establishing client HTTPS connections. This default verification checks that the certificate is signed by a Certificate Authority in the system trust store and that the Common Name (or Subject Alternate Name) on the presented certificate matches the requested host.

Setting `enable` to `True` ensures this default behaviour is in effect.

Setting `enable` to `False` reverts the default HTTPS certificate handling to that of Python 2.7.8 and earlier, allowing connections to servers using self-signed certificates, servers using certificates signed by a Certificate Authority not present in the system trust store, and servers where the hostname does not match the presented server certificate.

The leading underscore on this function denotes that it intentionally does not exist in any implementation of Python 3 and may not be present in all Python 2.7 implementations. The portable approach to bypassing certificate checks or the system trust store when necessary is for tools to enable that on a case-by-case basis by explicitly passing in a suitably configured SSL context, rather than reverting the default behaviour of the standard library client modules.

Nouveau dans la version 2.7.12.

Voir aussi :

- [CVE-2014-9365](#) – HTTPS man-in-the-middle attack against Python clients using default settings
- [PEP 476](#) – Enabling certificate verification by default for HTTPS
- [PEP 493](#) – HTTPS verification migration tools for Python 2.7

Random generation

Obsolète depuis la version 2.7.13 : OpenSSL has deprecated `ssl.RAND_pseudo_bytes()`, use `ssl.RAND_bytes()` instead.

`ssl.RAND_status()`

Return `True` if the SSL pseudo-random number generator has been seeded with “enough” randomness, and `False` otherwise. You can use `ssl.RAND_egd()` and `ssl.RAND_add()` to increase the randomness of the pseudo-random number generator.

`ssl.RAND_egd(path)`

If you are running an entropy-gathering daemon (EGD) somewhere, and `path` is the pathname of a socket connection open to it, this will read 256 bytes of randomness from the socket, and add it to the SSL pseudo-random number generator to increase the security of generated secret keys. This is typically only necessary on systems without better sources of randomness.

See <http://egd.sourceforge.net/> or <http://prngd.sourceforge.net/> for sources of entropy-gathering daemons.

Availability : not available with LibreSSL and OpenSSL > 1.1.0

`ssl.RAND_add(bytes, entropy)`

Mix the given `bytes` into the SSL pseudo-random number generator. The parameter `entropy` (a float) is a lower bound on the entropy contained in string (so you can always use 0.0). See [RFC 1750](#) for more information on sources of entropy.

Certificate handling

`ssl.match_hostname(cert, hostname)`

Verify that `cert` (in decoded format as returned by `SSLSocket.getpeercert()`) matches the given

hostname. The rules applied are those for checking the identity of HTTPS servers as outlined in [RFC 2818](#) and [RFC 6125](#), except that IP addresses are not currently supported. In addition to HTTPS, this function should be suitable for checking the identity of servers in various SSL-based protocols such as FTPS, IMAPS, POPS and others.

CertificateError is raised on failure. On success, the function returns nothing :

```
>>> cert = {'subject': (((('commonName', 'example.com'),),),)}
>>> ssl.match_hostname(cert, "example.com")
>>> ssl.match_hostname(cert, "example.org")
Traceback (most recent call last):
  File "<stdin>", line 1, in <module>
  File "/home/py3k/Lib/ssl.py", line 130, in match_hostname
ssl.CertificateError: hostname 'example.org' doesn't match 'example.com'
```

Nouveau dans la version 2.7.9.

`ssl.cert_time_to_seconds(cert_time)`

Return the time in seconds since the Epoch, given the `cert_time` string representing the « notBefore » or « notAfter » date from a certificate in "%b %d %H:%M:%S %Y %Z" strptime format (C locale).

Here's an example :

```
>>> import ssl
>>> timestamp = ssl.cert_time_to_seconds("Jan  5 09:34:43 2018 GMT")
>>> timestamp
1515144883
>>> from datetime import datetime
>>> print(datetime.utcfromtimestamp(timestamp))
2018-01-05 09:34:43
```

« notBefore » or « notAfter » dates must use GMT ([RFC 5280](#)).

Modifié dans la version 2.7.9 : Interpret the input time as a time in UTC as specified by “GMT” timezone in the input string. Local timezone was used previously. Return an integer (no fractions of a second in the input format)

`ssl.get_server_certificate(addr, ssl_version=PROTOCOL_SSLv23, ca_certs=None)`

Given the address `addr` of an SSL-protected server, as a (*hostname*, *port-number*) pair, fetches the server's certificate, and returns it as a PEM-encoded string. If `ssl_version` is specified, uses that version of the SSL protocol to attempt to connect to the server. If `ca_certs` is specified, it should be a file containing a list of root certificates, the same format as used for the same parameter in `wrap_socket()`. The call will attempt to validate the server certificate against that set of root certificates, and will fail if the validation attempt fails.

Modifié dans la version 2.7.9 : This function is now IPv6-compatible, and the default `ssl_version` is changed from `PROTOCOL_SSLv3` to `PROTOCOL_SSLv23` for maximum compatibility with modern servers.

`ssl.DER_cert_to_PEM_cert(DER_cert_bytes)`

Given a certificate as a DER-encoded blob of bytes, returns a PEM-encoded string version of the same certificate.

`ssl.PEM_cert_to_DER_cert(PEM_cert_string)`

Given a certificate as an ASCII PEM string, returns a DER-encoded sequence of bytes for that same certificate.

`ssl.get_default_verify_paths()`

Returns a named tuple with paths to OpenSSL's default cafile and capath. The paths are the same as used by `SSLContext.set_default_verify_paths()`. The return value is a *named tuple* `DefaultVerifyPaths` :

— `cafile` - resolved path to cafile or `None` if the file doesn't exist,

- `capath` - resolved path to `capath` or `None` if the directory doesn't exist,
- `openssl_cafile_env` - OpenSSL's environment key that points to a cafile,
- `openssl_cafile` - hard coded path to a cafile,
- `openssl_capath_env` - OpenSSL's environment key that points to a capath,
- `openssl_capath` - hard coded path to a capath directory

Availability : LibreSSL ignores the environment vars `openssl_cafile_env` and `openssl_capath_env`

Nouveau dans la version 2.7.9.

`ssl.enum_certificates(store_name)`

Retrieve certificates from Windows' system cert store. `store_name` may be one of `CA`, `ROOT` or `MY`. Windows may provide additional cert stores, too.

The function returns a list of (cert_bytes, encoding_type, trust) tuples. The `encoding_type` specifies the encoding of `cert_bytes`. It is either `x509_asn` for X.509 ASN.1 data or `pkcs_7_asn` for PKCS#7 ASN.1 data. Trust specifies the purpose of the certificate as a set of OIDS or exactly `True` if the certificate is trustworthy for all purposes.

Exemple :

```
>>> ssl.enum_certificates("CA")
[(b'data...', 'x509_asn', {'1.3.6.1.5.5.7.3.1', '1.3.6.1.5.5.7.3.2'}),
 (b'data...', 'x509_asn', True)]
```

Disponibilité : Windows.

Nouveau dans la version 2.7.9.

`ssl.enum_crls(store_name)`

Retrieve CRLs from Windows' system cert store. `store_name` may be one of `CA`, `ROOT` or `MY`. Windows may provide additional cert stores, too.

The function returns a list of (cert_bytes, encoding_type, trust) tuples. The `encoding_type` specifies the encoding of `cert_bytes`. It is either `x509_asn` for X.509 ASN.1 data or `pkcs_7_asn` for PKCS#7 ASN.1 data.

Disponibilité : Windows.

Nouveau dans la version 2.7.9.

Constantes

`ssl.CERT_NONE`

Possible value for `SSLContext.verify_mode`, or the `cert_reqs` parameter to `wrap_socket()`. In this mode (the default), no certificates will be required from the other side of the socket connection. If a certificate is received from the other end, no attempt to validate it is made.

See the discussion of *Security considerations* below.

`ssl.CERT_OPTIONAL`

Possible value for `SSLContext.verify_mode`, or the `cert_reqs` parameter to `wrap_socket()`. In this mode no certificates will be required from the other side of the socket connection; but if they are provided, validation will be attempted and an `SSLError` will be raised on failure.

Use of this setting requires a valid set of CA certificates to be passed, either to `SSLContext.load_verify_locations()` or as a value of the `ca_certs` parameter to `wrap_socket()`.

`ssl.CERT_REQUIRED`

Possible value for `SSLContext.verify_mode`, or the `cert_reqs` parameter to `wrap_socket()`. In this mode, certificates are required from the other side of the socket connection; an `SSLError` will be raised if no certificate is provided, or if its validation fails.

Use of this setting requires a valid set of CA certificates to be passed, either to `SSLContext.load_verify_locations()` or as a value of the `ca_certs` parameter to `wrap_socket()`.

`ssl.VERIFY_DEFAULT`

Possible value for `SSLContext.verify_flags`. In this mode, certificate revocation lists (CRLs) are not checked. By default OpenSSL does neither require nor verify CRLs.

Nouveau dans la version 2.7.9.

`ssl.VERIFY_CRL_CHECK_LEAF`

Possible value for `SSLContext.verify_flags`. In this mode, only the peer cert is check but non of the intermediate CA certificates. The mode requires a valid CRL that is signed by the peer cert's issuer (its direct ancestor CA). If no proper has been loaded `SSLContext.load_verify_locations`, validation will fail.

Nouveau dans la version 2.7.9.

`ssl.VERIFY_CRL_CHECK_CHAIN`

Possible value for `SSLContext.verify_flags`. In this mode, CRLs of all certificates in the peer cert chain are checked.

Nouveau dans la version 2.7.9.

`ssl.VERIFY_X509_STRICT`

Possible value for `SSLContext.verify_flags` to disable workarounds for broken X.509 certificates.

Nouveau dans la version 2.7.9.

`ssl.VERIFY_X509_TRUSTED_FIRST`

Possible value for `SSLContext.verify_flags`. It instructs OpenSSL to prefer trusted certificates when building the trust chain to validate a certificate. This flag is enabled by default.

Nouveau dans la version 2.7.10.

`ssl.PROTOCOL_TLS`

Selects the highest protocol version that both the client and server support. Despite the name, this option can select « TLS » protocols as well as « SSL ».

Nouveau dans la version 2.7.13.

`ssl.PROTOCOL_SSLv23`

Alias for `PROTOCOL_TLS`.

Obsolète depuis la version 2.7.13 : Use `PROTOCOL_TLS` instead.

`ssl.PROTOCOL_SSLv2`

Selects SSL version 2 as the channel encryption protocol.

This protocol is not available if OpenSSL is compiled with the `OPENSSL_NO_SSL2` flag.

Avertissement : SSL version 2 is insecure. Its use is highly discouraged.
--

Obsolète depuis la version 2.7.13 : OpenSSL has removed support for SSLv2.

`ssl.PROTOCOL_SSLv3`

Selects SSL version 3 as the channel encryption protocol.

This protocol is not be available if OpenSSL is compiled with the `OPENSSL_NO_SSLv3` flag.

Avertissement : SSL version 3 is insecure. Its use is highly discouraged.
--

Obsolète depuis la version 2.7.13 : OpenSSL has deprecated all version specific protocols. Use the default protocol with flags like `OP_NO_SSLv3` instead.

`ssl.PROTOCOL_TLSv1`

Selects TLS version 1.0 as the channel encryption protocol.

Obsolète depuis la version 2.7.13 : OpenSSL has deprecated all version specific protocols. Use the default protocol with flags like `OP_NO_SSLv3` instead.

ssl.PROTOCOL_TLSv1_1

Selects TLS version 1.1 as the channel encryption protocol. Available only with openssl version 1.0.1+.
Nouveau dans la version 2.7.9.

Obsolète depuis la version 2.7.13 : OpenSSL has deprecated all version specific protocols. Use the default protocol with flags like `OP_NO_SSLv3` instead.

ssl.PROTOCOL_TLSv1_2

Selects TLS version 1.2 as the channel encryption protocol. This is the most modern version, and probably the best choice for maximum protection, if both sides can speak it. Available only with openssl version 1.0.1+.

Nouveau dans la version 2.7.9.

Obsolète depuis la version 2.7.13 : OpenSSL has deprecated all version specific protocols. Use the default protocol with flags like `OP_NO_SSLv3` instead.

ssl.OP_ALL

Enables workarounds for various bugs present in other SSL implementations. This option is set by default. It does not necessarily set the same flags as OpenSSL's `SSL_OP_ALL` constant.

Nouveau dans la version 2.7.9.

ssl.OP_NO_SSLv2

Prevents an SSLv2 connection. This option is only applicable in conjunction with [PROTOCOL_SSLv23](#). It prevents the peers from choosing SSLv2 as the protocol version.

Nouveau dans la version 2.7.9.

ssl.OP_NO_SSLv3

Prevents an SSLv3 connection. This option is only applicable in conjunction with [PROTOCOL_SSLv23](#). It prevents the peers from choosing SSLv3 as the protocol version.

Nouveau dans la version 2.7.9.

ssl.OP_NO_TLSv1

Prevents a TLSv1 connection. This option is only applicable in conjunction with [PROTOCOL_SSLv23](#). It prevents the peers from choosing TLSv1 as the protocol version.

Nouveau dans la version 2.7.9.

ssl.OP_NO_TLSv1_1

Prevents a TLSv1.1 connection. This option is only applicable in conjunction with [PROTOCOL_SSLv23](#). It prevents the peers from choosing TLSv1.1 as the protocol version. Available only with openssl version 1.0.1+.

Nouveau dans la version 2.7.9.

ssl.OP_NO_TLSv1_2

Prevents a TLSv1.2 connection. This option is only applicable in conjunction with [PROTOCOL_SSLv23](#). It prevents the peers from choosing TLSv1.2 as the protocol version. Available only with openssl version 1.0.1+.

Nouveau dans la version 2.7.9.

ssl.OP_NO_TLSv1_3

Prevents a TLSv1.3 connection. This option is only applicable in conjunction with [PROTOCOL_TLS](#). It prevents the peers from choosing TLSv1.3 as the protocol version. TLS 1.3 is available with OpenSSL 1.1.1 or later. When Python has been compiled against an older version of OpenSSL, the flag defaults to 0.

Nouveau dans la version 2.7.15.

ssl.OP_CIPHER_SERVER_PREFERENCE

Use the server's cipher ordering preference, rather than the client's. This option has no effect on client sockets and SSLv2 server sockets.

Nouveau dans la version 2.7.9.

ssl.OP_SINGLE_DH_USE

Prevents re-use of the same DH key for distinct SSL sessions. This improves forward secrecy but requires more computational resources. This option only applies to server sockets.

Nouveau dans la version 2.7.9.

ssl.OP_SINGLE_ECDH_USE

Prevents re-use of the same ECDH key for distinct SSL sessions. This improves forward secrecy but requires more computational resources. This option only applies to server sockets.

Nouveau dans la version 2.7.9.

ssl.OP_NO_COMPRESSION

Disable compression on the SSL channel. This is useful if the application protocol supports its own compression scheme.

This option is only available with OpenSSL 1.0.0 and later.

Nouveau dans la version 2.7.9.

ssl.HAS_ALPN

Whether the OpenSSL library has built-in support for the *Application-Layer Protocol Negotiation* TLS extension as described in [RFC 7301](#).

Nouveau dans la version 2.7.10.

ssl.HAS_ECDH

Whether the OpenSSL library has built-in support for Elliptic Curve-based Diffie-Hellman key exchange. This should be true unless the feature was explicitly disabled by the distributor.

Nouveau dans la version 2.7.9.

ssl.HAS_SNI

Whether the OpenSSL library has built-in support for the *Server Name Indication* extension (as defined in [RFC 4366](#)).

Nouveau dans la version 2.7.9.

ssl.HAS_NPN

Whether the OpenSSL library has built-in support for *Next Protocol Negotiation* as described in the [NPN draft specification](#). When true, you can use the `SSLContext.set_npn_protocols()` method to advertise which protocols you want to support.

Nouveau dans la version 2.7.9.

ssl.HAS_TLSv1_3

Whether the OpenSSL library has built-in support for the TLS 1.3 protocol.

Nouveau dans la version 2.7.15.

ssl.CHANNEL_BINDING_TYPES

List of supported TLS channel binding types. Strings in this list can be used as arguments to `SSLSocket.get_channel_binding()`.

Nouveau dans la version 2.7.9.

ssl.OPENSSL_VERSION

The version string of the OpenSSL library loaded by the interpreter :

```
>>> ssl.OPENSSL_VERSION
'OpenSSL 0.9.8k 25 Mar 2009'
```

Nouveau dans la version 2.7.

ssl.OPENSSL_VERSION_INFO

A tuple of five integers representing version information about the OpenSSL library :

```
>>> ssl.OPENSSL_VERSION_INFO
(0, 9, 8, 11, 15)
```

Nouveau dans la version 2.7.

`ssl.OPENSSL_VERSION_NUMBER`

The raw version number of the OpenSSL library, as a single integer :

```
>>> ssl.OPENSSL_VERSION_NUMBER
9470143L
>>> hex(ssl.OPENSSL_VERSION_NUMBER)
'0x9080bfL'
```

Nouveau dans la version 2.7.

`ssl.ALERT_DESCRIPTION_HANDSHAKE_FAILURE`

`ssl.ALERT_DESCRIPTION_INTERNAL_ERROR`

`ALERT_DESCRIPTION_*`

Alert Descriptions from [RFC 5246](#) and others. The [IANA TLS Alert Registry](#) contains this list and references to the RFCs where their meaning is defined.

Used as the return value of the callback function in `SSLContext.set_servername_callback()`.

Nouveau dans la version 2.7.9.

`Purpose.SERVER_AUTH`

Option for `create_default_context()` and `SSLContext.load_default_certs()`. This value indicates that the context may be used to authenticate Web servers (therefore, it will be used to create client-side sockets).

Nouveau dans la version 2.7.9.

`Purpose.CLIENT_AUTH`

Option for `create_default_context()` and `SSLContext.load_default_certs()`. This value indicates that the context may be used to authenticate Web clients (therefore, it will be used to create server-side sockets).

Nouveau dans la version 2.7.9.

17.3.2 SSL Sockets

SSL sockets provide the following methods of *Socket Objects* :

- `accept()`
- `bind()`
- `close()`
- `connect()`
- `fileno()`
- `getpeername()`, `getsockname()`
- `getsockopt()`, `setsockopt()`
- `gettimeout()`, `settimeout()`, `setblocking()`
- `listen()`
- `makefile()`
- `recv()`, `recv_into()` (but passing a non-zero `flags` argument is not allowed)
- `send()`, `sendall()` (with the same limitation)
- `shutdown()`

However, since the SSL (and TLS) protocol has its own framing atop of TCP, the SSL sockets abstraction can, in certain respects, diverge from the specification of normal, OS-level sockets. See especially the [notes on non-blocking sockets](#).

SSL sockets also have the following additional methods and attributes :

SSLSocket.do_handshake()

Perform the SSL setup handshake.

Modifié dans la version 2.7.9 : The handshake method also performs `match_hostname()` when the `check_hostname` attribute of the socket's `context` is true.

SSLSocket.getpeercert(binary_form=False)

If there is no certificate for the peer on the other end of the connection, return `None`. If the SSL handshake hasn't been done yet, raise `ValueError`.

If the `binary_form` parameter is `False`, and a certificate was received from the peer, this method returns a `dict` instance. If the certificate was not validated, the dict is empty. If the certificate was validated, it returns a dict with several keys, amongst them `subject` (the principal for which the certificate was issued) and `issuer` (the principal issuing the certificate). If a certificate contains an instance of the *Subject Alternative Name* extension (see [RFC 3280](#)), there will also be a `subjectAltName` key in the dictionary.

The `subject` and `issuer` fields are tuples containing the sequence of relative distinguished names (RDNs) given in the certificate's data structure for the respective fields, and each RDN is a sequence of name-value pairs. Here is a real-world example :

```
{'issuer': (((('countryName', 'IL'),),
              (('organizationName', 'StartCom Ltd.'),),
              (('organizationalUnitName',
                'Secure Digital Certificate Signing'),),
              (('commonName',
                'StartCom Class 2 Primary Intermediate Server CA'))),),
'notAfter': 'Nov 22 08:15:19 2013 GMT',
'notBefore': 'Nov 21 03:09:52 2011 GMT',
'serialNumber': '95F0',
'subject': (((('description', '571208-SLe257oHY9fVQ07Z'),),
              (('countryName', 'US'),),
              (('stateOrProvinceName', 'California'),),
              (('localityName', 'San Francisco'),),
              (('organizationName', 'Electronic Frontier Foundation, Inc.'),),
              (('commonName', '*.eff.org'),),
              (('emailAddress', 'hostmaster@eff.org'),)),),
'subjectAltName': (('DNS', '*.eff.org'), ('DNS', 'eff.org')),
'version': 3}
```

Note : To validate a certificate for a particular service, you can use the `match_hostname()` function.

If the `binary_form` parameter is `True`, and a certificate was provided, this method returns the DER-encoded form of the entire certificate as a sequence of bytes, or `None` if the peer did not provide a certificate. Whether the peer provides a certificate depends on the SSL socket's role :

- for a client SSL socket, the server will always provide a certificate, regardless of whether validation was required ;
- for a server SSL socket, the client will only provide a certificate when requested by the server ; therefore `getpeercert()` will return `None` if you used `CERT_NONE` (rather than `CERT_OPTIONAL` or `CERT_REQUIRED`).

Modifié dans la version 2.7.9 : The returned dictionary includes additional items such as `issuer` and `notBefore`. Additional `ValueError` is raised when the handshake isn't done. The returned dictionary includes additional X509v3 extension items such as `crldistributionPoints`, `caIssuers` and `OCSP` URIs.

SSLSocket.cipher()

Returns a three-value tuple containing the name of the cipher being used, the version of the SSL

protocol that defines its use, and the number of secret bits being used. If no connection has been established, returns `None`.

`SSLSocket.compression()`

Return the compression algorithm being used as a string, or `None` if the connection isn't compressed. If the higher-level protocol supports its own compression mechanism, you can use `OP_NO_COMPRESSION` to disable SSL-level compression.

Nouveau dans la version 2.7.9.

`SSLSocket.get_channel_binding(cb_type="tls-unique")`

Get channel binding data for current connection, as a bytes object. Returns `None` if not connected or the handshake has not been completed.

The `cb_type` parameter allow selection of the desired channel binding type. Valid channel binding types are listed in the `CHANNEL_BINDING_TYPES` list. Currently only the "tls-unique" channel binding, defined by [RFC 5929](#), is supported. `ValueError` will be raised if an unsupported channel binding type is requested.

Nouveau dans la version 2.7.9.

`SSLSocket.selected_alpn_protocol()`

Return the protocol that was selected during the TLS handshake. If `SSLContext.set_alpn_protocols()` was not called, if the other party does not support ALPN, if this socket does not support any of the client's proposed protocols, or if the handshake has not happened yet, `None` is returned.

Nouveau dans la version 2.7.10.

`SSLSocket.selected_npn_protocol()`

Return the higher-level protocol that was selected during the TLS/SSL handshake. If `SSLContext.set_npn_protocols()` was not called, or if the other party does not support NPN, or if the handshake has not yet happened, this will return `None`.

Nouveau dans la version 2.7.9.

`SSLSocket.unwrap()`

Performs the SSL shutdown handshake, which removes the TLS layer from the underlying socket, and returns the underlying socket object. This can be used to go from encrypted operation over a connection to unencrypted. The returned socket should always be used for further communication with the other side of the connection, rather than the original socket.

`SSLSocket.version()`

Return the actual SSL protocol version negotiated by the connection as a string, or `None` if no secure connection is established. As of this writing, possible return values include "SSLv2", "SSLv3", "TLSv1", "TLSv1.1" and "TLSv1.2". Recent OpenSSL versions may define more return values.

Nouveau dans la version 2.7.9.

`SSLSocket.context`

The `SSLContext` object this SSL socket is tied to. If the SSL socket was created using the top-level `wrap_socket()` function (rather than `SSLContext.wrap_socket()`), this is a custom context object created for this SSL socket.

Nouveau dans la version 2.7.9.

17.3.3 SSL Contexts

Nouveau dans la version 2.7.9.

An SSL context holds various data longer-lived than single SSL connections, such as SSL configuration options, certificate(s) and private key(s). It also manages a cache of SSL sessions for server-side sockets, in order to speed up repeated connections from the same clients.

`class ssl.SSLContext(protocol)`

Create a new SSL context. You must pass *protocol* which must be one of the `PROTOCOL_*` constants defined in this module. `PROTOCOL_SSLv23` is currently recommended for maximum interoperability.

Voir aussi :

`create_default_context()` lets the `ssl` module choose security settings for a given purpose.

`SSLContext` objects have the following methods and attributes :

`SSLContext.cert_store_stats()`

Get statistics about quantities of loaded X.509 certificates, count of X.509 certificates flagged as CA certificates and certificate revocation lists as dictionary.

Example for a context with one CA cert and one other cert :

```
>>> context.cert_store_stats()
{'crl': 0, 'x509_ca': 1, 'x509': 2}
```

`SSLContext.load_cert_chain(certfile, keyfile=None, password=None)`

Load a private key and the corresponding certificate. The *certfile* string must be the path to a single file in PEM format containing the certificate as well as any number of CA certificates needed to establish the certificate's authenticity. The *keyfile* string, if present, must point to a file containing the private key in. Otherwise the private key will be taken from *certfile* as well. See the discussion of *Certificates* for more information on how the certificate is stored in the *certfile*.

The *password* argument may be a function to call to get the password for decrypting the private key. It will only be called if the private key is encrypted and a password is necessary. It will be called with no arguments, and it should return a string, bytes, or bytearray. If the return value is a string it will be encoded as UTF-8 before using it to decrypt the key. Alternatively a string, bytes, or bytearray value may be supplied directly as the *password* argument. It will be ignored if the private key is not encrypted and no password is needed.

If the *password* argument is not specified and a password is required, OpenSSL's built-in password prompting mechanism will be used to interactively prompt the user for a password.

An `SSLError` is raised if the private key doesn't match with the certificate.

`SSLContext.load_default_certs(purpose=Purpose.SERVER_AUTH)`

Load a set of default « certification authority » (CA) certificates from default locations. On Windows it loads CA certs from the CA and ROOT system stores. On other systems it calls `SSLContext.set_default_verify_paths()`. In the future the method may load CA certificates from other locations, too.

The *purpose* flag specifies what kind of CA certificates are loaded. The default settings `Purpose.SERVER_AUTH` loads certificates, that are flagged and trusted for TLS web server authentication (client side sockets). `Purpose.CLIENT_AUTH` loads CA certificates for client certificate verification on the server side.

`SSLContext.load_verify_locations(cafile=None, capath=None, cadata=None)`

Load a set of « certification authority » (CA) certificates used to validate other peers' certificates when *verify_mode* is other than `CERT_NONE`. At least one of *cafile* or *capath* must be specified.

This method can also load certification revocation lists (CRLs) in PEM or DER format. In order to make use of CRLs, `SSLContext.verify_flags` must be configured properly.

The *cafile* string, if present, is the path to a file of concatenated CA certificates in PEM format. See the discussion of *Certificates* for more information about how to arrange the certificates in this file.

The *capath* string, if present, is the path to a directory containing several CA certificates in PEM format, following an *OpenSSL specific layout*.

The *cadata* object, if present, is either an ASCII string of one or more PEM-encoded certificates or a bytes-like object of DER-encoded certificates. Like with *capath* extra lines around PEM-encoded certificates are ignored but at least one certificate must be present.

`SSLContext.get_ca_certs(binary_form=False)`

Get a list of loaded « certification authority » (CA) certificates. If the `binary_form` parameter is `False` each list entry is a dict like the output of `SSLSocket.getpeercert()`. Otherwise the method returns a list of DER-encoded certificates. The returned list does not contain certificates from `capath` unless a certificate was requested and loaded by a SSL connection.

Note : Certificates in a `capath` directory aren't loaded unless they have been used at least once.

`SSLContext.set_default_verify_paths()`

Load a set of default « certification authority » (CA) certificates from a filesystem path defined when building the OpenSSL library. Unfortunately, there's no easy way to know whether this method succeeds : no error is returned if no certificates are to be found. When the OpenSSL library is provided as part of the operating system, though, it is likely to be configured properly.

`SSLContext.set_ciphers(ciphers)`

Set the available ciphers for sockets created with this context. It should be a string in the [OpenSSL cipher list format](#). If no cipher can be selected (because compile-time options or other configuration forbids use of all the specified ciphers), an `SSLError` will be raised.

Note : when connected, the `SSLSocket.cipher()` method of SSL sockets will give the currently selected cipher.

`SSLContext.set_alpn_protocols(protocols)`

Specify which protocols the socket should advertise during the SSL/TLS handshake. It should be a list of ASCII strings, like `['http/1.1', 'spdy/2']`, ordered by preference. The selection of a protocol will happen during the handshake, and will play out according to [RFC 7301](#). After a successful handshake, the `SSLSocket.selected_alpn_protocol()` method will return the agreed-upon protocol.

This method will raise `NotImplementedError` if `HAS_ALPN` is False.

OpenSSL 1.1.0 to 1.1.0e will abort the handshake and raise `SSLError` when both sides support ALPN but cannot agree on a protocol. 1.1.0f+ behaves like 1.0.2, `SSLSocket.selected_alpn_protocol()` returns None.

Nouveau dans la version 2.7.10.

`SSLContext.set_npn_protocols(protocols)`

Specify which protocols the socket should advertise during the SSL/TLS handshake. It should be a list of strings, like `['http/1.1', 'spdy/2']`, ordered by preference. The selection of a protocol will happen during the handshake, and will play out according to the [NPN draft specification](#). After a successful handshake, the `SSLSocket.selected_npn_protocol()` method will return the agreed-upon protocol.

This method will raise `NotImplementedError` if `HAS_NPN` is False.

`SSLContext.set_servername_callback(server_name_callback)`

Register a callback function that will be called after the TLS Client Hello handshake message has been received by the SSL/TLS server when the TLS client specifies a server name indication. The server name indication mechanism is specified in [RFC 6066](#) section 3 - Server Name Indication.

Only one callback can be set per `SSLContext`. If `server_name_callback` is `None` then the callback is disabled. Calling this function a subsequent time will disable the previously registered callback.

The callback function, `server_name_callback`, will be called with three arguments; the first being the `ssl.SSLSocket`, the second is a string that represents the server name that the client is intending to communicate (or `None` if the TLS Client Hello does not contain a server name) and the third argument is the original `SSLContext`. The server name argument is the IDNA decoded server name.

A typical use of this callback is to change the `ssl.SSLSocket`'s `SSLSocket.context` attribute to a new object of type `SSLContext` representing a certificate chain that matches the server name.

Due to the early negotiation phase of the TLS connection, only limited methods and attributes are usable like `SSLSocket.selected_alpn_protocol()` and `SSLSocket.context.SSLSocket.getpeercert()`, `SSLSocket.getpeercert()`, `SSLSocket.cipher()` and `SSLSocket.compress()` methods require that the TLS connection has progressed beyond the TLS Client Hello and therefore will not contain return meaningful values nor can they be called safely.

The `server_name_callback` function must return `None` to allow the TLS negotiation to continue. If a TLS failure is required, a constant `ALERT_DESCRIPTION_*` can be returned. Other return values will result in a TLS fatal error with `ALERT_DESCRIPTION_INTERNAL_ERROR`.

If there is an IDNA decoding error on the server name, the TLS connection will terminate with an `ALERT_DESCRIPTION_INTERNAL_ERROR` fatal TLS alert message to the client.

If an exception is raised from the `server_name_callback` function the TLS connection will terminate with a fatal TLS alert message `ALERT_DESCRIPTION_HANDSHAKE_FAILURE`.

This method will raise `NotImplementedError` if the OpenSSL library had `OPENSSL_NO_TLSEXT` defined when it was built.

`SSLContext.load_dh_params(dhfile)`

Load the key generation parameters for Diffie-Helman (DH) key exchange. Using DH key exchange improves forward secrecy at the expense of computational resources (both on the server and on the client). The `dhfile` parameter should be the path to a file containing DH parameters in PEM format.

This setting doesn't apply to client sockets. You can also use the `OP_SINGLE_DH_USE` option to further improve security.

`SSLContext.set_ecdh_curve(curve_name)`

Set the curve name for Elliptic Curve-based Diffie-Hellman (ECDH) key exchange. ECDH is significantly faster than regular DH while arguably as secure. The `curve_name` parameter should be a string describing a well-known elliptic curve, for example `prime256v1` for a widely supported curve.

This setting doesn't apply to client sockets. You can also use the `OP_SINGLE_ECDH_USE` option to further improve security.

This method is not available if `HAS_ECDH` is `False`.

Voir aussi :

SSL/TLS & Perfect Forward Secrecy Vincent Bernat.

`SSLContext.wrap_socket(sock, server_side=False, do_handshake_on_connect=True, suppress_ragged_eofs=True, server_hostname=None)`

Wrap an existing Python socket `sock` and return an `SSLSocket` object. `sock` must be a `SOCK_STREAM` socket; other socket types are unsupported.

The returned SSL socket is tied to the context, its settings and certificates. The parameters `server_side`, `do_handshake_on_connect` and `suppress_ragged_eofs` have the same meaning as in the top-level `wrap_socket()` function.

On client connections, the optional parameter `server_hostname` specifies the hostname of the service which we are connecting to. This allows a single server to host multiple SSL-based services with distinct certificates, quite similarly to HTTP virtual hosts. Specifying `server_hostname` will raise a `ValueError` if `server_side` is `true`.

Modifié dans la version 2.7.9 : Always allow a `server_hostname` to be passed, even if OpenSSL does not have SNI.

`SSLContext.session_stats()`

Get statistics about the SSL sessions created or managed by this context. A dictionary is returned which maps the names of each `piece of information` to their numeric values. For example, here is the total number of hits and misses in the session cache since the context was created :

```
>>> stats = context.session_stats()
>>> stats['hits'], stats['misses']
(0, 0)
```

SSLContext.check_hostname

Whether to match the peer cert's hostname with `match_hostname()` in `SSLSocket.do_handshake()`. The context's `verify_mode` must be set to `CERT_OPTIONAL` or `CERT_REQUIRED`, and you must pass `server_hostname` to `wrap_socket()` in order to match the hostname.

Example :

```
import socket, ssl

context = ssl.SSLContext(ssl.PROTOCOL_TLS)
context.verify_mode = ssl.CERT_REQUIRED
context.check_hostname = True
context.load_default_certs()

s = socket.socket(socket.AF_INET, socket.SOCK_STREAM)
ssl_sock = context.wrap_socket(s, server_hostname='www.verisign.com')
ssl_sock.connect(('www.verisign.com', 443))
```

Note : This feature requires OpenSSL 0.9.8f or newer.

SSLContext.options

An integer representing the set of SSL options enabled on this context. The default value is `OP_ALL`, but you can specify other options such as `OP_NO_SSLv2` by ORing them together.

Note : With versions of OpenSSL older than 0.9.8m, it is only possible to set options, not to clear them. Attempting to clear an option (by resetting the corresponding bits) will raise a `ValueError`.

SSLContext.protocol

The protocol version chosen when constructing the context. This attribute is read-only.

SSLContext.verify_flags

The flags for certificate verification operations. You can set flags like `VERIFY_CRL_CHECK_LEAF` by ORing them together. By default OpenSSL does neither require nor verify certificate revocation lists (CRLs). Available only with openssl version 0.9.8+.

SSLContext.verify_mode

Whether to try to verify other peers' certificates and how to behave if verification fails. This attribute must be one of `CERT_NONE`, `CERT_OPTIONAL` or `CERT_REQUIRED`.

17.3.4 Certificates

Certificates in general are part of a public-key / private-key system. In this system, each *principal*, (which may be a machine, or a person, or an organization) is assigned a unique two-part encryption key. One part of the key is public, and is called the *public key*; the other part is kept secret, and is called the *private key*. The two parts are related, in that if you encrypt a message with one of the parts, you can decrypt it with the other part, and **only** with the other part.

A certificate contains information about two principals. It contains the name of a *subject*, and the subject's public key. It also contains a statement by a second principal, the *issuer*, that the subject is who they claim to be, and that this is indeed the subject's public key. The issuer's statement is signed with the issuer's private key, which only the issuer knows. However, anyone can verify the issuer's statement by finding the issuer's public key, decrypting the statement with it, and comparing it to the other information in the certificate. The certificate also contains information about the time period over which it is valid. This is expressed as two fields, called « notBefore » and « notAfter ».

In the Python use of certificates, a client or server can use a certificate to prove who they are. The other side of a network connection can also be required to produce a certificate, and that certificate can be validated to the satisfaction of the client or server that requires such validation. The connection attempt can be set to raise an exception if the validation fails. Validation is done automatically, by the underlying OpenSSL framework; the application need not concern itself with its mechanics. But the application does usually need to provide sets of certificates to allow this process to take place.

Python uses files to contain certificates. They should be formatted as « PEM » (see [RFC 1422](#)), which is a base-64 encoded form wrapped with a header line and a footer line :

```
-----BEGIN CERTIFICATE-----
... (certificate in base64 PEM encoding) ...
-----END CERTIFICATE-----
```

Certificate chains

The Python files which contain certificates can contain a sequence of certificates, sometimes called a *certificate chain*. This chain should start with the specific certificate for the principal who « is » the client or server, and then the certificate for the issuer of that certificate, and then the certificate for the issuer of *that* certificate, and so on up the chain till you get to a certificate which is *self-signed*, that is, a certificate which has the same subject and issuer, sometimes called a *root certificate*. The certificates should just be concatenated together in the certificate file. For example, suppose we had a three certificate chain, from our server certificate to the certificate of the certification authority that signed our server certificate, to the root certificate of the agency which issued the certification authority's certificate :

```
-----BEGIN CERTIFICATE-----
... (certificate for your server)...
-----END CERTIFICATE-----
-----BEGIN CERTIFICATE-----
... (the certificate for the CA)...
-----END CERTIFICATE-----
-----BEGIN CERTIFICATE-----
... (the root certificate for the CA's issuer)...
-----END CERTIFICATE-----
```

CA certificates

If you are going to require validation of the other side of the connection's certificate, you need to provide a « CA certs » file, filled with the certificate chains for each issuer you are willing to trust. Again, this file just contains these chains concatenated together. For validation, Python will use the first chain it finds in the file which matches. The platform's certificates file can be used by calling `SSLContext.load_default_certs()`, this is done automatically with `create_default_context()`.

Combined key and certificate

Often the private key is stored in the same file as the certificate; in this case, only the `certfile` parameter to `SSLContext.load_cert_chain()` and `wrap_socket()` needs to be passed. If the private key is stored with the certificate, it should come before the first certificate in the certificate chain :

```
-----BEGIN RSA PRIVATE KEY-----
... (private key in base64 encoding) ...
-----END RSA PRIVATE KEY-----
-----BEGIN CERTIFICATE-----
... (certificate in base64 PEM encoding) ...
-----END CERTIFICATE-----
```


Self-signed certificates

If you are going to create a server that provides SSL-encrypted connection services, you will need to acquire a certificate for that service. There are many ways of acquiring appropriate certificates, such as buying one from a certification authority. Another common practice is to generate a self-signed certificate. The simplest way to do this is with the OpenSSL package, using something like the following :

```
% openssl req -new -x509 -days 365 -nodes -out cert.pem -keyout cert.pem
Generating a 1024 bit RSA private key
.....++++++
.....++++++
writing new private key to 'cert.pem'
-----
You are about to be asked to enter information that will be incorporated
into your certificate request.
What you are about to enter is what is called a Distinguished Name or a DN.
There are quite a few fields but you can leave some blank
For some fields there will be a default value,
If you enter '.', the field will be left blank.
-----
Country Name (2 letter code) [AU]:US
State or Province Name (full name) [Some-State]:MyState
Locality Name (eg, city) []:Some City
Organization Name (eg, company) [Internet Widgits Pty Ltd]:My Organization, Inc.
Organizational Unit Name (eg, section) []:My Group
Common Name (eg, YOUR name) []:myserver.mygroup.myorganization.com
Email Address []:ops@myserver.mygroup.myorganization.com
%
```

The disadvantage of a self-signed certificate is that it is its own root certificate, and no one else will have it in their cache of known (and trusted) root certificates.

17.3.5 Examples

Testing for SSL support

To test for the presence of SSL support in a Python installation, user code should use the following idiom :

```
try:
    import ssl
except ImportError:
    pass
else:
    ... # do something that requires SSL support
```

Client-side operation

This example creates a SSL context with the recommended security settings for client sockets, including automatic certificate verification :

```
>>> context = ssl.create_default_context()
```

If you prefer to tune security settings yourself, you might create a context from scratch (but beware that you might not get the settings right) :

```
>>> context = ssl.SSLContext(ssl.PROTOCOL_TLS)
>>> context.verify_mode = ssl.CERT_REQUIRED
>>> context.check_hostname = True
>>> context.load_verify_locations("/etc/ssl/certs/ca-bundle.crt")
```

(this snippet assumes your operating system places a bundle of all CA certificates in `/etc/ssl/certs/ca-bundle.crt`; if not, you'll get an error and have to adjust the location)

When you use the context to connect to a server, `CERT_REQUIRED` validates the server certificate : it ensures that the server certificate was signed with one of the CA certificates, and checks the signature for correctness :

```
>>> conn = context.wrap_socket(socket.socket(socket.AF_INET),
...                             server_hostname="www.python.org")
>>> conn.connect(("www.python.org", 443))
```

You may then fetch the certificate :

```
>>> cert = conn.getpeercert()
```

Visual inspection shows that the certificate does identify the desired service (that is, the HTTPS host `www.python.org`) :

```
>>> pprint.pprint(cert)
{'OCSP': ('http://ocsp.digicert.com',),
 'caIssuers': ('http://cacerts.digicert.com/DigiCertSHA2ExtendedValidationServerCA.crt',
 →),
 'crlDistributionPoints': ('http://crl3.digicert.com/sha2-ev-server-g1.crl',
                           'http://crl4.digicert.com/sha2-ev-server-g1.crl'),
 'issuer': (((('countryName', 'US'),),
               (('organizationName', 'DigiCert Inc'),),
               (('organizationalUnitName', 'www.digicert.com'),),
               (('commonName', 'DigiCert SHA2 Extended Validation Server CA'),)),),
 'notAfter': 'Sep  9 12:00:00 2016 GMT',
 'notBefore': 'Sep  5 00:00:00 2014 GMT',
 'serialNumber': '01BB6F00122B177F36CAB49CEA8B6B26',
 'subject': (((('businessCategory', 'Private Organization'),),
                (('1.3.6.1.4.1.311.60.2.1.3', 'US'),),
                (('1.3.6.1.4.1.311.60.2.1.2', 'Delaware'),),
                (('serialNumber', '3359300'),),
                (('streetAddress', '16 Allen Rd'),),
                (('postalCode', '03894-4801'),),
                (('countryName', 'US'),),
                (('stateOrProvinceName', 'NH'),),
                (('localityName', 'Wolfeboro,'),),
                (('organizationName', 'Python Software Foundation'),),
                (('commonName', 'www.python.org'),)),),
 'subjectAltName': (('DNS', 'www.python.org'),
                    ('DNS', 'python.org'),
                    ('DNS', 'pypi.org'),
                    ('DNS', 'docs.python.org'),
                    ('DNS', 'testpypi.python.org'),
                    ('DNS', 'bugs.python.org'),
                    ('DNS', 'wiki.python.org'),
                    ('DNS', 'hg.python.org'),
```

(suite sur la page suivante)

(suite de la page précédente)

```

        ('DNS', 'mail.python.org'),
        ('DNS', 'packaging.python.org'),
        ('DNS', 'pythonhosted.org'),
        ('DNS', 'www.pythonhosted.org'),
        ('DNS', 'test.pythonhosted.org'),
        ('DNS', 'us.pycon.org'),
        ('DNS', 'id.python.org')),
    'version': 3}

```

Now the SSL channel is established and the certificate verified, you can proceed to talk with the server :

```

>>> conn.sendall(b"HEAD / HTTP/1.0\r\nHost: linuxfr.org\r\n\r\n")
>>> pprint.pprint(conn.recv(1024).split(b"\r\n"))
[b'HTTP/1.1 200 OK',
 b'Date: Sat, 18 Oct 2014 18:27:20 GMT',
 b'Server: nginx',
 b'Content-Type: text/html; charset=utf-8',
 b'X-Frame-Options: SAMEORIGIN',
 b'Content-Length: 45679',
 b'Accept-Ranges: bytes',
 b'Via: 1.1 varnish',
 b'Age: 2188',
 b'X-Served-By: cache-lcy1134-LCY',
 b'X-Cache: HIT',
 b'X-Cache-Hits: 11',
 b'Vary: Cookie',
 b'Strict-Transport-Security: max-age=63072000; includeSubDomains',
 b'Connection: close',
 b'',
 b'']

```

See the discussion of *Security considerations* below.

Server-side operation

For server operation, typically you'll need to have a server certificate, and private key, each in a file. You'll first create a context holding the key and the certificate, so that clients can check your authenticity. Then you'll open a socket, bind it to a port, call `listen()` on it, and start waiting for clients to connect :

```

import socket, ssl

context = ssl.create_default_context(ssl.Purpose.CLIENT_AUTH)
context.load_cert_chain(certfile="mycertfile", keyfile="mykeyfile")

bindsocket = socket.socket()
bindsocket.bind(('myaddr.mydomain.com', 10023))
bindsocket.listen(5)

```

When a client connects, you'll call `accept()` on the socket to get the new socket from the other end, and use the context's `SSLContext.wrap_socket()` method to create a server-side SSL socket for the connection :

```

while True:
    newsocket, fromaddr = bindsocket.accept()

```

(suite sur la page suivante)

(suite de la page précédente)

```

connstream = context.wrap_socket(newsocket, server_side=True)
try:
    deal_with_client(connstream)
finally:
    connstream.shutdown(socket.SHUT_RDWR)
    connstream.close()

```

Then you'll read data from the `connstream` and do something with it till you are finished with the client (or the client is finished with you) :

```

def deal_with_client(connstream):
    data = connstream.read()
    # null data means the client is finished with us
    while data:
        if not do_something(connstream, data):
            # we'll assume do_something returns False
            # when we're finished with client
            break
        data = connstream.read()
    # finished with client

```

And go back to listening for new client connections (of course, a real server would probably handle each client connection in a separate thread, or put the sockets in non-blocking mode and use an event loop).

17.3.6 Notes on non-blocking sockets

When working with non-blocking sockets, there are several things you need to be aware of :

- Calling `select()` tells you that the OS-level socket can be read from (or written to), but it does not imply that there is sufficient data at the upper SSL layer. For example, only part of an SSL frame might have arrived. Therefore, you must be ready to handle `SSLSocket.recv()` and `SSLSocket.send()` failures, and retry after another call to `select()`.
- Conversely, since the SSL layer has its own framing, a SSL socket may still have data available for reading without `select()` being aware of it. Therefore, you should first call `SSLSocket.recv()` to drain any potentially available data, and then only block on a `select()` call if still necessary. (of course, similar provisions apply when using other primitives such as `poll()`, or those in the `selectors` module)
- The SSL handshake itself will be non-blocking : the `SSLSocket.do_handshake()` method has to be retried until it returns successfully. Here is a synopsis using `select()` to wait for the socket's readiness :

```

while True:
    try:
        sock.do_handshake()
        break
    except ssl.SSLWantReadError:
        select.select([sock], [], [])
    except ssl.SSLWantWriteError:
        select.select([], [sock], [])

```

17.3.7 Security considerations

Best defaults

For **client use**, if you don't have any special requirements for your security policy, it is highly recommended that you use the `create_default_context()` function to create your SSL context. It will load the system's trusted CA certificates, enable certificate validation and hostname checking, and try to choose reasonably secure protocol and cipher settings.

If a client certificate is needed for the connection, it can be added with `SSLContext.load_cert_chain()`.

By contrast, if you create the SSL context by calling the `SSLContext` constructor yourself, it will not have certificate validation nor hostname checking enabled by default. If you do so, please read the paragraphs below to achieve a good security level.

Manual settings

Verifying certificates

When calling the `SSLContext` constructor directly, `CERT_NONE` is the default. Since it does not authenticate the other peer, it can be insecure, especially in client mode where most of time you would like to ensure the authenticity of the server you're talking to. Therefore, when in client mode, it is highly recommended to use `CERT_REQUIRED`. However, it is in itself not sufficient; you also have to check that the server certificate, which can be obtained by calling `SSLSocket.getpeercert()`, matches the desired service. For many protocols and applications, the service can be identified by the hostname; in this case, the `match_hostname()` function can be used. This common check is automatically performed when `SSLContext.check_hostname` is enabled.

In server mode, if you want to authenticate your clients using the SSL layer (rather than using a higher-level authentication mechanism), you'll also have to specify `CERT_REQUIRED` and similarly check the client certificate.

Note : In client mode, `CERT_OPTIONAL` and `CERT_REQUIRED` are equivalent unless anonymous ciphers are enabled (they are disabled by default).

Protocol versions

SSL versions 2 and 3 are considered insecure and are therefore dangerous to use. If you want maximum compatibility between clients and servers, it is recommended to use `PROTOCOL_SSLv23` as the protocol version and then disable SSLv2 and SSLv3 explicitly using the `SSLContext.options` attribute :

```
context = ssl.SSLContext(ssl.PROTOCOL_SSLv23)
context.options |= ssl.OP_NO_SSLv2
context.options |= ssl.OP_NO_SSLv3
```

The SSL context created above will only allow TLSv1 and later (if supported by your system) connections.

Cipher selection

If you have advanced security requirements, fine-tuning of the ciphers enabled when negotiating a SSL session is possible through the `SSLContext.set_ciphers()` method. Starting from Python 2.7.9, the `ssl` module disables certain weak ciphers by default, but you may want to further restrict the cipher choice. Be sure to read OpenSSL's documentation about the [cipher list format](#). If you want to check which ciphers are enabled by a given cipher list, use the `openssl ciphers` command on your system.

Multi-processing

If using this module as part of a multi-processed application (using, for example the `multiprocessing` or `concurrent.futures` modules), be aware that OpenSSL's internal random number generator does not

properly handle forked processes. Applications must change the PRNG state of the parent process if they use any SSL feature with `os.fork()`. Any successful call of `RAND_add()`, `RAND_bytes()` or `RAND_pseudo_bytes()` is sufficient.

17.3.8 LibreSSL support

LibreSSL is a fork of OpenSSL 1.0.1. The `ssl` module has limited support for LibreSSL. Some features are not available when the `ssl` module is compiled with LibreSSL.

- LibreSSL >= 2.6.1 no longer supports NPN. The methods `SSLContext.set_npn_protocols()` and `SSLSocket.selected_npn_protocol()` are not available.
- `SSLContext.set_default_verify_paths()` ignores the env vars `SSL_CERT_FILE` and `SSL_CERT_PATH` although `get_default_verify_paths()` still reports them.

Voir aussi :

Class `socket.socket` Documentation of underlying `socket` class

SSL/TLS Strong Encryption : An Introduction Intro from the Apache webserver documentation

RFC 1422 : Privacy Enhancement for Internet Electronic Mail : Part II : Certificate-Based Key Management
Steve Kent

RFC 1750 : Randomness Recommendations for Security D. Eastlake et. al.

RFC 3280 : Internet X.509 Public Key Infrastructure Certificate and CRL Profile Housley et. al.

RFC 4366 : Transport Layer Security (TLS) Extensions Blake-Wilson et. al.

RFC 5246 : The Transport Layer Security (TLS) Protocol Version 1.2 T. Dierks et. al.

RFC 6066 : Transport Layer Security (TLS) Extensions D. Eastlake

IANA TLS : Transport Layer Security (TLS) Parameters IANA

RFC 7525 : Recommendations for Secure Use of Transport Layer Security (TLS) and Datagram Transport Layer Security
IETF

Mozilla's Server Side TLS recommendations Mozilla

17.4 signal — Set handlers for asynchronous events

This module provides mechanisms to use signal handlers in Python. Some general rules for working with signals and their handlers :

- A handler for a particular signal, once set, remains installed until it is explicitly reset (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 (such as 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) and `SIGINT` is translated into a `KeyboardInterrupt` exception. 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()`, `pause()`, `setitimer()` or `getitimer()`; 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 inter-thread communication. Use locks instead.

The variables defined in the `signal` module are :

`signal.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 `SIGCHLD` is to simply ignore it.

`signal.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.

`signal.CTRL_C_EVENT`

The signal corresponding to the `Ctrl+C` keystroke event. This signal can only be used with `os.kill()`.

Disponibilité : Windows.

Nouveau dans la version 2.7.

`signal.CTRL_BREAK_EVENT`

The signal corresponding to the `Ctrl+Break` keystroke event. This signal can only be used with `os.kill()`.

Disponibilité : Windows.

Nouveau dans la version 2.7.

`signal.NSIG`

One more than the number of the highest signal number.

`signal.ITIMER_REAL`

Decrements interval timer in real time, and delivers `SIGALRM` upon expiration.

`signal.ITIMER_VIRTUAL`

Decrements interval timer only when the process is executing, and delivers `SIGVTALRM` upon expiration.

`signal.ITIMER_PROF`

Decrements interval timer both when the process executes and when the system is executing on behalf of the process. Coupled with `ITIMER_VIRTUAL`, this timer is usually used to profile the time spent by the application in user and kernel space. `SIGPROF` is delivered upon expiration.

The `signal` module defines one exception :

exception `signal.ItimerError`

Raised to signal an error from the underlying `setitimer()` or `getitimer()` implementation. Expect this error if an invalid interval timer or a negative time is passed to `setitimer()`. This error is a subtype of `IOError`.

The `signal` module defines the following functions :

signal.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 (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 is scheduled, and any scheduled alarm is canceled. If the return value is zero, no alarm is currently scheduled. (See the Unix man page *alarm(2)*.) Availability : Unix.

signal.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.

signal.pause()

Cause the process to sleep until a signal is received ; the appropriate handler will then be called. Returns nothing. Not on Windows. (See the Unix man page *signal(2)*.)

signal.setitimer(*which*, *seconds*[, *interval*])

Sets given interval timer (one of *signal.ITIMER_REAL*, *signal.ITIMER_VIRTUAL* or *signal.ITIMER_PROF*) specified by *which* to fire after *seconds* (float is accepted, different from *alarm()*) and after that every *interval* seconds. The interval timer specified by *which* can be cleared by setting seconds to zero.

When an interval timer fires, a signal is sent to the process. The signal sent is dependent on the timer being used ; *signal.ITIMER_REAL* will deliver SIGALRM, *signal.ITIMER_VIRTUAL* sends SIGVTALRM, and *signal.ITIMER_PROF* will deliver SIGPROF.

The old values are returned as a tuple : (delay, interval).

Attempting to pass an invalid interval timer will cause an *ItimerError*. Availability : Unix.

Nouveau dans la version 2.6.

signal.getitimer(*which*)

Returns current value of a given interval timer specified by *which*. Availability : Unix.

Nouveau dans la version 2.6.

signal.set_wakeup_fd(*fd*)

Set the wakeup fd to *fd*. When a signal is received, a '\0' byte is written to the fd. This can be used by a library to wakeup a poll or select call, allowing the signal to be fully processed.

The old wakeup fd is returned (or -1 if file descriptor wakeup was not enabled). If *fd* is -1, file descriptor wakeup is disabled. If not -1, *fd* must be non-blocking. It is up to the library to remove any bytes from *fd* before calling poll or select again.

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.

Nouveau dans la version 2.6.

signal.siginterrupt(*signalnum*, *flag*)

Change system call restart behaviour : if *flag* is *False*, system calls will be restarted when interrupted by signal *signalnum*, otherwise system calls will be interrupted. Returns nothing. Availability : Unix (see the man page *siginterrupt(3)* for further information).

Note that installing a signal handler with *signal()* will reset the restart behaviour to interruptible by implicitly calling *siginterrupt()* with a true *flag* value for the given signal.

Nouveau dans la version 2.6.

signal.signal(*signalnum*, *handler*)

Set the handler for signal *signalnum* to the function *handler*. *handler* can be a callable Python object taking two arguments (see below), 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; for a description of frame objects, see the description in the type hierarchy or see the attribute descriptions in the `inspect` module).

On Windows, `signal()` can only be called with `SIGABRT`, `SIGFPE`, `SIGILL`, `SIGINT`, `SIGSEGV`, or `SIGTERM`. A `ValueError` will be raised in any other case.

17.4.1 Example

Here is a minimal example program. It uses the `alarm()` function to limit the time spent waiting to open a file; this is useful if the file is for a serial device that may not be turned on, which would normally cause the `os.open()` to hang indefinitely. The solution is to set a 5-second alarm before opening the file; if the operation takes too long, the alarm signal will be sent, and the handler raises an exception.

```
import signal, os

def handler(signum, frame):
    print 'Signal handler called with signal', signum
    raise IOError("Couldn't open device!")

# Set the signal handler and a 5-second alarm
signal.signal(signal.SIGALRM, handler)
signal.alarm(5)

# This open() may hang indefinitely
fd = os.open('/dev/ttyS0', os.O_RDWR)

signal.alarm(0)          # Disable the alarm
```

17.5 popen2 — Subprocesses with accessible I/O streams

Obsolète depuis la version 2.6 : This module is obsolete. Use the `subprocess` module. Check especially the *Remplacer les fonctions plus anciennes par le module subprocess* section.

This module allows you to spawn processes and connect to their input/output/error pipes and obtain their return codes under Unix and Windows.

The `subprocess` module provides more powerful facilities for spawning new processes and retrieving their results. Using the `subprocess` module is preferable to using the `popen2` module.

The primary interface offered by this module is a trio of factory functions. For each of these, if *bufsize* is specified, it specifies the buffer size for the I/O pipes. *mode*, if provided, should be the string `'b'` or `'t'`; on Windows this is needed to determine whether the file objects should be opened in binary or text mode. The default value for *mode* is `'t'`.

On Unix, *cmd* may be a sequence, in which case arguments will be passed directly to the program without shell intervention (as with `os.spawnv()`). If *cmd* is a string it will be passed to the shell (as with `os.system()`).

The only way to retrieve the return codes for the child processes is by using the `poll()` or `wait()` methods on the `Popen3` and `Popen4` classes; these are only available on Unix. This information is not available when using the `popen2()`, `popen3()`, and `popen4()` functions, or the equivalent functions in the `os` module. (Note

that the tuples returned by the `os` module's functions are in a different order from the ones returned by the `popen2` module.)

`popen2.popen2(cmd[, bufsize[, mode]])`

Executes `cmd` as a sub-process. Returns the file objects (`child_stdout`, `child_stdin`).

`popen2.popen3(cmd[, bufsize[, mode]])`

Executes `cmd` as a sub-process. Returns the file objects (`child_stdout`, `child_stdin`, `child_stderr`).

`popen2.popen4(cmd[, bufsize[, mode]])`

Executes `cmd` as a sub-process. Returns the file objects (`child_stdout_and_stderr`, `child_stdin`).
Nouveau dans la version 2.0.

On Unix, a class defining the objects returned by the factory functions is also available. These are not used for the Windows implementation, and are not available on that platform.

`class popen2.Popen3(cmd[, capturestderr[, bufsize]])`

This class represents a child process. Normally, `Popen3` instances are created using the `popen2()` and `popen3()` factory functions described above.

If not using one of the helper functions to create `Popen3` objects, the parameter `cmd` is the shell command to execute in a sub-process. The `capturestderr` flag, if true, specifies that the object should capture standard error output of the child process. The default is false. If the `bufsize` parameter is specified, it specifies the size of the I/O buffers to/from the child process.

`class popen2.Popen4(cmd[, bufsize])`

Similar to `Popen3`, but always captures standard error into the same file object as standard output. These are typically created using `popen4()`.

Nouveau dans la version 2.0.

17.5.1 Popen3 and Popen4 Objects

Instances of the `Popen3` and `Popen4` classes have the following methods :

`Popen3.poll()`

Returns -1 if child process hasn't completed yet, or its status code (see `wait()`) otherwise.

`Popen3.wait()`

Waits for and returns the status code of the child process. The status code encodes both the return code of the process and information about whether it exited using the `exit()` system call or died due to a signal. Functions to help interpret the status code are defined in the `os` module; see section *Gestion des processus* for the `W*`() family of functions.

Les attributs suivants sont aussi disponibles :

`Popen3.fromchild`

A file object that provides output from the child process. For `Popen4` instances, this will provide both the standard output and standard error streams.

`Popen3.tochild`

A file object that provides input to the child process.

`Popen3.childerr`

A file object that provides error output from the child process, if `capturestderr` was true for the constructor, otherwise `None`. This will always be `None` for `Popen4` instances.

`Popen3.pid`

L'identifiant de processus du processus enfant.

17.5.2 Flow Control Issues

Any time you are working with any form of inter-process communication, control flow needs to be carefully thought out. This remains the case with the file objects provided by this module (or the `os` module equivalents).

When reading output from a child process that writes a lot of data to standard error while the parent is reading from the child's standard output, a deadlock can occur. A similar situation can occur with other combinations of reads and writes. The essential factors are that more than `_PC_PIPE_BUF` bytes are being written by one process in a blocking fashion, while the other process is reading from the first process, also in a blocking fashion.

There are several ways to deal with this situation.

The simplest application change, in many cases, will be to follow this model in the parent process :

```
import popen2

r, w, e = popen2.popen3('python slave.py')
e.readlines()
r.readlines()
r.close()
e.close()
w.close()
```

with code like this in the child :

```
import os
import sys

# note that each of these print statements
# writes a single long string

print >>sys.stderr, 400 * 'this is a test\n'
os.close(sys.stderr.fileno())
print >>sys.stdout, 400 * 'this is another test\n'
```

In particular, note that `sys.stderr` must be closed after writing all data, or `readlines()` won't return. Also note that `os.close()` must be used, as `sys.stderr.close()` won't close `stderr` (otherwise assigning to `sys.stderr` will silently close it, so no further errors can be printed).

Applications which need to support a more general approach should integrate I/O over pipes with their `select()` loops, or use separate threads to read each of the individual files provided by whichever `popen*()` function or `Popen*` class was used.

Voir aussi :

Module `subprocess` Module for spawning and managing subprocesses.

17.6 asyncore — Gestionnaire de socket asynchrone

Code source : `Lib/asyncore.py`

This module provides the basic infrastructure for writing asynchronous socket service clients and servers.

There are only two ways to have a program on a single processor do « more than one thing at a time. » Multi-threaded programming is the simplest and most popular way to do it, but there is another very different technique, that lets you have nearly all the advantages of multi-threading, without actually using multiple threads. It's really only practical if your program is largely I/O bound. If your program is processor bound, then pre-emptive scheduled threads are probably what you really need. Network servers are rarely processor bound, however.

If your operating system supports the `select()` system call in its I/O library (and nearly all do), then you can use it to juggle multiple communication channels at once ; doing other work while your I/O is taking place in the « background. » Although this strategy can seem strange and complex, especially at first, it is in many ways easier to understand and control than multi-threaded programming. The `asyncore` module solves many of the difficult problems for you, making the task of building sophisticated high-performance network servers and clients a snap. For « conversational » applications and protocols the companion `asynchat` module is invaluable.

The basic idea behind both modules is to create one or more network *channels*, instances of class `asyncore.dispatcher` and `asynchat.async_chat`. Creating the channels adds them to a global map, used by the `loop()` function if you do not provide it with your own *map*.

Once the initial channel(s) is(are) created, calling the `loop()` function activates channel service, which continues until the last channel (including any that have been added to the map during asynchronous service) is closed.

```
asyncore.loop([timeout[, use_poll[, map[, count]]]])
```

Enter a polling loop that terminates after count passes or all open channels have been closed. All arguments are optional. The *count* parameter defaults to `None`, resulting in the loop terminating only when all channels have been closed. The *timeout* argument sets the timeout parameter for the appropriate `select()` or `poll()` call, measured in seconds ; the default is 30 seconds. The *use_poll* parameter, if true, indicates that `poll()` should be used in preference to `select()` (the default is `False`).

The *map* parameter is a dictionary whose items are the channels to watch. As channels are closed they are deleted from their map. If *map* is omitted, a global map is used. Channels (instances of `asyncore.dispatcher`, `asynchat.async_chat` and subclasses thereof) can freely be mixed in the map.

class `asyncore.dispatcher`

The `dispatcher` class is a thin wrapper around a low-level socket object. To make it more useful, it has a few methods for event-handling which are called from the asynchronous loop. Otherwise, it can be treated as a normal non-blocking socket object.

The firing of low-level events at certain times or in certain connection states tells the asynchronous loop that certain higher-level events have taken place. For example, if we have asked for a socket to connect to another host, we know that the connection has been made when the socket becomes writable for the first time (at this point you know that you may write to it with the expectation of success). The implied higher-level events are :

Event	Description
<code>handle_connect()</code>	Implied by the first read or write event
<code>handle_close()</code>	Implied by a read event with no data available
<code>handle_accept()</code>	Implied by a read event on a listening socket

During asynchronous processing, each mapped channel's `readable()` and `writable()` methods are used to determine whether the channel's socket should be added to the list of channels `select()`ed or `poll()`ed for read and write events.

Thus, the set of channel events is larger than the basic socket events. The full set of methods that can be overridden in your subclass follows :

handle_read()

Called when the asynchronous loop detects that a `read()` call on the channel's socket will succeed.

handle_write()

Called when the asynchronous loop detects that a writable socket can be written. Often this method will implement the necessary buffering for performance. For example :

```
def handle_write(self):
    sent = self.send(self.buffer)
    self.buffer = self.buffer[sent:]
```

handle_expt()

Called when there is out of band (OOB) data for a socket connection. This will almost never happen, as OOB is tenuously supported and rarely used.

handle_connect()

Called when the active opener's socket actually makes a connection. Might send a « welcome » banner, or initiate a protocol negotiation with the remote endpoint, for example.

handle_close()

Appelé lorsque la socket est fermée.

handle_error()

Called when an exception is raised and not otherwise handled. The default version prints a condensed traceback.

handle_accept()

Called on listening channels (passive openers) when a connection can be established with a new remote endpoint that has issued a `connect()` call for the local endpoint.

readable()

Called each time around the asynchronous loop to determine whether a channel's socket should be added to the list on which read events can occur. The default method simply returns `True`, indicating that by default, all channels will be interested in read events.

writable()

Called each time around the asynchronous loop to determine whether a channel's socket should be added to the list on which write events can occur. The default method simply returns `True`, indicating that by default, all channels will be interested in write events.

In addition, each channel delegates or extends many of the socket methods. Most of these are nearly identical to their socket partners.

create_socket(family, type)

This is identical to the creation of a normal socket, and will use the same options for creation. Refer to the `socket` documentation for information on creating sockets.

connect(address)

As with the normal socket object, *address* is a tuple with the first element the host to connect to, and the second the port number.

send(data)

Envoie *data* à l'autre bout de la socket.

recv(buffer_size)

Read at most *buffer_size* bytes from the socket's remote end-point. An empty string implies that the channel has been closed from the other end.

Note that `recv()` may raise `socket.error` with `EAGAIN` or `EWOULDBLOCK`, even though `select.select()` or `select.poll()` has reported the socket ready for reading.

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).

bind(address)

Bind the socket to *address*. The socket must not already be bound. (The format of *address* depends on the address family — refer to the `socket` documentation for more information.) To mark the socket as re-usable (setting the `SO_REUSEADDR` option), call the `dispatcher` object's `set_reuse_addr()` method.

accept()

Accept a connection. The socket must be bound to an address and listening for connections. The return value can be either `None` or 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. When `None` is returned it means the connection didn't take place, in which case the server should just ignore this event and keep listening for further incoming connections.

close()

Close the socket. All future operations on the socket object will fail. The remote end-point will receive no more data (after queued data is flushed). Sockets are automatically closed when they are garbage-collected.

class `asyncore.dispatcher_with_send`

A *dispatcher* subclass which adds simple buffered output capability, useful for simple clients. For more sophisticated usage use `asynchat.async_chat`.

class `asyncore.file_dispatcher`

A `file_dispatcher` takes a file descriptor or file object along with an optional `map` argument and wraps it for use with the `poll()` or `loop()` functions. If provided a file object or anything with a `fileno()` method, that method will be called and passed to the *file_wrapper* constructor. Availability : UNIX.

class `asyncore.file_wrapper`

A `file_wrapper` takes an integer file descriptor and calls `os.dup()` to duplicate the handle so that the original handle may be closed independently of the `file_wrapper`. This class implements sufficient methods to emulate a socket for use by the *file_dispatcher* class. Availability : UNIX.

17.6.1 Exemple de client HTTP basique avec `asyncore`

Here is a very basic HTTP client that uses the *dispatcher* class to implement its socket handling :

```
import asyncore, socket

class HTTPClient(asyncore.dispatcher):

    def __init__(self, host, path):
        asyncore.dispatcher.__init__(self)
        self.create_socket(socket.AF_INET, socket.SOCK_STREAM)
        self.connect( (host, 80) )
        self.buffer = 'GET %s HTTP/1.0\r\n\r\n' % path

    def handle_connect(self):
        pass

    def handle_close(self):
        self.close()

    def handle_read(self):
        print self.recv(8192)

    def writable(self):
        return (len(self.buffer) > 0)

    def handle_write(self):
        sent = self.send(self.buffer)
        self.buffer = self.buffer[sent:]
```

(suite sur la page suivante)

(suite de la page précédente)

```
client = HTTPClient('www.python.org', '/')
asyncore.loop()
```

17.6.2 Serveur *echo* basique avec *asyncore*

Here is a basic echo server that uses the *dispatcher* class to accept connections and dispatches the incoming connections to a handler :

```
import asyncore
import socket

class EchoHandler(asyncore.dispatcher_with_send):

    def handle_read(self):
        data = self.recv(8192)
        if data:
            self.send(data)

class EchoServer(asyncore.dispatcher):

    def __init__(self, host, port):
        asyncore.dispatcher.__init__(self)
        self.create_socket(socket.AF_INET, socket.SOCK_STREAM)
        self.set_reuse_addr()
        self.bind((host, port))
        self.listen(5)

    def handle_accept(self):
        pair = self.accept()
        if pair is not None:
            sock, addr = pair
            print 'Incoming connection from %s' % repr(addr)
            handler = EchoHandler(sock)

server = EchoServer('localhost', 8080)
asyncore.loop()
```

17.7 *asynchat* — Gestionnaire d'interfaces de connexion (*socket*) commande/réponse asynchrones

Code source : ** Lib/asynchat.py*

Ce module s'appuie sur l'infrastructure de *asyncore*, en simplifiant les clients et serveurs asynchrones et en rendant plus facile la gestion de protocoles dont les éléments finissent par une chaîne arbitraire, ou sont de longueur variable. *asynchat* définit une classe abstraite *async_chat* dont vous héritez, et qui fournit des implémentations des méthodes *collect_incoming_data()* et *found_terminator()*. Il utilise la même boucle asynchrone que *asyncore*, et deux types de canaux, *asyncore.dispatcher* et *asynchat.async_chat*, qui peuvent être librement mélangés dans la carte des canaux. Habituellement, un canal de

serveur `asyncore.dispatcher` génère de nouveaux canaux d'objets `asynchat.async_chat` à la réception de requêtes de connexion.

`class asynchat.async_chat`

Cette classe est une sous-classe abstraite de `asyncore.dispatcher`. Pour en faire un usage pratique, vous devez créer une classe héritant de `async_chat`, et implémentant des méthodes `collect_incoming_data()` et `found_terminator()` sensées. Les méthodes de `asyncore.dispatcher` peuvent être utilisées, même si toutes n'ont pas de sens dans un contexte de messages/réponse.

Comme `asyncore.dispatcher`, `async_chat` définit un ensemble d'événements générés par une analyse de l'état des interfaces de connexion (*socket* en anglais) après un appel à `select()`. Une fois que la boucle de scrutation (*polling* en anglais) a été lancée, les méthodes des objets `async_chat` sont appelées par le *framework* de traitement d'événements sans que le programmeur n'ait à le spécifier.

Deux attributs de classe peuvent être modifiés, pour améliorer la performance, ou potentiellement pour économiser de la mémoire.

`ac_in_buffer_size`

La taille du tampon d'entrées asynchrones (4096 par défaut).

`ac_out_buffer_size`

La taille du tampon de sorties asynchrones (4096 par défaut).

Unlike `asyncore.dispatcher`, `async_chat` allows you to define a first-in-first-out queue (fifo) of *producers*. A producer need have only one method, `more()`, which should return data to be transmitted on the channel. The producer indicates exhaustion (*i.e.* that it contains no more data) by having its `more()` method return the empty string. At this point the `async_chat` object removes the producer from the fifo and starts using the next producer, if any. When the producer fifo is empty the `handle_write()` method does nothing. You use the channel object's `set_terminator()` method to describe how to recognize the end of, or an important breakpoint in, an incoming transmission from the remote endpoint.

Pour construire une sous classe fonctionnelle de `async_chat` pour vos méthodes d'entrées `collect_incoming_data()` et `found_terminator()` doivent gérer la donnée que le canal reçoit de manière asynchrone. Ces méthodes sont décrites ci-dessous.

`async_chat.close_when_done()`

Pushes a `None` on to the producer fifo. When this producer is popped off the fifo it causes the channel to be closed.

`async_chat.collect_incoming_data(data)`

Appelé avec `data` contenant une quantité arbitraire de données. La méthode par défaut, qui doit être écrasée, lève une `NotImplementedError`.

`async_chat.discard_buffers()`

In emergencies this method will discard any data held in the input and/or output buffers and the producer fifo.

`async_chat.found_terminator()`

Appelée quand le flux de donné correspond à la condition de fin décrite par `set_terminator()`. La méthode par défaut, qui doit être écrasée, lève une `NotImplementedError`. Les données entrantes mise en tampon devraient être disponible via un attribut de l'instance.

`async_chat.get_terminator()`

Renvoie le terminateur courant pour le canal.

`async_chat.push(data)`

Pushes data on to the channel's fifo to ensure its transmission. This is all you need to do to have the channel write the data out to the network, although it is possible to use your own producers in more complex schemes to implement encryption and chunking, for example.

`async_chat.push_with_producer(producer)`

Takes a producer object and adds it to the producer fifo associated with the channel. When all currently-

pushed producers have been exhausted the channel will consume this producer's data by calling its `more()` method and send the data to the remote endpoint.

`async_chat.set_terminator(term)`

Définit le marqueur de fin que le canal doit reconnaître. `term` peut être n'importe lequel des trois types de valeurs, correspondant aux trois différentes manières de gérer les données entrantes.

<i>term</i>	Description
<i>string</i>	Appellera <code>found_terminator()</code> quand la chaîne est trouvée dans le flux d'entrée
<i>integer</i>	Appellera <code>found_terminator()</code> quand le nombre de caractère indiqué à été reçu
<code>None</code>	Le canal continue de collecter des informations indéfiniment

Notez que toute donnée située après le marqueur de fin sera accessible en lecture par le canal après que `found_terminator()` ai été appelé.

17.7.1 `asyncchat` - Auxiliary Classes

`class asyncchat.fifo([list=None])`

A *fifo* holding data which has been pushed by the application but not yet popped for writing to the channel. A *fifo* is a list used to hold data and/or producers until they are required. If the *list* argument is provided then it should contain producers or data items to be written to the channel.

`is_empty()`

Returns `True` if and only if the fifo is empty.

`first()`

Returns the least-recently *push()*ed item from the fifo.

`push(data)`

Adds the given data (which may be a string or a producer object) to the producer fifo.

`pop()`

If the fifo is not empty, returns `True`, `first()`, deleting the popped item. Returns `False`, `None` for an empty fifo.

17.7.2 Exemple `asyncchat`

L'exemple partiel suivant montre comment des requêtes HTTP peuvent être lues avec `async_chat`. Un serveur web pourrait créer un objet `http_request_handler` pour chaque connections lient entrantes. Notez que initialement, le marqueur de fin du canal est défini pour reconnaître les lignes vides à la fin des entêtes HTTP, et une option indique que les entêtes sont en train d'être lues.

Une fois que les entêtes ont été lues, si la requête est de type *POST* (ce qui indique que davantage de données sont présent dans dans le flux entrant) alors l'entête **Content-Length**: est utilisé pour définir un marqueur de fin numérique pour lire la bonne quantité de donné depuis le canal.

La méthode `handle_request()` est appelée une fois que toutes les données pertinentes ont été rassemblées, après avoir défini le marqueur de fin à `None` pour s'assurer que toute données étrangères envoyées par le client web sont ignorées.

```
class http_request_handler(asyncchat.async_chat):

    def __init__(self, sock, addr, sessions, log):
        asyncchat.async_chat.__init__(self, sock=sock)
        self.addr = addr
        self.sessions = sessions
        self.ibuffer = []
        self.obuffer = ""
```

(suite sur la page suivante)

(suite de la page précédente)

```
self.set_terminator("\r\n\r\n")
self.reading_headers = True
self.handling = False
self.cgi_data = None
self.log = log

def collect_incoming_data(self, data):
    """Buffer the data"""
    self.ibuffer.append(data)

def found_terminator(self):
    if self.reading_headers:
        self.reading_headers = False
        self.parse_headers("".join(self.ibuffer))
        self.ibuffer = []
        if self.op.upper() == "POST":
            clen = self.headers.getheader("content-length")
            self.set_terminator(int(clen))
        else:
            self.handling = True
            self.set_terminator(None)
            self.handle_request()
    elif not self.handling:
        self.set_terminator(None) # browsers sometimes over-send
        self.cgi_data = parse(self.headers, "".join(self.ibuffer))
        self.handling = True
        self.ibuffer = []
        self.handle_request()
```

Traitement des données provenant d'Internet

Ce chapitre décrit les modules qui prennent en charge le traitement des formats de données couramment utilisés sur Internet.

18.1 `email` — An email and MIME handling package

Nouveau dans la version 2.2.

The `email` package is a library for managing email messages, including MIME and other [RFC 2822](#)-based message documents. It subsumes most of the functionality in several older standard modules such as `rfc822`, `mimetools`, `multifile`, and other non-standard packages such as `mimecntl`. It is specifically *not* designed to do any sending of email messages to SMTP ([RFC 2821](#)), NNTP, or other servers; those are functions of modules such as `smtplib` and `nntplib`. The `email` package attempts to be as RFC-compliant as possible, supporting in addition to [RFC 2822](#), such MIME-related RFCs as [RFC 2045](#), [RFC 2046](#), [RFC 2047](#), and [RFC 2231](#).

The primary distinguishing feature of the `email` package is that it splits the parsing and generating of email messages from the internal *object model* representation of email. Applications using the `email` package deal primarily with objects; you can add sub-objects to messages, remove sub-objects from messages, completely re-arrange the contents, etc. There is a separate parser and a separate generator which handles the transformation from flat text to the object model, and then back to flat text again. There are also handy subclasses for some common MIME object types, and a few miscellaneous utilities that help with such common tasks as extracting and parsing message field values, creating RFC-compliant dates, etc.

The following sections describe the functionality of the `email` package. The ordering follows a progression that should be common in applications: an email message is read as flat text from a file or other source, the text is parsed to produce the object structure of the email message, this structure is manipulated, and finally, the object tree is rendered back into flat text.

It is perfectly feasible to create the object structure out of whole cloth — i.e. completely from scratch. From there, a similar progression can be taken as above.

Also included are detailed specifications of all the classes and modules that the `email` package provides, the exception classes you might encounter while using the `email` package, some auxiliary utilities, and a few

examples. For users of the older `mimelib` package, or previous versions of the `email` package, a section on differences and porting is provided.

Contents of the `email` package documentation :

18.1.1 `email.message` : Representing an email message

The central class in the `email` package is the `Message` class, imported from the `email.message` module. It is the base class for the `email` object model. `Message` provides the core functionality for setting and querying header fields, and for accessing message bodies.

Conceptually, a `Message` object consists of *headers* and *payloads*. Headers are **RFC 2822** style field names and values where the field name and value are separated by a colon. The colon is not part of either the field name or the field value.

Headers are stored and returned in case-preserving form but are matched case-insensitively. There may also be a single envelope header, also known as the *Unix-From* header or the `From_` header. The payload is either a string in the case of simple message objects or a list of `Message` objects for MIME container documents (e.g. `multipart/*` and `message/rfc822`).

`Message` objects provide a mapping style interface for accessing the message headers, and an explicit interface for accessing both the headers and the payload. It provides convenience methods for generating a flat text representation of the message object tree, for accessing commonly used header parameters, and for recursively walking over the object tree.

Here are the methods of the `Message` class :

class `email.message.Message`

The constructor takes no arguments.

as_string(`[unixfrom]`)

Return the entire message flattened as a string. When optional `unixfrom` is `True`, the envelope header is included in the returned string. `unixfrom` defaults to `False`. Flattening the message may trigger changes to the `Message` if defaults need to be filled in to complete the transformation to a string (for example, MIME boundaries may be generated or modified).

Note that this method is provided as a convenience and may not always format the message the way you want. For example, by default it mangles lines that begin with `From`. For more flexibility, instantiate a `Generator` instance and use its `flatten()` method directly. For example :

```
from cStringIO import StringIO
from email.generator import Generator
fp = StringIO()
g = Generator(fp, mangle_from_=False, maxheaderlen=60)
g.flatten(msg)
text = fp.getvalue()
```

__str__()

Equivalent to `as_string(unixfrom=True)`.

is_multipart()

Return `True` if the message's payload is a list of sub-`Message` objects, otherwise return `False`. When `is_multipart()` returns `False`, the payload should be a string object.

set_unixfrom(`unixfrom`)

Set the message's envelope header to `unixfrom`, which should be a string.

get_unixfrom()

Return the message's envelope header. Defaults to `None` if the envelope header was never set.

attach(`payload`)

Add the given `payload` to the current payload, which must be `None` or a list of `Message` objects

before the call. After the call, the payload will always be a list of *Message* objects. If you want to set the payload to a scalar object (e.g. a string), use *set_payload()* instead.

get_payload(*i*[, *decode*])

Return the current payload, which will be a list of *Message* objects when *is_multipart()* is *True*, or a string when *is_multipart()* is *False*. If the payload is a list and you mutate the list object, you modify the message's payload in place.

With optional argument *i*, *get_payload()* will return the *i*-th element of the payload, counting from zero, if *is_multipart()* is *True*. An *IndexError* will be raised if *i* is less than 0 or greater than or equal to the number of items in the payload. If the payload is a string (i.e. *is_multipart()* is *False*) and *i* is given, a *TypeError* is raised.

Optional *decode* is a flag indicating whether the payload should be decoded or not, according to the *Content-Transfer-Encoding* header. When *True* and the message is not a multipart, the payload will be decoded if this header's value is *quoted-printable* or *base64*. If some other encoding is used, or *Content-Transfer-Encoding* header is missing, or if the payload has bogus base64 data, the payload is returned as-is (undecoded). If the message is a multipart and the *decode* flag is *True*, then *None* is returned. The default for *decode* is *False*.

set_payload(*payload*[, *charset*])

Set the entire message object's payload to *payload*. It is the client's responsibility to ensure the payload invariants. Optional *charset* sets the message's default character set; see *set_charset()* for details.

Modifié dans la version 2.2.2 : *charset* argument added.

set_charset(*charset*)

Set the character set of the payload to *charset*, which can either be a *Charset* instance (see *email.charset*), a string naming a character set, or *None*. If it is a string, it will be converted to a *Charset* instance. If *charset* is *None*, the *charset* parameter will be removed from the *Content-Type* header (the message will not be otherwise modified). Anything else will generate a *TypeError*.

If there is no existing *MIME-Version* header one will be added. If there is no existing *Content-Type* header, one will be added with a value of *text/plain*. Whether the *Content-Type* header already exists or not, its *charset* parameter will be set to *charset.output_charset*. If *charset.input_charset* and *charset.output_charset* differ, the payload will be re-encoded to the *output_charset*. If there is no existing *Content-Transfer-Encoding* header, then the payload will be transfer-encoded, if needed, using the specified *Charset*, and a header with the appropriate value will be added. If a *Content-Transfer-Encoding* header already exists, the payload is assumed to already be correctly encoded using that *Content-Transfer-Encoding* and is not modified.

The message will be assumed to be of type *text/**, with the payload either in unicode or encoded with *charset.input_charset*. It will be encoded or converted to *charset.output_charset* and transfer encoded properly, if needed, when generating the plain text representation of the message. MIME headers (*MIME-Version*, *Content-Type*, *Content-Transfer-Encoding*) will be added as needed.

Nouveau dans la version 2.2.2.

get_charset()

Return the *Charset* instance associated with the message's payload.

Nouveau dans la version 2.2.2.

The following methods implement a mapping-like interface for accessing the message's **RFC 2822** headers. Note that there are some semantic differences between these methods and a normal mapping (i.e. dictionary) interface. For example, in a dictionary there are no duplicate keys, but here there may be duplicate message headers. Also, in dictionaries there is no guaranteed order to the keys returned by *keys()*, but in a *Message* object, headers are always returned in the order they appeared in the original message, or were added to the message later. Any header deleted and then re-added are always appended to the end of the header list.

These semantic differences are intentional and are biased toward maximal convenience.

Note that in all cases, any envelope header present in the message is not included in the mapping interface.

__len__()

Return the total number of headers, including duplicates.

__contains__(name)

Return true if the message object has a field named *name*. Matching is done case-insensitively and *name* should not include the trailing colon. Used for the `in` operator, e.g. :

```
if 'message-id' in myMessage:
    print 'Message-ID:', myMessage['message-id']
```

__getitem__(name)

Return the value of the named header field. *name* should not include the colon field separator. If the header is missing, `None` is returned; a `KeyError` is never raised.

Note that if the named field appears more than once in the message's headers, exactly which of those field values will be returned is undefined. Use the `get_all()` method to get the values of all the extant named headers.

__setitem__(name, val)

Add a header to the message with field name *name* and value *val*. The field is appended to the end of the message's existing fields.

Note that this does *not* overwrite or delete any existing header with the same name. If you want to ensure that the new header is the only one present in the message with field name *name*, delete the field first, e.g. :

```
del msg['subject']
msg['subject'] = 'Python roolz!'
```

__delitem__(name)

Delete all occurrences of the field with name *name* from the message's headers. No exception is raised if the named field isn't present in the headers.

has_key(name)

Return true if the message contains a header field named *name*, otherwise return false.

keys()

Return a list of all the message's header field names.

values()

Return a list of all the message's field values.

items()

Return a list of 2-tuples containing all the message's field headers and values.

get(name[, failobj])

Return the value of the named header field. This is identical to `__getitem__()` except that optional *failobj* is returned if the named header is missing (defaults to `None`).

Here are some additional useful methods :

get_all(name[, failobj])

Return a list of all the values for the field named *name*. If there are no such named headers in the message, *failobj* is returned (defaults to `None`).

add_header(_name, _value, **_params)

Extended header setting. This method is similar to `__setitem__()` except that additional header parameters can be provided as keyword arguments. *_name* is the header field to add and *_value* is the *primary* value for the header.

For each item in the keyword argument dictionary *_params*, the key is taken as the parameter name, with underscores converted to dashes (since dashes are illegal in Python identifiers). Normally, the parameter will be added as `key="value"` unless the value is `None`, in which case only the key will be added. If the value contains non-ASCII characters, it must be specified as a three tuple in the format (CHARSET, LANGUAGE, VALUE), where CHARSET is a string naming the charset to be used to encode the value, LANGUAGE can usually be set to `None` or the empty string (see [RFC 2231](#) for other possibilities), and VALUE is the string value containing non-ASCII code points.

Here's an example :

```
msg.add_header('Content-Disposition', 'attachment', filename='bud.gif')
```

This will add a header that looks like

```
Content-Disposition: attachment; filename="bud.gif"
```

An example with non-ASCII characters :

```
msg.add_header('Content-Disposition', 'attachment',
               filename=('iso-8859-1', '', 'Fußballer.ppt'))
```

Which produces

```
Content-Disposition: attachment; filename*="iso-8859-1'Fu%DFballer.ppt"
```

replace_header(*_name*, *_value*)

Replace a header. Replace the first header found in the message that matches *_name*, retaining header order and field name case. If no matching header was found, a *KeyError* is raised.

Nouveau dans la version 2.2.2.

get_content_type()

Return the message's content type. The returned string is coerced to lower case of the form *maintype/subtype*. If there was no *Content-Type* header in the message the default type as given by *get_default_type()* will be returned. Since according to [RFC 2045](#), messages always have a default type, *get_content_type()* will always return a value.

[RFC 2045](#) defines a message's default type to be *text/plain* unless it appears inside a *multipart/digest* container, in which case it would be *message/rfc822*. If the *Content-Type* header has an invalid type specification, [RFC 2045](#) mandates that the default type be *text/plain*.

Nouveau dans la version 2.2.2.

get_content_maintype()

Return the message's main content type. This is the *maintype* part of the string returned by *get_content_type()*.

Nouveau dans la version 2.2.2.

get_content_subtype()

Return the message's sub-content type. This is the *subtype* part of the string returned by *get_content_type()*.

Nouveau dans la version 2.2.2.

get_default_type()

Return the default content type. Most messages have a default content type of *text/plain*, except for messages that are subparts of *multipart/digest* containers. Such subparts have a default content type of *message/rfc822*.

Nouveau dans la version 2.2.2.

set_default_type(*ctype*)

Set the default content type. *ctype* should either be *text/plain* or *message/rfc822*, although this is not enforced. The default content type is not stored in the *Content-Type* header.

Nouveau dans la version 2.2.2.

get_params(*[failobj, header[, unquote]]*)

Return the message's *Content-Type* parameters, as a list. The elements of the returned list are 2-tuples of key/value pairs, as split on the '=' sign. The left hand side of the '=' is the key, while the right hand side is the value. If there is no '=' sign in the parameter the value is the empty string, otherwise the value is as described in *get_param()* and is unquoted if optional *unquote* is True (the default).

Optional *failobj* is the object to return if there is no *Content-Type* header. Optional *header* is the header to search instead of *Content-Type*.

Modifié dans la version 2.2.2 : *unquote* argument added.

get_param(*param*[, *failobj*[, *header*[, *unquote*]]])

Return the value of the *Content-Type* header's parameter *param* as a string. If the message has no *Content-Type* header or if there is no such parameter, then *failobj* is returned (defaults to *None*).

Optional *header* if given, specifies the message header to use instead of *Content-Type*.

Parameter keys are always compared case insensitively. The return value can either be a string, or a 3-tuple if the parameter was [RFC 2231](#) encoded. When it's a 3-tuple, the elements of the value are of the form (CHARSET, LANGUAGE, VALUE). Note that both CHARSET and LANGUAGE can be *None*, in which case you should consider VALUE to be encoded in the *us-ascii* charset. You can usually ignore LANGUAGE.

If your application doesn't care whether the parameter was encoded as in [RFC 2231](#), you can collapse the parameter value by calling `email.utils.collapse_rfc2231_value()`, passing in the return value from `get_param()`. This will return a suitably decoded Unicode string when the value is a tuple, or the original string unquoted if it isn't. For example :

```
rawparam = msg.get_param('foo')
param = email.utils.collapse_rfc2231_value(rawparam)
```

In any case, the parameter value (either the returned string, or the VALUE item in the 3-tuple) is always unquoted, unless *unquote* is set to *False*.

Modifié dans la version 2.2.2 : *unquote* argument added, and 3-tuple return value possible.

set_param(*param*, *value*[, *header*[, *quote*[, *charset*[, *language*]]]])

Set a parameter in the *Content-Type* header. If the parameter already exists in the header, its value will be replaced with *value*. If the *Content-Type* header has not yet been defined for this message, it will be set to *text/plain* and the new parameter value will be appended as per [RFC 2045](#).

Optional *header* specifies an alternative header to *Content-Type*, and all parameters will be quoted as necessary unless optional *quote* is *False* (the default is *True*).

If optional *charset* is specified, the parameter will be encoded according to [RFC 2231](#). Optional *language* specifies the RFC 2231 language, defaulting to the empty string. Both *charset* and *language* should be strings.

Nouveau dans la version 2.2.2.

del_param(*param*[, *header*[, *quote*]])

Remove the given parameter completely from the *Content-Type* header. The header will be rewritten in place without the parameter or its value. All values will be quoted as necessary unless *quote* is *False* (the default is *True*). Optional *header* specifies an alternative to *Content-Type*.

Nouveau dans la version 2.2.2.

set_type(*type*[, *header*[, *quote*]])

Set the main type and subtype for the *Content-Type* header. *type* must be a string in the form *maintype/subtype*, otherwise a *ValueError* is raised.

This method replaces the *Content-Type* header, keeping all the parameters in place. If *quote* is *False*, this leaves the existing header's quoting as is, otherwise the parameters will be quoted (the default).

An alternative header can be specified in the *header* argument. When the *Content-Type* header is set a *MIME-Version* header is also added.

Nouveau dans la version 2.2.2.

get_filename(*failobj*)

Return the value of the *filename* parameter of the *Content-Disposition* header of the message. If the header does not have a *filename* parameter, this method falls back to looking for the *name*

parameter on the *Content-Type* header. If neither is found, or the header is missing, then *failobj* is returned. The returned string will always be unquoted as per `email.utils.unquote()`.

get_boundary(*[failobj]*)

Return the value of the *boundary* parameter of the *Content-Type* header of the message, or *failobj* if either the header is missing, or has no *boundary* parameter. The returned string will always be unquoted as per `email.utils.unquote()`.

set_boundary(*boundary*)

Set the *boundary* parameter of the *Content-Type* header to *boundary*. `set_boundary()` will always quote *boundary* if necessary. A `HeaderParseError` is raised if the message object has no *Content-Type* header.

Note that using this method is subtly different than deleting the old *Content-Type* header and adding a new one with the new boundary via `add_header()`, because `set_boundary()` preserves the order of the *Content-Type* header in the list of headers. However, it does *not* preserve any continuation lines which may have been present in the original *Content-Type* header.

get_content_charset(*[failobj]*)

Return the *charset* parameter of the *Content-Type* header, coerced to lower case. If there is no *Content-Type* header, or if that header has no *charset* parameter, *failobj* is returned.

Note that this method differs from `get_charset()` which returns the *Charset* instance for the default encoding of the message body.

Nouveau dans la version 2.2.2.

get_charsets(*[failobj]*)

Return a list containing the character set names in the message. If the message is a *multipart*, then the list will contain one element for each subpart in the payload, otherwise, it will be a list of length 1.

Each item in the list will be a string which is the value of the *charset* parameter in the *Content-Type* header for the represented subpart. However, if the subpart has no *Content-Type* header, no *charset* parameter, or is not of the *text* main MIME type, then that item in the returned list will be *failobj*.

walk()

The `walk()` method is an all-purpose generator which can be used to iterate over all the parts and subparts of a message object tree, in depth-first traversal order. You will typically use `walk()` as the iterator in a `for` loop; each iteration returns the next subpart.

Here's an example that prints the MIME type of every part of a multipart message structure :

```
>>> for part in msg.walk():
...     print part.get_content_type()
multipart/report
text/plain
message/delivery-status
text/plain
text/plain
message/rfc822
```

Modifié dans la version 2.5 : The previously deprecated methods `get_type()`, `get_main_type()`, and `get_subtype()` were removed.

Message objects can also optionally contain two instance attributes, which can be used when generating the plain text of a MIME message.

preamble

The format of a MIME document allows for some text between the blank line following the headers, and the first multipart boundary string. Normally, this text is never visible in a MIME-aware mail reader because it falls outside the standard MIME armor. However, when viewing the raw text of the message, or when viewing the message in a non-MIME aware reader, this text can become visible.

The *preamble* attribute contains this leading extra-armor text for MIME documents. When the *Parser* discovers some text after the headers but before the first boundary string, it assigns this text to the message's *preamble* attribute. When the *Generator* is writing out the plain text representation of a MIME message, and it finds the message has a *preamble* attribute, it will write this text in the area between the headers and the first boundary. See *email.parser* and *email.generator* for details.

Note that if the message object has no preamble, the *preamble* attribute will be *None*.

epilogue

The *epilogue* attribute acts the same way as the *preamble* attribute, except that it contains text that appears between the last boundary and the end of the message.

Modifié dans la version 2.5 : You do not need to set the epilogue to the empty string in order for the *Generator* to print a newline at the end of the file.

defects

The *defects* attribute contains a list of all the problems found when parsing this message. See *email.errors* for a detailed description of the possible parsing defects.

Nouveau dans la version 2.4.

18.1.2 email.parser : Parsing email messages

Message object structures can be created in one of two ways : they can be created from whole cloth by instantiating *Message* objects and stringing them together via *attach()* and *set_payload()* calls, or they can be created by parsing a flat text representation of the email message.

The *email* package provides a standard parser that understands most email document structures, including MIME documents. You can pass the parser a string or a file object, and the parser will return to you the root *Message* instance of the object structure. For simple, non-MIME messages the payload of this root object will likely be a string containing the text of the message. For MIME messages, the root object will return *True* from its *is_multipart()* method, and the subparts can be accessed via the *get_payload()* and *walk()* methods.

There are actually two parser interfaces available for use, the classic *Parser* API and the incremental *FeedParser* API. The classic *Parser* API is fine if you have the entire text of the message in memory as a string, or if the entire message lives in a file on the file system. *FeedParser* is more appropriate for when you're reading the message from a stream which might block waiting for more input (e.g. reading an email message from a socket). The *FeedParser* can consume and parse the message incrementally, and only returns the root object when you close the parser¹.

Note that the parser can be extended in limited ways, and of course you can implement your own parser completely from scratch. There is no magical connection between the *email* package's bundled parser and the *Message* class, so your custom parser can create message object trees any way it finds necessary.

FeedParser API

Nouveau dans la version 2.4.

The *FeedParser*, imported from the *email.feedparser* module, provides an API that is conducive to incremental parsing of email messages, such as would be necessary when reading the text of an email message from a source that can block (e.g. a socket). The *FeedParser* can of course be used to parse an email message fully contained in a string or a file, but the classic *Parser* API may be more convenient for such use cases. The semantics and results of the two parser APIs are identical.

The *FeedParser*'s API is simple ; you create an instance, feed it a bunch of text until there's no more to feed it, then close the parser to retrieve the root message object. The *FeedParser* is extremely accurate when parsing standards-compliant messages, and it does a very good job of parsing non-compliant messages,

1. As of email package version 3.0, introduced in Python 2.4, the classic *Parser* was re-implemented in terms of the *FeedParser*, so the semantics and results are identical between the two parsers.

providing information about how a message was deemed broken. It will populate a message object's *defects* attribute with a list of any problems it found in a message. See the *email.errors* module for the list of defects that it can find.

Here is the API for the *FeedParser* :

```
class email.parser.FeedParser([__factory])
```

Create a *FeedParser* instance. Optional *__factory* is a no-argument callable that will be called whenever a new message object is needed. It defaults to the *email.message.Message* class.

```
feed(data)
```

Feed the *FeedParser* some more data. *data* should be a string containing one or more lines. The lines can be partial and the *FeedParser* will stitch such partial lines together properly. The lines in the string can have any of the common three line endings, carriage return, newline, or carriage return and newline (they can even be mixed).

```
close()
```

Closing a *FeedParser* completes the parsing of all previously fed data, and returns the root message object. It is undefined what happens if you feed more data to a closed *FeedParser*.

Parser class API

The *Parser* class, imported from the *email.parser* module, provides an API that can be used to parse a message when the complete contents of the message are available in a string or file. The *email.parser* module also provides a second class, called *HeaderParser* which can be used if you're only interested in the headers of the message. *HeaderParser* can be much faster in these situations, since it does not attempt to parse the message body, instead setting the payload to the raw body as a string. *HeaderParser* has the same API as the *Parser* class.

```
class email.parser.Parser([__class])
```

The constructor for the *Parser* class takes an optional argument *__class*. This must be a callable factory (such as a function or a class), and it is used whenever a sub-message object needs to be created. It defaults to *Message* (see *email.message*). The factory will be called without arguments.

The optional *strict* flag is ignored.

Obsolète depuis la version 2.4 : Because the *Parser* class is a backward compatible API wrapper around the new-in-Python 2.4 *FeedParser*, all parsing is effectively non-strict. You should simply stop passing a *strict* flag to the *Parser* constructor.

Modifié dans la version 2.2.2 : The *strict* flag was added.

Modifié dans la version 2.4 : The *strict* flag was deprecated.

The other public *Parser* methods are :

```
parse(fp[, headersonly])
```

Read all the data from the file-like object *fp*, parse the resulting text, and return the root message object. *fp* must support both the *readline()* and the *read()* methods on file-like objects.

The text contained in *fp* must be formatted as a block of **RFC 2822** style headers and header continuation lines, optionally preceded by an envelope header. The header block is terminated either by the end of the data or by a blank line. Following the header block is the body of the message (which may contain MIME-encoded subparts).

Optional *headersonly* is a flag specifying whether to stop parsing after reading the headers or not. The default is **False**, meaning it parses the entire contents of the file.

Modifié dans la version 2.2.2 : The *headersonly* flag was added.

```
parsestr(text[, headersonly])
```

Similar to the *parse()* method, except it takes a string object instead of a file-like object. Calling this method on a string is exactly equivalent to wrapping *text* in a *StringIO* instance first and calling *parse()*.

Optional *headersonly* is as with the *parse()* method.

Modifié dans la version 2.2.2 : The *headersonly* flag was added.

Since creating a message object structure from a string or a file object is such a common task, two functions are provided as a convenience. They are available in the top-level *email* package namespace.

`email.message_from_string(s[, _class[, strict]])`

Return a message object structure from a string. This is exactly equivalent to `Parser().parsestr(s)`.

Optional `_class` and `strict` are interpreted as with the *Parser* class constructor.

Modifié dans la version 2.2.2 : The *strict* flag was added.

`email.message_from_file(fp[, _class[, strict]])`

Return a message object structure tree from an open file object. This is exactly equivalent to `Parser().`

`parse(fp)`. Optional `_class` and `strict` are interpreted as with the *Parser* class constructor.

Modifié dans la version 2.2.2 : The *strict* flag was added.

Here's an example of how you might use this at an interactive Python prompt :

```
>>> import email
>>> msg = email.message_from_string(myString)
```

Additional notes

Here are some notes on the parsing semantics :

- Most non-*multipart* type messages are parsed as a single message object with a string payload. These objects will return `False` for `is_multipart()`. Their `get_payload()` method will return a string object.
- All *multipart* type messages will be parsed as a container message object with a list of sub-message objects for their payload. The outer container message will return `True` for `is_multipart()` and their `get_payload()` method will return the list of *Message* subparts.
- Most messages with a content type of *message/** (e.g. *message/delivery-status* and *message/rfc822*) will also be parsed as container object containing a list payload of length 1. Their `is_multipart()` method will return `True`. The single element in the list payload will be a sub-message object.
- Some non-standards compliant messages may not be internally consistent about their *multipart*-edness. Such messages may have a *Content-Type* header of type *multipart*, but their `is_multipart()` method may return `False`. If such messages were parsed with the *FeedParser*, they will have an instance of the `MultipartInvariantViolationDefect` class in their `defects` attribute list. See *email.errors* for details.

Notes

18.1.3 email.generator : Generating MIME documents

One of the most common tasks is to generate the flat text of the email message represented by a message object structure. You will need to do this if you want to send your message via the *smtplib* module or the *ntplib* module, or print the message on the console. Taking a message object structure and producing a flat text document is the job of the *Generator* class.

Again, as with the *email.parser* module, you aren't limited to the functionality of the bundled generator ; you could write one from scratch yourself. However the bundled generator knows how to generate most email in a standards-compliant way, should handle MIME and non-MIME email messages just fine, and is designed so that the transformation from flat text, to a message structure via the *Parser* class, and back to flat text, is idempotent (the input is identical to the output)¹. On the other hand, using the *Generator* on a *Message* constructed by program may result in changes to the *Message* object as defaults are filled in.

Here are the public methods of the *Generator* class, imported from the *email.generator* module :

1. This statement assumes that you use the appropriate setting for the `unixfrom` argument, and that you set `maxheaderlen=0` (which will preserve whatever the input line lengths were). It is also not strictly true, since in many cases runs of whitespace in headers are collapsed into single blanks. The latter is a bug that will eventually be fixed.

```
class email.generator.Generator(outfp[, mangle_from[, maxheaderlen]])
```

The constructor for the *Generator* class takes a file-like object called *outfp* for an argument. *outfp* must support the *write()* method and be usable as the output file in a Python extended print statement.

Optional *mangle_from* is a flag that, when *True*, puts a > character in front of any line in the body that starts exactly as *From*, i.e. *From* followed by a space at the beginning of the line. This is the only guaranteed portable way to avoid having such lines be mistaken for a Unix mailbox format envelope header separator (see [WHY THE CONTENT-LENGTH FORMAT IS BAD](#) for details). *mangle_from* defaults to *True*, but you might want to set this to *False* if you are not writing Unix mailbox format files.

Optional *maxheaderlen* specifies the longest length for a non-continued header. When a header line is longer than *maxheaderlen* (in characters, with tabs expanded to 8 spaces), the header will be split as defined in the *Header* class. Set to zero to disable header wrapping. The default is 78, as recommended (but not required) by [RFC 2822](#).

The other public *Generator* methods are :

```
flatten(msg[, unixfrom])
```

Print the textual representation of the message object structure rooted at *msg* to the output file specified when the *Generator* instance was created. Subparts are visited depth-first and the resulting text will be properly MIME encoded.

Optional *unixfrom* is a flag that forces the printing of the envelope header delimiter before the first [RFC 2822](#) header of the root message object. If the root object has no envelope header, a standard one is crafted. By default, this is set to *False* to inhibit the printing of the envelope delimiter.

Note that for subparts, no envelope header is ever printed.

Nouveau dans la version 2.2.2.

```
clone(fp)
```

Return an independent clone of this *Generator* instance with the exact same options.

Nouveau dans la version 2.2.2.

```
write(s)
```

Write the string *s* to the underlying file object, i.e. *outfp* passed to *Generator*'s constructor. This provides just enough file-like API for *Generator* instances to be used in extended print statements.

As a convenience, see the methods *Message.as_string()* and *str(aMessage)*, a.k.a. *Message.__str__()*, which simplify the generation of a formatted string representation of a message object. For more detail, see *email.message*.

The *email.generator* module also provides a derived class, called *DecodedGenerator* which is like the *Generator* base class, except that non-*text* parts are substituted with a format string representing the part.

```
class email.generator.DecodedGenerator(outfp[, mangle_from[, maxheaderlen[, fmt]])
```

This class, derived from *Generator* walks through all the subparts of a message. If the subpart is of main type *text*, then it prints the decoded payload of the subpart. Optional *mangle_from* and *maxheaderlen* are as with the *Generator* base class.

If the subpart is not of main type *text*, optional *fmt* is a format string that is used instead of the message payload. *fmt* is expanded with the following keywords, *%(keyword)s* format :

- *type* – Full MIME type of the non-*text* part
- *maintype* – Main MIME type of the non-*text* part
- *subtype* – Sub-MIME type of the non-*text* part
- *filename* – Filename of the non-*text* part
- *description* – Description associated with the non-*text* part
- *encoding* – Content transfer encoding of the non-*text* part

The default value for *fmt* is *None*, meaning

`[Non-text %(type)s part of message omitted, filename %(filename)s]`

Nouveau dans la version 2.2.2.

Modifié dans la version 2.5 : The previously deprecated method `__call__()` was removed.

Notes

18.1.4 `email.mime` : Creating email and MIME objects from scratch

Ordinarily, you get a message object structure by passing a file or some text to a parser, which parses the text and returns the root message object. However you can also build a complete message structure from scratch, or even individual *Message* objects by hand. In fact, you can also take an existing structure and add new *Message* objects, move them around, etc. This makes a very convenient interface for slicing-and-dicing MIME messages.

You can create a new object structure by creating *Message* instances, adding attachments and all the appropriate headers manually. For MIME messages though, the *email* package provides some convenient subclasses to make things easier.

Here are the classes :

```
class email.mime.base.MIMEBase(__maintype, __subtype, **__params)
```

Module : `email.mime.base`

This is the base class for all the MIME-specific subclasses of *Message*. Ordinarily you won't create instances specifically of *MIMEBase*, although you could. *MIMEBase* is provided primarily as a convenient base class for more specific MIME-aware subclasses.

`__maintype` is the *Content-Type* major type (e.g. *text* or *image*), and `__subtype` is the *Content-Type* minor type (e.g. *plain* or *gif*). `__params` is a parameter key/value dictionary and is passed directly to *Message.add_header*.

The *MIMEBase* class always adds a *Content-Type* header (based on `__maintype`, `__subtype`, and `__params`), and a *MIME-Version* header (always set to 1.0).

```
class email.mime.nonmultipart.MIMENonMultipart
```

Module : `email.mime.nonmultipart`

A subclass of *MIMEBase*, this is an intermediate base class for MIME messages that are not *multipart*. The primary purpose of this class is to prevent the use of the *attach()* method, which only makes sense for *multipart* messages. If *attach()* is called, a *MultipartConversionError* exception is raised.

Nouveau dans la version 2.2.2.

```
class email.mime.multipart.MIMEMultipart([__subtype[, boundary[, __subparts[, __params]]]])
```

Module : `email.mime.multipart`

A subclass of *MIMEBase*, this is an intermediate base class for MIME messages that are *multipart*. Optional `__subtype` defaults to *mixed*, but can be used to specify the subtype of the message. A *Content-Type* header of *multipart/_subtype* will be added to the message object. A *MIME-Version* header will also be added.

Optional *boundary* is the multipart boundary string. When *None* (the default), the boundary is calculated when needed (for example, when the message is serialized).

`__subparts` is a sequence of initial subparts for the payload. It must be possible to convert this sequence to a list. You can always attach new subparts to the message by using the *Message.attach* method.

Additional parameters for the *Content-Type* header are taken from the keyword arguments, or passed into the `__params` argument, which is a keyword dictionary.

Nouveau dans la version 2.2.2.

```
class email.mime.application.MIMEApplication(__data[, __subtype[, __encoder[, **__params]]])
```

Module : `email.mime.application`

A subclass of *MIMENonMultipart*, the *MIMEApplication* class is used to represent MIME message objects of major type *application*. *__data* is a string containing the raw byte data. Optional *__subtype* specifies the MIME subtype and defaults to *octet-stream*.

Optional *__encoder* is a callable (i.e. function) which will perform the actual encoding of the data for transport. This callable takes one argument, which is the *MIMEApplication* instance. It should use *get_payload()* and *set_payload()* to change the payload to encoded form. It should also add any *Content-Transfer-Encoding* or other headers to the message object as necessary. The default encoding is base64. See the *email.encoders* module for a list of the built-in encoders.

__params are passed straight through to the base class constructor.

Nouveau dans la version 2.5.

```
class email.mime.audio.MIMEAudio(__audiodata[, __subtype[, __encoder[, **__params]]])
```

Module : *email.mime.audio*

A subclass of *MIMENonMultipart*, the *MIMEAudio* class is used to create MIME message objects of major type *audio*. *__audiodata* is a string containing the raw audio data. If this data can be decoded by the standard Python module *sndhdr*, then the subtype will be automatically included in the *Content-Type* header. Otherwise you can explicitly specify the audio subtype via the *__subtype* parameter. If the minor type could not be guessed and *__subtype* was not given, then *TypeError* is raised.

Optional *__encoder* is a callable (i.e. function) which will perform the actual encoding of the audio data for transport. This callable takes one argument, which is the *MIMEAudio* instance. It should use *get_payload()* and *set_payload()* to change the payload to encoded form. It should also add any *Content-Transfer-Encoding* or other headers to the message object as necessary. The default encoding is base64. See the *email.encoders* module for a list of the built-in encoders.

__params are passed straight through to the base class constructor.

```
class email.mime.image.MIMEImage(__imagedata[, __subtype[, __encoder[, **__params]]])
```

Module : *email.mime.image*

A subclass of *MIMENonMultipart*, the *MIMEImage* class is used to create MIME message objects of major type *image*. *__imagedata* is a string containing the raw image data. If this data can be decoded by the standard Python module *imghdr*, then the subtype will be automatically included in the *Content-Type* header. Otherwise you can explicitly specify the image subtype via the *__subtype* parameter. If the minor type could not be guessed and *__subtype* was not given, then *TypeError* is raised.

Optional *__encoder* is a callable (i.e. function) which will perform the actual encoding of the image data for transport. This callable takes one argument, which is the *MIMEImage* instance. It should use *get_payload()* and *set_payload()* to change the payload to encoded form. It should also add any *Content-Transfer-Encoding* or other headers to the message object as necessary. The default encoding is base64. See the *email.encoders* module for a list of the built-in encoders.

__params are passed straight through to the *MIMEBase* constructor.

```
class email.mime.message.MIMEMessage(__msg[, __subtype])
```

Module : *email.mime.message*

A subclass of *MIMENonMultipart*, the *MIMEMessage* class is used to create MIME objects of main type *message*. *__msg* is used as the payload, and must be an instance of class *Message* (or a subclass thereof), otherwise a *TypeError* is raised.

Optional *__subtype* sets the subtype of the message; it defaults to *rfc822*.

```
class email.mime.text.MIMEText(__text[, __subtype[, __charset]])
```

Module : *email.mime.text*

A subclass of *MIMENonMultipart*, the *MIMEText* class is used to create MIME objects of major type *text*. *__text* is the string for the payload. *__subtype* is the minor type and defaults to *plain*. *__charset* is the character set of the text and is passed as a parameter to the *MIMENonMultipart* constructor; it defaults to *us-ascii*. If *__text* is unicode, it is encoded using the *output_charset* of *__charset*, otherwise it is used as-is.

Modifié dans la version 2.4 : The previously deprecated `_encoding` argument has been removed. Content Transfer Encoding now happens implicitly based on the `_charset` argument.

Unless the `_charset` parameter is explicitly set to `None`, the `MIMEText` object created will have both a *Content-Type* header with a `charset` parameter, and a *Content-Transfer-Encoding* header. This means that a subsequent `set_payload` call will not result in an encoded payload, even if a charset is passed in the `set_payload` command. You can « reset » this behavior by deleting the *Content-Transfer-Encoding* header, after which a `set_payload` call will automatically encode the new payload (and add a new *Content-Transfer-Encoding* header).

18.1.5 `email.header` : Internationalized headers

RFC 2822 is the base standard that describes the format of email messages. It derives from the older **RFC 822** standard which came into widespread use at a time when most email was composed of ASCII characters only. **RFC 2822** is a specification written assuming email contains only 7-bit ASCII characters.

Of course, as email has been deployed worldwide, it has become internationalized, such that language specific character sets can now be used in email messages. The base standard still requires email messages to be transferred using only 7-bit ASCII characters, so a slew of RFCs have been written describing how to encode email containing non-ASCII characters into **RFC 2822**-compliant format. These RFCs include **RFC 2045**, **RFC 2046**, **RFC 2047**, and **RFC 2231**. The `email` package supports these standards in its `email.header` and `email.charset` modules.

If you want to include non-ASCII characters in your email headers, say in the *Subject* or *To* fields, you should use the `Header` class and assign the field in the `Message` object to an instance of `Header` instead of using a string for the header value. Import the `Header` class from the `email.header` module. For example :

```
>>> from email.message import Message
>>> from email.header import Header
>>> msg = Message()
>>> h = Header('p\xf6stal', 'iso-8859-1')
>>> msg['Subject'] = h
>>> print msg.as_string()
Subject: =?iso-8859-1?q?p=F6stal?=
```

Notice here how we wanted the *Subject* field to contain a non-ASCII character? We did this by creating a `Header` instance and passing in the character set that the byte string was encoded in. When the subsequent `Message` instance was flattened, the *Subject* field was properly **RFC 2047** encoded. MIME-aware mail readers would show this header using the embedded ISO-8859-1 character.

Nouveau dans la version 2.2.2.

Here is the `Header` class description :

```
class email.header.Header([s[, charset[, maxlinelen[, header_name[, continuation_ws[, errors]]]]])
```

Create a MIME-compliant header that can contain strings in different character sets.

Optional `s` is the initial header value. If `None` (the default), the initial header value is not set. You can later append to the header with `append()` method calls. `s` may be a byte string or a Unicode string, but see the `append()` documentation for semantics.

Optional `charset` serves two purposes : it has the same meaning as the `charset` argument to the `append()` method. It also sets the default character set for all subsequent `append()` calls that omit the `charset` argument. If `charset` is not provided in the constructor (the default), the `us-ascii` character set is used both as `s`'s initial charset and as the default for subsequent `append()` calls.

The maximum line length can be specified explicitly via `maxlinelen`. For splitting the first line to a shorter value (to account for the field header which isn't included in `s`, e.g. *Subject*) pass in the name

of the field in *header_name*. The default *maxlinelen* is 76, and the default value for *header_name* is *None*, meaning it is not taken into account for the first line of a long, split header.

Optional *continuation_ws* must be [RFC 2822](#)-compliant folding whitespace, and is usually either a space or a hard tab character. This character will be prepended to continuation lines. *continuation_ws* defaults to a single space character (« »).

Optional *errors* is passed straight through to the [append\(\)](#) method.

append(*s*[, *charset*[, *errors*]])

Append the string *s* to the MIME header.

Optional *charset*, if given, should be a [Charset](#) instance (see [email.charset](#)) or the name of a character set, which will be converted to a [Charset](#) instance. A value of *None* (the default) means that the *charset* given in the constructor is used.

s may be a byte string or a Unicode string. If it is a byte string (i.e. `isinstance(s, str)` is true), then *charset* is the encoding of that byte string, and a [UnicodeError](#) will be raised if the string cannot be decoded with that character set.

If *s* is a Unicode string, then *charset* is a hint specifying the character set of the characters in the string. In this case, when producing an [RFC 2822](#)-compliant header using [RFC 2047](#) rules, the Unicode string will be encoded using the following charsets in order : *us-ascii*, the *charset* hint, *utf-8*. The first character set to not provoke a [UnicodeError](#) is used.

Optional *errors* is passed through to any [unicode\(\)](#) or `unicode.encode()` call, and defaults to « strict ».

encode([*splitchars*])

Encode a message header into an RFC-compliant format, possibly wrapping long lines and encapsulating non-ASCII parts in base64 or quoted-printable encodings. Optional *splitchars* is a string containing characters to split long ASCII lines on, in rough support of [RFC 2822](#)'s *highest level syntactic breaks*. This doesn't affect [RFC 2047](#) encoded lines.

The [Header](#) class also provides a number of methods to support standard operators and built-in functions.

__str__()

A synonym for [Header.encode\(\)](#). Useful for `str(aHeader)`.

__unicode__()

A helper for the built-in [unicode\(\)](#) function. Returns the header as a Unicode string.

__eq__(*other*)

This method allows you to compare two [Header](#) instances for equality.

__ne__(*other*)

This method allows you to compare two [Header](#) instances for inequality.

The [email.header](#) module also provides the following convenient functions.

email.header.decode_header(*header*)

Decode a message header value without converting the character set. The header value is in *header*.

This function returns a list of (*decoded_string*, *charset*) pairs containing each of the decoded parts of the header. *charset* is *None* for non-encoded parts of the header, otherwise a lower case string containing the name of the character set specified in the encoded string.

Here's an example :

```
>>> from email.header import decode_header
>>> decode_header('=?iso-8859-1?q?p=F6stal?='')
[('p\xF6stal', 'iso-8859-1')]
```

email.header.make_header(*decoded_seq*[, *maxlinelen*[, *header_name*[, *continuation_ws*]]])

Create a [Header](#) instance from a sequence of pairs as returned by [decode_header\(\)](#).

[decode_header\(\)](#) takes a header value string and returns a sequence of pairs of the format (*decoded_string*, *charset*) where *charset* is the name of the character set.

This function takes one of those sequence of pairs and returns a *Header* instance. Optional *maxlinelen*, *header_name*, and *continuation_ws* are as in the *Header* constructor.

18.1.6 email.charset : Representing character sets

This module provides a class *Charset* for representing character sets and character set conversions in email messages, as well as a character set registry and several convenience methods for manipulating this registry. Instances of *Charset* are used in several other modules within the *email* package.

Import this class from the *email.charset* module.

Nouveau dans la version 2.2.2.

```
class email.charset.Charset([input_charset])
```

Map character sets to their email properties.

This class provides information about the requirements imposed on email for a specific character set. It also provides convenience routines for converting between character sets, given the availability of the applicable codecs. Given a character set, it will do its best to provide information on how to use that character set in an email message in an RFC-compliant way.

Certain character sets must be encoded with quoted-printable or base64 when used in email headers or bodies. Certain character sets must be converted outright, and are not allowed in email.

Optional *input_charset* is as described below; it is always coerced to lower case. After being alias normalized it is also used as a lookup into the registry of character sets to find out the header encoding, body encoding, and output conversion codec to be used for the character set. For example, if *input_charset* is *iso-8859-1*, then headers and bodies will be encoded using quoted-printable and no output conversion codec is necessary. If *input_charset* is *euc-jp*, then headers will be encoded with base64, bodies will not be encoded, but output text will be converted from the *euc-jp* character set to the *iso-2022-jp* character set.

Charset instances have the following data attributes :

input_charset

The initial character set specified. Common aliases are converted to their *official* email names (e.g. *latin_1* is converted to *iso-8859-1*). Defaults to 7-bit *us-ascii*.

header_encoding

If the character set must be encoded before it can be used in an email header, this attribute will be set to *Charset.QP* (for quoted-printable), *Charset.BASE64* (for base64 encoding), or *Charset.SHORTEST* for the shortest of QP or BASE64 encoding. Otherwise, it will be *None*.

body_encoding

Same as *header_encoding*, but describes the encoding for the mail message's body, which indeed may be different than the header encoding. *Charset.SHORTEST* is not allowed for *body_encoding*.

output_charset

Some character sets must be converted before they can be used in email headers or bodies. If the *input_charset* is one of them, this attribute will contain the name of the character set output will be converted to. Otherwise, it will be *None*.

input_codec

The name of the Python codec used to convert the *input_charset* to Unicode. If no conversion codec is necessary, this attribute will be *None*.

output_codec

The name of the Python codec used to convert Unicode to the *output_charset*. If no conversion codec is necessary, this attribute will have the same value as the *input_codec*.

Charset instances also have the following methods :

get_body_encoding()

Return the content transfer encoding used for body encoding.

This is either the string *quoted-printable* or *base64* depending on the encoding used, or it is a function, in which case you should call the function with a single argument, the Message object

being encoded. The function should then set the *Content-Transfer-Encoding* header itself to whatever is appropriate.

Returns the string `quoted-printable` if *body_encoding* is `QP`, returns the string `base64` if *body_encoding* is `BASE64`, and returns the string `7bit` otherwise.

convert(*s*)

Convert the string *s* from the *input_codec* to the *output_codec*.

toSplittable(*s*)

Convert a possibly multibyte string to a safely splittable format. *s* is the string to split.

Uses the *input_codec* to try and convert the string to Unicode, so it can be safely split on character boundaries (even for multibyte characters).

Returns the string as-is if it isn't known how to convert *s* to Unicode with the *input_charset*.

Characters that could not be converted to Unicode will be replaced with the Unicode replacement character `'U+FFFD'`.

fromSplittable(*ustr*, *to_output*)

Convert a splittable string back into an encoded string. *ustr* is a Unicode string to « unsplit ».

This method uses the proper codec to try and convert the string from Unicode back into an encoded format. Return the string as-is if it is not Unicode, or if it could not be converted from Unicode.

Characters that could not be converted from Unicode will be replaced with an appropriate character (usually `'?'`).

If *to_output* is `True` (the default), uses *output_codec* to convert to an encoded format. If *to_output* is `False`, it uses *input_codec*.

get_output_charset()

Return the output character set.

This is the *output_charset* attribute if that is not `None`, otherwise it is *input_charset*.

encoded_header_len()

Return the length of the encoded header string, properly calculating for quoted-printable or base64 encoding.

header_encode(*s*, *convert*)

Header-encode the string *s*.

If *convert* is `True`, the string will be converted from the input charset to the output charset automatically. This is not useful for multibyte character sets, which have line length issues (multibyte characters must be split on a character, not a byte boundary); use the higher-level *Header* class to deal with these issues (see *email.header*). *convert* defaults to `False`.

The type of encoding (base64 or quoted-printable) will be based on the *header_encoding* attribute.

body_encode(*s*, *convert*)

Body-encode the string *s*.

If *convert* is `True` (the default), the string will be converted from the input charset to output charset automatically. Unlike *header_encode()*, there are no issues with byte boundaries and multibyte charsets in email bodies, so this is usually pretty safe.

The type of encoding (base64 or quoted-printable) will be based on the *body_encoding* attribute.

The *Charset* class also provides a number of methods to support standard operations and built-in functions.

__str__()

Returns *input_charset* as a string coerced to lower case. *__repr__()* is an alias for *__str__()*.

__eq__(*other*)

This method allows you to compare two *Charset* instances for equality.

__ne__(*other*)

This method allows you to compare two *Charset* instances for inequality.

The *email.charset* module also provides the following functions for adding new entries to the global character set, alias, and codec registries :

```
email.charset.add_charset(charset[, header_enc[, body_enc[, output_charset]]])
```

Add character properties to the global registry.

charset is the input character set, and must be the canonical name of a character set.

Optional *header_enc* and *body_enc* is either `Charset.QP` for quoted-printable, `Charset.BASE64` for base64 encoding, `Charset.SHORTEST` for the shortest of quoted-printable or base64 encoding, or `None` for no encoding. `SHORTEST` is only valid for *header_enc*. The default is `None` for no encoding.

Optional *output_charset* is the character set that the output should be in. Conversions will proceed from input charset, to Unicode, to the output charset when the method `Charset.convert()` is called. The default is to output in the same character set as the input.

Both *input_charset* and *output_charset* must have Unicode codec entries in the module's character set-to-codec mapping; use `add_codec()` to add codecs the module does not know about. See the `codecs` module's documentation for more information.

The global character set registry is kept in the module global dictionary `CHARSETS`.

```
email.charset.add_alias(alias, canonical)
```

Add a character set alias. *alias* is the alias name, e.g. `latin-1`. *canonical* is the character set's canonical name, e.g. `iso-8859-1`.

The global charset alias registry is kept in the module global dictionary `ALIASES`.

```
email.charset.add_codec(charset, codecname)
```

Add a codec that map characters in the given character set to and from Unicode.

charset is the canonical name of a character set. *codecname* is the name of a Python codec, as appropriate for the second argument to the `unicode()` built-in, or to the `encode()` method of a Unicode string.

18.1.7 email.encoders : Encodeurs

Au moment de la création d'objets `Message` à la main, il est souvent nécessaire d'encoder les charges utiles pour le transport à travers des serveurs mail conformes. C'est particulièrement vrai pour les messages de type `image/*` et `text/*` contenant des données binaires.

Le paquet `email` fournit quelques encodeurs pratiques dans son module `encoders`. Ces encodeurs sont d'ailleurs utilisés par les constructeurs des classes `MIMEAudio` et `MIMEImage` afin de fournir des encodages par défaut. Toutes les fonctions d'encodage prennent exactement un argument, l'objet message à encoder. Généralement, elles extraient la charge utile, l'encodent, puis changent la charge utile pour la nouvelle valeur encodée. Elles devraient également assigner l'en-tête `Content-Transfer-Encoding` si besoin.

À noter que ces fonctions n'ont pas de sens dans le cadre d'un message en plusieurs parties. Elles doivent à la place être appliquées aux sous-parties individuelles, et lèvent `TypeError` si on leur passe un message en plusieurs parties.

Voici les fonctions d'encodages fournies :

```
email.encoders.encode_quopri(msg)
```

Encode la charge utile au format Quoted-Printable, et assigne `quoted-printable`¹ à l'en-tête `Content-Transfer-Encoding`. C'est un bon encodage à utiliser quand la majorité de la charge utile contient essentiellement des données imprimables, à l'exception de quelques caractères.

```
email.encoders.encode_base64(msg)
```

Encode la charge utile au format `base64`, et assigne `base64` à l'en-tête `Content-Transfer-Encoding`. C'est un bon encodage à utiliser quand la majorité de la charge utile est non imprimable puisque c'est une forme plus compacte que `quoted-printable`.

```
email.encoders.encode_7or8bit(msg)
```

Ceci ne modifie pas effectivement la charge utile du message, mais va bien en revanche assigner la valeur `7bit` ou `8bit` à l'en-tête `Content-Transfer-Encoding` selon la nature de la charge utile.

1. À noter que l'encodage avec `encode_quopri()` encode également tous les caractères tabulation et espace.

`email.encoders.encode_noop(msg)`

Ceci ne fait rien ; et ne va même pas changer la valeur de l'en-tête *Content-Transfer-Encoding*.

Notes

18.1.8 email.errors : Exception and Defect classes

The following exception classes are defined in the `email.errors` module :

exception email.errors.MessageError

This is the base class for all exceptions that the `email` package can raise. It is derived from the standard `Exception` class and defines no additional methods.

exception email.errors.MessageParseError

This is the base class for exceptions raised by the `Parser` class. It is derived from `MessageError`.

exception email.errors.HeaderParseError

Raised under some error conditions when parsing the **RFC 2822** headers of a message, this class is derived from `MessageParseError`. It can be raised from the `Parser.parse` or `Parser.parsestr` methods.

Situations where it can be raised include finding an envelope header after the first **RFC 2822** header of the message, finding a continuation line before the first **RFC 2822** header is found, or finding a line in the headers which is neither a header or a continuation line.

exception email.errors.BoundaryError

Raised under some error conditions when parsing the **RFC 2822** headers of a message, this class is derived from `MessageParseError`. It can be raised from the `Parser.parse` or `Parser.parsestr` methods.

Situations where it can be raised include not being able to find the starting or terminating boundary in a *multipart/** message when strict parsing is used.

exception email.errors.MultipartConversionError

Raised when a payload is added to a `Message` object using `add_payload()`, but the payload is already a scalar and the message's *Content-Type* main type is not either *multipart* or missing. `MultipartConversionError` multiply inherits from `MessageError` and the built-in `TypeError`.

Since `Message.add_payload()` is deprecated, this exception is rarely raised in practice. However the exception may also be raised if the `attach()` method is called on an instance of a class derived from `MIMENonMultipart` (e.g. `MIMEImage`).

Here's the list of the defects that the `FeedParser` can find while parsing messages. Note that the defects are added to the message where the problem was found, so for example, if a message nested inside a *multipart/alternative* had a malformed header, that nested message object would have a defect, but the containing messages would not.

All defect classes are subclassed from `email.errors.MessageDefect`, but this class is *not* an exception !

Nouveau dans la version 2.4 : All the defect classes were added.

- `NoBoundaryInMultipartDefect` – A message claimed to be a multipart, but had no *boundary* parameter.
- `StartBoundaryNotFoundDefect` – The start boundary claimed in the *Content-Type* header was never found.
- `FirstHeaderLineIsContinuationDefect` – The message had a continuation line as its first header line.
- `MisplacedEnvelopeHeaderDefect` – A « Unix From » header was found in the middle of a header block.
- `MalformedHeaderDefect` – A header was found that was missing a colon, or was otherwise malformed.

- `MultipartInvariantViolationDefect` – A message claimed to be a *multipart*, but no subparts were found. Note that when a message has this defect, its `is_multipart()` method may return false even though its content type claims to be *multipart*.

18.1.9 `email.utils` : Miscellaneous utilities

There are several useful utilities provided in the `email.utils` module :

`email.utils.quote(str)`

Return a new string with backslashes in *str* replaced by two backslashes, and double quotes replaced by backslash-double quote.

`email.utils.unquote(str)`

Return a new string which is an *unquoted* version of *str*. If *str* ends and begins with double quotes, they are stripped off. Likewise if *str* ends and begins with angle brackets, they are stripped off.

`email.utils.parseaddr(address)`

Parse address – which should be the value of some address-containing field such as *To* or *Cc* – into its constituent *realname* and *email address* parts. Returns a tuple of that information, unless the parse fails, in which case a 2-tuple of ('', '') is returned.

`email.utils.formataddr(pair)`

The inverse of `parseaddr()`, this takes a 2-tuple of the form (*realname*, *email_address*) and returns the string value suitable for a *To* or *Cc* header. If the first element of *pair* is false, then the second element is returned unmodified.

`email.utils.getaddresses(fieldvalues)`

This method returns a list of 2-tuples of the form returned by `parseaddr()`. *fieldvalues* is a sequence of header field values as might be returned by `Message.get_all`. Here's a simple example that gets all the recipients of a message :

```
from email.utils import getaddresses

tos = msg.get_all('to', [])
ccs = msg.get_all('cc', [])
resent_tos = msg.get_all('resent-to', [])
resent_ccs = msg.get_all('resent-cc', [])
all_recipients = getaddresses(tos + ccs + resent_tos + resent_ccs)
```

`email.utils.parsedate(date)`

Attempts to parse a date according to the rules in [RFC 2822](#). 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 [RFC 2822](#) 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. Note that indexes 6, 7, and 8 of the result tuple are not usable.

`email.utils.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 timezone from UTC (which is the official term for Greenwich Mean Time)¹. If the input string has no timezone, the last element of the tuple returned is `None`. Note that indexes 6, 7, and 8 of the result tuple are not usable.

`email.utils.mktime_tz(tuple)`

Turn a 10-tuple as returned by `parsedate_tz()` into a UTC timestamp (seconds since the Epoch). If the timezone item in the tuple is `None`, assume local time.

1. Note that the sign of the timezone offset is the opposite of the sign of the `time.timezone` variable for the same timezone; the latter variable follows the POSIX standard while this module follows [RFC 2822](#).

`email.utils.formatdate([timeval[, localtime[, usegmt]])`

Returns a date string as per **RFC 2822**, e.g. :

```
Fri, 09 Nov 2001 01:08:47 -0000
```

Optional *timeval* if given is a floating point time value as accepted by `time.gmtime()` and `time.localtime()`, otherwise the current time is used.

Optional *localtime* is a flag that when **True**, interprets *timeval*, and returns a date relative to the local timezone instead of UTC, properly taking daylight savings time into account. The default is **False** meaning UTC is used.

Optional *usegmt* is a flag that when **True**, outputs a date string with the timezone as an ascii string GMT, rather than a numeric -0000. This is needed for some protocols (such as HTTP). This only applies when *localtime* is **False**. The default is **False**.

Nouveau dans la version 2.4.

`email.utils.make_msgid([idstring])`

Returns a string suitable for an **RFC 2822**-compliant *Message-ID* header. Optional *idstring* if given, is a string used to strengthen the uniqueness of the message id.

`email.utils.decode_rfc2231(s)`

Decode the string *s* according to **RFC 2231**.

`email.utils.encode_rfc2231(s[, charset[, language]])`

Encode the string *s* according to **RFC 2231**. Optional *charset* and *language*, if given is the character set name and language name to use. If neither is given, *s* is returned as-is. If *charset* is given but *language* is not, the string is encoded using the empty string for *language*.

`email.utils.collapse_rfc2231_value(value[, errors[, fallback_charset]])`

When a header parameter is encoded in **RFC 2231** format, `Message.get_param` may return a 3-tuple containing the character set, language, and value. `collapse_rfc2231_value()` turns this into a unicode string. Optional *errors* is passed to the *errors* argument of the built-in `unicode()` function; it defaults to **replace**. Optional *fallback_charset* specifies the character set to use if the one in the **RFC 2231** header is not known by Python; it defaults to **us-ascii**.

For convenience, if the *value* passed to `collapse_rfc2231_value()` is not a tuple, it should be a string and it is returned unquoted.

`email.utils.decode_params(params)`

Decode parameters list according to **RFC 2231**. *params* is a sequence of 2-tuples containing elements of the form (content-type, string-value).

Modifié dans la version 2.4 : The `dump_address_pair()` function has been removed; use `formataddr()` instead.

Modifié dans la version 2.4 : The `decode()` function has been removed; use the `Header.decode_header` method instead.

Modifié dans la version 2.4 : The `encode()` function has been removed; use the `Header.encode` method instead.

18.1.10 email.iterators : Itérateurs

Itérer sur l'arborescence d'un objet message est plutôt simple avec la méthode `Message.walk`. Le module `email.iterators` fournit des fonctionnalités d'itérations de plus haut niveau sur les arbres d'objets messages.

`email.iterators.body_line_iterator(msg[, decode])`

Cette fonction permet d'itérer sur tous les contenus de tous les éléments de *msg*, en retournant les contenus sous forme de chaînes de caractères ligne par ligne. Il saute les entêtes des sous éléments, et

tous les sous éléments dont le contenu n'est pas une chaîne de caractères Python. C'est en quelque sorte équivalent à une lecture plate d'une représentation textuelle du message à partir d'un fichier en utilisant `readline()`, et en sautant toutes les entêtes intermédiaires.

Le paramètre optionnel `decode` est transmis à la méthode `Message.get_payload`.

`email.iterators.typed_subpart_iterator(msg[, maintype[, subtype]])`

Cette fonction permet d'itérer sur tous les sous éléments de `msg`, en retournant seulement les sous éléments qui correspondent au type MIME spécifié par `maintype` et `subtype`.

Notez que le paramètre `subtype` est optionnel ; s'il n'est pas présent, alors le type MIME du sous élément est seulement composé du type principal. `maintype` est également optionnel ; sa valeur par défaut est `text`.

En conséquence, par défaut, `typed_subpart_iterator()` retourne chaque sous élément qui a un type MIME de type `text/*`.

La fonction suivante a été ajoutée en tant qu'un outil de débogage. Elle *ne devrait pas* être considérée comme une interface publique supportée pour ce paquet.

`email.iterators._structure(msg[, fp[, level]])`

Prints an indented representation of the content types of the message object structure. For example :

```
>>> msg = email.message_from_file(somefile)
>>> _structure(msg)
multipart/mixed
  text/plain
  text/plain
  multipart/digest
    message/rfc822
      text/plain
    message/rfc822
      text/plain
    message/rfc822
      text/plain
    message/rfc822
      text/plain
    message/rfc822
      text/plain
    message/rfc822
      text/plain
  text/plain
text/plain
```

Optional `fp` is a file-like object to print the output to. It must be suitable for Python's extended print statement. `level` is used internally.

18.1.11 email : Exemples

Cette page contient quelques exemples de l'utilisation du package `email` pour lire, écrire, et envoyer de simples messages mail, ainsi que des messages MIME plus complexes.

First, let's see how to create and send a simple text message :

```
# Import smtplib for the actual sending function
import smtplib

# Import the email modules we'll need
from email.mime.text import MIMEText

# Open a plain text file for reading. For this example, assume that
```

(suite sur la page suivante)

(suite de la page précédente)

```
# the text file contains only ASCII characters.
fp = open(textfile, 'rb')
# Create a text/plain message
msg = MIMEText(fp.read())
fp.close()

# me == the sender's email address
# you == the recipient's email address
msg['Subject'] = 'The contents of %s' % textfile
msg['From'] = me
msg['To'] = you

# Send the message via our own SMTP server, but don't include the
# envelope header.
s = smtplib.SMTP('localhost')
s.sendmail(me, [you], msg.as_string())
s.quit()
```

And parsing RFC822 headers can easily be done by the `parse(filename)` or `parsestr(message_as_string)` methods of the `Parser()` class :

```
# Import the email modules we'll need
from email.parser import Parser

# If the e-mail headers are in a file, uncomment this line:
#headers = Parser().parse(open(messagefile, 'r'))

# Or for parsing headers in a string, use:
headers = Parser().parsestr('From: <user@example.com>\n'
    'To: <someone_else@example.com>\n'
    'Subject: Test message\n'
    '\n'
    'Body would go here\n')

# Now the header items can be accessed as a dictionary:
print 'To: %s' % headers['to']
print 'From: %s' % headers['from']
print 'Subject: %s' % headers['subject']
```

Voici un exemple de l'envoi d'un message MIME contenant une série de photos de famille qui sont stockés ensemble dans un dossier :

```
# Import smtplib for the actual sending function
import smtplib

# Here are the email package modules we'll need
from email.mime.image import MIMEImage
from email.mime.multipart import MIMEMultipart

COMMASPACE = ', '

# Create the container (outer) email message.
```

(suite sur la page suivante)

(suite de la page précédente)

```

msg = MIMEMultipart()
msg['Subject'] = 'Our family reunion'
# me == the sender's email address
# family = the list of all recipients' email addresses
msg['From'] = me
msg['To'] = COMMASPACE.join(family)
msg.preamble = 'Our family reunion'

# Assume we know that the image files are all in PNG format
for file in pngfiles:
    # Open the files in binary mode. Let the MIMEImage class automatically
    # guess the specific image type.
    fp = open(file, 'rb')
    img = MIMEImage(fp.read())
    fp.close()
    msg.attach(img)

# Send the email via our own SMTP server.
s = smtplib.SMTP('localhost')
s.sendmail(me, family, msg.as_string())
s.quit()

```

Voici un exemple d'envoi du contenu d'un dossier entier en tant que message mail :¹

```

#!/usr/bin/env python

"""Send the contents of a directory as a MIME message."""

import os
import sys
import smtplib
# For guessing MIME type based on file name extension
import mimetypes

from optparse import OptionParser

from email import encoders
from email.message import Message
from email.mime.audio import MIMEAudio
from email.mime.base import MIMEBase
from email.mime.image import MIMEImage
from email.mime.multipart import MIMEMultipart
from email.mime.text import MIMEText

COMMASPACE = ', '

def main():
    parser = OptionParser(usage="""\
Send the contents of a directory as a MIME message.

```

(suite sur la page suivante)

1. Merci à Matthew Dixon Cowles pour l'inspiration originale et les exemples.

(suite de la page précédente)

Usage: %prog [options]

Unless the -o option is given, the email is sent by forwarding to your local SMTP server, which then does the normal delivery process. Your local machine must be running an SMTP server.

```

"""
    parser.add_option('-d', '--directory',
                      type='string', action='store',
                      help="""Mail the contents of the specified directory,
                      otherwise use the current directory. Only the regular
                      files in the directory are sent, and we don't recurse to
                      subdirectories.""")
    parser.add_option('-o', '--output',
                      type='string', action='store', metavar='FILE',
                      help="""Print the composed message to FILE instead of
                      sending the message to the SMTP server.""")
    parser.add_option('-s', '--sender',
                      type='string', action='store', metavar='SENDER',
                      help='The value of the From: header (required)')
    parser.add_option('-r', '--recipient',
                      type='string', action='append', metavar='RECIPIENT',
                      default=[], dest='recipients',
                      help='A To: header value (at least one required)')

    opts, args = parser.parse_args()
    if not opts.sender or not opts.recipients:
        parser.print_help()
        sys.exit(1)
    directory = opts.directory
    if not directory:
        directory = '.'
    # Create the enclosing (outer) message
    outer = MIMEMultipart()
    outer['Subject'] = 'Contents of directory %s' % os.path.abspath(directory)
    outer['To'] = COMMASPACE.join(opts.recipients)
    outer['From'] = opts.sender
    outer.preamble = 'You will not see this in a MIME-aware mail reader.\n'

    for filename in os.listdir(directory):
        path = os.path.join(directory, filename)
        if not os.path.isfile(path):
            continue
        # Guess the content type based on the file's extension. Encoding
        # will be ignored, although we should check for simple things like
        # gzip'd or compressed files.
        ctype, encoding = mimetypes.guess_type(path)
        if ctype is None or encoding is not None:
            # No guess could be made, or the file is encoded (compressed), so
            # use a generic bag-of-bits type.
            ctype = 'application/octet-stream'
        maintype, subtype = ctype.split('/', 1)
        if maintype == 'text':
            fp = open(path)

```

(suite sur la page suivante)

(suite de la page précédente)

```

        # Note: we should handle calculating the charset
        msg = MIMEText(fp.read(), _subtype=subtype)
        fp.close()
    elif maintype == 'image':
        fp = open(path, 'rb')
        msg = MIMEImage(fp.read(), _subtype=subtype)
        fp.close()
    elif maintype == 'audio':
        fp = open(path, 'rb')
        msg = MIMEAudio(fp.read(), _subtype=subtype)
        fp.close()
    else:
        fp = open(path, 'rb')
        msg = MIMEBase(maintype, subtype)
        msg.set_payload(fp.read())
        fp.close()
        # Encode the payload using Base64
        encoders.encode_base64(msg)
        # Set the filename parameter
        msg.add_header('Content-Disposition', 'attachment', filename=filename)
    outer.attach(msg)

# Now send or store the message
    composed = outer.as_string()
    if opts.output:
        fp = open(opts.output, 'w')
        fp.write(composed)
        fp.close()
    else:
        s = smtplib.SMTP('localhost')
        s.sendmail(opts.sender, opts.recipients, composed)
        s.quit()

if __name__ == '__main__':
    main()

```

Voici un message de comment décomposer un message MIME comme celui ci dessus en tant que fichiers dans un dossier :

```

#!/usr/bin/env python

"""Unpack a MIME message into a directory of files."""

import os
import sys
import email
import errno
import mimetypes

from optparse import OptionParser

```

(suite sur la page suivante)

(suite de la page précédente)

```

def main():
    parser = OptionParser(usage="""\
Unpack a MIME message into a directory of files.

Usage: %prog [options] msgfile
""")
    parser.add_option('-d', '--directory',
                      type='string', action='store',
                      help="""Unpack the MIME message into the named
                              directory, which will be created if it doesn't already
                              exist.""")
    opts, args = parser.parse_args()
    if not opts.directory:
        parser.print_help()
        sys.exit(1)

    try:
        msgfile = args[0]
    except IndexError:
        parser.print_help()
        sys.exit(1)

    try:
        os.mkdir(opts.directory)
    except OSError as e:
        # Ignore directory exists error
        if e.errno != errno.EEXIST:
            raise

    fp = open(msgfile)
    msg = email.message_from_file(fp)
    fp.close()

    counter = 1
    for part in msg.walk():
        # multipart/* are just containers
        if part.get_content_maintype() == 'multipart':
            continue
        # Applications should really sanitize the given filename so that an
        # email message can't be used to overwrite important files
        filename = part.get_filename()
        if not filename:
            ext = mimetypes.guess_extension(part.get_content_type())
            if not ext:
                # Use a generic bag-of-bits extension
                ext = '.bin'
            filename = 'part-%03d%s' % (counter, ext)
        counter += 1
        fp = open(os.path.join(opts.directory, filename), 'wb')
        fp.write(part.get_payload(decode=True))
        fp.close()

```

(suite sur la page suivante)

(suite de la page précédente)

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

Here's an example of how to create an HTML message with an alternative plain text version :²

```
#!/usr/bin/env python  
  
import smtplib  
  
from email.mime.multipart import MIMEMultipart  
from email.mime.text import MIMEText  
  
# me == my email address  
# you == recipient's email address  
me = "my@email.com"  
you = "your@email.com"  
  
# Create message container - the correct MIME type is multipart/alternative.  
msg = MIMEMultipart('alternative')  
msg['Subject'] = "Link"  
msg['From'] = me  
msg['To'] = you  
  
# Create the body of the message (a plain-text and an HTML version).  
text = "Hi!\nHow are you?\nHere is the link you wanted:\nhttps://www.python.org"  
html = """\  
<html>  
  <head></head>  
  <body>  
    <p>Hi!<br>  
      How are you?<br>  
      Here is the <a href="https://www.python.org">link</a> you wanted.  
    </p>  
  </body>  
</html>  
"""  
  
# Record the MIME types of both parts - text/plain and text/html.  
part1 = MIMEText(text, 'plain')  
part2 = MIMEText(html, 'html')  
  
# Attach parts into message container.  
# According to RFC 2046, the last part of a multipart message, in this case  
# the HTML message, is best and preferred.  
msg.attach(part1)  
msg.attach(part2)  
  
# Send the message via local SMTP server.  
s = smtplib.SMTP('localhost')  
# sendmail function takes 3 arguments: sender's address, recipient's address
```

(suite sur la page suivante)

2. Contributed by Martin Matejek.

(suite de la page précédente)

```
# and message to send - here it is sent as one string.
s.sendmail(me, you, msg.as_string())
s.quit()
```

Notes

Voir aussi :

Module `smtplib` SMTP protocol client

Module `nntplib` NNTP protocol client

18.1.12 Package History

This table describes the release history of the email package, corresponding to the version of Python that the package was released with. For purposes of this document, when you see a note about change or added versions, these refer to the Python version the change was made in, *not* the email package version. This table also describes the Python compatibility of each version of the package.

email version	distributed with	compatible with
1.x	Python 2.2.0 à Python 2.2.1	<i>no longer supported</i>
2.5	Python 2.2.2+ et Python 2.3	Python 2.1 à 2.5
3.0	Python 2.4	Python 2.3 to 2.5
4.0	Python 2.5	Python 2.3 to 2.5

Here are the major differences between `email` version 4 and version 3 :

- All modules have been renamed according to [PEP 8](#) standards. For example, the version 3 module `email.Message` was renamed to `email.message` in version 4.
- A new subpackage `email.mime` was added and all the version 3 `email.MIME*` modules were renamed and situated into the `email.mime` subpackage. For example, the version 3 module `email.MIMEText` was renamed to `email.mime.text`.
Note that the version 3 names will continue to work until Python 2.6.
- The `email.mime.application` module was added, which contains the `MIMEApplication` class.
- Methods that were deprecated in version 3 have been removed. These include `Generator.__call__()`, `Message.get_type()`, `Message.get_main_type()`, `Message.get_subtype()`.
- Fixes have been added for [RFC 2231](#) support which can change some of the return types for `Message.get_param` and friends. Under some circumstances, values which used to return a 3-tuple now return simple strings (specifically, if all extended parameter segments were unencoded, there is no language and charset designation expected, so the return type is now a simple string). Also, %-decoding used to be done for both encoded and unencoded segments; this decoding is now done only for encoded segments.

Here are the major differences between `email` version 3 and version 2 :

- The `FeedParser` class was introduced, and the `Parser` class was implemented in terms of the `FeedParser`. All parsing therefore is non-strict, and parsing will make a best effort never to raise an exception. Problems found while parsing messages are stored in the message's `defect` attribute.
- All aspects of the API which raised `DeprecationWarnings` in version 2 have been removed. These include the `__encoder` argument to the `MIMEText` constructor, the `Message.add_payload()` method, the `Utils.dump_address_pair()` function, and the functions `Utils.decode()` and `Utils.encode()`.
- New `DeprecationWarnings` have been added to : `Generator.__call__()`, `Message.get_type()`, `Message.get_main_type()`, `Message.get_subtype()`, and the `strict` argument to the `Parser` class. These are expected to be removed in future versions.
- Support for Pythons earlier than 2.3 has been removed.

Here are the differences between `email` version 2 and version 1 :

- The `email.Header` and `email.Charset` modules have been added.
- The pickle format for `Message` instances has changed. Since this was never (and still isn't) formally defined, this isn't considered a backward incompatibility. However if your application pickles and unpickles `Message` instances, be aware that in `email` version 2, `Message` instances now have private variables `__charset` and `__default_type`.
- Several methods in the `Message` class have been deprecated, or their signatures changed. Also, many new methods have been added. See the documentation for the `Message` class for details. The changes should be completely backward compatible.
- The object structure has changed in the face of `message/rfc822` content types. In `email` version 1, such a type would be represented by a scalar payload, i.e. the container message's `is_multipart()` returned false, `get_payload()` was not a list object, but a single `Message` instance. This structure was inconsistent with the rest of the package, so the object representation for `message/rfc822` content types was changed. In `email` version 2, the container *does* return True from `is_multipart()`, and `get_payload()` returns a list containing a single `Message` item. Note that this is one place that backward compatibility could not be completely maintained. However, if you're already testing the return type of `get_payload()`, you should be fine. You just need to make sure your code doesn't do a `set_payload()` with a `Message` instance on a container with a content type of `message/rfc822`.
- The `Parser` constructor's `strict` argument was added, and its `parse()` and `parsestr()` methods grew a `headersonly` argument. The `strict` flag was also added to functions `email.message_from_file()` and `email.message_from_string()`.
- `Generator.__call__()` is deprecated; use `Generator.flatten` instead. The `Generator` class has also grown the `clone()` method.
- The `DecodedGenerator` class in the `email.generator` module was added.
- The intermediate base classes `MIMENonMultipart` and `MIMEMultipart` have been added, and interposed in the class hierarchy for most of the other MIME-related derived classes.
- The `__encoder` argument to the `MIMEText` constructor has been deprecated. Encoding now happens implicitly based on the `__charset` argument.
- The following functions in the `email.Utils` module have been deprecated : `dump_address_pairs()`, `decode()`, and `encode()`. The following functions have been added to the module : `make_msgid()`, `decode_rfc2231()`, `encode_rfc2231()`, and `decode_params()`.
- The non-public function `email.Iterators._structure()` was added.

18.1.13 Differences from `mimelib`

The `email` package was originally prototyped as a separate library called `mimelib`. Changes have been made so that method names are more consistent, and some methods or modules have either been added or removed. The semantics of some of the methods have also changed. For the most part, any functionality available in `mimelib` is still available in the `email` package, albeit often in a different way. Backward compatibility between the `mimelib` package and the `email` package was not a priority.

Here is a brief description of the differences between the `mimelib` and the `email` packages, along with hints on how to port your applications.

Of course, the most visible difference between the two packages is that the package name has been changed to `email`. In addition, the top-level package has the following differences :

- `messageFromString()` has been renamed to `message_from_string()`.
- `messageFromFile()` has been renamed to `message_from_file()`.

The `Message` class has the following differences :

- The method `asString()` was renamed to `as_string()`.
- The method `ismultipart()` was renamed to `is_multipart()`.
- The `get_payload()` method has grown a `decode` optional argument.
- The method `getall()` was renamed to `get_all()`.
- The method `addheader()` was renamed to `add_header()`.
- The method `gettype()` was renamed to `get_type()`.

- The method `getmaintype()` was renamed to `get_main_type()`.
- The method `getsubtype()` was renamed to `get_subtype()`.
- The method `getparams()` was renamed to `get_params()`. Also, whereas `getparams()` returned a list of strings, `get_params()` returns a list of 2-tuples, effectively the key/value pairs of the parameters, split on the '=' sign.
- The method `getparam()` was renamed to `get_param()`.
- The method `getcharsets()` was renamed to `get_charsets()`.
- The method `getfilename()` was renamed to `get_filename()`.
- The method `getboundary()` was renamed to `get_boundary()`.
- The method `setboundary()` was renamed to `set_boundary()`.
- The method `getdecodedpayload()` was removed. To get similar functionality, pass the value 1 to the `decode` flag of the `get_payload()` method.
- The method `getpayloadastext()` was removed. Similar functionality is supported by the `DecodedGenerator` class in the `email.generator` module.
- The method `getbodyastext()` was removed. You can get similar functionality by creating an iterator with `typed_subpart_iterator()` in the `email.iterators` module.

The `Parser` class has no differences in its public interface. It does have some additional smarts to recognize `message/delivery-status` type messages, which it represents as a `Message` instance containing separate `Message` subparts for each header block in the delivery status notification¹.

The `Generator` class has no differences in its public interface. There is a new class in the `email.generator` module though, called `DecodedGenerator` which provides most of the functionality previously available in the `Message.getpayloadastext()` method.

The following modules and classes have been changed :

- The `MIMEBase` class constructor arguments `__major` and `__minor` have changed to `__maintype` and `__subtype` respectively.
- The `Image` class/module has been renamed to `MIMEImage`. The `__minor` argument has been renamed to `__subtype`.
- The `Text` class/module has been renamed to `MIMEText`. The `__minor` argument has been renamed to `__subtype`.
- The `MessageRFC822` class/module has been renamed to `MIMEMessage`. Note that an earlier version of `mimelib` called this class/module `RFC822`, but that clashed with the Python standard library module `rfc822` on some case-insensitive file systems.
Also, the `MIMEMessage` class now represents any kind of MIME message with main type `message`. It takes an optional argument `__subtype` which is used to set the MIME subtype. `__subtype` defaults to `rfc822`.

`mimelib` provided some utility functions in its `address` and `date` modules. All of these functions have been moved to the `email.utils` module.

The `MsgReader` class/module has been removed. Its functionality is most closely supported in the `body_line_iterator()` function in the `email.iterators` module.

Notes

18.2 json — Encodage et décodage JSON

Nouveau dans la version 2.6.

JSON (JavaScript Object Notation), spécifié par la **RFC 7159** (qui rend la **RFC 4627** obsolète) et par le standard **ECMA-404**, est une interface légère d'échange de données inspirée par la syntaxe des objets littéraux JavaScript (bien que ce ne soit pas un sous-ensemble strict de Javascript¹).

1. Delivery Status Notifications (DSN) are defined in **RFC 1894**.

1. Comme noté dans l'errata de la **RFC 7159**, JSON autorise les caractères littéraux U+2028 (*LINE SEPARATOR*) et U+2029 (*PARAGRAPH SEPARATOR*) dans les chaînes de caractères, alors que Javascript (selon le standard ECMA Script édition 5.1) ne le permet pas.

json expose une API familière aux utilisateurs des modules de la bibliothèque standard *marshal* et *pickle*.

Encodage d'objets Python basiques :

```
>>> import json
>>> json.dumps(['foo', {'bar': ('baz', None, 1.0, 2)}})
'["foo", {"bar": ["baz", null, 1.0, 2]}]'
>>> print json.dumps("\"foo\\bar\"")
\"foo\\bar\"
>>> print json.dumps(u'\\u1234')
\"\\u1234\"
>>> print json.dumps('\\\\')
\"\\\\\"
>>> print json.dumps({'c': 0, "b": 0, "a": 0}, sort_keys=True)
{"a": 0, "b": 0, "c": 0}
>>> from StringIO import StringIO
>>> io = StringIO()
>>> json.dump(['streaming API'], io)
>>> io.getvalue()
'["streaming API"]'
```

Encodage compact :

```
>>> import json
>>> json.dumps([1,2,3,{ '4': 5, '6': 7}], separators=(',', ':'))
'[1,2,3,{"4":5,"6":7}]'
```

Affichage élégant :

```
>>> import json
>>> print json.dumps({'4': 5, '6': 7}, sort_keys=True,
...                  indent=4, separators=(',', ': '))
{
    "4": 5,
    "6": 7
}
```

Décodage JSON :

```
>>> import json
>>> json.loads('["foo", {"bar":["baz", null, 1.0, 2]}]')
[u'foo', {'bar': [u'baz', None, 1.0, 2]}]
>>> json.loads('\"\\\"foo\\bar\"')
u'foo\x08ar'
>>> from StringIO import StringIO
>>> io = StringIO('["streaming API"]')
>>> json.load(io)
[u'streaming API']
```

Spécialisation du décodage JSON pour un objet :

```
>>> import json
>>> def as_complex(dct):
...     if '__complex__' in dct:
...         return complex(dct['real'], dct['imag'])
```

(suite sur la page suivante)

(suite de la page précédente)

```

...     return dct
...
>>> json.loads('{"__complex__": true, "real": 1, "imag": 2}',
...     object_hook=as_complex)
(1+2j)
>>> import decimal
>>> json.loads('1.1', parse_float=decimal.Decimal)
Decimal('1.1')

```

Étendre la classe *JSONEncoder* :

```

>>> import json
>>> class ComplexEncoder(json.JSONEncoder):
...     def default(self, obj):
...         if isinstance(obj, complex):
...             return [obj.real, obj.imag]
...         # Let the base class default method raise the TypeError
...         return json.JSONEncoder.default(self, obj)
...
>>> json.dumps(2 + 1j, cls=ComplexEncoder)
'[2.0, 1.0]'
>>> ComplexEncoder().encode(2 + 1j)
'[2.0, 1.0]'
>>> list(ComplexEncoder().iterencode(2 + 1j))
['[', '2.0', ',', '1.0', ']']

```

Utiliser `json.tool` depuis la *shell* pour valider et afficher élégamment :

```

$ echo '{"json":"obj"}' | python -m json.tool
{
  "json": "obj"
}
$ echo '{1.2:3.4}' | python -m json.tool
Expecting property name enclosed in double quotes: line 1 column 2 (char 1)

```

Note : JSON est un sous-ensemble de [YAML 1.2](#). Le JSON produit par les paramètres par défaut de ce module (en particulier, la valeur par défaut de *separators*) est aussi un sous ensemble de [YAML 1.0](#) et [1.1](#). Ce module peut alors aussi être utilisé comme sérialiseur [YAML](#).

18.2.1 Utilisation basique

```

json.dump(obj, fp, skipkeys=False, ensure_ascii=True, check_circular=True, allow_nan=True,
          cls=None, indent=None, separators=None, encoding="utf-8", default=None,
          sort_keys=False, **kw)

```

Séréalise *obj* comme un flux JSON formaté vers *fp* (un *file-like object* gérant `.write()`) utilisant cette *table de conversion*.

If *skipkeys* is true (default : False), then dict keys that are not of a basic type (*str*, *unicode*, *int*, *long*, *float*, *bool*, None) will be skipped instead of raising a *TypeError*.

If *ensure_ascii* is true (the default), all non-ASCII characters in the output are escaped with `\uXXXX` sequences, and the result is a *str* instance consisting of ASCII characters only. If *ensure_ascii* is false, some chunks written to *fp* may be *unicode* instances. This usually happens because the input contains

unicode strings or the *encoding* parameter is used. Unless `fp.write()` explicitly understands *unicode* (as in `codecs.getwriter()`) this is likely to cause an error.

Si *check_circular* est faux (vrai par défaut), la vérification des références circulaires pour les conteneurs sera ignorée, et une référence circulaire résultera en une *OverflowError* (ou pire).

Si *allow_nan* est faux (vrai par défaut), une *ValueError* sera levée lors de la sérialisation de valeurs *float* extérieures aux bornes (*nan*, *inf*, *-inf*), en respect strict de la spécification JSON. Si *allow_nan* est vrai, leurs équivalents JavaScript (*NaN*, *Infinity*, *-Infinity*) seront utilisés.

If *indent* is a non-negative integer, then JSON array elements and object members will be pretty-printed with that indent level. An indent level of 0, or negative, will only insert newlines. *None* (the default) selects the most compact representation.

Note : Since the default item separator is `' '`, the output might include trailing whitespace when *indent* is specified. You can use `separators=(',', ':')` to avoid this.

If specified, *separators* should be an (*item_separator*, *key_separator*) tuple. By default, `(' ', ':')` are used. To get the most compact JSON representation, you should specify `(' ', ':')` to eliminate whitespace.

encoding is the character encoding for str instances, default is UTF-8.

Si spécifié, *default* doit être une fonction qui sera appelée pour les objets qui ne peuvent être sérialisés autrement. Elle doit renvoyer une représentation de l'objet sérialisable en JSON ou lever une *TypeError*. Si non spécifié, une *TypeError* sera levée pour les types non sérialisables.

Si *sort_keys* est vrai (faux par défaut), les dictionnaires seront retranscrits triés selon leurs clés.

Pour utiliser une sous-classe *JSONEncoder* personnalisée (p. ex. une qui redéfinit la méthode `default()` pour sérialiser des types additionnels), spécifiez-la avec le paramètre nommé *cls* ; autrement, *JSONEncoder* est utilisée.

Note : Unlike *pickle* and *marshal*, JSON is not a framed protocol so trying to serialize more objects with repeated calls to `dump()` and the same *fp* will result in an invalid JSON file.

```
json.dumps(obj, skipkeys=False, ensure_ascii=True, check_circular=True, allow_nan=True,
           cls=None, indent=None, separators=None, encoding="utf-8", default=None,
           sort_keys=False, **kw)
```

Serialize *obj* to a JSON formatted *str* using this *conversion table*. If *ensure_ascii* is false, the result may contain non-ASCII characters and the return value may be a *unicode* instance.

The arguments have the same meaning as in `dump()`.

Note : Les clés dans les couples JSON clé/valeur sont toujours de type *str*. Quand un dictionnaire est converti en JSON, toutes les clés du dictionnaire sont transformées en chaînes de caractères. Ce qui fait que si un dictionnaire est converti en JSON et reconverti en dictionnaire, le résultat peut ne pas être égal à l'original. Ainsi, `loads(dumps(x)) != x` si *x* contient des clés qui ne sont pas des chaînes.

```
json.load(fp[, encoding[, cls[, object_hook[, parse_float[, parse_int[, parse_constant[, ob-
           ject_pairs_hook[, **kw]]]]]]]])
```

Désérialise *fp* (un *file-like object* supportant `.read()`, contenant un document JSON) vers un objet Python en utilisant cette *table de conversion*.

If the contents of *fp* are encoded with an ASCII based encoding other than UTF-8 (e.g. latin-1), then an appropriate *encoding* name must be specified. Encodings that are not ASCII based (such as UCS-2) are not allowed, and should be wrapped with `codecs.getreader(encoding)(fp)`, or simply decoded to a *unicode* object and passed to `loads()`.

object_hook est une fonction optionnelle qui sera appelée avec le résultat de chaque objet littéral décodé (chaque *dict*). La valeur de retour de *object_hook* sera utilisée à la place du *dict*. Cette fonctionnalité peut être utilisée pour implémenter des décodeurs personnalisés (p. ex. les *class hinting* de *JSON-RPC*).

object_pairs_hook est une fonction optionnelle qui sera appelé pour chaque objet littéral décodé, avec une liste ordonnée de couples. La valeur de retour de *object_pairs_hook* sera utilisée à la place du *dict*. Cette fonctionnalité peut être utilisée pour implémenter des décodeurs personnalisés qui s'appuient sur l'ordre dans lequel les couples clé/valeur sont décodés (par exemple, *collections.OrderedDict()* mémorisera l'ordre d'insertion). *object_pairs_hook* prend la priorité sur *object_hook*, si cette dernière est aussi définie.

Modifié dans la version 2.7 : Ajout du support de *object_pairs_hook*.

parse_float, si spécifiée, sera appelée pour chaque nombre réel JSON à décoder sous forme d'une chaîne de caractères. Par défaut, elle est équivalente à *float(num_str)*. Cela peut servir à utiliser un autre type de données ou un autre analyseur pour les nombres réels JSON (p. ex. *decimal.Decimal*).

parse_int, si spécifiée, sera appelée pour chaque nombre entier JSON à décoder sous forme d'une chaîne de caractères. Par défaut, elle est équivalente à *int(num_str)*. Cela peut servir à utiliser un autre type de données ou un autre analyseur pour les nombres entiers JSON (p. ex. *float*).

parse_constant, si spécifiée, sera appelée avec l'une des chaînes de caractères suivantes : *'-Infinity'*, *'Infinity'* ou *'NaN'*. Cela peut servir à lever une exception si des nombres JSON invalides sont rencontrés.

Modifié dans la version 2.7 : *parse_constant* n'est plus appelée pour *null*, *true* ou *false*.

Pour utiliser une sous-classe *JSONDecoder* personnalisée, spécifiez-la avec l'argument nommé *cls* ; autrement, *JSONDecoder* est utilisée. Les arguments nommés additionnels seront passés au constructeur de cette classe.

```
json.loads(s[, encoding[, cls[, object_hook[, parse_float[, parse_int[, parse_constant[, ob-
ject_pairs_hook[, **kw]]]]]]]])
```

Deserialize *s* (a *str* or *unicode* instance containing a JSON document) to a Python object using this *conversion table*.

If *s* is a *str* instance and is encoded with an ASCII based encoding other than UTF-8 (e.g. latin-1), then an appropriate *encoding* name must be specified. Encodings that are not ASCII based (such as UCS-2) are not allowed and should be decoded to *unicode* first.

The other arguments have the same meaning as in *load()*.

18.2.2 Encodeurs et décodeurs

```
class json.JSONDecoder([encoding[, object_hook[, parse_float[, parse_int[, parse_constant[,
strict[, object_pairs_hook]]]]]])
```

Décodeur simple JSON.

Applique par défaut les conversions suivantes en décodant :

JSON	Python
objet	<i>dict</i>
<i>array</i>	<i>list</i>
<i>string</i>	unicode
<i>number</i> (nombre entier)	int, long
<i>number</i> (nombre réel)	<i>float</i>
<i>true</i>	<i>True</i>
<i>false</i>	<i>False</i>
<i>null</i>	<i>None</i>

Les valeurs NaN, Infinity et -Infinity sont aussi comprises comme leurs valeurs *float* correspondantes, bien que ne faisant pas partie de la spécification JSON.

encoding determines the encoding used to interpret any *str* objects decoded by this instance (UTF-8 by default). It has no effect when decoding *unicode* objects.

Note that currently only encodings that are a superset of ASCII work, strings of other encodings should be passed in as *unicode*.

object_hook, si spécifiée, sera appelée avec le résultat de chaque objet JSON décodé et sa valeur de retour sera utilisée à la place du *dict* donné. Cela peut être utilisé pour apporter des désérialisations personnalisées (p. ex. pour supporter les *class hinting* de JSON-RPC).

object_pairs_hook, si spécifiée, sera appelée avec le résultat de chaque objet JSON décodé avec une liste ordonnée de couples. Sa valeur de retour sera utilisée à la place du *dict*. Cette fonctionnalité peut être utilisée pour implémenter des décodeurs personnalisés se basant sur l'ordre dans lequel les couples clé/valeur sont décodés (par exemple, *collections.OrderedDict()* mémoriserait l'ordre d'insertion). *object_pairs_hook* prend la priorité sur *object_hook*, si cette dernière est aussi définie.

Modifié dans la version 2.7 : Ajout du support de *object_pairs_hook*.

parse_float, si spécifiée, sera appelée pour chaque nombre réel JSON à décoder sous forme d'une chaîne de caractères. Par défaut, elle est équivalente à *float(num_str)*. Cela peut servir à utiliser un autre type de données ou un autre analyseur pour les nombres réels JSON (p. ex. *decimal.Decimal*).

parse_int, si spécifiée, sera appelée pour chaque nombre entier JSON à décoder sous forme d'une chaîne de caractères. Par défaut, elle est équivalente à *int(num_str)*. Cela peut servir à utiliser un autre type de données ou un autre analyseur pour les nombres entiers JSON (p. ex. *float*).

parse_constant, si spécifiée, sera appelée avec l'une des chaînes de caractères suivantes : *'-Infinity'*, *'Infinity'* ou *'NaN'*. Cela peut servir à lever une exception si des nombres JSON invalides sont rencontrés.

If *strict* is false (*True* is the default), then control characters will be allowed inside strings. Control characters in this context are those with character codes in the 0–31 range, including *'\t'* (tab), *'\n'*, *'\r'* and *'\0'*.

If the data being deserialized is not a valid JSON document, a *ValueError* will be raised.

decode(*s*)

Return the Python representation of *s* (a *str* or *unicode* instance containing a JSON document).

raw_decode(*s*)

Decode a JSON document from *s* (a *str* or *unicode* beginning with a JSON document) and return a 2-tuple of the Python representation and the index in *s* where the document ended.

Elle peut être utilisée pour décoder un document JSON depuis une chaîne qui peut contenir des données supplémentaires à la fin.

```
class json.JSONEncoder([skipkeys[, ensure_ascii[, check_circular[, allow_nan[, sort_keys[,
                                indent[, separators[, encoding[, default]]]]]]]])
```

Encodeur JSON extensible pour les structures de données Python.

Supporte par défaut les objets et types suivants :

Python	JSON
<i>dict</i>	objet
<i>list, tuple</i>	<i>array</i>
<i>str, unicode</i>	<i>string</i>
<i>int, long, float</i>	<i>number</i>
<i>True</i>	<i>true</i>
<i>False</i>	<i>false</i>
<i>None</i>	<i>null</i>

Pour l'étendre afin de reconnaître d'autres types d'objets, il suffit d'en créer une sous-classe et d'implémenter une nouvelle méthode *default()* qui renverrait si possible un objet sérialisable pour o, ou ferait appel à l'implémentation de la classe mère (qui leverait une *TypeError*).

If *skipkeys* is false (the default), then it is a *TypeError* to attempt encoding of keys that are not *str*, *int*, *long*, *float* or *None*. If *skipkeys* is true, such items are simply skipped.

If *ensure_ascii* is true (the default), all non-ASCII characters in the output are escaped with *\uXXXX* sequences, and the results are *str* instances consisting of ASCII characters only. If *ensure_ascii* is false, a result may be a *unicode* instance. This usually happens if the input contains unicode strings or the *encoding* parameter is used.

Si `check_circular` est vrai (par défaut), une vérification aura lieu sur les listes, dictionnaires et objets personnalisés, afin de détecter les références circulaires et éviter les récursions infinies (qui causeraient une *OverflowError*). Autrement, la vérification n'a pas lieu.

Si `allow_nan` est vrai (par défaut), alors NaN, Infinity et -Infinity seront encodés comme tels. Ce comportement ne respecte pas la spécification JSON, mais est cohérent avec le majorité des encodeurs/décodeurs JavaScript. Autrement, une *ValueError* sera levée pour de telles valeurs.

Si `sort_keys` est vrai (**False** par défaut), alors les dictionnaires seront triés par clés en sortie ; cela est utile lors de tests de régression pour pouvoir comparer les sérialisations JSON au jour le jour.

If `indent` is a non-negative integer (it is **None** by default), then JSON array elements and object members will be pretty-printed with that indent level. An indent level of 0 will only insert newlines. **None** is the most compact representation.

Note : Since the default item separator is `' '`, the output might include trailing whitespace when `indent` is specified. You can use `separators=(',', ':')` to avoid this.

If specified, `separators` should be an (`item_separator`, `key_separator`) tuple. By default, `(' ', ': ')` are used. To get the most compact JSON representation, you should specify `(' ', ':')` to eliminate whitespace.

Si spécifié, `default` doit être une fonction qui sera appelée pour les objets qui ne peuvent être sérialisés autrement. Elle doit renvoyer une représentation de l'objet sérialisable en JSON ou lever une *TypeError*. Si non spécifié, une *TypeError* sera levée pour les types non sérialisables.

If `encoding` is not **None**, then all input strings will be transformed into unicode using that encoding prior to JSON-encoding. The default is UTF-8.

`default(o)`

Implémentez cette méthode dans une sous-classe afin qu'elle renvoie un objet sérialisable pour `o`, ou appelle l'implémentation de base (qui lèvera une *TypeError*).

Par exemple, pour supporter des itérateurs arbitraires, vous pourriez implémenter `default` comme cela :

```
def default(self, o):
    try:
        iterable = iter(o)
    except TypeError:
        pass
    else:
        return list(iterable)
    # Let the base class default method raise the TypeError
    return JSONEncoder.default(self, o)
```

`encode(o)`

Renvoie une chaîne JSON représentant la structure de données Python `o`. Par exemple :

```
>>> JSONEncoder().encode({"foo": ["bar", "baz"]})
'{"foo": ["bar", "baz"]}'
```

`iterencode(o)`

Encode l'objet `o` donné, et produit chaque chaîne représentant l'objet selon disponibilité. Par exemple :

```
for chunk in JSONEncoder().iterencode(bigobject):
    mysocket.write(chunk)
```

18.2.3 Conformité au standard et Interopérabilité

Le format JSON est spécifié par la [RFC 7159](#) et le standard [ECMA-404](#). Cette section détaille la conformité à la RFC au niveau du module. Pour faire simple, les sous-classes de `JSONEncoder` et `JSONDecoder`, et les paramètres autres que ceux explicitement mentionnés ne sont pas considérés.

Ce module ne se conforme pas strictement à la RFC, implémentant quelques extensions qui sont valides en JavaScript mais pas en JSON. En particulier :

- Les nombres infinis et *NaN* sont acceptés et retranscrits ;
- Les noms répétés au sein d'un objet sont acceptés, seule la valeur du dernier couple nom/valeur sera utilisée.

Comme la RFC permet aux analyseurs conformes d'accepter des textes en entrée non conformes, le désérialiseur de ce module avec ses paramètres par défaut est techniquement conforme à la RFC.

Encodage des caractères

The RFC requires that JSON be represented using either UTF-8, UTF-16, or UTF-32, with UTF-8 being the recommended default for maximum interoperability. Accordingly, this module uses UTF-8 as the default for its *encoding* parameter.

This module's deserializer only directly works with ASCII-compatible encodings; UTF-16, UTF-32, and other ASCII-incompatible encodings require the use of workarounds described in the documentation for the deserializer's *encoding* parameter.

Comme cela est permis par la RFC, bien que non requis, le sérialiseur du module active `ensure_ascii=True` par défaut, échappant ainsi la sortie de façon à ce que les chaînes résultants ne contiennent que des caractères ASCII.

La RFC interdit d'ajouter un *byte* marqueur d'ordre (BOM) au début du texte JSON, et le sérialiseur de ce module n'ajoute pas de tel BOM. La RFC permet, mais ne requiert pas, que les désérialiseurs JSON ignorent ces BOM. Le désérialiseur de ce module lève une `ValueError` quand un BOM est présent au début du fichier.

La RFC n'interdit pas explicitement les chaînes JSON contenant des séquences de *bytes* ne correspondant à aucun caractère Unicode valide (p. ex. les *surrogates* UTF-16 sans correspondance), mais précise que cela peut causer des problèmes d'interopérabilité. Par défaut, ce module accepte et retranscrit (quand présents dans la *str* originale) les *code points* de telles séquences.

Valeurs numériques infinies et NaN

La RFC ne permet pas la représentation des nombres infinis ou des *NaN*. Néanmoins, par défaut, ce module accepte et retranscrit `Infinity`, `-Infinity` et `NaN` comme s'ils étaient des valeurs numériques littérales JSON valides :

```
>>> # Neither of these calls raises an exception, but the results are not valid JSON
>>> json.dumps(float('-inf'))
'-Infinity'
>>> json.dumps(float('nan'))
'NaN'
>>> # Same when deserializing
>>> json.loads('-Infinity')
-inf
>>> json.loads('NaN')
nan
```

Dans le sérialiseur, le paramètre `allow_nan` peut être utilisé pour altérer ce comportement. Dans le désérialiseur, le paramètre `parse_constant` peut être utilisé pour altérer ce comportement.

Noms répétés au sein d'un objet

La RFC spécifie que les noms au sein d'un objet JSON doivent être uniques, mais ne décrit pas comment les noms répétés doivent être gérés. Par défaut, ce module ne lève pas d'exception ; à la place, il ignore tous les couples nom/valeur sauf le dernier pour un nom donné :

```
>>> weird_json = '{"x": 1, "x": 2, "x": 3}'
>>> json.loads(weird_json)
{'u'x': 3}
```

Le paramètre `object_pairs_hook` peut être utilisé pour altérer ce comportement.

Valeurs de plus haut niveau autres qu'objets ou tableaux

L'ancienne version de JSON spécifiée par l'obsoleète [RFC 4627](#) demandait à ce que la valeur de plus haut niveau du texte JSON soit un objet ou un tableau JSON (*dict* ou *list* Python), et ne soit pas *null*, un nombre, ou une chaîne de caractères. La [RFC 7159](#) a supprimé cette restriction, jamais implémentée par ce module, que ce soit dans le sérialiseur ou le désérialiseur.

Cependant, pour une interopérabilité maximale, vous pourriez volontairement souhaiter adhérer à cette restriction par vous-même.

Limitations de l'implémentation

Certaines implémentations de désérialiseurs JSON peuvent avoir des limites sur :

- la taille des textes JSON acceptés ;
- le niveau maximum d'objets et tableaux JSON imbriqués ;
- l'intervalle et la précision des nombres JSON ;
- le contenu et la longueur maximale des chaînes JSON.

Ce module n'impose pas de telles limites si ce n'est celles inhérentes aux types de données Python ou à l'interpréteur.

Lors d'une sérialisation JSON, faites attention à ces limitations dans les applications qui utiliseraient votre JSON. En particulier, il est commun pour les nombres JSON d'être désérialisés vers des nombres IEEE 754 à précision double, et donc sujets à l'intervalle et aux limitations sur la précision de cette représentation. Cela est d'autant plus important lors de la sérialisation de valeurs *int* Python de forte magnitude, ou d'instances de types numériques « exotiques » comme *decimal.Decimal*.

Notes

18.3 mailcap — Manipulation de fichiers Mailcap

Code source : [Lib/mailcap.py](#)

Les fichiers *mailcap* sont utilisés pour configurer la façon dont les applications compatibles avec MIME, comme les clients mails ou les navigateurs, réagissent aux différents fichiers de types MIME. (Le nom *mailcap* est une contraction de l'expression « *mail capability* ».) Par exemple, un fichier *mailcap* peut contenir une ligne de type `video/mpeg; xmpeg %s`. Ensuite, si l'utilisateur récupère un message mail ou un document web avec un type MIME `video/mpeg`, `%s` est remplacé par un nom de fichier (généralement celui d'un fichier temporaire) et le programme `xmpeg` peut automatiquement débiter la lecture de ce dernier.

Le format *mailcap* est documenté dans la [RFC 1524](#) « A User Agent Configuration Mechanism For Multimedia Mail Format Information », mais n'est pas un standard Internet. Cependant, la plupart des systèmes Unix savent gérer les fichiers *mailcap*.


```
mailcap.findmatch(caps, MIMEtype[, key[, filename[, plist]]])
```

Renvoie un tuple à deux éléments ; le premier élément est une chaîne de caractères (string) contenant la ligne de commande à exécuter (qui peut être passée à `os.system()`), et le second élément est l'entrée *mailcap* pour un type de MIME donné. Si le type MIME n'est pas identifié, (`None`, `None`) est renvoyé. *key* est le nom de champ souhaité, qui représente le type d'action à exécuter ; la valeur par défaut est 'view', puisque dans la majorité des cas le besoin consiste juste à lire le corps (body) de la donnée de type MIME. Les autres valeurs possibles peuvent être 'compose' et 'edit', si le besoin consiste à créer un nouveau corps de données (body) ou modifier celui existant. Voir la [RFC 1524](#) pour une liste complète des champs.

filename est le nom de fichier à remplacer pour %s en ligne de commande ; la valeur par défaut est '/dev/null' qui n'est certainement pas celle que vous attendez. Donc la plupart du temps, le nom de fichier doit être indiqué.

plist peut être une liste contenant des noms de paramètres ; la valeur par défaut est une simple liste vide. Chaque entrée dans la liste doit être une chaîne de caractères contenant le nom du paramètre, un signe égal ('='), ainsi que la valeur du paramètre. Les entrées *mailcap* peuvent contenir des noms de paramètres tels que %foo, remplacé par la valeur du paramètre nommé *foo*. Par exemple, si la ligne de commande `showpartial %id %number %total` est un fichier *mailcap*, et *plist* configuré à ['id=1', 'number=2', 'total=3'], la ligne de commande qui en résulte est 'showpartial 1 2 3'. Dans un fichier *mailcap*, le champ « test » peut être renseigné de façon optionnelle afin de tester certaines conditions externes (comme l'architecture machine, ou le gestionnaire de fenêtre utilisé) afin de déterminer si la ligne *mailcap* est pertinente ou non. `findmatch()` vérifie automatiquement ces conditions et ignore l'entrée si la vérification échoue.

```
mailcap.getcaps()
```

Renvoie un dictionnaire qui associe les types MIME à une liste d'entrées de fichier *mailcap*. Ce dictionnaire doit être transmis à la fonction `findmatch()`. Une entrée est enregistrée en tant qu'une liste de dictionnaires, mais il n'est pas nécessaire de connaître les détails de cette représentation.

L'information provient de tous les fichiers *mailcap* trouvés dans le système. Les configurations réalisées dans le fichier *mailcap* du répertoire utilisateur \$HOME/.mailcap outrepasse les configurations systèmes des fichiers *mailcap* /etc/mailcap, /usr/etc/mailcap, et /usr/local/etc/mailcap.

Un exemple d'utilisation :

```
>>> import mailcap
>>> d = mailcap.getcaps()
>>> mailcap.findmatch(d, 'video/mpeg', filename='tmp1223')
('xmpeg tmp1223', {'view': 'xmpeg %s'})
```

18.4 mailbox — Manipulate mailboxes in various formats

This module defines two classes, *Mailbox* and *Message*, for accessing and manipulating on-disk mailboxes and the messages they contain. *Mailbox* offers a dictionary-like mapping from keys to messages. *Message* extends the *email.message* module's *Message* class with format-specific state and behavior. Supported mailbox formats are Maildir, mbox, MH, Babyl, and MMDF.

Voir aussi :

Module *email* Represent and manipulate messages.

18.4.1 Mailbox objects

```
class mailbox.Mailbox
```

A mailbox, which may be inspected and modified.

The `Mailbox` class defines an interface and is not intended to be instantiated. Instead, format-specific subclasses should inherit from `Mailbox` and your code should instantiate a particular subclass.

The `Mailbox` interface is dictionary-like, with small keys corresponding to messages. Keys are issued by the `Mailbox` instance with which they will be used and are only meaningful to that `Mailbox` instance. A key continues to identify a message even if the corresponding message is modified, such as by replacing it with another message.

Messages may be added to a `Mailbox` instance using the set-like method `add()` and removed using a `del` statement or the set-like methods `remove()` and `discard()`.

`Mailbox` interface semantics differ from dictionary semantics in some noteworthy ways. Each time a message is requested, a new representation (typically a `Message` instance) is generated based upon the current state of the mailbox. Similarly, when a message is added to a `Mailbox` instance, the provided message representation's contents are copied. In neither case is a reference to the message representation kept by the `Mailbox` instance.

The default `Mailbox` iterator iterates over message representations, not keys as the default dictionary iterator does. Moreover, modification of a mailbox during iteration is safe and well-defined. Messages added to the mailbox after an iterator is created will not be seen by the iterator. Messages removed from the mailbox before the iterator yields them will be silently skipped, though using a key from an iterator may result in a `KeyError` exception if the corresponding message is subsequently removed.

Avertissement : Be very cautious when modifying mailboxes that might be simultaneously changed by some other process. The safest mailbox format to use for such tasks is Maildir ; try to avoid using single-file formats such as mbox for concurrent writing. If you're modifying a mailbox, you *must* lock it by calling the `lock()` and `unlock()` methods *before* reading any messages in the file or making any changes by adding or deleting a message. Failing to lock the mailbox runs the risk of losing messages or corrupting the entire mailbox.

`Mailbox` instances have the following methods :

`add(message)`

Add *message* to the mailbox and return the key that has been assigned to it.

Parameter *message* may be a `Message` instance, an `email.message.Message` instance, a string, or a file-like object (which should be open in text mode). If *message* is an instance of the appropriate format-specific `Message` subclass (e.g., if it's an `mboxMessage` instance and this is an `mbox` instance), its format-specific information is used. Otherwise, reasonable defaults for format-specific information are used.

`remove(key)`

`__delitem__(key)`

`discard(key)`

Delete the message corresponding to *key* from the mailbox.

If no such message exists, a `KeyError` exception is raised if the method was called as `remove()` or `__delitem__()` but no exception is raised if the method was called as `discard()`. The behavior of `discard()` may be preferred if the underlying mailbox format supports concurrent modification by other processes.

`__setitem__(key, message)`

Replace the message corresponding to *key* with *message*. Raise a `KeyError` exception if no message already corresponds to *key*.

As with `add()`, parameter *message* may be a `Message` instance, an `email.message.Message` instance, a string, or a file-like object (which should be open in text mode). If *message* is an instance of the appropriate format-specific `Message` subclass (e.g., if it's an `mboxMessage` instance and this is an `mbox` instance), its format-specific information is used. Otherwise, the format-specific information of the message that currently corresponds to *key* is left unchanged.

`iterkeys()`

`keys()`

Return an iterator over all keys if called as `iterkeys()` or return a list of keys if called as `keys()`.

`itervalues()`
`__iter__()`
`values()`

Return an iterator over representations of all messages if called as `itervalues()` or `__iter__()` or return a list of such representations if called as `values()`. The messages are represented as instances of the appropriate format-specific `Message` subclass unless a custom message factory was specified when the `Mailbox` instance was initialized.

Note : The behavior of `__iter__()` is unlike that of dictionaries, which iterate over keys.

`iteritems()`
`items()`

Return an iterator over `(key, message)` pairs, where `key` is a key and `message` is a message representation, if called as `iteritems()` or return a list of such pairs if called as `items()`. The messages are represented as instances of the appropriate format-specific `Message` subclass unless a custom message factory was specified when the `Mailbox` instance was initialized.

`get(key, default=None)`
`__getitem__(key)`

Return a representation of the message corresponding to `key`. If no such message exists, `default` is returned if the method was called as `get()` and a `KeyError` exception is raised if the method was called as `__getitem__()`. The message is represented as an instance of the appropriate format-specific `Message` subclass unless a custom message factory was specified when the `Mailbox` instance was initialized.

`get_message(key)`

Return a representation of the message corresponding to `key` as an instance of the appropriate format-specific `Message` subclass, or raise a `KeyError` exception if no such message exists.

`get_string(key)`

Return a string representation of the message corresponding to `key`, or raise a `KeyError` exception if no such message exists.

`get_file(key)`

Return a file-like representation of the message corresponding to `key`, or raise a `KeyError` exception if no such message exists. The file-like object behaves as if open in binary mode. This file should be closed once it is no longer needed.

Note : Unlike other representations of messages, file-like representations are not necessarily independent of the `Mailbox` instance that created them or of the underlying mailbox. More specific documentation is provided by each subclass.

`has_key(key)`

`__contains__(key)`

Return `True` if `key` corresponds to a message, `False` otherwise.

`__len__()`

Return a count of messages in the mailbox.

`clear()`

Delete all messages from the mailbox.

`pop(key[, default])`

Return a representation of the message corresponding to `key` and delete the message. If no such message exists, return `default` if it was supplied or else raise a `KeyError` exception. The message is represented as an instance of the appropriate format-specific `Message` subclass unless a custom message factory was specified when the `Mailbox` instance was initialized.

`popitem()`

Return an arbitrary `(key, message)` pair, where `key` is a key and `message` is a message representation, and delete the corresponding message. If the mailbox is empty, raise a `KeyError` exception.

The message is represented as an instance of the appropriate format-specific *Message* subclass unless a custom message factory was specified when the *Mailbox* instance was initialized.

update(*arg*)

Parameter *arg* should be a *key-to-message* mapping or an iterable of (*key*, *message*) pairs. Updates the mailbox so that, for each given *key* and *message*, the message corresponding to *key* is set to *message* as if by using `__setitem__()`. As with `__setitem__()`, each *key* must already correspond to a message in the mailbox or else a *KeyError* exception will be raised, so in general it is incorrect for *arg* to be a *Mailbox* instance.

Note : Unlike with dictionaries, keyword arguments are not supported.

flush()

Write any pending changes to the filesystem. For some *Mailbox* subclasses, changes are always written immediately and *flush()* does nothing, but you should still make a habit of calling this method.

lock()

Acquire an exclusive advisory lock on the mailbox so that other processes know not to modify it. An *ExternalClashError* is raised if the lock is not available. The particular locking mechanisms used depend upon the mailbox format. You should *always* lock the mailbox before making any modifications to its contents.

unlock()

Release the lock on the mailbox, if any.

close()

Flush the mailbox, unlock it if necessary, and close any open files. For some *Mailbox* subclasses, this method does nothing.

Maildir

class mailbox.Maildir(*dirname*, *factory*=rfc822.Message, *create*=True)

A subclass of *Mailbox* for mailboxes in Maildir format. Parameter *factory* is a callable object that accepts a file-like message representation (which behaves as if opened in binary mode) and returns a custom representation. If *factory* is *None*, *MaildirMessage* is used as the default message representation. If *create* is *True*, the mailbox is created if it does not exist.

It is for historical reasons that *factory* defaults to *rfc822.Message* and that *dirname* is named as such rather than *path*. For a *Maildir* instance that behaves like instances of other *Mailbox* subclasses, set *factory* to *None*.

Maildir is a directory-based mailbox format invented for the qmail mail transfer agent and now widely supported by other programs. Messages in a Maildir mailbox are stored in separate files within a common directory structure. This design allows Maildir mailboxes to be accessed and modified by multiple unrelated programs without data corruption, so file locking is unnecessary.

Maildir mailboxes contain three subdirectories, namely : *tmp*, *new*, and *cur*. Messages are created momentarily in the *tmp* subdirectory and then moved to the *new* subdirectory to finalize delivery. A mail user agent may subsequently move the message to the *cur* subdirectory and store information about the state of the message in a special « info » section appended to its file name.

Folders of the style introduced by the Courier mail transfer agent are also supported. Any subdirectory of the main mailbox is considered a folder if '.' is the first character in its name. Folder names are represented by *Maildir* without the leading '.'. Each folder is itself a Maildir mailbox but should not contain other folders. Instead, a logical nesting is indicated using '.' to delimit levels, e.g., « Archived.2005.07 ».

Note : The Maildir specification requires the use of a colon (':') in certain message file names. However, some operating systems do not permit this character in file names, If you wish to use a

Maildir-like format on such an operating system, you should specify another character to use instead. The exclamation point ('!') is a popular choice. For example :

```
import mailbox
mailbox.Maildir.colon = '!'
```

The `colon` attribute may also be set on a per-instance basis.

Maildir instances have all of the methods of *Mailbox* in addition to the following :

list_folders()

Return a list of the names of all folders.

get_folder(folder)

Return a *Maildir* instance representing the folder whose name is *folder*. A *NoSuchMailboxError* exception is raised if the folder does not exist.

add_folder(folder)

Create a folder whose name is *folder* and return a *Maildir* instance representing it.

remove_folder(folder)

Delete the folder whose name is *folder*. If the folder contains any messages, a *NotEmptyError* exception will be raised and the folder will not be deleted.

clean()

Delete temporary files from the mailbox that have not been accessed in the last 36 hours. The Maildir specification says that mail-reading programs should do this occasionally.

Some *Mailbox* methods implemented by *Maildir* deserve special remarks :

add(message)

__setitem__(key, message)

update(arg)

Avertissement : These methods generate unique file names based upon the current process ID. When using multiple threads, undetected name clashes may occur and cause corruption of the mailbox unless threads are coordinated to avoid using these methods to manipulate the same mailbox simultaneously.

flush()

All changes to Maildir mailboxes are immediately applied, so this method does nothing.

lock()

unlock()

Maildir mailboxes do not support (or require) locking, so these methods do nothing.

close()

Maildir instances do not keep any open files and the underlying mailboxes do not support locking, so this method does nothing.

get_file(key)

Depending upon the host platform, it may not be possible to modify or remove the underlying message while the returned file remains open.

Voir aussi :

maildir man page from qmail The original specification of the format.

Using maildir format Notes on Maildir by its inventor. Includes an updated name-creation scheme and details on « info » semantics.

maildir man page from Courier Another specification of the format. Describes a common extension for supporting folders.

mbox

```
class mailbox.mbox(path, factory=None, create=True)
```

A subclass of *Mailbox* for mailboxes in mbox format. Parameter *factory* is a callable object that accepts a file-like message representation (which behaves as if opened in binary mode) and returns a custom representation. If *factory* is *None*, *mboxMessage* is used as the default message representation. If *create* is *True*, the mailbox is created if it does not exist.

The mbox format is the classic format for storing mail on Unix systems. All messages in an mbox mailbox are stored in a single file with the beginning of each message indicated by a line whose first five characters are « From ».

Several variations of the mbox format exist to address perceived shortcomings in the original. In the interest of compatibility, *mbox* implements the original format, which is sometimes referred to as *mboxo*. This means that the *Content-Length* header, if present, is ignored and that any occurrences of « From » at the beginning of a line in a message body are transformed to « >From » when storing the message, although occurrences of « >From » are not transformed to « From » when reading the message.

Some *Mailbox* methods implemented by *mbox* deserve special remarks :

```
get_file(key)
```

Using the file after calling *flush()* or *close()* on the *mbox* instance may yield unpredictable results or raise an exception.

```
lock()
```

```
unlock()
```

Three locking mechanisms are used—dot locking and, if available, the *flock()* and *lockf()* system calls.

Voir aussi :

mbox man page from gmail A specification of the format and its variations.

mbox man page from tin Another specification of the format, with details on locking.

Configuring Netscape Mail on Unix : Why The Content-Length Format is Bad An argument for using the original mbox format rather than a variation.

« **mbox** » is a family of several mutually incompatible mailbox formats A history of mbox variations.

MH

```
class mailbox.MH(path, factory=None, create=True)
```

A subclass of *Mailbox* for mailboxes in MH format. Parameter *factory* is a callable object that accepts a file-like message representation (which behaves as if opened in binary mode) and returns a custom representation. If *factory* is *None*, *MHMessage* is used as the default message representation. If *create* is *True*, the mailbox is created if it does not exist.

MH is a directory-based mailbox format invented for the MH Message Handling System, a mail user agent. Each message in an MH mailbox resides in its own file. An MH mailbox may contain other MH mailboxes (called *folders*) in addition to messages. Folders may be nested indefinitely. MH mailboxes also support *sequences*, which are named lists used to logically group messages without moving them to sub-folders. Sequences are defined in a file called *.mh_sequences* in each folder.

The *MH* class manipulates MH mailboxes, but it does not attempt to emulate all of *mh*'s behaviors. In particular, it does not modify and is not affected by the *context* or *.mh_profile* files that are used by *mh* to store its state and configuration.

MH instances have all of the methods of *Mailbox* in addition to the following :

```
list_folders()
```

Return a list of the names of all folders.

`get_folder(folder)`

Return an *MH* instance representing the folder whose name is *folder*. A *NoSuchMailboxError* exception is raised if the folder does not exist.

`add_folder(folder)`

Create a folder whose name is *folder* and return an *MH* instance representing it.

`remove_folder(folder)`

Delete the folder whose name is *folder*. If the folder contains any messages, a *NotEmptyError* exception will be raised and the folder will not be deleted.

`get_sequences()`

Return a dictionary of sequence names mapped to key lists. If there are no sequences, the empty dictionary is returned.

`set_sequences(sequences)`

Re-define the sequences that exist in the mailbox based upon *sequences*, a dictionary of names mapped to key lists, like returned by *get_sequences()*.

`pack()`

Rename messages in the mailbox as necessary to eliminate gaps in numbering. Entries in the sequences list are updated correspondingly.

Note : Already-issued keys are invalidated by this operation and should not be subsequently used.

Some *Mailbox* methods implemented by *MH* deserve special remarks :

`remove(key)`

`__delitem__(key)`

`discard(key)`

These methods immediately delete the message. The *MH* convention of marking a message for deletion by prepending a comma to its name is not used.

`lock()`

`unlock()`

Three locking mechanisms are used—dot locking and, if available, the `flock()` and `lockf()` system calls. For *MH* mailboxes, locking the mailbox means locking the `.mh_sequences` file and, only for the duration of any operations that affect them, locking individual message files.

`get_file(key)`

Depending upon the host platform, it may not be possible to remove the underlying message while the returned file remains open.

`flush()`

All changes to *MH* mailboxes are immediately applied, so this method does nothing.

`close()`

MH instances do not keep any open files, so this method is equivalent to *unlock()*.

Voir aussi :

nmh - Message Handling System Home page of **nmh**, an updated version of the original **mh**.

MH & nmh : Email for Users & Programmers A GPL-licensed book on **mh** and **nmh**, with some information on the mailbox format.

Babyl

`class mailbox.Babyl(path, factory=None, create=True)`

A subclass of *Mailbox* for mailboxes in Babyl format. Parameter *factory* is a callable object that accepts a file-like message representation (which behaves as if opened in binary mode) and returns a custom representation. If *factory* is *None*, *BabylMessage* is used as the default message representation. If *create* is *True*, the mailbox is created if it does not exist.

Babyl is a single-file mailbox format used by the Rmail mail user agent included with Emacs. The beginning of a message is indicated by a line containing the two characters Control-Underscore ('`\037`') and Control-L ('`\014`'). The end of a message is indicated by the start of the next message or, in the case of the last message, a line containing a Control-Underscore ('`\037`') character.

Messages in a Babyl mailbox have two sets of headers, original headers and so-called visible headers. Visible headers are typically a subset of the original headers that have been reformatted or abridged to be more attractive. Each message in a Babyl mailbox also has an accompanying list of *labels*, or short strings that record extra information about the message, and a list of all user-defined labels found in the mailbox is kept in the Babyl options section.

Babyl instances have all of the methods of *Mailbox* in addition to the following :

get_labels()

Return a list of the names of all user-defined labels used in the mailbox.

Note : The actual messages are inspected to determine which labels exist in the mailbox rather than consulting the list of labels in the Babyl options section, but the Babyl section is updated whenever the mailbox is modified.

Some *Mailbox* methods implemented by *Babyl* deserve special remarks :

get_file(key)

In Babyl mailboxes, the headers of a message are not stored contiguously with the body of the message. To generate a file-like representation, the headers and body are copied together into a *StringIO* instance (from the *StringIO* module), which has an API identical to that of a file. As a result, the file-like object is truly independent of the underlying mailbox but does not save memory compared to a string representation.

lock()

unlock()

Three locking mechanisms are used—dot locking and, if available, the `flock()` and `lockf()` system calls.

Voir aussi :

Format of Version 5 Babyl Files A specification of the Babyl format.

Reading Mail with Rmail The Rmail manual, with some information on Babyl semantics.

MMDF

class mailbox.MMDF(path, factory=None, create=True)

A subclass of *Mailbox* for mailboxes in MMDF format. Parameter *factory* is a callable object that accepts a file-like message representation (which behaves as if opened in binary mode) and returns a custom representation. If *factory* is `None`, *MMDFMessage* is used as the default message representation. If *create* is `True`, the mailbox is created if it does not exist.

MMDF is a single-file mailbox format invented for the Multichannel Memorandum Distribution Facility, a mail transfer agent. Each message is in the same form as an mbox message but is bracketed before and after by lines containing four Control-A ('`\001`') characters. As with the mbox format, the beginning of each message is indicated by a line whose first five characters are « From », but additional occurrences of « From » are not transformed to « >From » when storing messages because the extra message separator lines prevent mistaking such occurrences for the starts of subsequent messages.

Some *Mailbox* methods implemented by *MMDF* deserve special remarks :

get_file(key)

Using the file after calling `flush()` or `close()` on the *MMDF* instance may yield unpredictable results or raise an exception.

lock()

`unlock()`

Three locking mechanisms are used—dot locking and, if available, the `flock()` and `lockf()` system calls.

Voir aussi :

mmdf man page from tin A specification of MMDF format from the documentation of tin, a news-reader.

MMDF A Wikipedia article describing the Multichannel Memorandum Distribution Facility.

18.4.2 Message objects

`class mailbox.Message([message])`

A subclass of the `email.message` module's `Message`. Subclasses of `mailbox.Message` add mailbox-format-specific state and behavior.

If `message` is omitted, the new instance is created in a default, empty state. If `message` is an `email.message.Message` instance, its contents are copied; furthermore, any format-specific information is converted insofar as possible if `message` is a `Message` instance. If `message` is a string or a file, it should contain an **RFC 2822**-compliant message, which is read and parsed.

The format-specific state and behaviors offered by subclasses vary, but in general it is only the properties that are not specific to a particular mailbox that are supported (although presumably the properties are specific to a particular mailbox format). For example, file offsets for single-file mailbox formats and file names for directory-based mailbox formats are not retained, because they are only applicable to the original mailbox. But state such as whether a message has been read by the user or marked as important is retained, because it applies to the message itself.

There is no requirement that `Message` instances be used to represent messages retrieved using `Mailbox` instances. In some situations, the time and memory required to generate `Message` representations might not be acceptable. For such situations, `Mailbox` instances also offer string and file-like representations, and a custom message factory may be specified when a `Mailbox` instance is initialized.

`MaidirMessage`

`class mailbox.MaidirMessage([message])`

A message with Maildir-specific behaviors. Parameter `message` has the same meaning as with the `Message` constructor.

Typically, a mail user agent application moves all of the messages in the `new` subdirectory to the `cur` subdirectory after the first time the user opens and closes the mailbox, recording that the messages are old whether or not they've actually been read. Each message in `cur` has an « info » section added to its file name to store information about its state. (Some mail readers may also add an « info » section to messages in `new`.) The « info » section may take one of two forms : it may contain « 2, » followed by a list of standardized flags (e.g., « 2,FR ») or it may contain « 1, » followed by so-called experimental information. Standard flags for Maildir messages are as follows :

Option	Signification	Explication
D	Draft	Under composition
F	Flagged	Marked as important
P	Passed	Forwarded, resent, or bounced
R	Replied	Replied to
S	Seen	Read
T	Trashed	Marked for subsequent deletion

`MaidirMessage` instances offer the following methods :

get_subdir()

Return either « new » (if the message should be stored in the **new** subdirectory) or « cur » (if the message should be stored in the **cur** subdirectory).

Note : A message is typically moved from **new** to **cur** after its mailbox has been accessed, whether or not the message is has been read. A message **msg** has been read if "S" in **msg.get_flags()** is **True**.

set_subdir(subdir)

Set the subdirectory the message should be stored in. Parameter *subdir* must be either « new » or « cur ».

get_flags()

Return a string specifying the flags that are currently set. If the message complies with the standard Maildir format, the result is the concatenation in alphabetical order of zero or one occurrence of each of 'D', 'F', 'P', 'R', 'S', and 'T'. The empty string is returned if no flags are set or if « info » contains experimental semantics.

set_flags(flags)

Set the flags specified by *flags* and unset all others.

add_flag(flag)

Set the flag(s) specified by *flag* without changing other flags. To add more than one flag at a time, *flag* may be a string of more than one character. The current « info » is overwritten whether or not it contains experimental information rather than flags.

remove_flag(flag)

Unset the flag(s) specified by *flag* without changing other flags. To remove more than one flag at a time, *flag* maybe a string of more than one character. If « info » contains experimental information rather than flags, the current « info » is not modified.

get_date()

Return the delivery date of the message as a floating-point number representing seconds since the epoch.

set_date(date)

Set the delivery date of the message to *date*, a floating-point number representing seconds since the epoch.

get_info()

Return a string containing the « info » for a message. This is useful for accessing and modifying « info » that is experimental (i.e., not a list of flags).

set_info(info)

Set « info » to *info*, which should be a string.

When a *MaildirMessage* instance is created based upon an *mboxMessage* or *MMDFMessage* instance, the *Status* and *X-Status* headers are omitted and the following conversions take place :

Resulting state	<i>mboxMessage</i> or <i>MMDFMessage</i> state
« cur » subdirectory	O flag
F flag	F flag
R flag	A flag
S flag	R flag
T flag	D flag

When a *MaildirMessage* instance is created based upon an *MHMessage* instance, the following conversions take place :

Resulting state	<i>MHMessage</i> state
« cur » subdirectory	« unseen » sequence
« cur » subdirectory and S flag	no « unseen » sequence
F flag	« flagged » sequence
R flag	« replied » sequence

When a *MaildirMessage* instance is created based upon a *BabylMessage* instance, the following conversions take place :

Resulting state	<i>BabylMessage</i> state
« cur » subdirectory	« unseen » label
« cur » subdirectory and S flag	no « unseen » label
P flag	« forwarded » or « resent » label
R flag	« answered » label
T flag	« deleted » label

mbxMessage

class mailbox.mbxMessage(*[message]*)

A message with mbx-specific behaviors. Parameter *message* has the same meaning as with the *Message* constructor.

Messages in an mbx mailbox are stored together in a single file. The sender's envelope address and the time of delivery are typically stored in a line beginning with « From » that is used to indicate the start of a message, though there is considerable variation in the exact format of this data among mbx implementations. Flags that indicate the state of the message, such as whether it has been read or marked as important, are typically stored in *Status* and *X-Status* headers.

Conventional flags for mbx messages are as follows :

Option	Signification	Explication
R	Read	Read
O	Old	Previously detected by MUA
D	Deleted	Marked for subsequent deletion
F	Flagged	Marked as important
A	Answered	Replied to

The « R » and « O » flags are stored in the *Status* header, and the « D », « F », and « A » flags are stored in the *X-Status* header. The flags and headers typically appear in the order mentioned.

mbxMessage instances offer the following methods :

get_from()

Return a string representing the « From » line that marks the start of the message in an mbx mailbox. The leading « From » and the trailing newline are excluded.

set_from(*from_*, *time_*=None)

Set the « From » line to *from_*, which should be specified without a leading « From » or trailing newline. For convenience, *time_* may be specified and will be formatted appropriately and appended to *from_*. If *time_* is specified, it should be a *time.struct_time* instance, a tuple suitable for passing to *time.strftime()*, or True (to use *time.gmtime()*).

get_flags()

Return a string specifying the flags that are currently set. If the message complies with the conventional format, the result is the concatenation in the following order of zero or one occurrence of each of 'R', 'O', 'D', 'F', and 'A'.

set_flags(flags)

Set the flags specified by *flags* and unset all others. Parameter *flags* should be the concatenation in any order of zero or more occurrences of each of 'R', 'O', 'D', 'F', and 'A'.

add_flag(flag)

Set the flag(s) specified by *flag* without changing other flags. To add more than one flag at a time, *flag* may be a string of more than one character.

remove_flag(flag)

Unset the flag(s) specified by *flag* without changing other flags. To remove more than one flag at a time, *flag* may be a string of more than one character.

When an *mailboxMessage* instance is created based upon a *MaiIdirMessage* instance, a « From » line is generated based upon the *MaiIdirMessage* instance's delivery date, and the following conversions take place :

Resulting state	<i>MaiIdirMessage</i> state
R flag	S flag
O flag	« cur » subdirectory
D flag	T flag
F flag	F flag
A flag	R flag

When an *mailboxMessage* instance is created based upon an *MHMessage* instance, the following conversions take place :

Resulting state	<i>MHMessage</i> state
R flag and O flag	no « unseen » sequence
O flag	« unseen » sequence
F flag	« flagged » sequence
A flag	« replied » sequence

When an *mailboxMessage* instance is created based upon a *BabylMessage* instance, the following conversions take place :

Resulting state	<i>BabylMessage</i> state
R flag and O flag	no « unseen » label
O flag	« unseen » label
D flag	« deleted » label
A flag	« answered » label

When a *Message* instance is created based upon an *MMDFMessage* instance, the « From » line is copied and all flags directly correspond :

Resulting state	<i>MMDFMessage</i> state
R flag	R flag
O flag	O flag
D flag	D flag
F flag	F flag
A flag	A flag

MHMessage

```
class mailbox.MHMessage([message])
```

A message with MH-specific behaviors. Parameter *message* has the same meaning as with the *Message* constructor.

MH messages do not support marks or flags in the traditional sense, but they do support sequences, which are logical groupings of arbitrary messages. Some mail reading programs (although not the standard **mh** and **nmh**) use sequences in much the same way flags are used with other formats, as follows :

Sequence	Explication
unseen	Not read, but previously detected by MUA
replied	Replied to
flagged	Marked as important

MHMessage instances offer the following methods :

get_sequences()

Return a list of the names of sequences that include this message.

set_sequences(sequences)

Set the list of sequences that include this message.

add_sequence(sequence)

Add *sequence* to the list of sequences that include this message.

remove_sequence(sequence)

Remove *sequence* from the list of sequences that include this message.

When an *MHMessage* instance is created based upon a *MaildirMessage* instance, the following conversions take place :

Resulting state	<i>MaildirMessage</i> state
« unseen » sequence	no S flag
« replied » sequence	R flag
« flagged » sequence	F flag

When an *MHMessage* instance is created based upon an *mboxMessage* or *MMDFMessage* instance, the *Status* and *X-Status* headers are omitted and the following conversions take place :

Resulting state	<i>mboxMessage</i> or <i>MMDFMessage</i> state
« unseen » sequence	no R flag
« replied » sequence	A flag
« flagged » sequence	F flag

When an *MHMessage* instance is created based upon a *BabylMessage* instance, the following conversions take place :

Resulting state	<i>BabylMessage</i> state
« unseen » sequence	« unseen » label
« replied » sequence	« answered » label

BabylMessage

```
class mailbox.BabylMessage([message])
```

A message with Babyl-specific behaviors. Parameter *message* has the same meaning as with the *Message* constructor.

Certain message labels, called *attributes*, are defined by convention to have special meanings. The attributes are as follows :

Label	Explication
unseen	Not read, but previously detected by MUA
deleted	Marked for subsequent deletion
filed	Copied to another file or mailbox
answered	Replied to
forwarded	Forwarded
edited	Modified by the user
resent	Resent

By default, Rmail displays only visible headers. The *BabylMessage* class, though, uses the original headers because they are more complete. Visible headers may be accessed explicitly if desired.

BabylMessage instances offer the following methods :

get_labels()

Return a list of labels on the message.

set_labels(labels)

Set the list of labels on the message to *labels*.

add_label(label)

Add *label* to the list of labels on the message.

remove_label(label)

Remove *label* from the list of labels on the message.

get_visible()

Return an *Message* instance whose headers are the message's visible headers and whose body is empty.

set_visible(visible)

Set the message's visible headers to be the same as the headers in *message*. Parameter *visible* should be a *Message* instance, an *email.message.Message* instance, a string, or a file-like object (which should be open in text mode).

update_visible()

When a *BabylMessage* instance's original headers are modified, the visible headers are not automatically modified to correspond. This method updates the visible headers as follows : each visible header with a corresponding original header is set to the value of the original header, each visible header without a corresponding original header is removed, and any of *Date*, *From*, *Reply-To*, *To*, *CC*, and *Subject* that are present in the original headers but not the visible headers are added to the visible headers.

When a *BabylMessage* instance is created based upon a *MaiIdirMessage* instance, the following conversions take place :

Resulting state	<i>MaiIdirMessage</i> state
« unseen » label	no S flag
« deleted » label	T flag
« answered » label	R flag
« forwarded » label	P flag

When a *BabylMessage* instance is created based upon an *mboxMessage* or *MMDFMessage* instance, the *Status* and *X-Status* headers are omitted and the following conversions take place :

Resulting state	<i>mboxMessage</i> or <i>MMDFMessage</i> state
« unseen » label	no R flag
« deleted » label	D flag
« answered » label	A flag

When a *BabylMessage* instance is created based upon an *MHMessage* instance, the following conversions take place :

Resulting state	<i>MHMessage</i> state
« unseen » label	« unseen » sequence
« answered » label	« replied » sequence

MMDFMessage

class mailbox.MMDFMessage(*[message]*)

A message with MMDF-specific behaviors. Parameter *message* has the same meaning as with the *Message* constructor.

As with message in an mbox mailbox, MMDF messages are stored with the sender's address and the delivery date in an initial line beginning with « From ». Likewise, flags that indicate the state of the message are typically stored in *Status* and *X-Status* headers.

Conventional flags for MMDF messages are identical to those of mbox message and are as follows :

Option	Signification	Explication
R	Read	Read
O	Old	Previously detected by MUA
D	Deleted	Marked for subsequent deletion
F	Flagged	Marked as important
A	Answered	Replied to

The « R » and « O » flags are stored in the *Status* header, and the « D », « F », and « A » flags are stored in the *X-Status* header. The flags and headers typically appear in the order mentioned.

MMDFMessage instances offer the following methods, which are identical to those offered by *mboxMessage* :

get_from()

Return a string representing the « From » line that marks the start of the message in an mbox mailbox. The leading « From » and the trailing newline are excluded.

set_from(*from_*, *time_*=None)

Set the « From » line to *from_*, which should be specified without a leading « From » or trailing newline. For convenience, *time_* may be specified and will be formatted appropriately and appended to *from_*. If *time_* is specified, it should be a *time.struct_time* instance, a tuple suitable for passing to *time.strftime()*, or *True* (to use *time.gmtime()*).

get_flags()

Return a string specifying the flags that are currently set. If the message complies with the conventional format, the result is the concatenation in the following order of zero or one occurrence of each of 'R', 'O', 'D', 'F', and 'A'.

set_flags(*flags*)

Set the flags specified by *flags* and unset all others. Parameter *flags* should be the concatenation in any order of zero or more occurrences of each of 'R', 'O', 'D', 'F', and 'A'.

add_flag(*flag*)

Set the flag(s) specified by *flag* without changing other flags. To add more than one flag at a time, *flag* may be a string of more than one character.

remove_flag(flag)

Unset the flag(s) specified by *flag* without changing other flags. To remove more than one flag at a time, *flag* maybe a string of more than one character.

When an *MMDFMessage* instance is created based upon a *MaiDirMessage* instance, a « From » line is generated based upon the *MaiDirMessage* instance's delivery date, and the following conversions take place :

Resulting state	<i>MaiDirMessage</i> state
R flag	S flag
O flag	« cur » subdirectory
D flag	T flag
F flag	F flag
A flag	R flag

When an *MMDFMessage* instance is created based upon an *MHMessage* instance, the following conversions take place :

Resulting state	<i>MHMessage</i> state
R flag and O flag	no « unseen » sequence
O flag	« unseen » sequence
F flag	« flagged » sequence
A flag	« replied » sequence

When an *MMDFMessage* instance is created based upon a *BabylMessage* instance, the following conversions take place :

Resulting state	<i>BabylMessage</i> state
R flag and O flag	no « unseen » label
O flag	« unseen » label
D flag	« deleted » label
A flag	« answered » label

When an *MMDFMessage* instance is created based upon an *mboxMessage* instance, the « From » line is copied and all flags directly correspond :

Resulting state	<i>mboxMessage</i> state
R flag	R flag
O flag	O flag
D flag	D flag
F flag	F flag
A flag	A flag

18.4.3 Exceptions

The following exception classes are defined in the *mailbox* module :

exception mailbox.Error

The based class for all other module-specific exceptions.

exception mailbox.NoSuchMailboxError

Raised when a mailbox is expected but is not found, such as when instantiating a *Mailbox* subclass

with a path that does not exist (and with the *create* parameter set to **False**), or when opening a folder that does not exist.

exception mailbox.NotEmptyError

Raised when a mailbox is not empty but is expected to be, such as when deleting a folder that contains messages.

exception mailbox.ExternalClashError

Raised when some mailbox-related condition beyond the control of the program causes it to be unable to proceed, such as when failing to acquire a lock that another program already holds a lock, or when a uniquely-generated file name already exists.

exception mailbox.FormatError

Raised when the data in a file cannot be parsed, such as when an *MH* instance attempts to read a corrupted *.mh_sequences* file.

18.4.4 Deprecated classes and methods

Obsolète depuis la version 2.6.

Older versions of the *mailbox* module do not support modification of mailboxes, such as adding or removing message, and do not provide classes to represent format-specific message properties. For backward compatibility, the older mailbox classes are still available, but the newer classes should be used in preference to them. The old classes have been removed in Python 3.

Older mailbox objects support only iteration and provide a single public method :

oldmailbox.next()

Return the next message in the mailbox, created with the optional *factory* argument passed into the mailbox object's constructor. By default this is an *rfc822.Message* object (see the *rfc822* module). 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. If no more messages are available, this method returns **None**.

Most of the older mailbox classes have names that differ from the current mailbox class names, except for *Maildir*. For this reason, the new *Maildir* class defines a **next()** method and its constructor differs slightly from those of the other new mailbox classes.

The older mailbox classes whose names are not the same as their newer counterparts are as follows :

class mailbox.UnixMailbox(*fp*[, *factory*])

Access to a classic Unix-style mailbox, where all messages are contained in a single file and separated by **From** (a.k.a. **From_**) lines. The file object *fp* points to the mailbox file. The optional *factory* parameter is a callable that should create new message objects. *factory* is called with one argument, *fp* by the **next()** method of the mailbox object. The default is the *rfc822.Message* class (see the *rfc822* module – and the note below).

Note : For reasons of this module's internal implementation, you will probably want to open the *fp* object in binary mode. This is especially important on Windows.

For maximum portability, messages in a Unix-style mailbox are separated by any line that begins exactly with the string **'From '** (note the trailing space) if preceded by exactly two newlines. Because of the wide-range of variations in practice, nothing else on the **From_** line should be considered. However, the current implementation doesn't check for the leading two newlines. This is usually fine for most applications.

The *UnixMailbox* class implements a more strict version of **From_** line checking, using a regular expression that usually correctly matched **From_** delimiters. It considers delimiter line to be separated by

From name time lines. For maximum portability, use the *PortableUnixMailbox* class instead. This class is identical to *UnixMailbox* except that individual messages are separated by only From lines.

```
class mailbox.PortableUnixMailbox(fp[, factory])
```

A less-strict version of *UnixMailbox*, which considers only the From at the beginning of the line separating messages. The « name time » portion of the From line is ignored, to protect against some variations that are observed in practice. This works since lines in the message which begin with 'From ' are quoted by mail handling software at delivery-time.

```
class mailbox.MmdfMailbox(fp[, factory])
```

Access an MMDF-style mailbox, where all messages are contained in a single file and separated by lines consisting of 4 control-A characters. The file object *fp* points to the mailbox file. Optional *factory* is as with the *UnixMailbox* class.

```
class mailbox.MHMailbox(dirname[, factory])
```

Access an MH mailbox, a directory with each message in a separate file with a numeric name. The name of the mailbox directory is passed in *dirname*. *factory* is as with the *UnixMailbox* class.

```
class mailbox.BabylMailbox(fp[, factory])
```

Access a Babyl mailbox, which is similar to an MMDF mailbox. In Babyl format, each message has two sets of headers, the *original* headers and the *visible* headers. The original headers appear before a line containing only '*** EOOH ***' (End-Of-Original-Headers) and the visible headers appear after the EOOH line. Babyl-compliant mail readers will show you only the visible headers, and *BabylMailbox* objects will return messages containing only the visible headers. You'll have to do your own parsing of the mailbox file to get at the original headers. Mail messages start with the EOOH line and end with a line containing only '\037\014'. *factory* is as with the *UnixMailbox* class.

If you wish to use the older mailbox classes with the *email* module rather than the deprecated *rfc822* module, you can do so as follows :

```
import email
import email.Errors
import mailbox

def msgfactory(fp):
    try:
        return email.message_from_file(fp)
    except email.Errors.MessageParseError:
        # Don't return None since that will
        # stop the mailbox iterator
        return ''

mbox = mailbox.UnixMailbox(fp, msgfactory)
```

Alternatively, if you know your mailbox contains only well-formed MIME messages, you can simplify this to :

```
import email
import mailbox

mbox = mailbox.UnixMailbox(fp, email.message_from_file)
```

18.4.5 Examples

A simple example of printing the subjects of all messages in a mailbox that seem interesting :

```
import mailbox
for message in mailbox.mbox('~/.mbox'):
    subject = message['subject']          # Could possibly be None.
    if subject and 'python' in subject.lower():
        print subject
```

To copy all mail from a Babyl mailbox to an MH mailbox, converting all of the format-specific information that can be converted :

```
import mailbox
destination = mailbox.MH('~/.Mail')
destination.lock()
for message in mailbox.Babyl('~/.RMAIL'):
    destination.add(mailbox.MHMessage(message))
destination.flush()
destination.unlock()
```

This example sorts mail from several mailing lists into different mailboxes, being careful to avoid mail corruption due to concurrent modification by other programs, mail loss due to interruption of the program, or premature termination due to malformed messages in the mailbox :

```
import mailbox
import email.errors

list_names = ('python-list', 'python-dev', 'python-bugs')

boxes = dict((name, mailbox.mbox('~/.email/%s' % name)) for name in list_names)
inbox = mailbox.Maildir('~/.Maildir', factory=None)

for key in inbox.iterkeys():
    try:
        message = inbox[key]
    except email.errors.MessageParseError:
        continue          # The message is malformed. Just leave it.

    for name in list_names:
        list_id = message['list-id']
        if list_id and name in list_id:
            # Get mailbox to use
            box = boxes[name]

            # Write copy to disk before removing original.
            # If there's a crash, you might duplicate a message, but
            # that's better than losing a message completely.
            box.lock()
            box.add(message)
            box.flush()
            box.unlock()

            # Remove original message
            inbox.lock()
            inbox.discard(key)
            inbox.flush()
```

(suite sur la page suivante)

(suite de la page précédente)

```

        inbox.unlock()
        break                # Found destination, so stop looking.

for box in boxes.itervalues():
    box.close()

```

18.5 mhtmlib — Access to MH mailboxes

Obsolète depuis la version 2.6 : The *mhtmlib* module has been removed in Python 3. Use the *mailbox* instead.

The *mhtmlib* module provides a Python interface to MH folders and their contents.

The module contains three basic classes, *MH*, which represents a particular collection of folders, *Folder*, which represents a single folder, and *Message*, which represents a single message.

```
class mhtmlib.MH([path[, profile]])
```

MH represents a collection of MH folders.

```
class mhtmlib.Folder(mh, name)
```

The *Folder* class represents a single folder and its messages.

```
class mhtmlib.Message(folder, number[, name])
```

Message objects represent individual messages in a folder. The *Message* class is derived from *mimetools.Message*.

18.5.1 MH Objects

MH instances have the following methods :

```
MH.error(format[, ...])
```

Print an error message – can be overridden.

```
MH.getprofile(key)
```

Return a profile entry (*None* if not set).

```
MH.getpath()
```

Return the mailbox pathname.

```
MH.getcontext()
```

Return the current folder name.

```
MH.setcontext(name)
```

Set the current folder name.

```
MH.listfolders()
```

Return a list of top-level folders.

```
MH.listallfolders()
```

Return a list of all folders.

```
MH.listsubfolders(name)
```

Return a list of direct subfolders of the given folder.

```
MH.listallsubfolders(name)
```

Return a list of all subfolders of the given folder.

```
MH.makefolder(name)
```

Create a new folder.

`MH.deletefolder(name)`

Delete a folder – must have no subfolders.

`MH.openfolder(name)`

Return a new open folder object.

18.5.2 Folder Objects

Folder instances represent open folders and have the following methods :

`Folder.error(format[, ...])`

Print an error message – can be overridden.

`Folder.getfullname()`

Return the folder's full pathname.

`Folder.getsequencesfilename()`

Return the full pathname of the folder's sequences file.

`Folder.getmessagefilename(n)`

Return the full pathname of message *n* of the folder.

`Folder.listmessages()`

Return a list of messages in the folder (as numbers).

`Folder.getcurrent()`

Return the current message number.

`Folder.setcurrent(n)`

Set the current message number to *n*.

`Folder.parsesequence(seq)`

Parse msgs syntax into list of messages.

`Folder.getlast()`

Get last message, or 0 if no messages are in the folder.

`Folder.setlast(n)`

Set last message (internal use only).

`Folder.getsequences()`

Return dictionary of sequences in folder. The sequence names are used as keys, and the values are the lists of message numbers in the sequences.

`Folder.putsequences(dict)`

Return dictionary of sequences in folder name : list.

`Folder.removemessages(list)`

Remove messages in list from folder.

`Folder.refilemessages(list, tofolder)`

Move messages in list to other folder.

`Folder.movemessage(n, tofolder, ton)`

Move one message to a given destination in another folder.

`Folder.copymessage(n, tofolder, ton)`

Copy one message to a given destination in another folder.

18.5.3 Message Objects

The *Message* class adds one method to those of *mimertools.Message* :

`Message.openmessage(n)`

Return a new open message object (costs a file descriptor).

18.6 mimetools — Tools for parsing MIME messages

Obsolète depuis la version 2.3 : The *email* package should be used in preference to the *mimetools* module. This module is present only to maintain backward compatibility, and it has been removed in 3.x.

This module defines a subclass of the *rfc822* module's *Message* class and a number of utility functions that are useful for the manipulation for MIME multipart or encoded message.

It defines the following items :

`class mimetools.Message(fp, seekable)`

Return a new instance of the *Message* class. This is a subclass of the *rfc822.Message* class, with some additional methods (see below). The *seekable* argument has the same meaning as for *rfc822.Message*.

`mimetools.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'.

`mimetools.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', 'uuencode', 'x-uuencode', 'uue', 'x-uue', '7bit', and '8bit'. Decoding messages encoded in '7bit' or '8bit' has no effect. The input is simply copied to the output.

`mimetools.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()*.

`mimetools.copyliteral(input, output)`

Read lines from open file *input* until EOF and write them to open file *output*.

`mimetools.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.

Voir aussi :

Module *email* Comprehensive email handling package; supersedes the *mimetools* module.

Module *rfc822* Provides the base class for *mimetools.Message*.

Module *multifile* Support for reading files which contain distinct parts, such as MIME data.

<http://faqs.cs.uu.nl/na-dir/mail/mime-faq/.html> The MIME Frequently Asked Questions document. For an overview of MIME, see the answer to question 1.1 in Part 1 of this document.

18.6.1 Additional Methods of Message Objects

The *Message* class defines the following methods in addition to the *rfc822.Message* methods :

`Message.getplist()`

Return the parameter list of the *Content-Type* header. This is a list of 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'].

`Message.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.

`Message.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.

`Message.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.

`Message.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.

`Message.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.

18.7 mimetypes — Map filenames to MIME types

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

The *mimetypes* module converts between a filename or URL and the MIME type associated with the filename extension. Conversions are provided from filename to MIME type and from MIME type to filename extension; encodings are not supported for the latter conversion.

The module provides one class and a number of convenience functions. The functions are the normal interface to this module, but some applications may be interested in the class as well.

The functions described below provide the primary interface for this module. If the module has not been initialized, they will call `init()` if they rely on the information `init()` sets up.

`mimetypes.guess_type(url, strict=True)`

Guess the type of a file based on its filename or URL, given by *url*. The return value is a tuple (*type*, *encoding*) where *type* is `None` if the type can't be guessed (missing or unknown suffix) or a string of the form *'type/subtype'*, usable for a MIME *content-type* header.

encoding is `None` for no encoding or the name of the program used to encode (e.g. `compress` or `gzip`). The encoding is suitable for use as a *Content-Encoding* header, **not** as a *Content-Transfer-Encoding* header. The mappings are table driven. Encoding suffixes are case sensitive; type suffixes are first tried case sensitively, then case insensitively.

The optional *strict* argument is a flag specifying whether the list of known MIME types is limited to only the official types registered with IANA. When *strict* is `True` (the default), only the IANA types are supported; when *strict* is `False`, some additional non-standard but commonly used MIME types are also recognized.

`mimetypes.guess_all_extensions(type, strict=True)`

Guess the extensions for a file based on its MIME type, given by *type*. The return value is a list of strings giving all possible filename extensions, including the leading dot (`'.'`). The extensions are not guaranteed to have been associated with any particular data stream, but would be mapped to the MIME type *type* by `guess_type()`.

The optional *strict* argument has the same meaning as with the `guess_type()` function.

`mimetypes.guess_extension(type, strict=True)`

Guess the extension for a file based on its MIME type, given by *type*. The return value is a string

giving a filename extension, including the leading dot ('.'). The extension is not guaranteed to have been associated with any particular data stream, but would be mapped to the MIME type *type* by *guess_type()*. If no extension can be guessed for *type*, *None* is returned.

The optional *strict* argument has the same meaning as with the *guess_type()* function.

Some additional functions and data items are available for controlling the behavior of the module.

mimetypes.init(files=None)

Initialize the internal data structures. If given, *files* must be a sequence of file names which should be used to augment the default type map. If omitted, the file names to use are taken from *knownfiles*; on Windows, the current registry settings are loaded. Each file named in *files* or *knownfiles* takes precedence over those named before it. Calling *init()* repeatedly is allowed.

Specifying an empty list for *files* will prevent the system defaults from being applied : only the well-known values will be present from a built-in list.

Modifié dans la version 2.7 : Previously, Windows registry settings were ignored.

mimetypes.read_mime_types(filename)

Load the type map given in the file *filename*, if it exists. The type map is returned as a dictionary mapping filename extensions, including the leading dot ('.'), to strings of the form 'type/subtype'. If the file *filename* does not exist or cannot be read, *None* is returned.

mimetypes.add_type(type, ext, strict=True)

Add a mapping from the MIME type *type* to the extension *ext*. When the extension is already known, the new type will replace the old one. When the type is already known the extension will be added to the list of known extensions.

When *strict* is *True* (the default), the mapping will be added to the official MIME types, otherwise to the non-standard ones.

mimetypes.inited

Flag indicating whether or not the global data structures have been initialized. This is set to *True* by *init()*.

mimetypes.knownfiles

List of type map file names commonly installed. These files are typically named *mime.types* and are installed in different locations by different packages.

mimetypes.suffix_map

Dictionary mapping suffixes to suffixes. This is used to allow recognition of encoded files for which the encoding and the type are indicated by the same extension. For example, the *.tgz* extension is mapped to *.tar.gz* to allow the encoding and type to be recognized separately.

mimetypes.encodings_map

Dictionary mapping filename extensions to encoding types.

mimetypes.types_map

Dictionary mapping filename extensions to MIME types.

mimetypes.common_types

Dictionary mapping filename extensions to non-standard, but commonly found MIME types.

Un exemple d'utilisation du module :

```
>>> import mimetypes
>>> mimetypes.init()
>>> mimetypes.knownfiles
['/etc/mime.types', '/etc/httpd/mime.types', ... ]
>>> mimetypes.suffix_map['.tgz']
'.tar.gz'
```

(suite sur la page suivante)

```
>>> mimetypes.encodings_map['.gz']
'gzip'
>>> mimetypes.types_map['.tgz']
'application/x-tar-gz'
```

18.7.1 MimeTypes Objects

The *MimeTypes* class may be useful for applications which may want more than one MIME-type database ; it provides an interface similar to the one of the *mimetypes* module.

class *mimetypes.MimeTypes*(*filenames=()*, *strict=True*)

This class represents a MIME-types database. By default, it provides access to the same database as the rest of this module. The initial database is a copy of that provided by the module, and may be extended by loading additional *mime.types*-style files into the database using the *read()* or *readfp()* methods. The mapping dictionaries may also be cleared before loading additional data if the default data is not desired.

The optional *filenames* parameter can be used to cause additional files to be loaded « on top » of the default database.

suffix_map

Dictionary mapping suffixes to suffixes. This is used to allow recognition of encoded files for which the encoding and the type are indicated by the same extension. For example, the *.tgz* extension is mapped to *.tar.gz* to allow the encoding and type to be recognized separately. This is initially a copy of the global *suffix_map* defined in the module.

encodings_map

Dictionary mapping filename extensions to encoding types. This is initially a copy of the global *encodings_map* defined in the module.

types_map

Tuple containing two dictionaries, mapping filename extensions to MIME types : the first dictionary is for the non-standards types and the second one is for the standard types. They are initialized by *common_types* and *types_map*.

types_map_inv

Tuple containing two dictionaries, mapping MIME types to a list of filename extensions : the first dictionary is for the non-standards types and the second one is for the standard types. They are initialized by *common_types* and *types_map*.

guess_extension(*type*, *strict=True*)

Similar to the *guess_extension()* function, using the tables stored as part of the object.

guess_type(*url*, *strict=True*)

Similar to the *guess_type()* function, using the tables stored as part of the object.

guess_all_extensions(*type*, *strict=True*)

Similar to the *guess_all_extensions()* function, using the tables stored as part of the object.

read(*filename*, *strict=True*)

Load MIME information from a file named *filename*. This uses *readfp()* to parse the file.

If *strict* is *True*, information will be added to list of standard types, else to the list of non-standard types.

readfp(*fp*, *strict=True*)

Load MIME type information from an open file *fp*. The file must have the format of the standard *mime.types* files.

If *strict* is *True*, information will be added to the list of standard types, else to the list of non-standard types.

read_windows_registry(*strict=True*)

Load MIME type information from the Windows registry. Availability : Windows.

If *strict* is **True**, information will be added to the list of standard types, else to the list of non-standard types.

Nouveau dans la version 2.7.

18.8 MimeWriter — Generic MIME file writer

Obsolète depuis la version 2.3 : The *email* package should be used in preference to the *MimeWriter* module. This module is present only to maintain backward compatibility.

This module defines the class *MimeWriter*. The *MimeWriter* class implements a basic formatter for creating MIME multi-part files. It doesn't seek around the output file nor does it use large amounts of buffer space. You must write the parts out in the order that they should occur in the final file. *MimeWriter* does buffer the headers you add, allowing you to rearrange their order.

class *MimeWriter.MimeWriter*(*fp*)

Return a new instance of the *MimeWriter* class. The only argument passed, *fp*, is a file object to be used for writing. Note that a *StringIO* object could also be used.

18.8.1 MimeWriter Objects

MimeWriter instances have the following methods :

MimeWriter.addheader(*key*, *value*[, *prefix*])

Add a header line to the MIME message. The *key* is the name of the header, where the *value* obviously provides the value of the header. The optional argument *prefix* determines where the header is inserted ; 0 means append at the end, 1 is insert at the start. The default is to append.

MimeWriter.flushheaders()

Causes all headers accumulated so far to be written out (and forgotten). This is useful if you don't need a body part at all, e.g. for a subpart of type *message/rfc822* that's (mis)used to store some header-like information.

MimeWriter.startbody(*ctype*[, *plist*[, *prefix*]])

Returns a file-like object which can be used to write to the body of the message. The content-type is set to the provided *ctype*, and the optional parameter *plist* provides additional parameters for the content-type declaration. *prefix* functions as in *addheader()* except that the default is to insert at the start.

MimeWriter.startmultipartbody(*subtype*[, *boundary*[, *plist*[, *prefix*]]])

Returns a file-like object which can be used to write to the body of the message. Additionally, this method initializes the multi-part code, where *subtype* provides the multipart subtype, *boundary* may provide a user-defined boundary specification, and *plist* provides optional parameters for the subtype. *prefix* functions as in *startbody()*. Subparts should be created using *nextpart()*.

MimeWriter.nextpart()

Returns a new instance of *MimeWriter* which represents an individual part in a multipart message. This may be used to write the part as well as used for creating recursively complex multipart messages. The message must first be initialized with *startmultipartbody()* before using *nextpart()*.

MimeWriter.lastpart()

This is used to designate the last part of a multipart message, and should *always* be used when writing multipart messages.

18.9 mimify — MIME processing of mail messages

Obsolète depuis la version 2.3 : The *email* package should be used in preference to the *mimify* module. This module is present only to maintain backward compatibility.

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.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.

mimify.unmimify(*infile*, *outfile*[, *decode_base64*])

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.

mimify.mime_decode_header(*line*)

Return a decoded version of the encoded header line in *line*. This only supports the ISO 8859-1 charset (Latin-1).

mimify.mime_encode_header(*line*)

Return a MIME-encoded version of the header line in *line*.

mimify.MAXLEN

By default, a part will be encoded as quoted-printable when it contains any non-ASCII characters (characters with the 8th bit set), or if there are any lines longer than *MAXLEN* characters (default value 200).

mimify.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.

Voir aussi :

Module *quopri* Encode and decode MIME quoted-printable files.

18.10 multifile — Support for files containing distinct parts

Obsolète depuis la version 2.5 : The *email* package should be used in preference to the *multifile* module. This module is present only to maintain backward compatibility.

The *MultiFile* object enables you to treat sections of a text file as file-like input objects, with `''` being returned by *readline()* when a given delimiter pattern is encountered. The defaults of this class are designed to make it useful for parsing MIME multipart messages, but by subclassing it and overriding methods it can be easily adapted for more general use.

class multifile.MultiFile(*fp*[, *seekable*])

Create a multi-file. You must instantiate this class with an input object argument for the *MultiFile* instance to get lines from, such as a file object returned by *open()*.

MultiFile only ever looks at the input object's *readline()*, *seek()* and *tell()* methods, and the latter two are only needed if you want random access to the individual MIME parts. To use *MultiFile* on a non-seekable stream object, set the optional *seekable* argument to false; this will prevent using the input object's *seek()* and *tell()* methods.

It will be useful to know that in *MultiFile*'s view of the world, text is composed of three kinds of lines : data, section-dividers, and end-markers. *MultiFile* is designed to support parsing of messages that may have multiple nested message parts, each with its own pattern for section-divider and end-marker lines.

Voir aussi :

Module *email* Comprehensive email handling package; supersedes the *multifile* module.

18.10.1 MultiFile Objects

A *MultiFile* instance has the following methods :

MultiFile.readline(*str*)

Read a line. If the line is data (not a section-divider or end-marker or real EOF) return it. If the line matches the most-recently-stacked boundary, return `''` and set *self.last* to 1 or 0 according as the match is or is not an end-marker. If the line matches any other stacked boundary, raise an error. On encountering end-of-file on the underlying stream object, the method raises **Error** unless all boundaries have been popped.

MultiFile.readlines(*str*)

Return all lines remaining in this part as a list of strings.

MultiFile.read()

Read all lines, up to the next section. Return them as a single (multiline) string. Note that this doesn't take a size argument!

MultiFile.seek(*pos*[, *whence*])

Seek. Seek indices are relative to the start of the current section. The *pos* and *whence* arguments are interpreted as for a file seek.

MultiFile.tell()

Return the file position relative to the start of the current section.

MultiFile.next()

Skip lines to the next section (that is, read lines until a section-divider or end-marker has been consumed). Return true if there is such a section, false if an end-marker is seen. Re-enable the most-recently-pushed boundary.

MultiFile.is_data(*str*)

Return true if *str* is data and false if it might be a section boundary. As written, it tests for a prefix

other than '--' at start of line (which all MIME boundaries have) but it is declared so it can be overridden in derived classes.

Note that this test is used intended as a fast guard for the real boundary tests; if it always returns false it will merely slow processing, not cause it to fail.

`MultiFile.push(str)`

Push a boundary string. When a decorated version of this boundary is found as an input line, it will be interpreted as a section-divider or end-marker (depending on the decoration, see [RFC 2045](#)). All subsequent reads will return the empty string to indicate end-of-file, until a call to `pop()` removes the boundary a or `next()` call reenables it.

It is possible to push more than one boundary. Encountering the most-recently-pushed boundary will return EOF; encountering any other boundary will raise an error.

`MultiFile.pop()`

Pop a section boundary. This boundary will no longer be interpreted as EOF.

`MultiFile.section_divider(str)`

Turn a boundary into a section-divider line. By default, this method prepends '--' (which MIME section boundaries have) but it is declared so it can be overridden in derived classes. This method need not append LF or CR-LF, as comparison with the result ignores trailing whitespace.

`MultiFile.end_marker(str)`

Turn a boundary string into an end-marker line. By default, this method prepends '--' and appends '--' (like a MIME-multipart end-of-message marker) but it is declared so it can be overridden in derived classes. This method need not append LF or CR-LF, as comparison with the result ignores trailing whitespace.

Finally, `MultiFile` instances have two public instance variables :

`MultiFile.level`

Nesting depth of the current part.

`MultiFile.last`

True if the last end-of-file was for an end-of-message marker.

18.10.2 MultiFile Example

```
import mimetools
import multifile
import StringIO

def extract_mime_part_matching(stream, mimetype):
    """Return the first element in a multipart MIME message on stream
    matching mimetype."""

    msg = mimetools.Message(stream)
    msgtype = msg.gettype()
    params = msg.getplist()

    data = StringIO.StringIO()
    if msgtype[:10] == "multipart/":

        file = multifile.MultiFile(stream)
        file.push(msg.getparam("boundary"))
        while file.next():
            submsg = mimetools.Message(file)
```

(suite sur la page suivante)

(suite de la page précédente)

```

try:
    data = StringIO.StringIO()
    mimetools.decode(file, data, submsg.getencoding())
except ValueError:
    continue
if submsg.gettype() == mimetype:
    break
file.pop()
return data.getvalue()

```

18.11 rfc822 — Parse RFC 2822 mail headers

Obsolète depuis la version 2.3 : The *email* package should be used in preference to the *rfc822* module. This module is present only to maintain backward compatibility, and has been removed in Python 3.

This module defines a class, *Message*, which represents an « email message » as defined by the Internet standard **RFC 2822**.¹ Such messages consist of a collection of message headers, and a message body. This module also defines a helper class *AddressList* for parsing **RFC 2822** addresses. Please refer to the RFC for information on the specific syntax of **RFC 2822** messages.

The *mailbox* module provides classes to read mailboxes produced by various end-user mail programs.

class *rfc822.Message*(*file*[, *seekable*])

A *Message* instance is instantiated with an input object as parameter. Message relies only on the input object having a *readline()* method; in particular, ordinary file objects qualify. Instantiation reads headers from the input object up to a delimiter line (normally a blank line) and stores them in the instance. The message body, following the headers, is not consumed.

This class can work with any input object that supports a *readline()* method. If the input object has seek and tell capability, the *rewindbody()* method will work; also, illegal lines will be pushed back onto the input stream. If the input object lacks seek but has an *unread()* method that can push back a line of input, *Message* will use that to push back illegal lines. Thus this class can be used to parse messages coming from a buffered stream.

The optional *seekable* argument is provided as a workaround for certain stdio libraries in which *tell()* discards buffered data before discovering that the *lseek()* system call doesn't work. For maximum portability, you should set the *seekable* argument to zero to prevent that initial *tell()* when passing in an unseekable object such as a file object created from a socket object.

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.

class *rfc822.AddressList*(*field*)

You may instantiate the *AddressList* helper class using a single string parameter, a comma-separated list of **RFC 2822** addresses to be parsed. (The parameter *None* yields an empty list.)

rfc822.quote(*str*)

Return a new string with backslashes in *str* replaced by two backslashes and double quotes replaced by backslash-double quote.

1. This module originally conformed to **RFC 822**, hence the name. Since then, **RFC 2822** has been released as an update to **RFC 822**. This module should be considered **RFC 2822**-conformant, especially in cases where the syntax or semantics have changed since **RFC 822**.

`rfc822.unquote(str)`

Return a new string which is an *unquoted* version of *str*. If *str* ends and begins with double quotes, they are stripped off. Likewise if *str* ends and begins with angle brackets, they are stripped off.

`rfc822.parseaddr(address)`

Parse *address*, which should be the value of some address-containing field such as *To* or *Cc*, into its constituent « realname » and « email address » parts. Returns a tuple of that information, unless the parse fails, in which case a 2-tuple (`None`, `None`) is returned.

`rfc822.dump_address_pair(pair)`

The inverse of `parseaddr()`, this takes a 2-tuple of the form (`realname`, `email_address`) and returns the string value suitable for a *To* or *Cc* header. If the first element of *pair* is false, then the second element is returned unmodified.

`rfc822.parsedate(date)`

Attempts to parse a date according to the rules in [RFC 2822](#). 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 [RFC 2822](#) 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. Note that indexes 6, 7, and 8 of the result tuple are not usable.

`rfc822.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 timezone from UTC (which is the official term for Greenwich Mean Time). (Note that the sign of the timezone offset is the opposite of the sign of the `time.timezone` variable for the same timezone; the latter variable follows the POSIX standard while this module follows [RFC 2822](#).) If the input string has no timezone, the last element of the tuple returned is `None`. Note that indexes 6, 7, and 8 of the result tuple are not usable.

`rfc822.mktime_tz(tuple)`

Turn a 10-tuple as returned by `parsedate_tz()` into a UTC timestamp. If the timezone item in the tuple is `None`, assume local time. Minor deficiency : this first interprets the first 8 elements as a local time and then compensates for the timezone difference; this may yield a slight error around daylight savings time switch dates. Not enough to worry about for common use.

Voir aussi :

Module `email` Comprehensive email handling package; supersedes the `rfc822` module.

Module `mailbox` Classes to read various mailbox formats produced by end-user mail programs.

Module `mimetools` Subclass of `rfc822.Message` that handles MIME encoded messages.

18.11.1 Message Objects

A `Message` instance has the following methods :

`Message.rewindbody()`

Seek to the start of the message body. This only works if the file object is seekable.

`Message.isheader(line)`

Returns a line's canonicalized fieldname (the dictionary key that will be used to index it) if the line is a legal [RFC 2822](#) header; otherwise returns `None` (implying that parsing should stop here and the line be pushed back on the input stream). It is sometimes useful to override this method in a subclass.

`Message.islast(line)`

Return true if the given line is a delimiter on which Message should stop. The delimiter line is consumed, and the file object's read location positioned immediately after it. By default this method just checks that the line is blank, but you can override it in a subclass.

`Message.iscomment(line)`

Return `True` if the given line should be ignored entirely, just skipped. By default this is a stub that always returns `False`, but you can override it in a subclass.

`Message.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*.

`Message.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*.

`Message.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*.

`Message.getheader(name[, default])`

Return a single string consisting of the last header matching *name*, but strip leading and trailing whitespace. Internal whitespace is not stripped. The optional *default* argument can be used to specify a different default to be returned when there is no header matching *name*; it defaults to `None`. This is the preferred way to get parsed headers.

`Message.get(name[, default])`

An alias for `getheader()`, to make the interface more compatible with regular dictionaries.

`Message.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@cwil.nl (Jack Jansen)'`, then `m.getaddr('From')` will yield the pair `('Jack Jansen', 'jack@cwil.nl')`. If the header contained `'Jack Jansen <jack@cwil.nl>'` instead, it would yield the exact same result.

`Message.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.

If multiple headers exist that match the named header (e.g. if there are several *Cc* headers), all are parsed for addresses. Any continuation lines the named headers contain are also parsed.

`Message.getdate(name)`

Retrieve a header using `getheader()` and parse it into a 9-tuple compatible with `time.mktime()`; note that fields 6, 7, and 8 are not usable. 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.

`Message.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 timezone from UTC. Note that fields 6, 7, and 8 are not usable. Similarly to `getdate()`, if there is no header matching *name*, or it is unparsable, return `None`.

Message instances also support a limited mapping interface. In particular : `m[name]` is like `m.getheader(name)` but raises `KeyError` if there is no matching header; and `len(m)`, `m.get(name[, default])`, `name in m`, `m.keys()`, `m.values()` `m.items()`, and `m.setdefault(name[, default])` act as

expected, with the one difference that `setdefault()` uses an empty string as the default value. *Message* instances also support the mapping writable interface `m[name] = value` and `del m[name]`. *Message* objects do not support the `clear()`, `copy()`, `popitem()`, or `update()` methods of the mapping interface. (Support for `get()` and `setdefault()` was only added in Python 2.2.)

Finally, *Message* instances have some public instance variables :

Message.headers

A list containing the entire set of header lines, in the order in which they were read (except that `setitem` calls may disturb this order). Each line contains a trailing newline. The blank line terminating the headers is not contained in the list.

Message.fp

The file or file-like object passed at instantiation time. This can be used to read the message content.

Message.unixfrom

The Unix **From** line, if the message had one, or an empty string. This is needed to regenerate the message in some contexts, such as an **mbox**-style mailbox file.

18.11.2 AddressList Objects

An *AddressList* instance has the following methods :

AddressList.__len__()

Return the number of addresses in the address list.

AddressList.__str__()

Return a canonicalized string representation of the address list. Addresses are rendered in « name » <host@domain> form, comma-separated.

AddressList.__add__(alist)

Return a new *AddressList* instance that contains all addresses in both *AddressList* operands, with duplicates removed (set union).

AddressList.__iadd__(alist)

In-place version of `__add__()`; turns this *AddressList* instance into the union of itself and the right-hand instance, *alist*.

AddressList.__sub__(alist)

Return a new *AddressList* instance that contains every address in the left-hand *AddressList* operand that is not present in the right-hand address operand (set difference).

AddressList.__isub__(alist)

In-place version of `__sub__()`, removing addresses in this list which are also in *alist*.

Finally, *AddressList* instances have one public instance variable :

AddressList.addresslist

A list of tuple string pairs, one per address. In each member, the first is the canonicalized name part, the second is the actual route-address ('@'-separated username-host.domain pair).

Notes

18.12 base64 — RFC 3548 : Base16, Base32, Base64 Data Encodings

This module provides data encoding and decoding as specified in [RFC 3548](#). This standard defines the Base16, Base32, and Base64 algorithms for encoding and decoding arbitrary binary strings into text strings that can be safely sent by email, used as parts of URLs, or included as part of an HTTP POST request. The encoding algorithm is not the same as the **uuencode** program.

There are two interfaces provided by this module. The modern interface supports encoding and decoding string objects using both base-64 alphabets defined in [RFC 3548](#) (normal, and URL- and filesystem-safe). The legacy interface provides for encoding and decoding to and from file-like objects as well as strings, but only using the Base64 standard alphabet.

The modern interface, which was introduced in Python 2.4, provides :

base64.b64encode(*s*[, *altchars*])

Encode a string using Base64.

s is the string to encode. Optional *altchars* must be a string of at least length 2 (additional characters are ignored) which specifies an alternative alphabet for the + and / characters. This allows an application to e.g. generate URL or filesystem safe Base64 strings. The default is `None`, for which the standard Base64 alphabet is used.

The encoded string is returned.

base64.b64decode(*s*[, *altchars*])

Decode a Base64 encoded string.

s is the string to decode. Optional *altchars* must be a string of at least length 2 (additional characters are ignored) which specifies the alternative alphabet used instead of the + and / characters.

The decoded string is returned. A `TypeError` is raised if *s* is incorrectly padded. Characters that are neither in the normal base-64 alphabet nor the alternative alphabet are discarded prior to the padding check.

base64.standard_b64encode(*s*)

Encode string *s* using the standard Base64 alphabet.

base64.standard_b64decode(*s*)

Decode string *s* using the standard Base64 alphabet.

base64.urlsafe_b64encode(*s*)

Encode string *s* using the URL- and filesystem-safe alphabet, which substitutes - instead of + and _ instead of / in the standard Base64 alphabet. The result can still contain =.

base64.urlsafe_b64decode(*s*)

Decode string *s* using the URL- and filesystem-safe alphabet, which substitutes - instead of + and _ instead of / in the standard Base64 alphabet.

base64.b32encode(*s*)

Encode a string using Base32. *s* is the string to encode. The encoded string is returned.

base64.b32decode(*s*[, *casefold*[, *map01*]])

Decode a Base32 encoded string.

s is the string to decode. Optional *casefold* is a flag specifying whether a lowercase alphabet is acceptable as input. For security purposes, the default is `False`.

[RFC 3548](#) allows for optional mapping of the digit 0 (zero) to the letter O (oh), and for optional mapping of the digit 1 (one) to either the letter I (eye) or letter L (el). The optional argument *map01* when not `None`, specifies which letter the digit 1 should be mapped to (when *map01* is not `None`, the digit 0 is always mapped to the letter O). For security purposes the default is `None`, so that 0 and 1 are not allowed in the input.

The decoded string is returned. A `TypeError` is raised if *s* is incorrectly padded or if there are non-alphabet characters present in the string.

base64.b16encode(*s*)

Encode a string using Base16.

s is the string to encode. The encoded string is returned.

base64.b16decode(*s*[, *casefold*])

Decode a Base16 encoded string.

s is the string to decode. Optional *casefold* is a flag specifying whether a lowercase alphabet is acceptable as input. For security purposes, the default is `False`.

The decoded string is returned. A `TypeError` is raised if *s* were incorrectly padded or if there are non-alphabet characters present in the string.

L'interface historique :

`base64.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.

`base64.decodestring(s)`

Decode the string *s*, which must contain one or more lines of base64 encoded data, and return a string containing the resulting binary data.

`base64.encode(input, output)`

Encode the contents of the *input* file and write the resulting base64 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. `encode()` returns the encoded data plus a trailing newline character (`'\n'`).

`base64.encodestring(s)`

Encode the string *s*, which can contain arbitrary binary data, and return a string containing one or more lines of base64-encoded data. `encodestring()` returns a string containing one or more lines of base64-encoded data always including an extra trailing newline (`'\n'`).

Un exemple d'utilisation du module :

```
>>> import base64
>>> encoded = base64.b64encode('data to be encoded')
>>> encoded
'ZGFOYSB0byBiZSB1bmNvZGVk'
>>> data = base64.b64decode(encoded)
>>> data
'data to be encoded'
```

Voir aussi :

Module `binascii` Module secondaire contenant les conversions ASCII vers binaire et binaire vers ASCII.

RFC 1521 - MIME (Multipurpose Internet Mail Extensions) Part One : Mechanisms for Specifying and
Section 5.2, « Base64 Content-Transfer-Encoding, » provides the definition of the base64 encoding.

18.13 binhex — Encode et décode les fichiers *binhex4*

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.

Note : In Python 3.x, special Macintosh support has been removed.

Le module `binhex` définit les fonctions suivantes :

`binhex.binhex(input, output)`

Convertit un fichier binaire avec comme nom *input* en fichier *binhex output*. Le paramètre *output* peut

être soit un nom de fichier, soit un objet s'apparentant à un fichier (tout objet supportant les méthodes `write()` et `close()`).

`binhex.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 omitted in which case the output filename is read from the binhex file.

L'exception suivante est aussi définie :

exception `binhex.Error`

Exception levée quand quelque chose ne peut être encodé en utilisant le format *binhex* (par exemple, un nom de fichier trop long pour rentrer dans le champ *filename*) ou quand les données d'entrée ne sont pas encodées correctement en *binhex*.

Voir aussi :

Module `binascii` Module secondaire contenant les conversions ASCII vers binaire et binaire vers ASCII.

18.13.1 Notes

Il y a une alternative, une interface plus puissante pour le codeur et décodeur, voir les sources pour les détails.

Si vous codez ou décidez sur des plateformes autres que Macintosh, elles utiliseront l'ancienne convention Macintosh pour les retours à la ligne (retour-chariot comme fin de ligne).

As of this writing, `hexbin()` appears to not work in all cases.

18.14 binascii — Convert between binary and ASCII

The `binascii` module contains a number of methods to convert between binary and various ASCII-encoded binary representations. Normally, you will not use these functions directly but use wrapper modules like `uu`, `base64`, or `binhex` instead. The `binascii` module contains low-level functions written in C for greater speed that are used by the higher-level modules.

The `binascii` module defines the following functions :

`binascii.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.

`binascii.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.

`binascii.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.

`binascii.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 newline is added because the original use case for this function was to feed it a series of 57 byte input lines to get output lines that conform to the MIME-base64 standard. Otherwise the output conforms to [RFC 3548](#).

`binascii.a2b_qp(string[, header])`

Convert a block of quoted-printable data back to binary and return the binary data. More than one

line may be passed at a time. If the optional argument *header* is present and true, underscores will be decoded as spaces.

`binascii.b2a_qp(data[, quotetabs, istext, header])`

Convert binary data to a line(s) of ASCII characters in quoted-printable encoding. The return value is the converted line(s). If the optional argument *quotetabs* is present and true, all tabs and spaces will be encoded. If the optional argument *istext* is present and true, newlines are not encoded but trailing whitespace will be encoded. If the optional argument *header* is present and true, spaces will be encoded as underscores per RFC1522. If the optional argument *header* is present and false, newline characters will be encoded as well; otherwise linefeed conversion might corrupt the binary data stream.

`binascii.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.

`binascii.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.

`binascii.rlecode_hqx(data)`

Perform binhex4 style RLE-compression on *data* and return the result.

`binascii.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).

`binascii.crc_hqx(data, crc)`

Compute a 16-bit CRC value of *data*, starting with an initial *crc* and returning the result. This uses the CRC-CCITT polynomial $x^{16} + x^{12} + x^5 + 1$, often represented as 0x1021. This CRC is used in the binhex4 format.

`binascii.crc32(data[, crc])`

Compute CRC-32, the 32-bit checksum of data, starting with an initial *crc*. This is consistent with the ZIP file checksum. Since the algorithm is designed for use as a checksum algorithm, it is not suitable for use as a general hash algorithm. Use as follows :

```
print binascii.crc32("hello world")
# Or, in two pieces:
crc = binascii.crc32("hello")
crc = binascii.crc32(" world", crc) & 0xffffffff
print 'crc32 = 0x%08x' % crc
```

Note : To generate the same numeric value across all Python versions and platforms use `crc32(data) & 0xffffffff`. If you are only using the checksum in packed binary format this is not necessary as the return value is the correct 32bit binary representation regardless of sign.

Modifié dans la version 2.6 : The return value is in the range `[-2**31, 2**31-1]` regardless of platform. In the past the value would be signed on some platforms and unsigned on others. Use `& 0xffffffff` on the value if you want it to match Python 3 behavior.

Modifié dans la version 3.0 : The return value is unsigned and in the range `[0, 2**32-1]` regardless of platform.

`binascii.b2a_hex(data)`

`binascii.hexlify(data)`

Return the hexadecimal representation of the binary *data*. Every byte of *data* is converted into the corresponding 2-digit hex representation. The resulting string is therefore twice as long as the length of *data*.

`binascii.a2b_hex(hexstr)`

`binascii.unhexlify(hexstr)`

Return the binary data represented by the hexadecimal string *hexstr*. This function is the inverse of `b2a_hex()`. *hexstr* must contain an even number of hexadecimal digits (which can be upper or lower case), otherwise a *TypeError* is raised.

exception `binascii.Error`

Exception raised on errors. These are usually programming errors.

exception `binascii.Incomplete`

Exception raised on incomplete data. These are usually not programming errors, but may be handled by reading a little more data and trying again.

Voir aussi :

Module `base64` Support for RFC compliant base64-style encoding in base 16, 32, and 64.

Module `binhex` Support for the binhex format used on the Macintosh.

Module `uu` Gestion de l'encodage UU utilisé sur Unix.

Module `quopri` Support for quoted-printable encoding used in MIME email messages.

18.15 quopri — Encode et décode des données *MIME quoted-printable*

Code source : [Lib/quopri.py](#)

Ce module effectue des encodages et décodages de transport *quoted-printable*, tel que définis dans la **RFC 1521** : « *MIME (Multipurpose Internet Mail Extensions) Part One Mechanisms for Specifying and Describing the Format of Internet Message Bodies* ». L'encodage *quoted-printable* est adapté aux données dans lesquelles peu de données ne sont pas affichables. L'encodage *base64* disponible dans le module `base64` est plus compact dans les cas où ces caractères sont nombreux, typiquement pour encoder des images.

`quopri.decode(input, output[, header])`

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.readline()` returns an empty string. If the optional argument *header* is present and true, underscore will be decoded as space. This is used to decode « Q »-encoded headers as described in **RFC 1522** : « *MIME (Multipurpose Internet Mail Extensions) Part Two : Message Header Extensions for Non-ASCII Text* ».

`quopri.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.readline()` returns an empty string. *quotetabs* is a flag which controls whether to encode embedded spaces and tabs; when true it encodes such embedded whitespace, and when false it leaves them unencoded. Note that spaces and tabs appearing at the end of lines are always encoded, as per **RFC 1521**.

`quopri.decodestring(s[, header])`

Like `decode()`, except that it accepts a source string and returns the corresponding decoded string.

```
quopri.encodestring(s[, quotetabs])
```

Like `encode()`, except that it accepts a source string and returns the corresponding encoded string. `quotetabs` is optional (defaulting to 0), and is passed straight through to `encode()`.

Voir aussi :

Module `mimify` General utilities for processing of MIME messages.

Module `base64` Encode et décode des données MIME en *base64*

18.16 uu — Encode et décode les fichiers *uuencode*

Code source : `Lib/uu.py`

Ce module encode et décode les fichiers au format *uuencode*, permettant à des données binaires d'être transférées lors de connexion ASCII. Pour tous les arguments où un fichier est attendu, les fonctions acceptent un « objet fichier-compatible ». Pour des raisons de compatibilité avec les anciennes versions de Python, une chaîne de caractères contenant un chemin est aussi acceptée, et le fichier correspondant sera ouvert en lecture et écriture ; le chemin '-' est considéré comme l'entrée ou la sortie standard. Cependant cette interface est obsolète ; il vaut mieux que l'appelant ouvre le fichier lui-même, en s'assurant si nécessaire que le mode d'ouverture soit 'rb' ou 'wb' sur Windows.

Ce code provient d'une contribution de Lance Ellinghouse et a été modifié par Jack Jansen.

Le module `uu` définit les fonctions suivantes :

```
uu.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.

```
uu.decode(in_file[, out_file[, mode[, quiet]]])
```

Décode le fichier *in_file* et écrit le résultat dans *out_file*. Si *out_file* est un chemin, *mode* est utilisé pour les permissions du fichier lors de sa création. Les valeurs par défaut pour *out_file* et *mode* sont récupérées des entêtes *uuencode*. Cependant, si le fichier spécifié par les entêtes est déjà existant, une exception `uu.Error` est levée.

La fonction `decode()` écrit un avertissement sur la sortie d'erreur si l'entrée contient des erreurs mais que Python a pu s'en sortir. Mettre *quiet* à *True* empêche l'écriture de cet avertissement.

exception `uu.Error`

Classe fille d'*Exception*, elle peut être levée par `uu.decode()` dans différentes situations, tel que décrit plus haut, mais aussi en cas d'entête mal formatée ou d'entrée tronquée.

Voir aussi :

Module `binascii` Module secondaire contenant les conversions ASCII vers binaire et binaire vers ASCII.

Outils de traitement de balises structurées

Python intègre une variété de modules pour fonctionner avec différentes formes de données structurées et balisées, comme le SGML (*Standard Generalized Markup Language*), le HTML (*Hypert Markup Language*), et quelques interfaces pour travailler avec du XML (*eXtensible Markup Language*).

It is important to note that modules in the `xml` package require that there be at least one SAX-compliant XML parser available. Starting with Python 2.3, the Expat parser is included with Python, so the `xml.parsers.expat` module will always be available. You may still want to be aware of the PyXML add-on package; that package provides an extended set of XML libraries for Python.

La documentation des *bindings* des interfaces DOM et SAX se trouve dans `xml.dom` et `xml.sax`.

19.1 HTMLParser — Simple HTML and XHTML parser

Note : The `HTMLParser` module has been renamed to `html.parser` in Python 3. The `2to3` tool will automatically adapt imports when converting your sources to Python 3.

Nouveau dans la version 2.2.

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

This module defines a class `HTMLParser` which serves as the basis for parsing text files formatted in HTML (HyperText Mark-up Language) and XHTML. Unlike the parser in `htmllib`, this parser is not based on the SGML parser in `sgmlib`.

class HTMLParser.HTMLParser

An `HTMLParser` instance is fed HTML data and calls handler methods when start tags, end tags, text, comments, and other markup elements are encountered. The user should subclass `HTMLParser` and override its methods to implement the desired behavior.

The `HTMLParser` class is instantiated without arguments.

Unlike the parser in `htmllib`, this parser does not check that end tags match start tags or call the end-tag handler for elements which are closed implicitly by closing an outer element.

An exception is defined as well :

exception `HTMLParser.HTMLParseError`

`HTMLParser` is able to handle broken markup, but in some cases it might raise this exception when it encounters an error while parsing. This exception provides three attributes : `msg` is a brief message explaining the error, `lineno` is the number of the line on which the broken construct was detected, and `offset` is the number of characters into the line at which the construct starts.

19.1.1 Example HTML Parser Application

As a basic example, below is a simple HTML parser that uses the `HTMLParser` class to print out start tags, end tags and data as they are encountered :

```
from HTMLParser import HTMLParser

# create a subclass and override the handler methods
class MyHTMLParser(HTMLParser):
    def handle_starttag(self, tag, attrs):
        print "Encountered a start tag:", tag

    def handle_endtag(self, tag):
        print "Encountered an end tag :", tag

    def handle_data(self, data):
        print "Encountered some data  :", data

# instantiate the parser and fed it some HTML
parser = MyHTMLParser()
parser.feed('<html><head><title>Test</title></head>'
          '<body><h1>Parse me!</h1></body></html>')
```

The output will then be :

```
Encountered a start tag: html
Encountered a start tag: head
Encountered a start tag: title
Encountered some data  : Test
Encountered an end tag : title
Encountered an end tag : head
Encountered a start tag: body
Encountered a start tag: h1
Encountered some data  : Parse me!
Encountered an end tag : h1
Encountered an end tag : body
Encountered an end tag : html
```

19.1.2 HTMLParser Methods

`HTMLParser` instances have the following methods :

`HTMLParser.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. `data` can be either `unicode` or `str`, but passing `unicode` is advised.

HTMLParser.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 the *HTMLParser* base class method *close()*.

HTMLParser.reset()

Reset the instance. Loses all unprocessed data. This is called implicitly at instantiation time.

HTMLParser.getpos()

Return current line number and offset.

HTMLParser.get_starttag_text()

Return the text of the most recently opened start tag. This should not normally be needed for structured processing, but may be useful in dealing with HTML « as deployed » or for re-generating input with minimal changes (whitespace between attributes can be preserved, etc.).

The following methods are called when data or markup elements are encountered and they are meant to be overridden in a subclass. The base class implementations do nothing (except for *handle_startendtag()*) :

HTMLParser.handle_starttag(tag, attrs)

This method is called to handle the start of a tag (e.g. `<div id="main">`).

The *tag* argument is the name of the tag converted to lower case. The *attrs* argument is a list of (*name*, *value*) pairs containing the attributes found inside the tag's `<>` brackets. The *name* will be translated to lower case, and quotes in the *value* have been removed, and character and entity references have been replaced.

For instance, for the tag ``, this method would be called as *handle_starttag('a', [('href', 'https://www.cwi.nl/')])*.

Modifié dans la version 2.6 : All entity references from *htmlentitydefs* are now replaced in the attribute values.

HTMLParser.handle_endtag(tag)

This method is called to handle the end tag of an element (e.g. `</div>`).

The *tag* argument is the name of the tag converted to lower case.

HTMLParser.handle_startendtag(tag, attrs)

Similar to *handle_starttag()*, but called when the parser encounters an XHTML-style empty tag (``). This method may be overridden by subclasses which require this particular lexical information; the default implementation simply calls *handle_starttag()* and *handle_endtag()*.

HTMLParser.handle_data(data)

This method is called to process arbitrary data (e.g. text nodes and the content of `<script>...</script>` and `<style>...</style>`).

HTMLParser.handle_entityref(name)

This method is called to process a named character reference of the form `&name;` (e.g. `>`), where *name* is a general entity reference (e.g. `'gt'`).

HTMLParser.handle_charref(name)

This method is called to process decimal and hexadecimal numeric character references of the form `&#NNN;` and `&#xNNN;`. For example, the decimal equivalent for `>` is `>`, whereas the hexadecimal is `>`; in this case the method will receive `'62'` or `'x3E'`.

HTMLParser.handle_comment(data)

This method is called when a comment is encountered (e.g. `<!--comment-->`).

For example, the comment `<!-- comment -->` will cause this method to be called with the argument `' comment '`.

The content of Internet Explorer conditional comments (condcoms) will also be sent to this method, so, for `<!--[if IE 9]>IE9-specific content<![endif]-->`, this method will receive `'[if IE 9]>IE9-specific content<![endif]'`.

`HTMLParser.handle_decl(decl)`

This method is called to handle an HTML doctype declaration (e.g. `<!DOCTYPE html>`).

The *decl* parameter will be the entire contents of the declaration inside the `<![...]>` markup (e.g. `'DOCTYPE html'`).

`HTMLParser.handle_pi(data)`

This method is called when a processing instruction is encountered. The *data* parameter will contain the entire processing instruction. For example, for the processing instruction `<?proc color='red'>`, this method would be called as `handle_pi("proc color='red'")`.

Note : The *HTMLParser* class uses the SGML syntactic rules for processing instructions. An XHTML processing instruction using the trailing `'?'` will cause the `'?'` to be included in *data*.

`HTMLParser.unknown_decl(data)`

This method is called when an unrecognized declaration is read by the parser.

The *data* parameter will be the entire contents of the declaration inside the `<![...]>` markup. It is sometimes useful to be overridden by a derived class.

19.1.3 Exemples

The following class implements a parser that will be used to illustrate more examples :

```
from HTMLParser import HTMLParser
from htmlentitydefs import name2codepoint

class MyHTMLParser(HTMLParser):
    def handle_starttag(self, tag, attrs):
        print "Start tag:", tag
        for attr in attrs:
            print "    attr:", attr

    def handle_endtag(self, tag):
        print "End tag  :", tag

    def handle_data(self, data):
        print "Data      :", data

    def handle_comment(self, data):
        print "Comment  :", data

    def handle_entityref(self, name):
        c = unichr(name2codepoint[name])
        print "Named ent:", c

    def handle_charref(self, name):
        if name.startswith('x'):
            c = unichr(int(name[1:], 16))
        else:
            c = unichr(int(name))
        print "Num ent  :", c

    def handle_decl(self, data):
        print "Decl      :", data
```

(suite sur la page suivante)

(suite de la page précédente)

```
parser = MyHTMLParser()
```

Parsing a doctype :

```
>>> parser.feed('<!DOCTYPE HTML PUBLIC "-//W3C//DTD HTML 4.01//EN" '
...           '"http://www.w3.org/TR/html4/strict.dtd">')
Decl      : DOCTYPE HTML PUBLIC "-//W3C//DTD HTML 4.01//EN" "http://www.w3.org/TR/html4/
↳strict.dtd"
```

Parsing an element with a few attributes and a title :

```
>>> parser.feed('')
Start tag: img
  attr: ('src', 'python-logo.png')
  attr: ('alt', 'The Python logo')
>>>
>>> parser.feed('<h1>Python</h1>')
Start tag: h1
Data      : Python
End tag   : h1
```

The content of `script` and `style` elements is returned as is, without further parsing :

```
>>> parser.feed('<style type="text/css">#python { color: green }</style>')
Start tag: style
  attr: ('type', 'text/css')
Data      : #python { color: green }
End tag   : style

>>> parser.feed('<script type="text/javascript">'
...           'alert("<strong>hello!</strong>");</script>')
Start tag: script
  attr: ('type', 'text/javascript')
Data      : alert("<strong>hello!</strong>");
End tag   : script
```

Parsing comments :

```
>>> parser.feed('<!-- a comment -->'
...           '<!--[if IE 9]>IE-specific content<![endif]-->')
Comment   : a comment
Comment   : [if IE 9]>IE-specific content<![endif]
```

Parsing named and numeric character references and converting them to the correct char (note : these 3 references are all equivalent to '>') :

```
>>> parser.feed('&gt;&#62;&#x3E;')
Named ent: >
Num ent   : >
Num ent   : >
```

Feeding incomplete chunks to `feed()` works, but `handle_data()` might be called more than once :

```
>>> for chunk in ['<sp', 'an>buff', 'ered ', 'text</s', 'pan>']:
...     parser.feed(chunk)
...
Start tag: span
Data      : buff
Data      : ered
Data      : text
End tag   : span
```

Parsing invalid HTML (e.g. unquoted attributes) also works :

```
>>> parser.feed('<p><a class=link href=#main>tag soup</p ></a>')
Start tag: p
Start tag: a
  attr: ('class', 'link')
  attr: ('href', '#main')
Data      : tag soup
End tag   : p
End tag   : a
```

19.2 sgmllib — Simple SGML parser

Obsolète depuis la version 2.6 : The *sgmllib* module has been removed in Python 3.

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 *htmlib* module. Another HTML parser which supports XHTML and offers a somewhat different interface is available in the *HTMLParser* module.

class sgmlib.SGMLParser

The *SGMLParser* class is instantiated without arguments. 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 preceding `--`.

A single exception is defined as well :

exception sgmlib.SGMLParseError

Exception raised by the *SGMLParser* class when it encounters an error while parsing.

Nouveau dans la version 2.1.

SGMLParser instances have the following methods :

SGMLParser.reset()

Reset the instance. Loses all unprocessed data. This is called implicitly at instantiation time.

SGMLParser.setnomoretags()

Stop processing tags. Treat all following input as literal input (CDATA). (This is only provided so the HTML tag `<PLAINTEXT>` can be implemented.)

SGMLParser.setliteral()

Enter literal mode (CDATA mode).

SGMLParser.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.

SGMLParser.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 `close()`.

SGMLParser.get_starttag_text()

Return the text of the most recently opened start tag. This should not normally be needed for structured processing, but may be useful in dealing with HTML « as deployed » or for re-generating input with minimal changes (whitespace between attributes can be preserved, etc.).

SGMLParser.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. Double quotes and backslashes in the *value* have been interpreted, as well as known character references and known entity references terminated by a semi-colon (normally, entity references can be terminated by any non-alphanumeric character, but this would break the very common case of when *eggs* is a valid entity name).

For instance, for the tag , 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.

Nouveau dans la version 2.5 : Handling of entity and character references within attribute values.

SGMLParser.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*.

SGMLParser.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.

SGMLParser.handle_charref(*ref*)

This method is called to process a character reference of the form `&#ref;`. The base implementation uses `convert_charref()` to convert the reference to a string. If that method returns a string, it is passed to `handle_data()`, otherwise `unknown_charref(ref)` is called to handle the error.

Modifié dans la version 2.5 : Use `convert_charref()` instead of hard-coding the conversion.

SGMLParser.convert_charref(*ref*)

Convert a character reference to a string, or `None`. *ref* is the reference passed in as a string. In the base implementation, *ref* must be a decimal number in the range 0–255. It converts the code point found using the `convert_codepoint()` method. If *ref* is invalid or out of range, this method returns `None`. This method is called by the default `handle_charref()` implementation and by the attribute value parser.

Nouveau dans la version 2.5.

SGMLParser.convert_codepoint(*codepoint*)

Convert a code point to a `str` value. Encodings can be handled here if appropriate, though the rest of `sgmlib` is oblivious on this matter.

Nouveau dans la version 2.5.

SGMLParser.handle_entityref(*ref*)

This method is called to process a general entity reference of the form `&ref;` where *ref* is a general entity reference. It converts *ref* by passing it to `convert_entityref()`. If a translation is returned, it calls the method `handle_data()` with the translation; otherwise, it calls the method `unknown_entityref(ref)`. The default `entitydefs` defines translations for `&`, `'`, `>`, `<`, and `"`.

Modifié dans la version 2.5 : Use `convert_entityref()` instead of hard-coding the conversion.

SGMLParser.convert_entityref(*ref*)

Convert a named entity reference to a `str` value, or `None`. The resulting value will not be parsed. *ref* will be only the name of the entity. The default implementation looks for *ref* in the instance (or class) variable `entitydefs` which should be a mapping from entity names to corresponding translations. If no translation is available for *ref*, this method returns `None`. This method is called by the default `handle_entityref()` implementation and by the attribute value parser.

Nouveau dans la version 2.5.

SGMLParser.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.

SGMLParser.handle_decl(*data*)

Method called when an SGML declaration is read by the parser. In practice, the DOCTYPE declaration is the only thing observed in HTML, but the parser does not discriminate among different (or broken) declarations. Internal subsets in a DOCTYPE declaration are not supported. The *data* parameter will be the entire contents of the declaration inside the `<!...>` markup. The default implementation does nothing.

SGMLParser.report_unbalanced(*tag*)

This method is called when an end tag is found which does not correspond to any open element.

SGMLParser.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.

SGMLParser.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.

SGMLParser.unknown_charref(*ref*)

This method is called to process unresolvable numeric character references. Refer to `handle_charref()` to determine what is handled by default. It is intended to be overridden by a derived class; the base class implementation does nothing.

SGMLParser.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 :

SGMLParser.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.

`SGMLParser.do_tag(attributes)`

This method is called to process an opening tag *tag* for which no `start_tag()` method is defined. The *attributes* argument has the same meaning as described for `handle_starttag()` above.

`SGMLParser.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.

19.3 `htmllib` — A parser for HTML documents

Obsolète depuis la version 2.6 : The `htmllib` module has been removed in Python 3. Use `HTMLParser` instead in Python 2, and the equivalent, `html.parser`, in Python 3.

This module defines a class which can serve as a base for parsing text files formatted in the HyperText Markup 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 `sgmlib`. The `HTMLParser` implementation supports the HTML 2.0 language as described in [RFC 1866](#). 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 `sgmlib.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 markup constructs, these are processed immediately; incomplete constructs 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 parser class and an exception :

`class htmllib.HTMLParser(formatter)`

This is the basic HTML parser class. It supports all entity names required by the XHTML 1.0 Recommendation (<https://www.w3.org/TR/xhtml1>). It also defines handlers for all HTML 2.0 and many HTML 3.0 and 3.2 elements.

`exception htmllib.HTMLParseError`

Exception raised by the `HTMLParser` class when it encounters an error while parsing.

Nouveau dans la version 2.4.

Voir aussi :

Module `formatter` Interface definition for transforming an abstract flow of formatting events into specific output events on writer objects.

Module `HTMLParser` Alternate HTML parser that offers a slightly lower-level view of the input, but is designed to work with XHTML, and does not implement some of the SGML syntax not used in « HTML as deployed » and which isn't legal for XHTML.

Module `htmlentitydefs` Definition of replacement text for XHTML 1.0 entities.

Module `sgmllib` Base class for `HTMLParser`.

19.3.1 HTMLParser Objects

In addition to tag methods, the `HTMLParser` class provides some additional methods and instance variables for use within tag methods.

`HTMLParser.formatter`

This is the formatter instance associated with the parser.

`HTMLParser.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()`.

`HTMLParser.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` attribute for `<A>` tags) within the document. The list of hyperlinks is available as the data attribute `anchorlist`.

`HTMLParser.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()`.

`HTMLParser.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.

`HTMLParser.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.

`HTMLParser.save_end()`

Ends buffering character data and returns all data saved since the preceding call to `save_bgn()`. If the `nofill` flag is false, whitespace is collapsed to single spaces. A call to this method without a preceding call to `save_bgn()` will raise a `TypeError` exception.

19.4 htmlentitydefs — Definitions of HTML general entities

Note : The `htmlentitydefs` module has been renamed to `html.entities` in Python 3. The `2to3` tool will automatically adapt imports when converting your sources to Python 3.

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

This module defines three dictionaries, `name2codepoint`, `codepoint2name`, and `entitydefs`. `entitydefs` is used by the `htmllib` module to provide the `entitydefs` attribute of the `HTMLParser` class. The definition

provided here contains all the entities defined by XHTML 1.0 that can be handled using simple textual substitution in the Latin-1 character set (ISO-8859-1).

`htmlentitydefs.entitydefs`

Un dictionnaire qui fait correspondre les définitions d'entités XHTML 1.0 avec leur remplacement en ISO Latin-1.

`htmlentitydefs.name2codepoint`

Un dictionnaire qui fait correspondre les noms d'entités HTML avec les points de code Unicode.
Nouveau dans la version 2.3.

`htmlentitydefs.codepoint2name`

Un dictionnaire qui fait correspondre les points de code Unicode avec les noms d'entités HTML.
Nouveau dans la version 2.3.

19.5 Modules de traitement XML

Les interfaces de Python de traitement de XML sont regroupées dans le paquet `xml`.

Avvertissement : The XML modules are not secure against erroneous or maliciously constructed data. If you need to parse untrusted or unauthenticated data see [Vulnérabilités XML](#).

Il est important de noter que les modules dans le paquet `xml` nécessitent qu'au moins un analyseur compatible SAX soit disponible. L'analyseur Expat est inclus dans Python, ainsi le module `xml.parsers.expat` est toujours disponible.

La documentation des *bindings* des interfaces DOM et SAX se trouve dans `xml.dom` et `xml.sax`.

Les sous-modules de traitement XML sont :

- `xml.etree.ElementTree` : l'API ElementTree, un processeur simple et léger
- `xml.dom` : la définition de l'API DOM
- `xml.dom.minidom` : une implémentation minimale de DOM
- `xml.dom.pulldom` : gestion de la construction partiel des arbres DOM
- `xml.sax` : classes de bases SAX2 base et fonctions utilitaires
- `xml.parsers.expat` : le *binding* de l'analyseur Expat

19.6 Vulnérabilités XML

The XML processing modules are not secure against maliciously constructed data. An attacker can abuse vulnerabilities for e.g. denial of service attacks, to access local files, to generate network connections to other machines, or to circumvent firewalls. The attacks on XML abuse unfamiliar features like inline DTD (document type definition) with entities.

The following table gives an overview of the known attacks and if the various modules are vulnerable to them.

type	sax	etree	minidom	pulldom	xmlrpc
<i>billion laughs</i>	Vulnérable	Vulnérable	Vulnérable	Vulnérable	Vulnérable
<i>quadratic blowup</i>	Vulnérable	Vulnérable	Vulnérable	Vulnérable	Vulnérable
<i>external entity expansion</i>	Vulnérable	Sûr (1)	Sûr (2)	Vulnérable	Sûr (3)
Récupération de DTD	Vulnérable	Sûr	Sûr	Vulnérable	Sûr
<i>decompression bomb</i>	Sûr	Sûr	Sûr	Sûr	Vulnérable

1. `xml.etree.ElementTree` doesn't expand external entities and raises a `ParserError` when an entity occurs.
2. `xml.dom.minidom` n'étend pas les entités externe et renvoie simplement le verbatim de l'entité non étendu.
3. `xmlrpclib` n'étend pas les entités externes et les omet.

billion laughs / exponential entity expansion The [Billion Laughs](#) attack – also known as exponential entity expansion – uses multiple levels of nested entities. Each entity refers to another entity several times, the final entity definition contains a small string. Eventually the small string is expanded to several gigabytes. The exponential expansion consumes lots of CPU time, too.

quadratic blowup entity expansion A quadratic blowup attack is similar to a [Billion Laughs](#) attack ; it abuses entity expansion, too. Instead of nested entities it repeats one large entity with a couple of thousand chars over and over again. The attack isn't as efficient as the exponential case but it avoids triggering countermeasures of parsers against heavily nested entities.

external entity expansion Entity declarations can contain more than just text for replacement. They can also point to external resources by public identifiers or system identifiers. System identifiers are standard URIs or can refer to local files. The XML parser retrieves the resource with e.g. HTTP or FTP requests and embeds the content into the XML document.

Récupération de DTD Certaines bibliothèques XML comme `xml.dom.pulldom` de Python récupère les documents de définitions de types (DTD) depuis des emplacements distants ou locaux. La fonctionnalité a des implications similaires que le problème d'extension d'entités externes.

decompression bomb The issue of decompression bombs (aka [ZIP bomb](#)) apply to all XML libraries that can parse compressed XML stream like gzipped HTTP streams or LZMA-ed files. For an attacker it can reduce the amount of transmitted data by three magnitudes or more.

The documentation of [defusedxml](#) on PyPI has further information about all known attack vectors with examples and references.

19.6.1 defused packages

These external packages are recommended for any code that parses untrusted XML data.

[defusedxml](#) is a pure Python package with modified subclasses of all stdlib XML parsers that prevent any potentially malicious operation. The package also ships with example exploits and extended documentation on more XML exploits like xpath injection.

[defusedexpat](#) provides a modified libexpat and patched replacement `pyexpat` extension module with countermeasures against entity expansion DoS attacks. Defusedexpat still allows a sane and configurable amount of entity expansions. The modifications will be merged into future releases of Python.

The workarounds and modifications are not included in patch releases as they break backward compatibility. After all inline DTD and entity expansion are well-defined XML features.

19.7 `xml.etree.ElementTree` — The `ElementTree` XML API

Nouveau dans la version 2.5.

Source code : [Lib/xml/etree/ElementTree.py](#)

The `Element` type is a flexible container object, designed to store hierarchical data structures in memory. The type can be described as a cross between a list and a dictionary.

Avertissement : The `xml.etree.ElementTree` module is not secure against maliciously constructed data. If you need to parse untrusted or unauthenticated data see *Vulnérabilités XML*.

Each element has a number of properties associated with it :

- a tag which is a string identifying what kind of data this element represents (the element type, in other words).
- a number of attributes, stored in a Python dictionary.
- a text string.
- an optional tail string.
- a number of child elements, stored in a Python sequence

To create an element instance, use the `Element` constructor or the `SubElement()` factory function.

The `ElementTree` class can be used to wrap an element structure, and convert it from and to XML.

A C implementation of this API is available as `xml.etree.cElementTree`.

See <http://effbot.org/zone/element-index.htm> for tutorials and links to other docs. Fredrik Lundh's page is also the location of the development version of the `xml.etree.ElementTree`.

Modifié dans la version 2.7 : The `ElementTree` API is updated to 1.3. For more information, see [Introducing ElementTree 1.3](#).

19.7.1 Tutoriel

This is a short tutorial for using `xml.etree.ElementTree` (ET in short). The goal is to demonstrate some of the building blocks and basic concepts of the module.

XML tree and elements

XML is an inherently hierarchical data format, and the most natural way to represent it is with a tree. ET has two classes for this purpose - `ElementTree` represents the whole XML document as a tree, and `Element` represents a single node in this tree. Interactions with the whole document (reading and writing to/from files) are usually done on the `ElementTree` level. Interactions with a single XML element and its sub-elements are done on the `Element` level.

Parsing XML

We'll be using the following XML document as the sample data for this section :

```
<?xml version="1.0"?>
<data>
  <country name="Liechtenstein">
    <rank>1</rank>
    <year>2008</year>
    <gdppc>141100</gdppc>
    <neighbor name="Austria" direction="E"/>
    <neighbor name="Switzerland" direction="W"/>
  </country>
  <country name="Singapore">
    <rank>4</rank>
    <year>2011</year>
    <gdppc>59900</gdppc>
    <neighbor name="Malaysia" direction="N"/>
  </country>
  <country name="Panama">
```

(suite sur la page suivante)

(suite de la page précédente)

```

    <rank>68</rank>
    <year>2011</year>
    <gdppc>13600</gdppc>
    <neighbor name="Costa Rica" direction="W"/>
    <neighbor name="Colombia" direction="E"/>
  </country>
</data>

```

We have a number of ways to import the data. Reading the file from disk :

```

import xml.etree.ElementTree as ET
tree = ET.parse('country_data.xml')
root = tree.getroot()

```

Reading the data from a string :

```

root = ET.fromstring(country_data_as_string)

```

fromstring() parses XML from a string directly into an *Element*, which is the root element of the parsed tree. Other parsing functions may create an *ElementTree*. Check the documentation to be sure.

As an *Element*, root has a tag and a dictionary of attributes :

```

>>> root.tag
'data'
>>> root.attrib
{}

```

It also has children nodes over which we can iterate :

```

>>> for child in root:
...     print child.tag, child.attrib
...
country {'name': 'Liechtenstein'}
country {'name': 'Singapore'}
country {'name': 'Panama'}

```

Children are nested, and we can access specific child nodes by index :

```

>>> root[0][1].text
'2008'

```

Finding interesting elements

Element has some useful methods that help iterate recursively over all the sub-tree below it (its children, their children, and so on). For example, *Element.iter()* :

```

>>> for neighbor in root.iter('neighbor'):
...     print neighbor.attrib
...
{'name': 'Austria', 'direction': 'E'}
{'name': 'Switzerland', 'direction': 'W'}
{'name': 'Malaysia', 'direction': 'N'}

```

(suite sur la page suivante)

(suite de la page précédente)

```
{'name': 'Costa Rica', 'direction': 'W'}
{'name': 'Colombia', 'direction': 'E'}
```

Element.findall() finds only elements with a tag which are direct children of the current element. *Element.find()* finds the *first* child with a particular tag, and *Element.text* accesses the element's text content. *Element.get()* accesses the element's attributes :

```
>>> for country in root.findall('country'):
...     rank = country.find('rank').text
...     name = country.get('name')
...     print name, rank
...
Liechtenstein 1
Singapore 4
Panama 68
```

More sophisticated specification of which elements to look for is possible by using *XPath*.

Modifying an XML File

ElementTree provides a simple way to build XML documents and write them to files. The *ElementTree.write()* method serves this purpose.

Once created, an *Element* object may be manipulated by directly changing its fields (such as *Element.text*), adding and modifying attributes (*Element.set()* method), as well as adding new children (for example with *Element.append()*).

Let's say we want to add one to each country's rank, and add an *updated* attribute to the rank element :

```
>>> for rank in root.iter('rank'):
...     new_rank = int(rank.text) + 1
...     rank.text = str(new_rank)
...     rank.set('updated', 'yes')
...
>>> tree.write('output.xml')
```

Our XML now looks like this :

```
<?xml version="1.0"?>
<data>
  <country name="Liechtenstein">
    <rank updated="yes">2</rank>
    <year>2008</year>
    <gdppc>141100</gdppc>
    <neighbor name="Austria" direction="E"/>
    <neighbor name="Switzerland" direction="W"/>
  </country>
  <country name="Singapore">
    <rank updated="yes">5</rank>
    <year>2011</year>
    <gdppc>59900</gdppc>
    <neighbor name="Malaysia" direction="N"/>
  </country>
  <country name="Panama">
```

(suite sur la page suivante)

(suite de la page précédente)

```

    <rank updated="yes">69</rank>
    <year>2011</year>
    <gdppc>13600</gdppc>
    <neighbor name="Costa Rica" direction="W"/>
    <neighbor name="Colombia" direction="E"/>
  </country>
</data>

```

We can remove elements using `Element.remove()`. Let's say we want to remove all countries with a rank higher than 50 :

```

>>> for country in root.findall('country'):
...     rank = int(country.find('rank').text)
...     if rank > 50:
...         root.remove(country)
...
>>> tree.write('output.xml')

```

Our XML now looks like this :

```

<?xml version="1.0"?>
<data>
  <country name="Liechtenstein">
    <rank updated="yes">2</rank>
    <year>2008</year>
    <gdppc>141100</gdppc>
    <neighbor name="Austria" direction="E"/>
    <neighbor name="Switzerland" direction="W"/>
  </country>
  <country name="Singapore">
    <rank updated="yes">5</rank>
    <year>2011</year>
    <gdppc>59900</gdppc>
    <neighbor name="Malaysia" direction="N"/>
  </country>
</data>

```

Building XML documents

The `SubElement()` function also provides a convenient way to create new sub-elements for a given element :

```

>>> a = ET.Element('a')
>>> b = ET.SubElement(a, 'b')
>>> c = ET.SubElement(a, 'c')
>>> d = ET.SubElement(c, 'd')
>>> ET.dump(a)
<a><b /><c><d /></c></a>

```

Parsing XML with Namespaces

If the XML input has `namespaces`, tags and attributes with prefixes in the form `prefix:sometag` get expanded to `{uri}sometag` where the `prefix` is replaced by the full `URI`. Also, if there is a `default namespace`, that full URI gets prepended to all of the non-prefixed tags.

Here is an XML example that incorporates two namespaces, one with the prefix « fictional » and the other serving as the default namespace :

```
<?xml version="1.0"?>
<actors xmlns:fictional="http://characters.example.com"
        xmlns="http://people.example.com">
  <actor>
    <name>John Cleese</name>
    <fictional:character>Lancelot</fictional:character>
    <fictional:character>Archie Leach</fictional:character>
  </actor>
  <actor>
    <name>Eric Idle</name>
    <fictional:character>Sir Robin</fictional:character>
    <fictional:character>Gunther</fictional:character>
    <fictional:character>Commander Clement</fictional:character>
  </actor>
</actors>
```

One way to search and explore this XML example is to manually add the URI to every tag or attribute in the xpath of a *find()* or *findall()* :

```
root = fromstring(xml_text)
for actor in root.findall('{http://people.example.com}actor'):
    name = actor.find('{http://people.example.com}name')
    print name.text
    for char in actor.findall('{http://characters.example.com}character'):
        print ' |-->', char.text
```

A better way to search the namespaced XML example is to create a dictionary with your own prefixes and use those in the search functions :

```
ns = {'real_person': 'http://people.example.com',
      'role': 'http://characters.example.com'}

for actor in root.findall('real_person:actor', ns):
    name = actor.find('real_person:name', ns)
    print name.text
    for char in actor.findall('role:character', ns):
        print ' |-->', char.text
```

These two approaches both output :

```
John Cleese
 |--> Lancelot
 |--> Archie Leach
Eric Idle
 |--> Sir Robin
 |--> Gunther
 |--> Commander Clement
```

Additional resources

See <http://effbot.org/zone/element-index.htm> for tutorials and links to other docs.

19.7.2 XPath support

This module provides limited support for [XPath expressions](#) for locating elements in a tree. The goal is to support a small subset of the abbreviated syntax; a full XPath engine is outside the scope of the module.

Exemple

Here's an example that demonstrates some of the XPath capabilities of the module. We'll be using the `countrydata` XML document from the *Parsing XML* section :

```
import xml.etree.ElementTree as ET

root = ET.fromstring(countrydata)

# Top-level elements
root.findall(".")

# All 'neighbor' grand-children of 'country' children of the top-level
# elements
root.findall("./country/neighbor")

# Nodes with name='Singapore' that have a 'year' child
root.findall("./year/..[@name='Singapore']")

# 'year' nodes that are children of nodes with name='Singapore'
root.findall("./*[@name='Singapore']/year")

# All 'neighbor' nodes that are the second child of their parent
root.findall("./neighbor[2]")
```

Supported XPath syntax

Syntax	Signification
<code>tag</code>	Selects all child elements with the given tag. For example, <code>spam</code> selects all child elements named <code>spam</code> , and <code>spam/egg</code> selects all grandchildren named <code>egg</code> in all children named <code>spam</code> .
<code>*</code>	Selects all child elements. For example, <code>*/egg</code> selects all grandchildren named <code>egg</code> .
<code>.</code>	Selects the current node. This is mostly useful at the beginning of the path, to indicate that it's a relative path.
<code>//</code>	Selects all subelements, on all levels beneath the current element. For example, <code>./egg</code> selects all <code>egg</code> elements in the entire tree.
<code>..</code>	Selects the parent element.
<code>[@attrib]</code>	Selects all elements that have the given attribute.
<code>[@attrib='value']</code>	Selects all elements for which the given attribute has the given value. The value cannot contain quotes.
<code>[tag]</code>	Selects all elements that have a child named <code>tag</code> . Only immediate children are supported.
<code>[tag='text']</code>	Selects all elements that have a child named <code>tag</code> whose complete text content, including descendants, equals the given <code>text</code> .
<code>[position]</code>	Selects all elements that are located at the given position. The position can be either an integer (1 is the first position), the expression <code>last()</code> (for the last position), or a position relative to the last position (e.g. <code>last()-1</code>).

Predicates (expressions within square brackets) must be preceded by a tag name, an asterisk, or another predicate. `position` predicates must be preceded by a tag name.

19.7.3 Reference

Fonctions

`xml.etree.ElementTree.Comment(text=None)`

Comment element factory. This factory function creates a special element that will be serialized as an XML comment by the standard serializer. The comment string can be either a bytestring or a Unicode string. *text* is a string containing the comment string. Returns an element instance representing a comment.

`xml.etree.ElementTree.dump(elem)`

Writes an element tree or element structure to `sys.stdout`. This function should be used for debugging only.

The exact output format is implementation dependent. In this version, it's written as an ordinary XML file.

elem is an element tree or an individual element.

`xml.etree.ElementTree.fromstring(text)`

Parses an XML section from a string constant. Same as `XML()`. *text* is a string containing XML data. Returns an *Element* instance.

`xml.etree.ElementTree.fromstringlist(sequence, parser=None)`

Parses an XML document from a sequence of string fragments. *sequence* is a list or other sequence containing XML data fragments. *parser* is an optional parser instance. If not given, the standard *XMLParser* parser is used. Returns an *Element* instance.

Nouveau dans la version 2.7.

`xml.etree.ElementTree.iselement(element)`

Checks if an object appears to be a valid element object. *element* is an element instance. Returns a true value if this is an element object.

`xml.etree.ElementTree.iterparse(source, events=None, parser=None)`

Parses an XML section into an element tree incrementally, and reports what's going on to the user. *source* is a filename or file object containing XML data. *events* is a list of events to report back. If omitted, only « end » events are reported. *parser* is an optional parser instance. If not given, the standard *XMLParser* parser is used. *parser* is not supported by *cElementTree*. Returns an *iterator* providing (*event*, *elem*) pairs.

Note : *iterparse()* only guarantees that it has seen the « > » character of a starting tag when it emits a « start » event, so the attributes are defined, but the contents of the text and tail attributes are undefined at that point. The same applies to the element children; they may or may not be present. If you need a fully populated element, look for « end » events instead.

`xml.etree.ElementTree.parse(source, parser=None)`

Parses an XML section into an element tree. *source* is a filename or file object containing XML data. *parser* is an optional parser instance. If not given, the standard *XMLParser* parser is used. Returns an *ElementTree* instance.

`xml.etree.ElementTree.ProcessingInstruction(target, text=None)`

PI element factory. This factory function creates a special element that will be serialized as an XML processing instruction. *target* is a string containing the PI target. *text* is a string containing the PI contents, if given. Returns an element instance, representing a processing instruction.

`xml.etree.ElementTree.register_namespace(prefix, uri)`

Registers a namespace prefix. The registry is global, and any existing mapping for either the given prefix or the namespace URI will be removed. *prefix* is a namespace prefix. *uri* is a namespace uri. Tags and attributes in this namespace will be serialized with the given prefix, if at all possible.

Nouveau dans la version 2.7.

`xml.etree.ElementTree.SubElement(parent, tag, attrib={}, **extra)`

Subelement factory. This function creates an element instance, and appends it to an existing element. The element name, attribute names, and attribute values can be either bytestrings or Unicode strings. *parent* is the parent element. *tag* is the subelement name. *attrib* is an optional dictionary, containing element attributes. *extra* contains additional attributes, given as keyword arguments. Returns an element instance.

`xml.etree.ElementTree.tostring(element, encoding="us-ascii", method="xml")`

Generates a string representation of an XML element, including all subelements. *element* is an *Element* instance. *encoding*¹ is the output encoding (default is US-ASCII). *method* is either "xml", "html" or "text" (default is "xml"). Returns an encoded string containing the XML data.

`xml.etree.ElementTree.tostringlist(element, encoding="us-ascii", method="xml")`

Generates a string representation of an XML element, including all subelements. *element* is an *Element* instance. *encoding*¹ is the output encoding (default is US-ASCII). *method* is either "xml", "html" or "text" (default is "xml"). Returns a list of encoded strings containing the XML data. It does not guarantee any specific sequence, except that `"".join(tostringlist(element)) == tostring(element)`.

Nouveau dans la version 2.7.

`xml.etree.ElementTree.XML(text, parser=None)`

Parses an XML section from a string constant. This function can be used to embed « XML literals » in Python code. *text* is a string containing XML data. *parser* is an optional parser instance. If not given, the standard *XMLParser* parser is used. Returns an *Element* instance.

`xml.etree.ElementTree.XMLID(text, parser=None)`

Parses an XML section from a string constant, and also returns a dictionary which maps from element id :s to elements. *text* is a string containing XML data. *parser* is an optional parser instance. If not given, the standard *XMLParser* parser is used. Returns a tuple containing an *Element* instance and a dictionary.

Objets Elements

`class xml.etree.ElementTree.Element(tag, attrib={}, **extra)`

Element class. This class defines the Element interface, and provides a reference implementation of this interface.

The element name, attribute names, and attribute values can be either bytestrings or Unicode strings. *tag* is the element name. *attrib* is an optional dictionary, containing element attributes. *extra* contains additional attributes, given as keyword arguments.

tag

A string identifying what kind of data this element represents (the element type, in other words).

text

tail

These attributes can be used to hold additional data associated with the element. Their values are usually strings but may be any application-specific object. If the element is created from an XML file, the *text* attribute holds either the text between the element's start tag and its first child

1. The encoding string included in XML output should conform to the appropriate standards. For example, « UTF-8 » is valid, but « UTF8 » is not. See <https://www.w3.org/TR/2006/REC-xml11-20060816/#NT-EncodingDecl> and <https://www.iana.org/assignments/character-sets/character-sets.xhtml>.

or end tag, or `None`, and the *tail* attribute holds either the text between the element's end tag and the next tag, or `None`. For the XML data

```
<a><b>1<c>2<d/>3</c></b>4</a>
```

the *a* element has `None` for both *text* and *tail* attributes, the *b* element has *text* "1" and *tail* "4", the *c* element has *text* "2" and *tail* `None`, and the *d* element has *text* `None` and *tail* "3".

To collect the inner text of an element, see `itertext()`, for example `".join(element.itertext())`.

Applications may store arbitrary objects in these attributes.

attrib

A dictionary containing the element's attributes. Note that while the *attrib* value is always a real mutable Python dictionary, an `ElementTree` implementation may choose to use another internal representation, and create the dictionary only if someone asks for it. To take advantage of such implementations, use the dictionary methods below whenever possible.

The following dictionary-like methods work on the element attributes.

clear()

Resets an element. This function removes all subelements, clears all attributes, and sets the text and tail attributes to `None`.

get(key, default=None)

Gets the element attribute named *key*.

Returns the attribute value, or *default* if the attribute was not found.

items()

Returns the element attributes as a sequence of (name, value) pairs. The attributes are returned in an arbitrary order.

keys()

Returns the elements attribute names as a list. The names are returned in an arbitrary order.

set(key, value)

Set the attribute *key* on the element to *value*.

The following methods work on the element's children (subelements).

append(subelement)

Adds the element *subelement* to the end of this elements internal list of subelements.

extend(subelements)

Appends *subelements* from a sequence object with zero or more elements. Raises `AssertionError` if a subelement is not a valid object.

Nouveau dans la version 2.7.

find(match)

Finds the first subelement matching *match*. *match* may be a tag name or path. Returns an element instance or `None`.

findall(match)

Finds all matching subelements, by tag name or path. Returns a list containing all matching elements in document order.

findtext(match, default=None)

Finds text for the first subelement matching *match*. *match* may be a tag name or path. Returns the text content of the first matching element, or *default* if no element was found. Note that if the matching element has no text content an empty string is returned.

getchildren()

Obsolète depuis la version 2.7 : Use `list(elem)` or iteration.

getiterator(tag=None)

Obsolète depuis la version 2.7 : Use method `Element.iter()` instead.

insert(index, element)

Inserts a subelement at the given position in this element.

iter(tag=None)

Creates a tree *iterator* with the current element as the root. The iterator iterates over this element and all elements below it, in document (depth first) order. If *tag* is not `None` or `'*'`, only elements whose tag equals *tag* are returned from the iterator. If the tree structure is modified during iteration, the result is undefined.

Nouveau dans la version 2.7.

iterfind(match)

Finds all matching subelements, by tag name or path. Returns an iterable yielding all matching elements in document order.

Nouveau dans la version 2.7.

itertext()

Creates a text iterator. The iterator loops over this element and all subelements, in document order, and returns all inner text.

Nouveau dans la version 2.7.

makeelement(tag, attrib)

Creates a new element object of the same type as this element. Do not call this method, use the *SubElement()* factory function instead.

remove(subelement)

Removes *subelement* from the element. Unlike the *find** methods this method compares elements based on the instance identity, not on tag value or contents.

Element objects also support the following sequence type methods for working with subelements : *__delitem__()*, *__getitem__()*, *__setitem__()*, *__len__()*.

Caution : Elements with no subelements will test as `False`. This behavior will change in future versions. Use specific `len(elem)` or `elem is None` test instead.

```
element = root.find('foo')

if not element: # careful!
    print "element not found, or element has no subelements"

if element is None:
    print "element not found"
```

ElementTree Objects

class xml.etree.ElementTree.ElementTree(element=None, file=None)

ElementTree wrapper class. This class represents an entire element hierarchy, and adds some extra support for serialization to and from standard XML.

element is the root element. The tree is initialized with the contents of the XML *file* if given.

_setroot(element)

Replaces the root element for this tree. This discards the current contents of the tree, and replaces it with the given element. Use with care. *element* is an element instance.

find(match)

Same as *Element.find()*, starting at the root of the tree.

findall(match)

Same as *Element.findall()*, starting at the root of the tree.

findtext(match, default=None)

Same as *Element.findtext()*, starting at the root of the tree.

getiterator(tag=None)

Obsolète depuis la version 2.7 : Use method *ElementTree.iter()* instead.

getroot()

Returns the root element for this tree.

iter(*tag=None*)
Creates and returns a tree iterator for the root element. The iterator loops over all elements in this tree, in section order. *tag* is the tag to look for (default is to return all elements).

iterfind(*match*)
Finds all matching subelements, by tag name or path. Same as `getroot().iterfind(match)`. Returns an iterable yielding all matching elements in document order.
Nouveau dans la version 2.7.

parse(*source, parser=None*)
Loads an external XML section into this element tree. *source* is a file name or file object. *parser* is an optional parser instance. If not given, the standard XMLParser parser is used. Returns the section root element.

write(*file, encoding="us-ascii", xml_declaration=None, default_namespace=None, method="xml"*)
Writes the element tree to a file, as XML. *file* is a file name, or a file object opened for writing. *encoding*¹ is the output encoding (default is US-ASCII). *xml_declaration* controls if an XML declaration should be added to the file. Use **False** for never, **True** for always, **None** for only if not US-ASCII or UTF-8 (default is **None**). *default_namespace* sets the default XML namespace (for « xmlns »). *method* is either "xml", "html" or "text" (default is "xml"). Returns an encoded string.

This is the XML file that is going to be manipulated :

```
<html>
  <head>
    <title>Example page</title>
  </head>
  <body>
    <p>Moved to <a href="http://example.org/">example.org</a>
    or <a href="http://example.com/">example.com</a>.</p>
  </body>
</html>
```

Example of changing the attribute « target » of every link in first paragraph :

```
>>> from xml.etree.ElementTree import ElementTree
>>> tree = ElementTree()
>>> tree.parse("index.xhtml")
<Element 'html' at 0xb77e6fac>
>>> p = tree.find("body/p")      # Finds first occurrence of tag p in body
>>> p
<Element 'p' at 0xb77ec26c>
>>> links = list(p.iter("a"))    # Returns list of all links
>>> links
[<Element 'a' at 0xb77ec2ac>, <Element 'a' at 0xb77ec1cc>]
>>> for i in links:              # Iterates through all found links
...     i.attrib["target"] = "blank"
...
>>> tree.write("output.xhtml")
```

QName Objects

class xml.etree.ElementTree.QName(*text_or_uri, tag=None*)
QName wrapper. This can be used to wrap a QName attribute value, in order to get proper namespace handling on output. *text_or_uri* is a string containing the QName value, in the form {uri}local, or, if

the *tag* argument is given, the URI part of a QName. If *tag* is given, the first argument is interpreted as a URI, and this argument is interpreted as a local name. *QName* instances are opaque.

TreeBuilder Objects

class `xml.etree.ElementTree.TreeBuilder`(*element_factory=None*)

Generic element structure builder. This builder converts a sequence of start, data, and end method calls to a well-formed element structure. You can use this class to build an element structure using a custom XML parser, or a parser for some other XML-like format. The *element_factory* is called to create new *Element* instances when given.

close()

Flushes the builder buffers, and returns the toplevel document element. Returns an *Element* instance.

data(*data*)

Adds text to the current element. *data* is a string. This should be either a bytestring, or a Unicode string.

end(*tag*)

Closes the current element. *tag* is the element name. Returns the closed element.

start(*tag, attrs*)

Opens a new element. *tag* is the element name. *attrs* is a dictionary containing element attributes. Returns the opened element.

In addition, a custom *TreeBuilder* object can provide the following method :

doctype(*name, pubid, system*)

Handles a doctype declaration. *name* is the doctype name. *pubid* is the public identifier. *system* is the system identifier. This method does not exist on the default *TreeBuilder* class.

Nouveau dans la version 2.7.

XMLParser Objects

class `xml.etree.ElementTree.XMLParser`(*html=0, target=None, encoding=None*)

Element structure builder for XML source data, based on the expat parser. *html* are predefined HTML entities. This flag is not supported by the current implementation. *target* is the target object. If omitted, the builder uses an instance of the standard *TreeBuilder* class. *encoding*¹ is optional. If given, the value overrides the encoding specified in the XML file.

close()

Finishes feeding data to the parser. Returns an element structure.

doctype(*name, pubid, system*)

Obsolète depuis la version 2.7 : Define the *TreeBuilder.doctype()* method on a custom *TreeBuilder* target.

feed(*data*)

Feeds data to the parser. *data* is encoded data.

XMLParser.feed() calls *target*'s *start()* method for each opening tag, its *end()* method for each closing tag, and data is processed by method *data()*. *XMLParser.close()* calls *target*'s method *close()*. *XMLParser* can be used not only for building a tree structure. This is an example of counting the maximum depth of an XML file :

```
>>> from xml.etree.ElementTree import XMLParser
>>> class MaxDepth:                                # The target object of the parser
...     maxDepth = 0
...     depth = 0
...     def start(self, tag, attrib):               # Called for each opening tag.
...         self.depth += 1
```

(suite sur la page suivante)

(suite de la page précédente)

```

...         if self.depth > self.maxDepth:
...             self.maxDepth = self.depth
...     def end(self, tag):          # Called for each closing tag.
...         self.depth -= 1
...     def data(self, data):
...         pass                   # We do not need to do anything with data.
...     def close(self):            # Called when all data has been parsed.
...         return self.maxDepth
...
>>> target = MaxDepth()
>>> parser = XMLParser(target=target)
>>> exampleXml = """
... <a>
...   <b>
...   </b>
...   <b>
...     <c>
...     <d>
...     </d>
...     </c>
...   </b>
... </a>"""
>>> parser.feed(exampleXml)
>>> parser.close()
4

```

Notes

19.8 xml.dom — L'API Document Object Model

Nouveau dans la version 2.0.

Le Document Object Model, ou « DOM, » est une API inter-langage du World Wide Web Consortium (*W3C*) pour accéder et modifier les documents XML. Une implémentation DOM présente le document XML comme un arbre ou autorise le code client à construire une telle structure depuis zéro. Il permet alors d'accéder à la structure à l'aide d'un ensemble d'objet qui fournissent des interfaces bien connues.

Le DOM est extrêmement utile pour les applications à accès aléatoire. SAX ne vous permet de visualiser qu'un seul morceau du document à la fois. Si vous regardez un élément SAX, vous n'avez pas accès à un autre. Si vous regardez un nœud de texte, vous n'avez pas accès à un élément parent. Lorsque vous écrivez une application SAX, vous devez suivre la position de votre programme dans le document quelque part dans votre propre code. SAX ne le fait pas pour vous. De plus, si vous devez examiner un nœud plus loin dans le document XML, vous n'avez pas de chance.

Il est tout simplement impossible d'implémenter certains algorithmes avec un modèle événementiel, sans un accès à un arbre. Bien sûr, vous pourriez construire vous même un arbre à partir des événements SAX mais DOM vous permet d'éviter d'écrire ce code. Le DOM est représentation standard en arbre pour des données XML.

Le DOM (Document Object Model) est défini par le *W3C* en étapes ou « *levels* » (niveaux) selon leur terminologie. Le couplage de l'API de Python est essentiellement basée sur la recommandation DOM Level 2.

Typiquement, les applications DOM commencent par analyser du XML dans du DOM. Comment cela doit

être exposé n'est absolument pas décrit par DOM Level 1 et Level 2 ne fournit que des améliorations limitées. Il existe une classe `DOMImplementation` qui fournit un accès à des méthodes de création de `Document` mais il n'y a pas de moyen d'accéder à un lecteur/analyseur/constructeur de *document* de façon indépendante de l'implémentation. Il n'est pas également très bien définis comment accéder à ces méthodes sans un objet `Document`. En Python, chaque implémentation fournira une fonction `getDOMImplementation()`. DOM Level 3 ajoute une spécification *Load/Store* (charge/stocke) qui définit une interface pour le lecteur mais qui n'est pas disponible dans la bibliothèque standard de Python.

Une fois que vous avez un objet document DOM, vous pouvez accéder aux parties de votre document XML à travers ses méthodes et propriétés. Ces propriétés sont définies dans les spécifications DOM; cette portion du manuel de références décrit l'interprétation des ces spécifications en Python.

Les spécifications fournies par le *W3C* définissent les API DOM pour Java, ECMAScript, et OMG IDL. Les correspondances de Python définies ici sont basées pour une grande part sur la version IDL de la spécification mais une conformité stricte n'est pas requise (bien que ces implémentations soient libre d'implémenter le support strict des correspondances de IDL). Voir la section *Conformité* pour une discussion détaillée des pré-requis des correspondances.

Voir aussi :

Spécification Level 2 Document Object Model (DOM) La recommandation *W3C* sur laquelle l'API DOM de Python est basée.

Spécification Level 1 Document Object Model (DOM) La recommandation du *W3C* pour le DOM supporté par `xml.dom.minidom`.

Python Language Mapping Specification Ceci spécifie les correspondances depuis OMG IDL vers Python.

19.8.1 Contenu du module

Le `xml.dom` contient les fonctions suivantes :

`xml.dom.registerDOMImplementation(name, factory)`

Enregistre la fonction *factory* avec le nom *name*. La fonction *factory* doit renvoyer un objet qui implémente l'interface de `DOMImplementation`. La fonction *factory* peut renvoyer le même objet à chaque fois ou un nouveau à chaque appel en accord avec les spécificités de l'implémentation (Par exemple si l'implémentation supporte certaines personnalisations).

`xml.dom.getDOMImplementation([name[, features]])`

Renvoie une implémentation DOM appropriée. Le *name* est soit connu, soit le nom du module d'une implémentation DOM, soit `None`. Si ce n'est pas `None`, le module correspondant est importé et retourne un objet `DOMImplementation` si l'import réussit. Si Aucun *name* n'est donné et que la variable d'environnement `PYTHON_DOM` est positionnée, cette variable est utilisé pour trouver l'implémentation. Si *name* n'est pas donné, la fonction examine les implémentations disponibles pour en trouver une avec l'ensemble des fonctionnalités requises. Si aucune implémentation n'est trouvée, une *ImportError* est levée. La liste de fonctionnalité doit être une séquence de paires (*feature*, *version*) qui est passée à la méthode `hasFeature()` disponible dans les objets `DOMImplementation`.

Quelques constantes pratiques sont également fournies :

`xml.dom.EMPTY_NAMESPACE`

La valeur utilisée pour indiquer qu'aucun espace de nom n'est associé à un nœud dans le DOM. Typiquement, ceci est trouvé comme `namespaceURI` dans un nœud ou utilisé comme le paramètre *namespaceURI* dans une méthode spécifique aux espaces de nom. Nouveau dans la version 2.2.

`xml.dom.XML_NAMESPACE`

L'URI de l'espace de nom associé avec le préfixe réservé `xml` comme défini par *Namespaces in XML* (section 4).

Nouveau dans la version 2.2.

`xml.dom.XMLNS_NAMESPACE`

L'URI de l'espace de nom pour la déclaration des espaces de noms, tel que défini par [Document Object Model \(DOM\) Level 2 Core Specification](#) (section 1.1.8).

Nouveau dans la version 2.2.

`xml.dom.XHTML_NAMESPACE`

L'URI de l'espace de nom XHTML tel que défini par [XHTML 1.0 : The Extensible HyperText Markup Language](#) (section 3.1.1).

Nouveau dans la version 2.2.

Par ailleurs, `xml.dom` contient une classe de base `Node` et les exceptions de DOM. La classe `Node` fournie par ce module n'implémente aucune des méthodes ou des attributs définis par les spécifications DOM ; les implémentations concrètes des DOM doivent fournir les informations suivantes. La classe `Node` fournie part ce modules fournit les constantes utilisées pour l'attribut `nodeType` pour des objets concrets `Node` ; ils sont situés dans les classes plutôt qu'au niveau du module en accord avec les spécifications DOM.

19.8.2 Objets dans le DOM

La documentation finale pour le DOM est la spécification DOM du *W3C*.

Notez que les attributs DOM peuvent également être manipulés comme des nœuds au lieu de simples chaînes. Il est relativement rare que vous ayez besoin de faire cela, cependant, cet usage n'est pas encore documenté.

Interface	Section	Objectif
<code>DOMImplementation</code>	<i>Objets DOMImplementation</i>	Interface de l'implémentation sous-jacente.
<code>Node</code>	<i>Objets nœuds</i>	Interface de base pour la majorité des objets dans un document.
<code>NodeList</code>	<i>Objet NodeList</i>	Interface pour une séquence de nœuds.
<code>DocumentType</code>	<i>Objets DocumentType</i>	Informations sur les déclarations nécessaires au traitement d'un document.
<code>Document</code>	<i>Objets Document</i>	Objet représentant un document entier.
<code>Element</code>	<i>Objets Elements</i>	Nœuds éléments dans la hiérarchie d'un document.
<code>Attr</code>	<i>Objets Attr</i>	Valeur des nœuds attributs sur dans des nœuds éléments.
<code>Comment</code>	<i>Objets Comment</i>	Représentation des commentaires dans le fichier source du document.
<code>Text</code>	<i>Objets Text et CDATASection</i>	Nœud contenant un contenu texte du document.
<code>ProcessingInstruction</code>	<i>Objets ProcessingInstruction</i>	Représentation des <i>Processing Instructions</i> .

Une Section additionnelle décrit les exceptions définis pour travailler avec le DOM en Python.

Objets `DOMImplementation`

L'interface `DOMImplementation` fournit un moyen pour les applications de déterminer la disponibilité de fonctionnalités particulières dans le DOM qu'elles utilisent. *DOM Level 2* ajoute la capacité de créer des nouveaux objets `Document` et `DocumentType` utilisant également `DOMImplementation`.

`DOMImplementation.hasFeature(feature, version)`

Renvoie vrai si la fonctionnalité identifiée par une paire de chaîne *feature* et *version* est implémentée.

`DOMImplementation.createDocument(namespaceUri, qualifiedName, doctype)`

Renvoie un nouvel objet `Document` (la racine du DOM), avec un objet fils `Element` ayant les *namespaceUri* et *qualifiedName* passés en paramètre. Le *doctype* doit être un objet `DocumentType` créé par

`createDocumentType()` ou `None`. Dans l'API DOM de Python, les deux premiers arguments peuvent également être à `None` de manière à indiquer qu'aucun enfant `Element` ne soit créé.

`DOMImplementation.createDocumentType(qualifiedName, publicId, systemId)`

Renvoie un nouvel objet `DocumentType` qui encapsule les chaînes *qualifiedName*, *publicId*, et *systemId* passées en paramètre représentant les informations contenues dans la déclaration du document XML.

Objets nœuds

Tous les composants d'un document XML sont des sous-classes de `Node`.

`Node.nodeType`

Un entier représentant le type de nœud. Pour l'objet `Node`, les constantes symboliques pour les types sont `ELEMENT_NODE`, `ATTRIBUTE_NODE`, `TEXT_NODE`, `CDATA_SECTION_NODE`, `ENTITY_NODE`, `PROCESSING_INSTRUCTION_NODE`, `COMMENT_NODE`, `DOCUMENT_NODE`, `DOCUMENT_TYPE_NODE`, `NOTATION_NODE`. Ceci est un attribut en lecture seule.

`Node.parentNode`

Le parent du nœud courant ou `None` dans le cas du nœud document. La valeur est toujours un objet `Node` ou `None`. Pour les nœuds `Element`, ce sera le parent de l'élément sauf si l'élément est la racine, dans ce cas ce sera l'objet `Document`. Pour les nœuds `Attr`, cela sera toujours `None`. Ceci est un attribut en lecture seule.

`Node.attributes`

Un objet `NamedNodeMap` d'objet attributs. Seulement les éléments ayant des valeurs seront listés, les autres renverront `None` pour cet attribut. Cet attribut est en lecture seule.

`Node.previousSibling`

Le nœud avec le même parent qui précède immédiatement le nœud courant. Par exemple, l'élément avec la balise fermentée qui est juste avant la balise ouvrante de l'élément *self*. Naturellement, les documents XML sont fait de plus que juste des éléments; donc le *previous sibling* peut être du texte, un commentaire ou autre chose. Si le nœud courant est le premier fils du parent, cet attribut vaudra `None`. Cet attribut est en lecture seule.

`Node.nextSibling`

Le nœud qui suit immédiatement le nœud courant dans le même parent. Voir également *previousSibling*. Si ce nœud est le dernier de son parent, alors l'attribut sera `None`. Cet attribut est en lecture seule.

`Node.childNodes`

Une liste de nœuds contenu dans le nœud courant. Cet attribut est en lecture seule.

`Node.firstChild`

S'il y a des fils, premier fils du nœud courant, sinon `None`. Cet attribut est en lecture seule.

`Node.lastChild`

S'il y a des fils, le dernier nœud fils du nœud courant. Sinon `None`. Cet attribut est en lecture seule.

`Node.localName`

S'il y a un `:`, contient la partie suivante de `tagName` ce `:` sinon la valeur complète de `tagName`. Cette valeur est une chaîne.

`Node.prefix`

La partie de `tagName` précédent le `:` s'il y en a un. sinon une chaîne vide. La valeur est une chaîne ou `None`.

`Node.namespaceURI`

L'espace de nom associé (*namespace*) au nom de l'élément. Cette valeur sera une chaîne ou `None`. Cet attribut est en lecture seule.

Node.nodeName

L'attribut a un sens différent pour chaque type de nœud ; se reporter à la spécification DOM pour les détails. Vous obtiendrez toujours l'information que vous obtiendrez à l'aide d'une autre propriété comme `tagName` pour les éléments ou `name` pour les attributs. Pour tous les types de nœuds, la valeur sera soit une chaîne soit `None`. Cet attribut est en lecture seule.

Node.nodeValue

L'attribut a un sens différent pour chaque type de nœud ; se reporter à la spécification DOM pour les détails. La situation est similaire à `nodeName`. La valeur est une chaîne ou `None`.

Node.hasAttributes()

Renvoie vrai si le nœud a des attributs.

Node.hasChildNodes()

Renvoie vrai si le nœud a des nœuds fils.

Node.isSameNode(*other*)

Renvoie vrai si *other* fait référence au même nœud que le nœud courant. Ceci est particulièrement pratique pour implémentation de DOM qui utilise une architecture proxy (car plus d'un objet peut se référer au même nœud).

Note : Ceci est basé sur l'API proposé par * DOM Level 3* qui est toujours à l'étape « *working draft* » mais cette interface particulière ne paraît pas controversée. Les changements du *W3C* n'affecteront pas nécessairement cette méthode dans l'interface DOM de Python. (bien que toute nouvelle API *W3C* à cet effet soit également supportée).

Node.appendChild(*newChild*)

Ajoute un nouveau nœud fils à ce nœud à la fin de la liste des fils renvoyant *newChild*. Si ce nœud est déjà dans l'arbre, il sera d'abord retiré.

Node.insertBefore(*newChild*, *refChild*)

Insère un nouveau nœud fils avant un fils existant. Il est impératif que *refChild* soit un fils du nœud, sinon `ValueError` sera levée. *newChild* est renvoyé. Si *refChild* est `None`, *newChild* est inséré à la fin de la liste des fils.

Node.removeChild(*oldChild*)

Retire un nœud fils. *oldChild* doit être un fils de ce nœud ; sinon `ValueError` sera levée. En cas de succès, *oldChild* est renvoyé. Si *oldChild* n'est plus utilisé, sa méthode `unlink()` doit être appelée.

Node.replaceChild(*newChild*, *oldChild*)

Remplace un nœud existant avec un nouveau. *oldChild* doit être un fils de ce nœud ; sinon `ValueError` sera levée.

Node.normalize()

Jointe les nœuds texte adjacents de manière à ce que tous les segments de texte soient stockés dans une seule instance de `Text`. Ceci simplifie le traitement du texte d'un arbre DOM pour de nombreuses applications.

Nouveau dans la version 2.1.

Node.cloneNode(*deep*)

Clone ce nœud. Positionner *deep* signifie que tous les nœuds fils seront également clonés. La méthode renvoie le clone.

Objet NodeList

`NodeList` représente une séquence de nœuds. Ces objets sont utilisés de deux manières dans la recommandation Dom Core : un objet `Element` fournit en fournissant liste des nœuds fils et les méthodes

`getElementsByTagName()` et `getElementsByTagNameNS()` de `Node` renvoient des objet avec cette interface pour représenter les résultats des requêtes.

La recommandation DOM Level 2 définit un attribut et une méthode pour ces objets :

`NodeList.item(i)`

Renvoie le *i**ème élément de la séquence s'il existe ou *“None”*. L'index **i* ne peut pas être inférieur à 0 ou supérieur ou égale à la longueur de la séquence.

`NodeList.length`

Le nombre d'éléments dans la séquence.

En plus, l'interface DOM de Python requiert quelques ajouts supplémentaires pour permettre que les objet `NodeList` puissent être utilisés comme des séquences Python. Toutes les implémentations de `NodeList` doivent inclure le support de `__len__()` et de `__getitem__()` ; ceci permet l'itération sur `NodeList` avec l'instruction `for` et un support de la fonction native `len()`.

Si une implémentation de DOM support les modifications du document, l'implémentation de `NodeList` doit également supporter les méthodes `__setitem__()` et `__delitem__()` .

Objets DocumentType

Les objets de type `DocumentType` fournissent des informations sur les notations et les entités déclarées par un document (incluant les données externes si l'analyseur les utilise et peut les fournir). Le `DocumentType` d'un `Document` est accessible via l'attribut `doctype`. Si le document ne déclare pas de `DOCTYPE`, l'attribut `doctype` vaudra `None` plutôt qu'une instance de cette interface.

`DocumentType` est une spécialisation de `Node` et ajoute les attributs suivants :

`DocumentType.publicId`

L'identifiant publique pour un sous ensemble de la définition type de document (*DTD*). Cela sera une chaîne ou `None`.

`DocumentType.systemId`

L'identifiant système pour un sous ensemble du document de définition type (*DTD*). Cela sera une URI sous la forme d'une chaîne ou `None`.

`DocumentType.internalSubset`

Un chaîne donnant le sous ensemble complet du document. Ceci n'inclut pas les chevrons qui englobe le sous ensemble. Si le document n'a pas de sous ensemble, cela devrait être `None`.

`DocumentType.name`

Le nom de l'élément racine donné dans la déclaration `DOCTYPE` si présente.

`DocumentType.entities`

Ceci est un `NamedNodeMap` donnant les définitions des entités externes. Pour les entités définies plusieurs fois seule la première définition est fournie (les suivantes sont ignorées comme requis par la recommandation XML). Ceci peut retourner `None` si l'information n'est pas fournie à l'analyseur ou si aucune entités n'est définis.

`DocumentType.notations`

Ceci est un `NamedNodeMap` donnant la définition des notations. Pour les notations définies plus d'une fois, seule la première est fournie (les suivante sont ignorées comme requis par la recommandation XML). Ceci peut retourner `None` si l'information n'est pas fournie à l'analyseur ou si aucune entités n'est définis.

Objets Document

Un `Document` représente un document XML en son entier, incluant les éléments qui le constitue, les attributs, les *processing instructions*, commentaires, etc. Rappelez vous qu'il hérite des propriété de `Node`.

Document.documentElement

Le seul et unique élément racine du document.

Document.createElement(*tagName*)

Créé et renvoi un nouveau nœud élément. Ce n'est pas inséré dans le document quand il est créé. Vous avez besoin de l'insérer explicitement avec l'une des autres méthodes comme `insertBefore()` ou `appendChild()`.

Document.createElementNS(*namespaceURI*, *tagName*)

Créé et renvoi un nouvel élément avec un *namespace*. Le *tagName* peut avoir un préfixe. L'élément ne sera pas inséré dans le document quand il est créé. Vous avez besoin de l'insérer explicitement avec l'une des autres méthodes comme `insertBefore()` ou `appendChild()`.

Document.createTextNode(*data*)

Créé et renvoi un nœud texte contenant les *data* passées en paramètre. Comme pour les autres méthodes de création, la méthode n'insère pas le nœud dans l'arbre.

Document.createComment(*data*)

Créé et renvoi un nœud commentaire contenant les *data* passé en commentaire. Comme pour les autres méthodes de création, la méthode n'insère pas le nœud dans l'arbre.

Document.createProcessingInstruction(*target*, *data*)

Créé et retourne un nœud *processing instruction* contenant les *target* et *data* passés en paramètres. Comme pour les autres méthodes de création, la méthode n'insère pas le nœud dans l'arbre.

Document.createAttribute(*name*)

Créé et renvoi un nœud attribut. Cette méthode n'associe le nœud attribut aucun nœud en particulier. Vous devez utiliser la méthode `setAttributeNode()` sur un objet `Element` approprié pour utiliser une instance d'attribut nouvellement créé.

Document.createAttributeNS(*namespaceURI*, *qualifiedName*)

Créé et renvoi un nœud attribut avec un *namespace*. Le *tagName* peut avoir un préfixe. Cette méthode n'associe le nœud attribut à aucun nœud en particulier. Vous devez utiliser la méthode `setAttributeNode()` sur un objet `Element` approprié pour utiliser une instance d'attribut nouvellement créé.

Document.getElementsByTagName(*tagName*)

Cherche tout les descendants (fils directs, fils de fils, etc.) avec un nom de balise particulier.

Document.getElementsByTagNameNS(*namespaceURI*, *localName*)

Cherche tous les descendants (fils directs, fils de fils, etc.) avec un *namespace URI* particulier et un *localName*. Le *localName* fait parti du *namespace* après le préfixe.

Objets Elements

`Element` est une sous classe de `Node` et donc hérite de tout les éléments de cette classe.

Element.tagName

Le nom de l'élément type. Dans un document utilisant des *namespace*, il pourrait y avoir des : dedans. La valeur est une chaîne.

Element.getElementsByTagName(*tagName*)

Identique à la méthode équivalente de la classe `Document`.

Element.getElementsByTagNameNS(*namespaceURI*, *localName*)

Identique à la méthode équivalente de la classe `Document`.

Element.hasAttribute(*name*)

Renvoi vrai si l'élément a un attribut nommé *name*.

`Element.hasAttributeNS(namespaceURI, localName)`

Renvoie vrai si l'élément a un nommée par *namespaceURI* et *localName*.

`Element.getAttribute(name)`

Retourne la valeur de l'attribut nommé par *name* comme une chaîne. Si un tel attribut n'existe pas, une chaîne vide est retournée comme si l'attribut n'avait aucune valeur.

`Element.getAttributeNode(attrname)`

Retourne le nœud `Attr` pour l'attribut nommé par *attrname*.

`Element.getAttributeNS(namespaceURI, localName)`

Renvoie la valeur de l'attribut nommé par *namespaceURI* et *localName* comme une chaîne. Si un tel attribut n'existe pas, une chaîne vide est retournée comme si l'attribut n'avait aucune valeur.

`Element.getAttributeNodeNS(namespaceURI, localName)`

Renvoie la valeur de l'attribut comme un nœud étant donné *namespaceURI* et *localName*.

`Element.removeAttribute(name)`

Retire un attribut nommé *name*. S'il n'y a aucun attribut correspondant une `NotFoundError` est levée.

`Element.removeAttributeNode(oldAttr)`

Supprime et renvoie *oldAttr* de la liste des attributs si présent. Si *oldAttr* n'est pas présent, `NotFoundError` est levée.

`Element.removeAttributeNS(namespaceURI, localName)`

Retire un attribut selon son nom. Notez qu'il utilise un *localName* et non un *qname*. Aucune exception n'est levée s'il n'y a pas d'attribut correspondant.

`Element.setAttribute(name, value)`

Assigne la valeur à un attribut pour la chaîne.

`Element.setAttributeNode(newAttr)`

Ajoute un nouveau nœud attribut à l'élément, remplaçant un attribut existant si nécessaire si *name* correspond à un attribut. Si l'attribut en remplace un précédent, l'ancien attribut sera retourné. Si *newAttr* est déjà utilisé, `InuseAttributeError` sera levée.

`Element.setAttributeNodeNS(newAttr)`

Ajoute un nouveau nœud attribut, remplaçant un attribut existant si *namespaceURI* et *localName* correspond à un attribut. S'il y a remplacement, l'ancien nœud sera renvoyé. Si *newAttr* est déjà utilisé, `InuseAttributeError` sera levée.

`Element.setAttributeNS(namespaceURI, qname, value)`

Assigne la valeur d'un attribut depuis une chaîne étant donnée un *namespaceURI* et un *qname*. Notez que *qname* est le nom de l'attribut en entier. Ceci est différent d'au dessus.

Objets `Attr`

`Attr` hérite `Node` et donc hérite de tout ces attributs.

`Attr.name`

Le nom de l'attribut. Dans un document utilisant des *namespaces*, il pourra inclure un `:`.

`Attr.localName`

La partie du nom suivant le `:` s'il y en a un ou le nom entier sinon. Ceci est un attribut en lecture seule.

`Attr.prefix`

La partie du nom précédent le `:` s'il y en a un ou une chaîne vide.

`Attr.value`

La valeur texte de l'attribut. C'est un synonyme de l'attribut `nodeValue`.

Objets `NameNodeMap`

`NamedNodeMap` n'hérite pas de `Node`.

`NamedNodeMap.length`

La longueur de la liste d'attributs.

`NamedNodeMap.item(index)`

Renvoie un attribut à un index particulier. L'ordre des attributs est arbitraire mais sera constant durant toute la vie du DOM. Chacun des items sera un nœud attribut. Obtenez sa valeur avec `value` de l'attribut.

Il y existe également des méthodes expérimentales qui donnent à cette classe un comportement plus *mappable*. Vous pouvez les utiliser ou utiliser la famille de méthodes standardisées `getAttribute*()` des objets `Element`.

Objets `Comment`

`Comment` représente un commentaire dans le document XML. C'est une sous-classe `Node` mais n'a aucune nœuds fils.

`Comment.data`

Le contenu du commentaire comme une chaîne. L'attribut contient tous les caractères entre `<!--` et `-->` mais ne les inclut pas.

Objets `Text` et `CDATASection`

L'interface `Text` représente le texte dans un document XML. Si l'analyseur et l'implémentation DOM supportent les extensions XML du DOM, les portions de texte encapsulées dans des sections marquées `CDATA` seront stockées dans des objets `CDATASection`. Ces deux interfaces sont identiques mais fournissent des valeurs différentes pour l'attribut `nodeType`.

Ces interfaces étendent l'interface `Node`. Elles ne peuvent pas avoir de nœuds fils.

`Text.data`

Le contenu du nœud texte comme une chaîne.

Note : L'utilisation d'un nœud `CDATASection` n'indique pas que le nœud représente une section complète marquée `CDATA`, seulement que le contenu du nœud est le contenu d'une section `CDATA`. Une seule section `CDATA` peut représenter plus d'un nœud dans l'arbre du document. Il n'y a aucun moyen de déterminer si deux nœuds `CDATASection` adjacents représentent différentes sections `CDATA`.

Objets `ProcessingInstruction`

Représente une *processing instruction* dans un document XML. Hérite de l'interface `Node` et ne peut avoir aucun nœud fils.

`ProcessingInstruction.target`

Le contenu de la *processing instruction* jusqu'au premier caractère blanc. Cet attribut est en lecture seule.

`ProcessingInstruction.data`

Le contenu de la *processing instruction* après le premier caractère blanc.

Exceptions

Nouveau dans la version 2.1.

La recommandation *DOM Level 2* définit une seule exception `DOMException` et un nombre de constantes qui permettent aux applications à déterminer quelle type d'erreur s'est produit. Les instances de `DOMException` ont un attribut `code` qui fournit une valeur appropriée pour une exception spécifique.

L'interface DOM de Python fournit des constantes mais étend également un ensemble d'exception pour qu'il existe une exception spécifique pour chaque code d'exception défini par le DOM. L'implémentation doit lever l'exception spécifique appropriée. Chacune ayant la valeur appropriée pour l'attribut `code`.

exception `xml.dom.DOMException`

Exception de base utilisée pour toutes les exceptions spécifiques du DOM. Cette classe ne peut pas être instanciée directement.

exception `xml.dom.DomstringSizeErr`

Levée quand un intervalle spécifique de texte ne rentre pas dans une chaîne. Cette exception n'est pas réputée être utilisée par les implémentations DOM de Python mais elle peut être levée par des implémentations de DOM qui ne sont pas écrites en Python.

exception `xml.dom.HierarchyRequestErr`

Levée quand l'insertion d'un nœud est tentée dans un type de nœud incompatible.

exception `xml.dom.IndexSizeErr`

Levée quand un index ou la taille d'un paramètre d'une méthode est négatif ou excède les valeurs autorisées.

exception `xml.dom.InuseAttributeErr`

Levée quand l'insertion d'un nœud `Attr` est tentée alors que ce nœud est déjà présent ailleurs dans le document.

exception `xml.dom.InvalidAccessErr`

Levée si un paramètre ou une opération n'est pas supporté par l'objet sous-jacent.

exception `xml.dom.InvalidCharacterErr`

Cette exception est levée quand un paramètre chaîne contient un caractère qui n'est pas autorisé dans le contexte utilisé par la recommandation XML 1.0. Par exemple, lors la tentative de création d'un nœud `Element` avec un espace dans le nom de l'élément.

exception `xml.dom.InvalidModificationErr`

Levée lors de la tentative de modifier le type de nœud.

exception `xml.dom.InvalidStateErr`

Levée quand une tentative est faite d'utiliser un objet non défini ou qui ne sont plus utilisables.

exception `xml.dom.NamespaceErr`

Si une tentative est faite de changer un objet d'une manière qui n'est pas autorisée selon la recommandation *Namespaces in XML*, cette exception est levée.

exception `xml.dom.NotFoundErr`

Exception quand un nœud n'existe pas dans le contexte référencé. Par exemple, `NamedNodeMap.removeNamedItem()` lèvera cette exception si le nœud passé n'appartient pas à la séquence.

exception `xml.dom.NotSupportedErr`

Levée si l'implémentation ne supporte pas le type d'objet requis ou l'opération.

exception `xml.dom.NoDataAllowedErr`

Levée si la donnée spécifiée pour un nœud n'est pas supportée.

exception `xml.dom.NoModificationAllowedErr`

Levée lors de la tentative de modification sur objet où les modifications ne sont pas autorisées (tels que les nœuds en lecture seule).

exception `xml.dom.SyntaxErr`

Levée quand une chaîne invalide ou illégale est spécifiée.

exception `xml.dom.WrongDocumentErr`

Levée quand un nœud est inséré dans un document différent de celui auquel il appartient et que l'implémentation ne supporte pas la migration d'un document à un autre.

Les codes d'exceptions définis par la recommandation DOM avec leurs correspondances décrites si dessous selon ce tableau :

Constante	Exception
<code>DOMSTRING_SIZE_ERR</code>	<i>DomstringSizeErr</i>
<code>HIERARCHY_REQUEST_ERR</code>	<i>HierarchyRequestErr</i>
<code>INDEX_SIZE_ERR</code>	<i>IndexSizeErr</i>
<code>INUSE_ATTRIBUTE_ERR</code>	<i>InuseAttributeErr</i>
<code>INVALID_ACCESS_ERR</code>	<i>InvalidAccessErr</i>
<code>INVALID_CHARACTER_ERR</code>	<i>InvalidCharacterErr</i>
<code>INVALID_MODIFICATION_ERR</code>	<i>InvalidModificationErr</i>
<code>INVALID_STATE_ERR</code>	<i>InvalidStateErr</i>
<code>NAMESPACE_ERR</code>	<i>NamespaceErr</i>
<code>NOT_FOUND_ERR</code>	<i>NotFoundErr</i>
<code>NOT_SUPPORTED_ERR</code>	<i>NotSupportedErr</i>
<code>NO_DATA_ALLOWED_ERR</code>	<i>NoDataAllowedErr</i>
<code>NO_MODIFICATION_ALLOWED_ERR</code>	<i>NoModificationAllowedErr</i>
<code>SYNTAX_ERR</code>	<i>SyntaxErr</i>
<code>WRONG_DOCUMENT_ERR</code>	<i>WrongDocumentErr</i>

19.8.3 Conformité

Cette section décrit la conformité des pré requis et des relations entre l'API DOM de Python, les recommandations *W3C* DOM et les correspondances *OMG IDL* pour Python.

Correspondance des types

The primitive IDL types used in the DOM specification are mapped to Python types according to the following table.

Type IDL	Type Python
<code>boolean</code>	<code>IntegerType</code> (with a value of 0 or 1)
<code>int</code>	<code>IntegerType</code>
<code>long int</code>	<code>IntegerType</code>
<code>unsigned int</code>	<code>IntegerType</code>

Additionally, the `DOMString` defined in the recommendation is mapped to a Python string or Unicode string. Applications should be able to handle Unicode whenever a string is returned from the DOM.

The IDL `null` value is mapped to `None`, which may be accepted or provided by the implementation whenever `null` is allowed by the API.

Méthodes d'accès

Les correspondance de *OMG IDL* vers Python définissent des fonction d'accès pour les déclarations `attribut` d'IDL à la manière dont Java le fait. Correspondance des déclarations IDL

```
readonly attribute string someValue;
    attribute string anotherValue;
```

Donne trois fonctions d'accès : une méthode *get* pour `someValue` (`_get_someValue()`) et des méthodes *get* et *set* pour `anotherValue` (`_get_anotherValue()` et `_set_anotherValue()`). Le *mapping*, en particulier, ne requiert pas que les attributs IDL soient accessible comme des attributs Python normaux : `object.someValue` n'est *pas* requis de fonctionner et peut lever une *AttributeError*.

Cependant, l'API DOM de Python *impose* que les accès par attributs classiques fonctionnent. Par conséquent, les substituts générés par le compilateur IDL de Python ne fonctionneront probablement pas, et des objets façade pourraient être nécessaires côté client si les objets DOM sont manipulés via CORBA. Bien qu'utiliser un client DOM CORBA nécessite une bonne réflexion, les développeurs habitués et expérimentés à l'utilisation de CORBA ne considèrent pas que c'est un problème. Les attributs déclarés `readonly` pourraient ne pas voir leur accès en écriture restreint dans toutes les implémentations du DOM.

Dans l'API DOM de Python, les fonctions d'accès ne sont pas requises. Si elles sont fournies, elles doivent prendre la forme définie par le *mapping* de Python IDL, mais ces méthodes sont considérées inutiles car les attributs sont directement accessible depuis Python. Les fonctions d'accès « Set » ne devraient jamais être fournies pour les attributs `readonly` (en lecture seule).

Les définitions IDL n'embarquent pas entièrement les pré-requis de l'API de DOM API telle que la notion de objets ou que la valeur de retour de `getElementsByTagName()` est dynamique. L'API DOM de Python ne requiert pas des implémentations d'avoir de tel pré-requis.

19.9 `xml.dom.minidom` — Minimal DOM implementation

Nouveau dans la version 2.0.

Source code : `Lib/xml/dom/minidom.py`

`xml.dom.minidom` is a minimal implementation of the Document Object Model interface, with an API similar to that in other languages. It is intended to be simpler than the full DOM and also significantly smaller. Users who are not already proficient with the DOM should consider using the `xml.etree.ElementTree` module for their XML processing instead.

Avertissement : The `xml.dom.minidom` module is not secure against maliciously constructed data. If you need to parse untrusted or unauthenticated data see *Vulnérabilités XML*.

DOM applications typically start by parsing some XML into a DOM. With `xml.dom.minidom`, this is done through the parse functions :

```
from xml.dom.minidom import parse, parseString

dom1 = parse('c:\\temp\\mydata.xml') # parse an XML file by name

datasource = open('c:\\temp\\mydata.xml')
dom2 = parse(datasource) # parse an open file

dom3 = parseString('<myxml>Some data<empty/> some more data</myxml>')
```

The `parse()` function can take either a filename or an open file object.

`xml.dom.minidom.parse(filename_or_file[, parser[, bufsize]])`

Return a *Document* from the given input. *filename_or_file* may be either a file name, or a file-like object. *parser*, if given, must be a SAX2 parser object. This function will change the document handler of the parser and activate namespace support ; other parser configuration (like setting an entity resolver) must have been done in advance.

If you have XML in a string, you can use the `parseString()` function instead :

```
xml.dom.minidom.parseString(string[, parser])
```

Return a `Document` that represents the *string*. This method creates a *StringIO* object for the string and passes that on to `parse()`.

Both functions return a `Document` object representing the content of the document.

What the `parse()` and `parseString()` functions do is connect an XML parser with a « DOM builder » that can accept parse events from any SAX parser and convert them into a DOM tree. The name of the functions are perhaps misleading, but are easy to grasp when learning the interfaces. The parsing of the document will be completed before these functions return ; it's simply that these functions do not provide a parser implementation themselves.

You can also create a `Document` by calling a method on a « DOM Implementation » object. You can get this object either by calling the `getDOMImplementation()` function in the `xml.dom` package or the `xml.dom.minidom` module. Using the implementation from the `xml.dom.minidom` module will always return a `Document` instance from the minidom implementation, while the version from `xml.dom` may provide an alternate implementation (this is likely if you have the `PyXML` package installed). Once you have a `Document`, you can add child nodes to it to populate the DOM :

```
from xml.dom.minidom import getDOMImplementation

impl = getDOMImplementation()

newdoc = impl.createDocument(None, "some_tag", None)
top_element = newdoc.documentElement
text = newdoc.createTextNode('Some textual content.')
top_element.appendChild(text)
```

Once you have a DOM document object, you can access the parts of your XML document through its properties and methods. These properties are defined in the DOM specification. The main property of the document object is the `documentElement` property. It gives you the main element in the XML document : the one that holds all others. Here is an example program :

```
dom3 = parseString("<myxml>Some data</myxml>")
assert dom3.documentElement.tagName == "myxml"
```

When you are finished with a DOM tree, you may optionally call the `unlink()` method to encourage early cleanup of the now-unneeded objects. `unlink()` is an `xml.dom.minidom`-specific extension to the DOM API that renders the node and its descendants are essentially useless. Otherwise, Python's garbage collector will eventually take care of the objects in the tree.

Voir aussi :

Spécification Level 1 Document Object Model (DOM) La recommandation du *W3C* pour le DOM supporté par `xml.dom.minidom`.

19.9.1 DOM Objects

The definition of the DOM API for Python is given as part of the `xml.dom` module documentation. This section lists the differences between the API and `xml.dom.minidom`.

Node.unlink()

Break internal references within the DOM so that it will be garbage collected on versions of Python without cyclic GC. Even when cyclic GC is available, using this can make large amounts of memory available sooner, so calling this on DOM objects as soon as they are no longer needed is good practice.

This only needs to be called on the `Document` object, but may be called on child nodes to discard children of that node.

`Node.writexml(writer, indent="", addindent="", newl="")`

Write XML to the writer object. The writer should have a `write()` method which matches that of the file object interface. The *indent* parameter is the indentation of the current node. The *addindent* parameter is the incremental indentation to use for subnodes of the current one. The *newl* parameter specifies the string to use to terminate newlines.

For the `Document` node, an additional keyword argument *encoding* can be used to specify the encoding field of the XML header.

Modifié dans la version 2.1 : The optional keyword parameters *indent*, *addindent*, and *newl* were added to support pretty output.

Modifié dans la version 2.3 : For the `Document` node, an additional keyword argument *encoding* can be used to specify the encoding field of the XML header.

`Node.toxml([encoding])`

Return the XML that the DOM represents as a string.

With no argument, the XML header does not specify an encoding, and the result is Unicode string if the default encoding cannot represent all characters in the document. Encoding this string in an encoding other than UTF-8 is likely incorrect, since UTF-8 is the default encoding of XML.

With an explicit *encoding*¹ argument, the result is a byte string in the specified encoding. It is recommended that this argument is always specified. To avoid `UnicodeError` exceptions in case of unrepresentable text data, the encoding argument should be specified as « utf-8 ».

Modifié dans la version 2.3 : the *encoding* argument was introduced ; see `writexml()`.

`Node.toprettyxml(indent="t", newl="\n", encoding=None)`

Return a pretty-printed version of the document. *indent* specifies the indentation string and defaults to a tabulator ; *newl* specifies the string emitted at the end of each line and defaults to `\n`.

Nouveau dans la version 2.1.

Modifié dans la version 2.3 : the *encoding* argument was introduced ; see `writexml()`.

The following standard DOM methods have special considerations with `xml.dom.minidom` :

`Node.cloneNode(deep)`

Although this method was present in the version of `xml.dom.minidom` packaged with Python 2.0, it was seriously broken. This has been corrected for subsequent releases.

19.9.2 DOM Example

This example program is a fairly realistic example of a simple program. In this particular case, we do not take much advantage of the flexibility of the DOM.

```
import xml.dom.minidom

document = """\
<slideshow>
<title>Demo slideshow</title>
<slide><title>Slide title</title>
<point>This is a demo</point>
<point>Of a program for processing slides</point>
</slide>
```

(suite sur la page suivante)

1. The encoding string included in XML output should conform to the appropriate standards. For example, « UTF-8 » is valid, but « UTF8 » is not. See <https://www.w3.org/TR/2006/REC-xml11-20060816/#NT-EncodingDecl> and <https://www.iana.org/assignments/character-sets/character-sets.xhtml>.

(suite de la page précédente)

```

<slide><title>Another demo slide</title>
<point>It is important</point>
<point>To have more than</point>
<point>one slide</point>
</slide>
</slideshow>
"""

dom = xml.dom.minidom.parseString(document)

def getText(nodelist):
    rc = []
    for node in nodelist:
        if node.nodeType == node.TEXT_NODE:
            rc.append(node.data)
    return ''.join(rc)

def handleSlideshow(slideshow):
    print "<html>"
    handleSlideshowTitle(slideshow.getElementsByTagName("title")[0])
    slides = slideshow.getElementsByTagName("slide")
    handleToc(slides)
    handleSlides(slides)
    print "</html>"

def handleSlides(slides):
    for slide in slides:
        handleSlide(slide)

def handleSlide(slide):
    handleSlideTitle(slide.getElementsByTagName("title")[0])
    handlePoints(slide.getElementsByTagName("point"))

def handleSlideshowTitle(title):
    print "<title>%s</title>" % getText(title.childNodes)

def handleSlideTitle(title):
    print "<h2>%s</h2>" % getText(title.childNodes)

def handlePoints(points):
    print "<ul>"
    for point in points:
        handlePoint(point)
    print "</ul>"

def handlePoint(point):
    print "<li>%s</li>" % getText(point.childNodes)

def handleToc(slides):
    for slide in slides:
        title = slide.getElementsByTagName("title")[0]
        print "<p>%s</p>" % getText(title.childNodes)

```

(suite sur la page suivante)

```
handleSlideshow(dom)
```

19.9.3 minidom and the DOM standard

The `xml.dom.minidom` module is essentially a DOM 1.0-compatible DOM with some DOM 2 features (primarily namespace features).

Usage of the DOM interface in Python is straight-forward. The following mapping rules apply :

- Interfaces are accessed through instance objects. Applications should not instantiate the classes themselves; they should use the creator functions available on the `Document` object. Derived interfaces support all operations (and attributes) from the base interfaces, plus any new operations.
- Operations are used as methods. Since the DOM uses only `in` parameters, the arguments are passed in normal order (from left to right). There are no optional arguments. `void` operations return `None`.
- IDL attributes map to instance attributes. For compatibility with the OMG IDL language mapping for Python, an attribute `foo` can also be accessed through accessor methods `_get_foo()` and `_set_foo()`. `readonly` attributes must not be changed; this is not enforced at runtime.
- The types `short int`, `unsigned int`, `unsigned long long`, and `boolean` all map to Python integer objects.
- The type `DOMString` maps to Python strings. `xml.dom.minidom` supports either byte or Unicode strings, but will normally produce Unicode strings. Values of type `DOMString` may also be `None` where allowed to have the IDL `null` value by the DOM specification from the W3C.
- `const` declarations map to variables in their respective scope (e.g. `xml.dom.minidom.Node.PROCESSING_INSTRUCTION_NODE`); they must not be changed.
- `DOMException` is currently not supported in `xml.dom.minidom`. Instead, `xml.dom.minidom` uses standard Python exceptions such as `TypeError` and `AttributeError`.
- `NodeList` objects are implemented using Python's built-in list type. Starting with Python 2.2, these objects provide the interface defined in the DOM specification, but with earlier versions of Python they do not support the official API. They are, however, much more « Pythonic » than the interface defined in the W3C recommendations.

The following interfaces have no implementation in `xml.dom.minidom` :

- `DOMTimeStamp`
- `DocumentType` (added in Python 2.1)
- `DOMImplementation` (added in Python 2.1)
- `CharacterData`
- `CDATASection`
- `Notation`
- `Entity`
- `EntityReference`
- `DocumentFragment`

Most of these reflect information in the XML document that is not of general utility to most DOM users.

Notes

19.10 xml.dom.pulldom — Support for building partial DOM trees

Nouveau dans la version 2.0.

Source code : `Lib/xml/dom/pulldom.py`

`xml.dom.pulldom` allows building only selected portions of a Document Object Model representation of a document from SAX events.

Avertissement : The `xml.dom.pulldom` module is not secure against maliciously constructed data. If you need to parse untrusted or unauthenticated data see [Vulnérabilités XML](#).

```
class xml.dom.pulldom.PullDOM([documentFactory])
    xml.sax.handler.ContentHandler implementation that ...

class xml.dom.pulldom.DOMEvtStream(stream, parser, bufsize)
    ...

class xml.dom.pulldom.SAX2DOM([documentFactory])
    xml.sax.handler.ContentHandler implementation that ...

xml.dom.pulldom.parse(stream_or_string[, parser[, bufsize]])
    ...

xml.dom.pulldom.parseString(string[, parser])
    ...

xml.dom.pulldom.default_bufsize
    Default value for the bufsize parameter to parse().
    Modifié dans la version 2.1 : The value of this variable can be changed before calling parse() and the
    new value will take effect.
```

19.10.1 DOMEvtStream Objects

```
DOMEvtStream.getEvent()
    ...

DOMEvtStream.expandNode(node)
    ...

DOMEvtStream.reset()
    ...
```

19.11 xml.sax — Prise en charge des analyseurs SAX2

Nouveau dans la version 2.0.

Le paquet `xml.sax` fournit des modules qui implémentent l'interface *Simple API for XML (SAX)* pour Python. Le paquet en lui même fournit les exceptions SAX et les fonctions les plus utiles qui seront le plus utilisées par les utilisateurs de SAX API.

Avertissement : Le module `xml.sax` n'est pas sécurisé contre les données construites de façon malveillante. Si vous avez besoin d'analyser des données non sécurisées ou non authentifiées, voir [Vulnérabilités XML](#).

Les fonctions les plus utiles sont :

```
xml.sax.make_parser([parser_list])
    Create and return a SAX XMLReader object. The first parser found will be used. If parser_list is
    provided, it must be a list of strings which name modules that have a function named create_parser().
    Modules listed in parser_list will be used before modules in the default list of parsers.
```



```
xml.sax.parse(filename_or_stream, handler[, error_handler])
```

Crée un analyseur SAX et l'utilise pour analyser un document. Le document transmis comme *filename_or_stream*, peut être un nom de fichier ou un objet fichier. Le paramètre *handler* doit être une instance SAX [ContentHandler](#). Si un *error_handler* est donné, il doit être un SAX [ErrorHandler](#) ; si omis, [SAXParseException](#) sera levé sur toutes les erreurs. Il n'y a pas de valeur de retour, tout le travail doit être fait par le *handler* transmis.

```
xml.sax.parseString(string, handler[, error_handler])
```

Similar to [parse\(\)](#), but parses from a buffer *string* received as a parameter.

Une application SAX typique utilise trois types d'objets : les *readers*, les *handlers* et les sources d'entrée. « Reader » dans ce contexte est un autre terme pour le analyseur, c'est-à-dire un morceau de code qui lit les octets ou les caractères de la source d'entrée et qui produit une séquence d'événements. Les événements sont ensuite distribués aux objets du *handler*, c'est-à-dire que le lecteur appelle une méthode sur le *handler*. L'application doit donc obtenir un objet *reader*, créer ou ouvrir les sources d'entrée, créer les *handlers* et connecter ces objets tous ensemble. La dernière étape de la préparation, le *reader* est appelé à analyser l'entrée. Pendant l'analyse, les méthodes sur les objets du *handler* sont appelées en fonction d'événements structurels et syntaxiques à partir des données d'entrée.

Pour ces objets, seules les interfaces sont pertinentes ; elles ne sont pas normalement instanciées par l'application elle-même. Puisque Python n'a pas de notion explicite d'interface, elles sont formellement introduites en tant que classes, mais les applications peuvent utiliser des implémentations qui n'héritent pas des classes fournies. Les interfaces [InputSource](#), [Locator](#), [Attributes](#), [AttributesNS](#), et [XMLReader](#) sont définies dans le module [xml.sax.xmlreader](#). Les interfaces du *handler* sont définies dans [xml.sax.handler](#). Pour plus de commodité, [xml.sax.xmlreader.InputSource](#) (qui est souvent instancié directement) et les classes du *handler* sont également disponibles à partir de [xml.sax](#). Ces interfaces sont décrites ci-dessous.

En plus de ces classes, [xml.sax](#) fournit les classes d'exceptions suivantes.

```
exception xml.sax.SAXException(msg[, exception])
```

Encapsule une erreur ou un avertissement XML. Cette classe peut contenir une erreur de base ou une information d'avertissement soit du analyseur XML ou de l'application : elle peut être sous-classée pour fournir des fonctionnalités supplémentaires ou pour ajouter une localisation. Noter que même si les *handlers* définis dans l'interface [ErrorHandler](#) reçoivent des instances de cette exception, ce n'est pas nécessaire de lever l'exception — il est également utile en tant que conteneur pour l'information. Quand instancié, *msg* devrait être une description lisible par l'homme de l'erreur. Le paramètre optionnel *exception*, s'il est donné, devrait être `None` ou une exception qui a été interceptée par le code d'analyse et qui est transmise comme information.

Ceci est la classe de base pour les autres classes d'exception SAX.

```
exception xml.sax.SAXParseException(msg, exception, locator)
```

Sous-classe de [SAXException](#) élevée sur les erreurs d'analyse. Les instances de cette classe sont passées aux méthodes de l'interface SAX [ErrorHandler](#) pour fournir des informations sur l'erreur d'analyse. Cette classe supporte aussi l'interface SAX [Locator](#) comme l'interface [SAXException](#).

```
exception xml.sax.SAXNotRecognizedException(msg[, exception])
```

Sous-classe de [SAXException](#) levée quand un SAX [XMLReader](#) est confronté à une caractéristique ou à une propriété non reconnue. Les applications et les extensions SAX peuvent utiliser cette classe à des fins similaires.

```
exception xml.sax.SAXNotSupportedException(msg[, exception])
```

Sous-classe de [SAXException](#) levée quand un SAX [XMLReader](#) est demandé pour activer une fonctionnalité qui n'est pas supportée, ou pour définir une propriété à une valeur que l'implémentation ne prend pas en charge. Les applications et les extensions SAX peuvent utiliser cette classe à des fins similaires.

Voir aussi :

SAX : L'API simple pour XML Ce site est le point focal pour la définition de l'API SAX. Il offre une implémentation Java et une documentation en ligne. Des liens pour l'implémentation et des informations historiques sont également disponibles.

Module `xml.sax.handler` Définitions des interfaces pour les objets fournis par l'application.

Module `xml.sax.saxutils` Fonctions pratiques pour une utilisation dans les applications SAX.

Module `xml.sax.xmlreader` Définitions des interfaces pour les objets fournis par l'analyseur.

19.11.1 Les objets `SAXException`

La classe d'exception `SAXException` supporte les méthodes suivantes :

`SAXException.getMessage()`

Renvoyer un message lisible par l'homme décrivant la condition d'erreur.

`SAXException.getException()`

Renvoie un objet d'exception encapsulé, ou "None".

19.12 `xml.sax.handler` — Base classes for SAX handlers

Nouveau dans la version 2.0.

The SAX API defines four kinds of handlers : content handlers, DTD handlers, error handlers, and entity resolvers. Applications normally only need to implement those interfaces whose events they are interested in ; they can implement the interfaces in a single object or in multiple objects. Handler implementations should inherit from the base classes provided in the module `xml.sax.handler`, so that all methods get default implementations.

`class xml.sax.handler.ContentHandler`

This is the main callback interface in SAX, and the one most important to applications. The order of events in this interface mirrors the order of the information in the document.

`class xml.sax.handler.DTDHandler`

Handle DTD events.

This interface specifies only those DTD events required for basic parsing (unparsed entities and attributes).

`class xml.sax.handler.EntityResolver`

Basic interface for resolving entities. If you create an object implementing this interface, then register the object with your Parser, the parser will call the method in your object to resolve all external entities.

`class xml.sax.handler.ErrorHandler`

Interface used by the parser to present error and warning messages to the application. The methods of this object control whether errors are immediately converted to exceptions or are handled in some other way.

In addition to these classes, `xml.sax.handler` provides symbolic constants for the feature and property names.

`xml.sax.handler.feature_namespaces`

value : "http://xml.org/sax/features/namespaces"

true : Perform Namespace processing.

false : Optionally do not perform Namespace processing (implies namespace-prefixes ; default).

access : (parsing) read-only ; (not parsing) read/write

xml.sax.handler.feature_namespace_prefixes

value : "http://xml.org/sax/features/namespace-prefixes"
true : Report the original prefixed names and attributes used for Namespace declarations.
false : Do not report attributes used for Namespace declarations, and optionally do not report original prefixed names (default).
access : (parsing) read-only ; (not parsing) read/write

xml.sax.handler.feature_string_interning

value : "http://xml.org/sax/features/string-interning"
true : All element names, prefixes, attribute names, Namespace URIs, and local names are interned using the built-in intern function.
false : Names are not necessarily interned, although they may be (default).
access : (parsing) read-only ; (not parsing) read/write

xml.sax.handler.feature_validation

value : "http://xml.org/sax/features/validation"
true : Report all validation errors (implies external-general-entities and external-parameter-entities).
false : Do not report validation errors.
access : (parsing) read-only ; (not parsing) read/write

xml.sax.handler.feature_external_ges

value : "http://xml.org/sax/features/external-general-entities"
true : Include all external general (text) entities.
false : Do not include external general entities.
access : (parsing) read-only ; (not parsing) read/write

xml.sax.handler.feature_external_pes

value : "http://xml.org/sax/features/external-parameter-entities"
true : Include all external parameter entities, including the external DTD subset.
false : Do not include any external parameter entities, even the external DTD subset.
access : (parsing) read-only ; (not parsing) read/write

xml.sax.handler.all_features

List of all features.

xml.sax.handler.property_lexical_handler

value : "http://xml.org/sax/properties/lexical-handler"
data type : xml.sax.sax2lib.LexicalHandler (not supported in Python 2)
description : An optional extension handler for lexical events like comments.
access : read/write

xml.sax.handler.property_declaration_handler

value : "http://xml.org/sax/properties/declaration-handler"
data type : xml.sax.sax2lib.DeclHandler (not supported in Python 2)
description : An optional extension handler for DTD-related events other than notations and unparsed entities.

access : read/write

`xml.sax.handler.property_dom_node`

value : "http://xml.org/sax/properties/dom-node"

data type : `org.w3c.dom.Node` (not supported in Python 2)

description : When parsing, the current DOM node being visited if this is a DOM iterator; when not parsing, the root DOM node for iteration.

access : (parsing) read-only; (not parsing) read/write

`xml.sax.handler.property_xml_string`

value : "http://xml.org/sax/properties/xml-string"

data type : `String`

description : The literal string of characters that was the source for the current event.

access : read-only

`xml.sax.handler.all_properties`

List of all known property names.

19.12.1 ContentHandler Objects

Users are expected to subclass *ContentHandler* to support their application. The following methods are called by the parser on the appropriate events in the input document :

`ContentHandler.setDocumentLocator(locator)`

Called by the parser to give the application a locator for locating the origin of document events.

SAX parsers are strongly encouraged (though not absolutely required) to supply a locator : if it does so, it must supply the locator to the application by invoking this method before invoking any of the other methods in the DocumentHandler interface.

The locator allows the application to determine the end position of any document-related event, even if the parser is not reporting an error. Typically, the application will use this information for reporting its own errors (such as character content that does not match an application's business rules). The information returned by the locator is probably not sufficient for use with a search engine.

Note that the locator will return correct information only during the invocation of the events in this interface. The application should not attempt to use it at any other time.

`ContentHandler.startDocument()`

Receive notification of the beginning of a document.

The SAX parser will invoke this method only once, before any other methods in this interface or in *DTDHandler* (except for *setDocumentLocator()*).

`ContentHandler.endDocument()`

Receive notification of the end of a document.

The SAX parser will invoke this method only once, and it will be the last method invoked during the parse. The parser shall not invoke this method until it has either abandoned parsing (because of an unrecoverable error) or reached the end of input.

`ContentHandler.startPrefixMapping(prefix, uri)`

Begin the scope of a prefix-URI Namespace mapping.

The information from this event is not necessary for normal Namespace processing : the SAX XML reader will automatically replace prefixes for element and attribute names when the `feature_namespaces` feature is enabled (the default).

There are cases, however, when applications need to use prefixes in character data or in attribute values, where they cannot safely be expanded automatically; the *startPrefixMapping()* and

endPrefixMapping() events supply the information to the application to expand prefixes in those contexts itself, if necessary.

Note that *startPrefixMapping()* and *endPrefixMapping()* events are not guaranteed to be properly nested relative to each-other : all *startPrefixMapping()* events will occur before the corresponding *startElement()* event, and all *endPrefixMapping()* events will occur after the corresponding *endElement()* event, but their order is not guaranteed.

ContentHandler.endPrefixMapping(*prefix*)

End the scope of a prefix-URI mapping.

See *startPrefixMapping()* for details. This event will always occur after the corresponding *endElement()* event, but the order of *endPrefixMapping()* events is not otherwise guaranteed.

ContentHandler.startElement(*name*, *attrs*)

Signals the start of an element in non-namespace mode.

The *name* parameter contains the raw XML 1.0 name of the element type as a string and the *attrs* parameter holds an object of the **Attributes** interface (see *The Attributes Interface*) containing the attributes of the element. The object passed as *attrs* may be re-used by the parser ; holding on to a reference to it is not a reliable way to keep a copy of the attributes. To keep a copy of the attributes, use the *copy()* method of the *attrs* object.

ContentHandler.endElement(*name*)

Signals the end of an element in non-namespace mode.

The *name* parameter contains the name of the element type, just as with the *startElement()* event.

ContentHandler.startElementNS(*name*, *qname*, *attrs*)

Signals the start of an element in namespace mode.

The *name* parameter contains the name of the element type as a (*uri*, *localname*) tuple, the *qname* parameter contains the raw XML 1.0 name used in the source document, and the *attrs* parameter holds an instance of the **AttributesNS** interface (see *The AttributesNS Interface*) containing the attributes of the element. If no namespace is associated with the element, the *uri* component of *name* will be **None**. The object passed as *attrs* may be re-used by the parser ; holding on to a reference to it is not a reliable way to keep a copy of the attributes. To keep a copy of the attributes, use the *copy()* method of the *attrs* object.

Parsers may set the *qname* parameter to **None**, unless the *feature_namespace_prefixes* feature is activated.

ContentHandler.endElementNS(*name*, *qname*)

Signals the end of an element in namespace mode.

The *name* parameter contains the name of the element type, just as with the *startElementNS()* method, likewise the *qname* parameter.

ContentHandler.characters(*content*)

Receive notification of character data.

The Parser will call this method to report each chunk of character data. SAX parsers may return all contiguous character data in a single chunk, or they may split it into several chunks ; however, all of the characters in any single event must come from the same external entity so that the Locator provides useful information.

content may be a Unicode string or a byte string ; the **expat** reader module produces always Unicode strings.

Note : The earlier SAX 1 interface provided by the Python XML Special Interest Group used a more Java-like interface for this method. Since most parsers used from Python did not take advantage of the older interface, the simpler signature was chosen to replace it. To convert old code to the new interface, use *content* instead of slicing content with the old *offset* and *length* parameters.

`ContentHandler.ignorableWhitespace(whitespace)`

Receive notification of ignorable whitespace in element content.

Validating Parsers must use this method to report each chunk of ignorable whitespace (see the W3C XML 1.0 recommendation, section 2.10) : non-validating parsers may also use this method if they are capable of parsing and using content models.

SAX parsers may return all contiguous whitespace in a single chunk, or they may split it into several chunks ; however, all of the characters in any single event must come from the same external entity, so that the Locator provides useful information.

`ContentHandler.processingInstruction(target, data)`

Receive notification of a processing instruction.

The Parser will invoke this method once for each processing instruction found : note that processing instructions may occur before or after the main document element.

A SAX parser should never report an XML declaration (XML 1.0, section 2.8) or a text declaration (XML 1.0, section 4.3.1) using this method.

`ContentHandler.skippedEntity(name)`

Receive notification of a skipped entity.

The Parser will invoke this method once for each entity skipped. Non-validating processors may skip entities if they have not seen the declarations (because, for example, the entity was declared in an external DTD subset). All processors may skip external entities, depending on the values of the `feature_external_ges` and the `feature_external_pes` properties.

19.12.2 DTDHandler Objects

DTDHandler instances provide the following methods :

`DTDHandler.notationDecl(name, publicId, systemId)`

Handle a notation declaration event.

`DTDHandler.unparsedEntityDecl(name, publicId, systemId, ndata)`

Handle an unparsed entity declaration event.

19.12.3 EntityResolver Objects

`EntityResolver.resolveEntity(publicId, systemId)`

Resolve the system identifier of an entity and return either the system identifier to read from as a string, or an `InputSource` to read from. The default implementation returns *systemId*.

19.12.4 ErrorHandler Objects

Objects with this interface are used to receive error and warning information from the *XMLReader*. If you create an object that implements this interface, then register the object with your *XMLReader*, the parser will call the methods in your object to report all warnings and errors. There are three levels of errors available : warnings, (possibly) recoverable errors, and unrecoverable errors. All methods take a `SAXParseException` as the only parameter. Errors and warnings may be converted to an exception by raising the passed-in exception object.

`ErrorHandler.error(exception)`

Called when the parser encounters a recoverable error. If this method does not raise an exception, parsing may continue, but further document information should not be expected by the application. Allowing the parser to continue may allow additional errors to be discovered in the input document.

`ErrorHandler.fatalError(exception)`

Called when the parser encounters an error it cannot recover from ; parsing is expected to terminate when this method returns.

`ErrorHandler.warning(exception)`

Called when the parser presents minor warning information to the application. Parsing is expected to continue when this method returns, and document information will continue to be passed to the application. Raising an exception in this method will cause parsing to end.

19.13 `xml.sax.saxutils` — SAX Utilities

Nouveau dans la version 2.0.

The module `xml.sax.saxutils` contains a number of classes and functions that are commonly useful when creating SAX applications, either in direct use, or as base classes.

`xml.sax.saxutils.escape(data[, entities])`

Escape '&', '<', and '>' in a string of data.

You can escape other strings of data by passing a dictionary as the optional *entities* parameter. The keys and values must all be strings; each key will be replaced with its corresponding value. The characters '&', '<' and '>' are always escaped, even if *entities* is provided.

`xml.sax.saxutils.unescape(data[, entities])`

Unescape '&'; '<'; and '>'; in a string of data.

You can unescape other strings of data by passing a dictionary as the optional *entities* parameter. The keys and values must all be strings; each key will be replaced with its corresponding value. '&', '<'; and '>'; are always unescaped, even if *entities* is provided.

Nouveau dans la version 2.3.

`xml.sax.saxutils.quoteattr(data[, entities])`

Similar to *escape()*, but also prepares *data* to be used as an attribute value. The return value is a quoted version of *data* with any additional required replacements. *quoteattr()* will select a quote character based on the content of *data*, attempting to avoid encoding any quote characters in the string. If both single- and double-quote characters are already in *data*, the double-quote characters will be encoded and *data* will be wrapped in double-quotes. The resulting string can be used directly as an attribute value :

```
>>> print "<element attr=%s>" % quoteattr("ab ' cd \" ef")
<element attr="ab ' cd &quot; ef">
```

This function is useful when generating attribute values for HTML or any SGML using the reference concrete syntax.

Nouveau dans la version 2.2.

`class xml.sax.saxutils.XMLGenerator([out[, encoding]])`

This class implements the *ContentHandler* interface by writing SAX events back into an XML document. In other words, using an *XMLGenerator* as the content handler will reproduce the original document being parsed. *out* should be a file-like object which will default to *sys.stdout*. *encoding* is the encoding of the output stream which defaults to 'iso-8859-1'.

`class xml.sax.saxutils.XMLFilterBase(base)`

This class is designed to sit between an *XMLReader* and the client application's event handlers. By default, it does nothing but pass requests up to the reader and events on to the handlers unmodified, but subclasses can override specific methods to modify the event stream or the configuration requests as they pass through.

`xml.sax.saxutils.prepare_input_source(source[, base])`

This function takes an input source and an optional base URL and returns a fully resolved *InputSource* object ready for reading. The input source can be given as a string, a file-like object, or an *InputSource* object; parsers will use this function to implement the polymorphic *source* argument to their *parse()* method.

19.14 xml.sax.xmlreader — Interface for XML parsers

Nouveau dans la version 2.0.

SAX parsers implement the *XMLReader* interface. They are implemented in a Python module, which must provide a function `create_parser()`. This function is invoked by `xml.sax.make_parser()` with no arguments to create a new parser object.

class xml.sax.xmlreader.XMLReader

Base class which can be inherited by SAX parsers.

class xml.sax.xmlreader.IncrementalParser

In some cases, it is desirable not to parse an input source at once, but to feed chunks of the document as they get available. Note that the reader will normally not read the entire file, but read it in chunks as well; still `parse()` won't return until the entire document is processed. So these interfaces should be used if the blocking behaviour of `parse()` is not desirable.

When the parser is instantiated it is ready to begin accepting data from the feed method immediately. After parsing has been finished with a call to close the reset method must be called to make the parser ready to accept new data, either from feed or using the parse method.

Note that these methods must *not* be called during parsing, that is, after `parse` has been called and before it returns.

By default, the class also implements the parse method of the XMLReader interface using the feed, close and reset methods of the IncrementalParser interface as a convenience to SAX 2.0 driver writers.

class xml.sax.xmlreader.Locator

Interface for associating a SAX event with a document location. A locator object will return valid results only during calls to DocumentHandler methods; at any other time, the results are unpredictable. If information is not available, methods may return `None`.

class xml.sax.xmlreader.InputSource([systemId])

Encapsulation of the information needed by the *XMLReader* to read entities.

This class may include information about the public identifier, system identifier, byte stream (possibly with character encoding information) and/or the character stream of an entity.

Applications will create objects of this class for use in the *XMLReader.parse()* method and for returning from `EntityResolver.resolveEntity`.

An *InputSource* belongs to the application, the *XMLReader* is not allowed to modify *InputSource* objects passed to it from the application, although it may make copies and modify those.

class xml.sax.xmlreader.AttributesImpl(attrs)

This is an implementation of the *Attributes* interface (see section *The Attributes Interface*). This is a dictionary-like object which represents the element attributes in a `startElement()` call. In addition to the most useful dictionary operations, it supports a number of other methods as described by the interface. Objects of this class should be instantiated by readers; *attrs* must be a dictionary-like object containing a mapping from attribute names to attribute values.

class xml.sax.xmlreader.AttributesNSImpl(attrs, qnames)

Namespace-aware variant of *AttributesImpl*, which will be passed to `startElementNS()`. It is derived from *AttributesImpl*, but understands attribute names as two-tuples of *namespaceURI* and *localname*. In addition, it provides a number of methods expecting qualified names as they appear in the original document. This class implements the *AttributesNS* interface (see section *The AttributesNS Interface*).

19.14.1 XMLReader Objects

The *XMLReader* interface supports the following methods :

XMLReader.parse(source)

Process an input source, producing SAX events. The *source* object can be a system identifier (a string

identifying the input source – typically a file name or a URL), a file-like object, or an *InputSource* object. When *parse()* returns, the input is completely processed, and the parser object can be discarded or reset. As a limitation, the current implementation only accepts byte streams; processing of character streams is for further study.

`XMLReader.getContentHandler()`

Return the current *ContentHandler*.

`XMLReader.setContentHandler(handler)`

Set the current *ContentHandler*. If no *ContentHandler* is set, content events will be discarded.

`XMLReader.getDTDHandler()`

Return the current *DTDHandler*.

`XMLReader.setDTDHandler(handler)`

Set the current *DTDHandler*. If no *DTDHandler* is set, DTD events will be discarded.

`XMLReader.getEntityResolver()`

Return the current *EntityResolver*.

`XMLReader.setEntityResolver(handler)`

Set the current *EntityResolver*. If no *EntityResolver* is set, attempts to resolve an external entity will result in opening the system identifier for the entity, and fail if it is not available.

`XMLReader.getErrorHandler()`

Return the current *ErrorHandler*.

`XMLReader.setErrorHandler(handler)`

Set the current error handler. If no *ErrorHandler* is set, errors will be raised as exceptions, and warnings will be printed.

`XMLReader.setLocale(locale)`

Allow an application to set the locale for errors and warnings.

SAX parsers are not required to provide localization for errors and warnings; if they cannot support the requested locale, however, they must raise a SAX exception. Applications may request a locale change in the middle of a parse.

`XMLReader.getFeature(featurename)`

Return the current setting for feature *featurename*. If the feature is not recognized, *SAXNotRecognizedException* is raised. The well-known featurenames are listed in the module *xml.sax.handler*.

`XMLReader.setFeature(featurename, value)`

Set the *featurename* to *value*. If the feature is not recognized, *SAXNotRecognizedException* is raised. If the feature or its setting is not supported by the parser, *SAXNotSupportedException* is raised.

`XMLReader.getProperty(propertyname)`

Return the current setting for property *propertyname*. If the property is not recognized, a *SAXNotRecognizedException* is raised. The well-known propertynames are listed in the module *xml.sax.handler*.

`XMLReader.setProperty(propertyname, value)`

Set the *propertyname* to *value*. If the property is not recognized, *SAXNotRecognizedException* is raised. If the property or its setting is not supported by the parser, *SAXNotSupportedException* is raised.

19.14.2 IncrementalParser Objects

Instances of *IncrementalParser* offer the following additional methods :

`IncrementalParser.feed(data)`

Process a chunk of *data*.

`IncrementalParser.close()`

Assume the end of the document. That will check well-formedness conditions that can be checked only at the end, invoke handlers, and may clean up resources allocated during parsing.

`IncrementalParser.reset()`

This method is called after `close` has been called to reset the parser so that it is ready to parse new documents. The results of calling `parse` or `feed` after `close` without calling `reset` are undefined.

19.14.3 Locator Objects

Instances of *Locator* provide these methods :

`Locator.getColumnNumber()`

Return the column number where the current event begins.

`Locator.getLineNumber()`

Return the line number where the current event begins.

`Locator.getPublicId()`

Return the public identifier for the current event.

`Locator.getSystemId()`

Return the system identifier for the current event.

19.14.4 InputSource Objects

`InputSource.setPublicId(id)`

Sets the public identifier of this *InputSource*.

`InputSource.getPublicId()`

Returns the public identifier of this *InputSource*.

`InputSource.setSystemId(id)`

Sets the system identifier of this *InputSource*.

`InputSource.getSystemId()`

Returns the system identifier of this *InputSource*.

`InputSource.setEncoding(encoding)`

Sets the character encoding of this *InputSource*.

The encoding must be a string acceptable for an XML encoding declaration (see section 4.3.3 of the XML recommendation).

The encoding attribute of the *InputSource* is ignored if the *InputSource* also contains a character stream.

`InputSource.getEncoding()`

Get the character encoding of this *InputSource*.

`InputSource.setByteStream(bytefile)`

Set the byte stream (a Python file-like object which does not perform byte-to-character conversion) for this input source.

The SAX parser will ignore this if there is also a character stream specified, but it will use a byte stream in preference to opening a URI connection itself.

If the application knows the character encoding of the byte stream, it should set it with the `setEncoding` method.

`InputSource.getByteStream()`

Get the byte stream for this input source.

The `getEncoding` method will return the character encoding for this byte stream, or `None` if unknown.

`InputSource.setCharacterStream(charfile)`

Set the character stream for this input source. (The stream must be a Python 1.6 Unicode-wrapped file-like that performs conversion to Unicode strings.)

If there is a character stream specified, the SAX parser will ignore any byte stream and will not attempt to open a URI connection to the system identifier.

`InputSource.getCharacterStream()`

Get the character stream for this input source.

19.14.5 The Attributes Interface

`Attributes` objects implement a portion of the mapping protocol, including the methods `copy()`, `get()`, `has_key()`, `items()`, `keys()`, and `values()`. The following methods are also provided :

`Attributes.getLength()`

Return the number of attributes.

`Attributes.getNames()`

Return the names of the attributes.

`Attributes.getType(name)`

Returns the type of the attribute *name*, which is normally 'CDATA'.

`Attributes.getValue(name)`

Return the value of attribute *name*.

19.14.6 The AttributesNS Interface

This interface is a subtype of the `Attributes` interface (see section *The Attributes Interface*). All methods supported by that interface are also available on `AttributesNS` objects.

The following methods are also available :

`AttributesNS.getValueByQName(name)`

Return the value for a qualified name.

`AttributesNS.getNameByQName(name)`

Return the (namespace, localname) pair for a qualified *name*.

`AttributesNS.getQNameByName(name)`

Return the qualified name for a (namespace, localname) pair.

`AttributesNS.getQNames()`

Return the qualified names of all attributes.

19.15 `xml.parsers.expat` — Fast XML parsing using Expat

Avertissement : The `pyexpat` module is not secure against maliciously constructed data. If you need to parse untrusted or unauthenticated data see *Vulnérabilités XML*.

Nouveau dans la version 2.0.

The `xml.parsers.expat` module is a Python interface to the Expat non-validating XML parser. The module provides a single extension type, `xmlparser`, that represents the current state of an XML parser. After an `xmlparser` object has been created, various attributes of the object can be set to handler functions. When an XML document is then fed to the parser, the handler functions are called for the character data and markup in the XML document.

This module uses the `pyexpat` module to provide access to the Expat parser. Direct use of the `pyexpat` module is deprecated.

This module provides one exception and one type object :

exception `xml.parsers.expat.ExpatError`

The exception raised when Expat reports an error. See section [ExpatError Exceptions](#) for more information on interpreting Expat errors.

exception `xml.parsers.expat.error`

Alias for [ExpatError](#).

xml.parsers.expat.XMLParserType

The type of the return values from the [ParserCreate\(\)](#) function.

The `xml.parsers.expat` module contains two functions :

xml.parsers.expat.ErrorString(errno)

Returns an explanatory string for a given error number *errno*.

xml.parsers.expat.ParserCreate([*encoding*, *namespace_separator*])

Creates and returns a new `xmlparser` object. *encoding*, if specified, must be a string naming the encoding used by the XML data. Expat doesn't support as many encodings as Python does, and its repertoire of encodings can't be extended; it supports UTF-8, UTF-16, ISO-8859-1 (Latin1), and ASCII. If *encoding*¹ is given it will override the implicit or explicit encoding of the document.

Expat can optionally do XML namespace processing for you, enabled by providing a value for *namespace_separator*. The value must be a one-character string; a [ValueError](#) will be raised if the string has an illegal length (`None` is considered the same as omission). When namespace processing is enabled, element type names and attribute names that belong to a namespace will be expanded. The element name passed to the element handlers `StartElementHandler` and `EndElementHandler` will be the concatenation of the namespace URI, the namespace separator character, and the local part of the name. If the namespace separator is a zero byte (`chr(0)`) then the namespace URI and the local part will be concatenated without any separator.

For example, if *namespace_separator* is set to a space character (' ') and the following document is parsed :

```
<?xml version="1.0"?>
<root xmlns      = "http://default-namespace.org/"
      xmlns:py   = "http://www.python.org/ns/">
  <py:elem1 />
  <elem2 xmlns="" />
</root>
```

`StartElementHandler` will receive the following strings for each element :

```
http://default-namespace.org/ root
http://www.python.org/ns/ elem1
elem2
```

Due to limitations in the Expat library used by `pyexpat`, the `xmlparser` instance returned can only be used to parse a single XML document. Call `ParserCreate` for each document to provide unique parser instances.

Voir aussi :

The Expat XML Parser Home page of the Expat project.

1. The encoding string included in XML output should conform to the appropriate standards. For example, « UTF-8 » is valid, but « UTF8 » is not. See <https://www.w3.org/TR/2006/REC-xml11-20060816/#NT-EncodingDecl> and <https://www.iana.org/assignments/character-sets/character-sets.xhtml>.

19.15.1 XMLParser Objects

`xmlparser` objects have the following methods :

`xmlparser.Parse(data[, isfinal])`

Parses the contents of the string *data*, calling the appropriate handler functions to process the parsed data. *isfinal* must be true on the final call to this method; it allows the parsing of a single file in fragments, not the submission of multiple files. *data* can be the empty string at any time.

`xmlparser.ParseFile(file)`

Parse XML data reading from the object *file*. *file* only needs to provide the `read(nbytes)` method, returning the empty string when there's no more data.

`xmlparser.SetBase(base)`

Sets the base to be used for resolving relative URIs in system identifiers in declarations. Resolving relative identifiers is left to the application : this value will be passed through as the *base* argument to the *ExternalEntityRefHandler()*, *NotationDeclHandler()*, and *UnparsedEntityDeclHandler()* functions.

`xmlparser.GetBase()`

Returns a string containing the base set by a previous call to *SetBase()*, or *None* if *SetBase()* hasn't been called.

`xmlparser.GetInputContext()`

Returns the input data that generated the current event as a string. The data is in the encoding of the entity which contains the text. When called while an event handler is not active, the return value is *None*.

Nouveau dans la version 2.1.

`xmlparser.ExternalEntityParserCreate(context[, encoding])`

Create a « child » parser which can be used to parse an external parsed entity referred to by content parsed by the parent parser. The *context* parameter should be the string passed to the *ExternalEntityRefHandler()* handler function, described below. The child parser is created with the *ordered_attributes*, *returns_unicode* and *specified_attributes* set to the values of this parser.

`xmlparser.SetParamEntityParsing(flag)`

Control parsing of parameter entities (including the external DTD subset). Possible *flag* values are *XML_PARAM_ENTITY_PARSING_NEVER*, *XML_PARAM_ENTITY_PARSING_UNLESS_STANDALONE* and *XML_PARAM_ENTITY_PARSING_ALWAYS*. Return true if setting the flag was successful.

`xmlparser.UseForeignDTD([flag])`

Calling this with a true value for *flag* (the default) will cause Expat to call the *ExternalEntityRefHandler* with *None* for all arguments to allow an alternate DTD to be loaded. If the document does not contain a document type declaration, the *ExternalEntityRefHandler* will still be called, but the *StartDoctypeDeclHandler* and *EndDoctypeDeclHandler* will not be called.

Passing a false value for *flag* will cancel a previous call that passed a true value, but otherwise has no effect.

This method can only be called before the *Parse()* or *ParseFile()* methods are called; calling it after either of those have been called causes *ExpatError* to be raised with the *code* attribute set to *errors.XML_ERROR_CANT_CHANGE_FEATURE_ONCE_PARSING*.

Nouveau dans la version 2.3.

`xmlparser` objects have the following attributes :

`xmlparser.buffer_size`

The size of the buffer used when *buffer_text* is true. A new buffer size can be set by assigning a new integer value to this attribute. When the size is changed, the buffer will be flushed.

Nouveau dans la version 2.3.

Modifié dans la version 2.6 : The buffer size can now be changed.

`xmlparser.buffer_text`

Setting this to true causes the `xmlparser` object to buffer textual content returned by Expat to avoid multiple calls to the `CharacterDataHandler()` callback whenever possible. This can improve performance substantially since Expat normally breaks character data into chunks at every line ending. This attribute is false by default, and may be changed at any time.

Nouveau dans la version 2.3.

`xmlparser.buffer_used`

If `buffer_text` is enabled, the number of bytes stored in the buffer. These bytes represent UTF-8 encoded text. This attribute has no meaningful interpretation when `buffer_text` is false.

Nouveau dans la version 2.3.

`xmlparser.ordered_attributes`

Setting this attribute to a non-zero integer causes the attributes to be reported as a list rather than a dictionary. The attributes are presented in the order found in the document text. For each attribute, two list entries are presented : the attribute name and the attribute value. (Older versions of this module also used this format.) By default, this attribute is false ; it may be changed at any time.

Nouveau dans la version 2.1.

`xmlparser.returns_unicode`

If this attribute is set to a non-zero integer, the handler functions will be passed Unicode strings. If `returns_unicode` is *False*, 8-bit strings containing UTF-8 encoded data will be passed to the handlers. This is *True* by default when Python is built with Unicode support.

Modifié dans la version 1.6 : Can be changed at any time to affect the result type.

`xmlparser.specified_attributes`

If set to a non-zero integer, the parser will report only those attributes which were specified in the document instance and not those which were derived from attribute declarations. Applications which set this need to be especially careful to use what additional information is available from the declarations as needed to comply with the standards for the behavior of XML processors. By default, this attribute is false ; it may be changed at any time.

Nouveau dans la version 2.1.

The following attributes contain values relating to the most recent error encountered by an `xmlparser` object, and will only have correct values once a call to `Parse()` or `ParseFile()` has raised an `xml.parsers.expat.ExpatError` exception.

`xmlparser.ErrorByteIndex`

Byte index at which an error occurred.

`xmlparser.ErrorCode`

Numeric code specifying the problem. This value can be passed to the `ErrorString()` function, or compared to one of the constants defined in the `errors` object.

`xmlparser.ErrorColumnNumber`

Column number at which an error occurred.

`xmlparser.ErrorLineNumber`

Line number at which an error occurred.

The following attributes contain values relating to the current parse location in an `xmlparser` object. During a callback reporting a parse event they indicate the location of the first of the sequence of characters that generated the event. When called outside of a callback, the position indicated will be just past the last parse event (regardless of whether there was an associated callback).

Nouveau dans la version 2.4.

`xmlparser.CurrentByteIndex`

Current byte index in the parser input.

`xmlparser.CurrentColumnNumber`

Current column number in the parser input.

`xmlparser.CurrentLineNumber`

Current line number in the parser input.

Here is the list of handlers that can be set. To set a handler on an `xmlparser` object *o*, use `o.handlername = func`. *handlername* must be taken from the following list, and *func* must be a callable object accepting the correct number of arguments. The arguments are all strings, unless otherwise stated.

`xmlparser.XmlDeclHandler(version, encoding, standalone)`

Called when the XML declaration is parsed. The XML declaration is the (optional) declaration of the applicable version of the XML recommendation, the encoding of the document text, and an optional « standalone » declaration. *version* and *encoding* will be strings of the type dictated by the *returns_unicode* attribute, and *standalone* will be 1 if the document is declared standalone, 0 if it is declared not to be standalone, or -1 if the standalone clause was omitted. This is only available with Expat version 1.95.0 or newer.

Nouveau dans la version 2.1.

`xmlparser.StartDoctypeDeclHandler(doctypeName, systemId, publicId, has_internal_subset)`

Called when Expat begins parsing the document type declaration (`<!DOCTYPE ...`). The *doctypeName* is provided exactly as presented. The *systemId* and *publicId* parameters give the system and public identifiers if specified, or `None` if omitted. *has_internal_subset* will be true if the document contains and internal document declaration subset. This requires Expat version 1.2 or newer.

`xmlparser.EndDoctypeDeclHandler()`

Called when Expat is done parsing the document type declaration. This requires Expat version 1.2 or newer.

`xmlparser.ElementDeclHandler(name, model)`

Called once for each element type declaration. *name* is the name of the element type, and *model* is a representation of the content model.

`xmlparser.AttnlistDeclHandler(ename, attname, type, default, required)`

Called for each declared attribute for an element type. If an attribute list declaration declares three attributes, this handler is called three times, once for each attribute. *ename* is the name of the element to which the declaration applies and *attname* is the name of the attribute declared. The attribute type is a string passed as *type*; the possible values are 'CDATA', 'ID', 'IDREF', ... *default* gives the default value for the attribute used when the attribute is not specified by the document instance, or `None` if there is no default value (#IMPLIED values). If the attribute is required to be given in the document instance, *required* will be true. This requires Expat version 1.95.0 or newer.

`xmlparser.StartElementHandler(name, attributes)`

Called for the start of every element. *name* is a string containing the element name, and *attributes* is a dictionary mapping attribute names to their values.

`xmlparser.EndElementHandler(name)`

Called for the end of every element.

`xmlparser.ProcessingInstructionHandler(target, data)`

Called for every processing instruction.

`xmlparser.CharacterDataHandler(data)`

Called for character data. This will be called for normal character data, CDATA marked content, and ignorable whitespace. Applications which must distinguish these cases can use the *StartCdataSectionHandler*, *EndCdataSectionHandler*, and *ElementDeclHandler* callbacks to collect the required information.

`xmlparser.UnparsedEntityDeclHandler(entityName, base, systemId, publicId, notationName)`

Called for unparsed (NDATA) entity declarations. This is only present for version 1.2 of the Expat library; for more recent versions, use [EntityDeclHandler](#) instead. (The underlying function in the Expat library has been declared obsolete.)

`xmlparser.EntityDeclHandler(entityName, is_parameter_entity, value, base, systemId, publicId, notationName)`

Called for all entity declarations. For parameter and internal entities, *value* will be a string giving the declared contents of the entity; this will be `None` for external entities. The *notationName* parameter will be `None` for parsed entities, and the name of the notation for unparsed entities. *is_parameter_entity* will be true if the entity is a parameter entity or false for general entities (most applications only need to be concerned with general entities). This is only available starting with version 1.95.0 of the Expat library.

Nouveau dans la version 2.1.

`xmlparser.NotationDeclHandler(notationName, base, systemId, publicId)`

Called for notation declarations. *notationName*, *base*, and *systemId*, and *publicId* are strings if given. If the public identifier is omitted, *publicId* will be `None`.

`xmlparser.StartNamespaceDeclHandler(prefix, uri)`

Called when an element contains a namespace declaration. Namespace declarations are processed before the [StartElementHandler](#) is called for the element on which declarations are placed.

`xmlparser.EndNamespaceDeclHandler(prefix)`

Called when the closing tag is reached for an element that contained a namespace declaration. This is called once for each namespace declaration on the element in the reverse of the order for which the [StartNamespaceDeclHandler](#) was called to indicate the start of each namespace declaration's scope. Calls to this handler are made after the corresponding [EndElementHandler](#) for the end of the element.

`xmlparser.CommentHandler(data)`

Called for comments. *data* is the text of the comment, excluding the leading '`<!--`' and trailing '`-->`'.

`xmlparser.StartCdataSectionHandler()`

Called at the start of a CDATA section. This and [EndCdataSectionHandler](#) are needed to be able to identify the syntactical start and end for CDATA sections.

`xmlparser.EndCdataSectionHandler()`

Called at the end of a CDATA section.

`xmlparser.DefaultHandler(data)`

Called for any characters in the XML document for which no applicable handler has been specified. This means characters that are part of a construct which could be reported, but for which no handler has been supplied.

`xmlparser.DefaultHandlerExpand(data)`

This is the same as the [DefaultHandler\(\)](#), but doesn't inhibit expansion of internal entities. The entity reference will not be passed to the default handler.

`xmlparser.NotStandaloneHandler()`

Called if the XML document hasn't been declared as being a standalone document. This happens when there is an external subset or a reference to a parameter entity, but the XML declaration does not set standalone to `yes` in an XML declaration. If this handler returns 0, then the parser will raise an `XML_ERROR_NOT_STANDALONE` error. If this handler is not set, no exception is raised by the parser for this condition.

`xmlparser.ExternalEntityRefHandler(context, base, systemId, publicId)`

Called for references to external entities. *base* is the current base, as set by a previous call to [SetBase\(\)](#). The public and system identifiers, *systemId* and *publicId*, are strings if given; if the public identifier is not given, *publicId* will be `None`. The *context* value is opaque and should only be used as described below.

For external entities to be parsed, this handler must be implemented. It is responsible for creating the sub-parser using `ExternalEntityParserCreate(context)`, initializing it with the appropriate callbacks, and parsing the entity. This handler should return an integer; if it returns 0, the parser will raise an `XML_ERROR_EXTERNAL_ENTITY_HANDLING` error, otherwise parsing will continue.

If this handler is not provided, external entities are reported by the `DefaultHandler` callback, if provided.

19.15.2 ExpatError Exceptions

`ExpatError` exceptions have a number of interesting attributes :

`ExpatError.code`

Expat's internal error number for the specific error. This will match one of the constants defined in the `errors` object from this module.

Nouveau dans la version 2.1.

`ExpatError.lineno`

Line number on which the error was detected. The first line is numbered 1.

Nouveau dans la version 2.1.

`ExpatError.offset`

Character offset into the line where the error occurred. The first column is numbered 0.

Nouveau dans la version 2.1.

19.15.3 Exemple

The following program defines three handlers that just print out their arguments.

```
import xml.parsers.expat

# 3 handler functions
def start_element(name, attrs):
    print 'Start element:', name, attrs
def end_element(name):
    print 'End element:', name
def char_data(data):
    print 'Character data:', repr(data)

p = xml.parsers.expat.ParserCreate()

p.StartElementHandler = start_element
p.EndElementHandler = end_element
p.CharacterDataHandler = char_data

p.Parse("""<?xml version="1.0"?>
<parent id="top"><child1 name="paul">Text goes here</child1>
<child2 name="fred">More text</child2>
</parent>""", 1)
```

The output from this program is :

```
Start element: parent {'id': 'top'}
Start element: child1 {'name': 'paul'}
Character data: 'Text goes here'
End element: child1
```

(suite sur la page suivante)

(suite de la page précédente)

```

Character data: '\n'
Start element: child2 {'name': 'fred'}
Character data: 'More text'
End element: child2
Character data: '\n'
End element: parent

```

19.15.4 Content Model Descriptions

Content models are described using nested tuples. Each tuple contains four values : the type, the quantifier, the name, and a tuple of children. Children are simply additional content model descriptions.

The values of the first two fields are constants defined in the `model` object of the `xml.parsers.expat` module. These constants can be collected in two groups : the model type group and the quantifier group.

The constants in the model type group are :

`xml.parsers.expat.XML_CTYPE_ANY`

The element named by the model name was declared to have a content model of `ANY`.

`xml.parsers.expat.XML_CTYPE_CHOICE`

The named element allows a choice from a number of options ; this is used for content models such as (A | B | C).

`xml.parsers.expat.XML_CTYPE_EMPTY`

Elements which are declared to be `EMPTY` have this model type.

`xml.parsers.expat.XML_CTYPE_MIXED`

`xml.parsers.expat.XML_CTYPE_NAME`

`xml.parsers.expat.XML_CTYPE_SEQ`

Models which represent a series of models which follow one after the other are indicated with this model type. This is used for models such as (A, B, C).

The constants in the quantifier group are :

`xml.parsers.expat.XML_CQUANT_NONE`

No modifier is given, so it can appear exactly once, as for A.

`xml.parsers.expat.XML_CQUANT_OPT`

The model is optional : it can appear once or not at all, as for A?

`xml.parsers.expat.XML_CQUANT_PLUS`

The model must occur one or more times (like A+).

`xml.parsers.expat.XML_CQUANT_REP`

The model must occur zero or more times, as for A*.

19.15.5 Expat error constants

The following constants are provided in the `errors` object of the `xml.parsers.expat` module. These constants are useful in interpreting some of the attributes of the `ExpatError` exception objects raised when an error has occurred.

The `errors` object has the following attributes :

`xml.parsers.expat.XML_ERROR_ASYNC_ENTITY`

`xml.parsers.expat.XML_ERROR_ATTRIBUTE_EXTERNAL_ENTITY_REF`

An entity reference in an attribute value referred to an external entity instead of an internal entity.

`xml.parsers.expat.XML_ERROR_BAD_CHAR_REF`

A character reference referred to a character which is illegal in XML (for example, character 0, or “�”).

`xml.parsers.expat.XML_ERROR_BINARY_ENTITY_REF`

An entity reference referred to an entity which was declared with a notation, so cannot be parsed.

`xml.parsers.expat.XML_ERROR_DUPLICATE_ATTRIBUTE`

An attribute was used more than once in a start tag.

`xml.parsers.expat.XML_ERROR_INCORRECT_ENCODING`

`xml.parsers.expat.XML_ERROR_INVALID_TOKEN`

Raised when an input byte could not properly be assigned to a character; for example, a NUL byte (value 0) in a UTF-8 input stream.

`xml.parsers.expat.XML_ERROR_JUNK_AFTER_DOC_ELEMENT`

Something other than whitespace occurred after the document element.

`xml.parsers.expat.XML_ERROR_MISPLACED_XML_PI`

An XML declaration was found somewhere other than the start of the input data.

`xml.parsers.expat.XML_ERROR_NO_ELEMENTS`

The document contains no elements (XML requires all documents to contain exactly one top-level element)..

`xml.parsers.expat.XML_ERROR_NO_MEMORY`

Expat was not able to allocate memory internally.

`xml.parsers.expat.XML_ERROR_PARAM_ENTITY_REF`

A parameter entity reference was found where it was not allowed.

`xml.parsers.expat.XML_ERROR_PARTIAL_CHAR`

An incomplete character was found in the input.

`xml.parsers.expat.XML_ERROR_RECURSIVE_ENTITY_REF`

An entity reference contained another reference to the same entity; possibly via a different name, and possibly indirectly.

`xml.parsers.expat.XML_ERROR_SYNTAX`

Some unspecified syntax error was encountered.

`xml.parsers.expat.XML_ERROR_TAG_MISMATCH`

An end tag did not match the innermost open start tag.

`xml.parsers.expat.XML_ERROR_UNCLOSED_TOKEN`

Some token (such as a start tag) was not closed before the end of the stream or the next token was encountered.

`xml.parsers.expat.XML_ERROR_UNDEFINED_ENTITY`

A reference was made to an entity which was not defined.

`xml.parsers.expat.XML_ERROR_UNKNOWN_ENCODING`

The document encoding is not supported by Expat.

`xml.parsers.expat.XML_ERROR_UNCLOSED_CDATA_SECTION`

A CDATA marked section was not closed.

`xml.parsers.expat.XML_ERROR_EXTERNAL_ENTITY_HANDLING`

`xml.parsers.expat.XML_ERROR_NOT_STANDALONE`

The parser determined that the document was not « standalone » though it declared itself to be in the XML declaration, and the `NotStandaloneHandler` was set and returned 0.

`xml.parsers.expat.XML_ERROR_UNEXPECTED_STATE`

`xml.parsers.expat.XML_ERROR_ENTITY_DECLARED_IN_PE`

`xml.parsers.expat.XML_ERROR_FEATURE_REQUIRES_XML_DTD`

An operation was requested that requires DTD support to be compiled in, but Expat was configured without DTD support. This should never be reported by a standard build of the `xml.parsers.expat` module.

`xml.parsers.expat.XML_ERROR_CANT_CHANGE_FEATURE_ONCE_PARSING`

A behavioral change was requested after parsing started that can only be changed before parsing has started. This is (currently) only raised by `UseForeignDTD()`.

`xml.parsers.expat.XML_ERROR_UNBOUND_PREFIX`

An undeclared prefix was found when namespace processing was enabled.

`xml.parsers.expat.XML_ERROR_UNDECLARING_PREFIX`

The document attempted to remove the namespace declaration associated with a prefix.

`xml.parsers.expat.XML_ERROR_INCOMPLETE_PE`

A parameter entity contained incomplete markup.

`xml.parsers.expat.XML_ERROR_XML_DECL`

The document contained no document element at all.

`xml.parsers.expat.XML_ERROR_TEXT_DECL`

There was an error parsing a text declaration in an external entity.

`xml.parsers.expat.XML_ERROR_PUBLICID`

Characters were found in the public id that are not allowed.

`xml.parsers.expat.XML_ERROR_SUSPENDED`

The requested operation was made on a suspended parser, but isn't allowed. This includes attempts to provide additional input or to stop the parser.

`xml.parsers.expat.XML_ERROR_NOT_SUSPENDED`

An attempt to resume the parser was made when the parser had not been suspended.

`xml.parsers.expat.XML_ERROR_ABORTED`

This should not be reported to Python applications.

`xml.parsers.expat.XML_ERROR_FINISHED`

The requested operation was made on a parser which was finished parsing input, but isn't allowed. This includes attempts to provide additional input or to stop the parser.

`xml.parsers.expat.XML_ERROR_SUSPEND_PE`

Notes

Les modules documentés dans ce chapitre implémentent des protocoles relatifs à Internet et à ses technologies relatives. Ils sont tous implémentés en Python. La majorité de ces modules nécessitent la présence du module *socket* lui-même dépendant du système, mais fourni sur la plupart des plateformes populaires. Voici une vue d'ensemble :

20.1 webbrowser — Convenient Web-browser controller

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

The *webbrowser* module provides a high-level interface to allow displaying Web-based documents to users. Under most circumstances, simply calling the *open()* function from this module will do the right thing.

Under Unix, graphical browsers are preferred under X11, but text-mode browsers will be used if graphical browsers are not available or an X11 display isn't available. If text-mode browsers are used, the calling process will block until the user exits the browser.

If the environment variable **BROWSER** exists, it is interpreted to override the platform default list of browsers, as an *os.pathsep*-separated list of browsers to try in order. When the value of a list part contains the string *%s*, then it is interpreted as a literal browser command line to be used with the argument URL substituted for *%s*; if the part does not contain *%s*, it is simply interpreted as the name of the browser to launch.¹

For non-Unix platforms, or when a remote browser is available on Unix, the controlling process will not wait for the user to finish with the browser, but allow the remote browser to maintain its own windows on the display. If remote browsers are not available on Unix, the controlling process will launch a new browser and wait.

The script **webbrowser** can be used as a command-line interface for the module. It accepts a URL as the argument. It accepts the following optional parameters : **-n** opens the URL in a new browser window, if possible ; **-t** opens the URL in a new browser page (« tab »). The options are, naturally, mutually exclusive. Usage example :

1. Executables named here without a full path will be searched in the directories given in the **PATH** environment variable.

```
python -m webbrowser -t "http://www.python.org"
```

L'exception suivante est définie :

exception webbrowser.Error

Exception raised when a browser control error occurs.

The following functions are defined :

webbrowser.open(url, new=0, autoraise=True)

Display *url* using the default browser. If *new* is 0, the *url* is opened in the same browser window if possible. If *new* is 1, a new browser window is opened if possible. If *new* is 2, a new browser page (« tab ») is opened if possible. If *autoraise* is **True**, the window is raised if possible (note that under many window managers this will occur regardless of the setting of this variable).

Note that on some platforms, trying to open a filename using this function, may work and start the operating system's associated program. However, this is neither supported nor portable.

Modifié dans la version 2.5 : *new* can now be 2.

webbrowser.open_new(url)

Open *url* in a new window of the default browser, if possible, otherwise, open *url* in the only browser window.

webbrowser.open_new_tab(url)

Open *url* in a new page (« tab ») of the default browser, if possible, otherwise equivalent to [open_new\(\)](#).

Nouveau dans la version 2.5.

webbrowser.get([name])

Return a controller object for the browser type *name*. If *name* is empty, return a controller for a default browser appropriate to the caller's environment.

webbrowser.register(name, constructor[, instance])

Register the browser type *name*. Once a browser type is registered, the [get\(\)](#) function can return a controller for that browser type. If *instance* is not provided, or is **None**, *constructor* will be called without parameters to create an instance when needed. If *instance* is provided, *constructor* will never be called, and may be **None**.

This entry point is only useful if you plan to either set the **BROWSER** variable or call [get\(\)](#) with a nonempty argument matching the name of a handler you declare.

A number of browser types are predefined. This table gives the type names that may be passed to the [get\(\)](#) function and the corresponding instantiations for the controller classes, all defined in this module.

Type Name	Class Name	Notes
'mozilla'	Mozilla('mozilla')	
'firefox'	Mozilla('mozilla')	
'netscape'	Mozilla('netscape')	
'galeon'	Galeon('galeon')	
'epiphany'	Galeon('epiphany')	
'skipstone'	BackgroundBrowser('skipstone')	
'kfmclient'	Konqueror()	(1)
'konqueror'	Konqueror()	(1)
'kfm'	Konqueror()	(1)
'mosaic'	BackgroundBrowser('mosaic')	
'opera'	Opera()	
'grail'	Grail()	
'links'	GenericBrowser('links')	
'elinks'	Elinks('elinks')	
'lynx'	GenericBrowser('lynx')	
'w3m'	GenericBrowser('w3m')	
'windows-default'	WindowsDefault	(2)
'macosx'	MacOSX('default')	(3)
'safari'	MacOSX('safari')	(3)
'google-chrome'	Chrome('google-chrome')	(4)
'chrome'	Chrome('chrome')	(4)
'chromium'	Chromium('chromium')	(4)
'chromium-browser'	Chromium('chromium-browser')	(4)

Notes :

- (1) « Konqueror » is the file manager for the KDE desktop environment for Unix, and only makes sense to use if KDE is running. Some way of reliably detecting KDE would be nice; the KDEDIR variable is not sufficient. Note also that the name « kfm » is used even when using the **konqueror** command with KDE 2 — the implementation selects the best strategy for running Konqueror.
- (2) Only on Windows platforms.
- (3) Only on Mac OS X platform.
- (4) Support for Chrome/Chromium has been added in version 2.7.5.

Here are some simple examples :

```
url = 'http://www.python.org/'

# Open URL in a new tab, if a browser window is already open.
webbrowser.open_new_tab(url + 'doc/')

# Open URL in new window, raising the window if possible.
webbrowser.open_new(url)
```

20.1.1 Browser Controller Objects

Browser controllers provide these methods which parallel three of the module-level convenience functions :

`controller.open(url, new=0, autoraise=True)`

Display *url* using the browser handled by this controller. If *new* is 1, a new browser window is opened if possible. If *new* is 2, a new browser page (« tab ») is opened if possible.

`controller.open_new(url)`

Open *url* in a new window of the browser handled by this controller, if possible, otherwise, open *url* in the only browser window. Alias *open_new()*.

`controller.open_new_tab(url)`

Open *url* in a new page (« tab ») of the browser handled by this controller, if possible, otherwise equivalent to *open_new()*.

Nouveau dans la version 2.5.

Notes

20.2 cgi — Common Gateway Interface support

Code source : [Lib/cgi.py](#)

Support module for Common Gateway Interface (CGI) scripts.

This module defines a number of utilities for use by CGI scripts written in Python.

20.2.1 Introduction

A CGI script is invoked by an HTTP server, usually to process user input submitted through an HTML `<FORM>` or `<ISINDEX>` 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 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).

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!"
```

20.2.2 Using the cgi module

Begin by writing `import cgi`. Do not 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.

When you write a new script, consider adding these lines :


```
import cgitb
cgitb.enable()
```

This activates a special exception handler that will display detailed reports in the Web browser if any errors occur. If you'd rather not show the guts of your program to users of your script, you can have the reports saved to files instead, with code like this :

```
import cgitb
cgitb.enable(display=0, logdir="/path/to/logdir")
```

It's very helpful to use this feature during script development. The reports produced by `cgitb` provide information that can save you a lot of time in tracking down bugs. You can always remove the `cgitb` line later when you have tested your script and are confident that it works correctly.

To get at submitted form data, it's best to use the `FieldStorage` class. The other classes defined 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 indexed like a Python dictionary. It allows membership testing with the `in` operator, and also supports the standard dictionary method `keys()` and the built-in function `len()`. Form fields containing empty strings are ignored and do not appear in the dictionary; to keep such values, provide a true value for the optional `keep_blank_values` keyword parameter when creating the `FieldStorage` instance.

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()
if "name" not in form or "addr" not in form:
    print "<H1>Error</H1>"
    print "Please fill in the name and addr fields."
    return
print "<p>name:", form["name"].value
print "<p>addr:", form["addr"].value
...further form processing here...
```

Here the fields, accessed through `form[key]`, are themselves instances of `FieldStorage` (or `MiniFieldStorage`, depending on the form encoding). The `value` attribute of the instance yields the string value of the field. The `getvalue()` method returns this string value directly; it also accepts an optional second argument as a default to return if the requested key is not present.

If the submitted form data contains more than one field with the same name, the object retrieved by `form[key]` is not a `FieldStorage` or `MiniFieldStorage` instance but a list of such instances. Similarly, in this situation, `form.getvalue(key)` would return a list of strings. If you expect this possibility (when your HTML form contains multiple fields with the same name), use the `getlist()` method, which always returns a list of values (so that you do not need to special-case the single item case). For example, this code concatenates any number of username fields, separated by commas :

```
value = form.getlist("username")
usernames = ",".join(value)
```

If a field represents an uploaded file, accessing the value via the `value` attribute or the `getvalue()` method 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 leisure 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
```

If an error is encountered when obtaining the contents of an uploaded file (for example, when the user interrupts the form submission by clicking on a Back or Cancel button) the `done` attribute of the object for the field will be set to the value -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 be *multipart/form-data* (or perhaps another MIME type matching *multipart/**). In 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`.

A form submitted via POST that also has a query string will contain both `FieldStorage` and `MiniFieldStorage` items.

20.2.3 Higher Level Interface

Nouveau dans la version 2.2.

The previous section explains how to read CGI form data using the `FieldStorage` class. This section describes a higher level interface which was added to this class to allow one to do it in a more readable and intuitive way. The interface doesn't make the techniques described in previous sections obsolete — they are still useful to process file uploads efficiently, for example.

The interface consists of two simple methods. Using the methods you can process form data in a generic way, without the need to worry whether only one or more values were posted under one name.

In the previous section, you learned to write following code anytime you expected a user to post more than one value under one name :

```
item = form.getvalue("item")
if isinstance(item, list):
    # The user is requesting more than one item.
else:
    # The user is requesting only one item.
```

This situation is common for example when a form contains a group of multiple checkboxes with the same name :

```
<input type="checkbox" name="item" value="1" />
<input type="checkbox" name="item" value="2" />
```

In most situations, however, there's only one form control with a particular name in a form and then you expect and need only one value associated with this name. So you write a script containing for example this

code :

```
user = form.getvalue("user").upper()
```

The problem with the code is that you should never expect that a client will provide valid input to your scripts. For example, if a curious user appends another `user=foo` pair to the query string, then the script would crash, because in this situation the `getvalue("user")` method call returns a list instead of a string. Calling the `upper()` method on a list is not valid (since lists do not have a method of this name) and results in an `AttributeError` exception.

Therefore, the appropriate way to read form data values was to always use the code which checks whether the obtained value is a single value or a list of values. That's annoying and leads to less readable scripts.

A more convenient approach is to use the methods `getfirst()` and `getlist()` provided by this higher level interface.

`FieldStorage.getfirst(name[, default])`

This method always returns only one value associated with form field *name*. The method returns only the first value in case that more values were posted under such name. Please note that the order in which the values are received may vary from browser to browser and should not be counted on.¹ If no such form field or value exists then the method returns the value specified by the optional parameter *default*. This parameter defaults to `None` if not specified.

`FieldStorage.getlist(name)`

This method always returns a list of values associated with form field *name*. The method returns an empty list if no such form field or value exists for *name*. It returns a list consisting of one item if only one such value exists.

Using these methods you can write nice compact code :

```
import cgi
form = cgi.FieldStorage()
user = form.getfirst("user", "").upper()    # This way it's safe.
for item in form.getlist("item"):
    do_something(item)
```

20.2.4 Old classes

Obsolète depuis la version 2.6 : These classes, present in earlier versions of the `cgi` module, are still supported for backward compatibility. New applications should use the `FieldStorage` class.

`SvFormContentDict` stores single value form content as dictionary ; it assumes each field name occurs in the form only once.

`FormContentDict` stores multiple value form content as a 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.

20.2.5 Fonctions

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.

1. Note that some recent versions of the HTML specification do state what order the field values should be supplied in, but knowing whether a request was received from a conforming browser, or even from a browser at all, is tedious and error-prone.

`cgi.parse(fp[, environ[, keep_blank_values[, strict_parsing]]])`

Parse a query in the environment or from a file (the file defaults to `sys.stdin` and environment defaults to `os.environ`). The `keep_blank_values` and `strict_parsing` parameters are passed to `urlparse.parse_qs()` unchanged.

`cgi.parse_qs(qs[, keep_blank_values[, strict_parsing[, max_num_fields]]])`

This function is deprecated in this module. Use `urlparse.parse_qs()` instead. It is maintained here only for backward compatibility.

`cgi.parse_qsl(qs[, keep_blank_values[, strict_parsing[, max_num_fields]]])`

This function is deprecated in this module. Use `urlparse.parse_qsl()` instead. It is maintained here only for backward compatibility.

`cgi.parse_multipart(fp, pdict)`

Parse input of type *multipart/form-data* (for file uploads). Arguments are `fp` for the input file and `pdict` for a dictionary containing other parameters in the *Content-Type* header.

Returns a dictionary just like `urlparse.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 this does not parse nested multipart parts — use `FieldStorage` for that.

`cgi.parse_header(string)`

Parse a MIME header (such as *Content-Type*) into a main value and a dictionary of parameters.

`cgi.test()`

Robust test CGI script, usable as main program. Writes minimal HTTP headers and formats all information provided to the script in HTML form.

`cgi.print_environ()`

Format the shell environment in HTML.

`cgi.print_form(form)`

Format a form in HTML.

`cgi.print_directory()`

Format the current directory in HTML.

`cgi.print_environ_usage()`

Print a list of useful (used by CGI) environment variables in HTML.

`cgi.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 quotation mark character (") is also translated; this helps for inclusion in an HTML attribute value delimited by double quotes, as in ``. Note that single quotes are never translated.

If the value to be quoted might include single- or double-quote characters, or both, consider using the `quoteattr()` function in the `xml.sax.saxutils` module instead.

20.2.6 Caring about security

There's one important rule : if you invoke an external program (via the `os.system()` or `os.popen()` functions, or others with similar functionality), 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.

20.2.7 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 0755 octal (use `chmod 0755 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 0644 for readable and 0666 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 when you log in. 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. For example :

```
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).

20.2.8 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.

20.2.9 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, 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 (for whatever reason : 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 files, or be discarded altogether.

Fortunately, once you have managed to get your script to execute *some* code, you can easily send tracebacks to the Web browser using the `cgitb` module. If you haven't done so already, just add the lines :

```
import cgitb
cgitb.enable()
```

to the top of your script. Then try running it again ; when a problem occurs, you should see a detailed report that will likely make apparent the cause of the crash.

If you suspect that there may be a problem in importing the `cgitb` 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 be readable.

20.2.10 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`.
- If your script does not have any syntax errors, try adding `import cgitb; cgitb.enable()` 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 the userid under which your CGI script will be running : this is typically the userid under which the web server is running, or some explicitly specified userid for a web server's `suexec` feature.
- 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.

Notes

20.3 `cgitb` — Gestionnaire d'exceptions pour les scripts CGI

Nouveau dans la version 2.2.

Le module `cgitb` fournit un gestionnaire d'exceptions spécifique pour les scripts Python. (Son nom est trompeur : Il a été conçu à l'origine pour afficher des pile d'appels en HTML pour les scripts CGI, puis a été généralisé par la suite pour afficher cette information en texte brut.) Une fois ce module activé, si une exception remonte jusqu'à l'interpréteur, un rapport détaillé sera affiché. Le rapport affiche la pile d'appels, montrant des extraits de code pour chaque niveau, ainsi que les arguments et les variables locales des fonctions appelantes pour vous aider à résoudre le problème. Il est aussi possible de sauvegarder cette information dans un fichier plutôt que de l'envoyer dans le navigateur.

Pour activer cette fonctionnalité, ajoutez simplement ceci au début de votre script CGI :

```
import cgitb
cgitb.enable()
```

Les paramètres optionnels de la fonction `enable()` permettent de choisir si le rapport est envoyé au navigateur ou si le rapport est écrit dans un fichier pour analyse ultérieure.

```
cgitb.enable([display[, logdir[, context[, format]]]])
```

Appeler cette fonction remplace le gestionnaire d'exceptions par défaut de l'interpréteur par celui du module `cgitb`, en configurant `sys.excepthook`.

Le paramètre optionnel `display` vaut 1 par défaut, et peut être mis à 0 pour désactiver l'envoi des piles d'appels au navigateur. Si l'argument `logdir` est donné les piles d'appels seront écrites dans des fichiers placés dans le dossier `logdir`. L'argument optionnel `context` est le nombre de lignes de code à afficher autour de la ligne courante dans le code source à chaque niveau de la pile d'appel, il vaut 5 par défaut. Si l'argument optionnel `format` est "html", le rapport sera rédigé en HTML. Le rapport sera écrit en texte brut pour toute autre valeur. La valeur par défaut est "html".

```
cgitb.handler([info])
```

Cette fonction gère les exceptions en utilisant la configuration par défaut (c'est à dire envoyer un rapport HTML au navigateur sans l'enregistrer dans un fichier). Il peut être utilisé lorsque vous avez attrapé une exception et que vous en voulez un rapport généré par `cgitb`. L'argument optionnel `info` doit être un *tuple* de trois éléments contenant le type de l'exception, l'exception, et la pile d'appels, tel que le *tuple* renvoyé par `sys.exc_info()`. Si l'argument `info` n'est pas donné, l'exception courante est obtenue via `sys.exc_info()`.

20.4 `wsgiref` — WSGI Utilities and Reference Implementation

Nouveau dans la version 2.5.

The Web Server Gateway Interface (WSGI) is a standard interface between web server software and web applications written in Python. Having a standard interface makes it easy to use an application that supports WSGI with a number of different web servers.

Only authors of web servers and programming frameworks need to know every detail and corner case of the WSGI design. You don't need to understand every detail of WSGI just to install a WSGI application or to write a web application using an existing framework.

`wsgiref` is a reference implementation of the WSGI specification that can be used to add WSGI support to a web server or framework. It provides utilities for manipulating WSGI environment variables and response headers, base classes for implementing WSGI servers, a demo HTTP server that serves WSGI applications, and a validation tool that checks WSGI servers and applications for conformance to the WSGI specification ([PEP 333](#)).

See <https://wsgi.readthedocs.org/> for more information about WSGI, and links to tutorials and other resources.

20.4.1 wsgiref.util – WSGI environment utilities

This module provides a variety of utility functions for working with WSGI environments. A WSGI environment is a dictionary containing HTTP request variables as described in [PEP 333](#). All of the functions taking an *environ* parameter expect a WSGI-compliant dictionary to be supplied; please see [PEP 333](#) for a detailed specification.

`wsgiref.util.guess_scheme(environ)`

Return a guess for whether `wsgi.url_scheme` should be « `http` » or « `https` », by checking for a `HTTPS` environment variable in the *environ* dictionary. The return value is a string.

This function is useful when creating a gateway that wraps CGI or a CGI-like protocol such as FastCGI. Typically, servers providing such protocols will include a `HTTPS` variable with a value of « `1` » « `yes` », or « `on` » when a request is received via SSL. So, this function returns « `https` » if such a value is found, and « `http` » otherwise.

`wsgiref.util.request_uri(environ, include_query=1)`

Return the full request URI, optionally including the query string, using the algorithm found in the « `URL Reconstruction` » section of [PEP 333](#). If *include_query* is false, the query string is not included in the resulting URI.

`wsgiref.util.application_uri(environ)`

Similar to `request_uri()`, except that the `PATH_INFO` and `QUERY_STRING` variables are ignored. The result is the base URI of the application object addressed by the request.

`wsgiref.util.shift_path_info(environ)`

Shift a single name from `PATH_INFO` to `SCRIPT_NAME` and return the name. The *environ* dictionary is *modified* in-place; use a copy if you need to keep the original `PATH_INFO` or `SCRIPT_NAME` intact.

If there are no remaining path segments in `PATH_INFO`, `None` is returned.

Typically, this routine is used to process each portion of a request URI path, for example to treat the path as a series of dictionary keys. This routine modifies the passed-in environment to make it suitable for invoking another WSGI application that is located at the target URI. For example, if there is a WSGI application at `/foo`, and the request URI path is `/foo/bar/baz`, and the WSGI application at `/foo` calls `shift_path_info()`, it will receive the string « `bar` », and the environment will be updated to be suitable for passing to a WSGI application at `/foo/bar`. That is, `SCRIPT_NAME` will change from `/foo` to `/foo/bar`, and `PATH_INFO` will change from `/bar/baz` to `/baz`.

When `PATH_INFO` is just a « `/` », this routine returns an empty string and appends a trailing slash to `SCRIPT_NAME`, even though empty path segments are normally ignored, and `SCRIPT_NAME` doesn't normally end in a slash. This is intentional behavior, to ensure that an application can tell the difference between URIs ending in `/x` from ones ending in `/x/` when using this routine to do object traversal.

`wsgiref.util.setup_testing_defaults(environ)`

Update *environ* with trivial defaults for testing purposes.

This routine adds various parameters required for WSGI, including `HTTP_HOST`, `SERVER_NAME`, `SERVER_PORT`, `REQUEST_METHOD`, `SCRIPT_NAME`, `PATH_INFO`, and all of the [PEP 333](#)-defined `wsgi.*` variables. It only supplies default values, and does not replace any existing settings for these variables.

This routine is intended to make it easier for unit tests of WSGI servers and applications to set up dummy environments. It should NOT be used by actual WSGI servers or applications, since the data is fake!

Example usage :

```
from wsgiref.util import setup_testing_defaults
from wsgiref.simple_server import make_server
```

(suite sur la page suivante)

(suite de la page précédente)

```
# A relatively simple WSGI application. It's going to print out the
# environment dictionary after being updated by setup_testing_defaults
def simple_app(environ, start_response):
    setup_testing_defaults(environ)

    status = '200 OK'
    headers = [('Content-type', 'text/plain')]

    start_response(status, headers)

    ret = ["%s: %s\n" % (key, value)
           for key, value in environ.iteritems()]
    return ret

httpd = make_server('', 8000, simple_app)
print "Serving on port 8000..."
httpd.serve_forever()
```

In addition to the environment functions above, the `wsgiref.util` module also provides these miscellaneous utilities :

`wsgiref.util.is_hop_by_hop(header_name)`

Return true if “header_name” is an HTTP/1.1 « Hop-by-Hop » header, as defined by [RFC 2616](#).

`class wsgiref.util.FileWrapper(filelike, blksize=8192)`

A wrapper to convert a file-like object to an *iterator*. The resulting objects support both `__getitem__()` and `__iter__()` iteration styles, for compatibility with Python 2.1 and Jython. As the object is iterated over, the optional `blksize` parameter will be repeatedly passed to the `filelike` object’s `read()` method to obtain strings to yield. When `read()` returns an empty string, iteration is ended and is not resumable. If `filelike` has a `close()` method, the returned object will also have a `close()` method, and it will invoke the `filelike` object’s `close()` method when called.

Example usage :

```
from StringIO import StringIO
from wsgiref.util import FileWrapper

# We're using a StringIO-buffer for as the file-like object
filelike = StringIO("This is an example file-like object"*10)
wrapper = FileWrapper(filelike, blksize=5)

for chunk in wrapper:
    print chunk
```

20.4.2 wsgiref.headers – WSGI response header tools

This module provides a single class, `Headers`, for convenient manipulation of WSGI response headers using a mapping-like interface.

`class wsgiref.headers.Headers(headers)`

Create a mapping-like object wrapping `headers`, which must be a list of header name/value tuples as described in [PEP 333](#). Any changes made to the new `Headers` object will directly update the `headers` list it was created with.

Headers objects support typical mapping operations including `__getitem__()`, `get()`, `__setitem__()`, `setdefault()`, `__delitem__()`, `__contains__()` and `has_key()`. For each of these methods, the key is the header name (treated case-insensitively), and the value is the first value associated with that header name. Setting a header deletes any existing values for that header, then adds a new value at the end of the wrapped header list. Headers' existing order is generally maintained, with new headers added to the end of the wrapped list.

Unlike a dictionary, *Headers* objects do not raise an error when you try to get or delete a key that isn't in the wrapped header list. Getting a nonexistent header just returns `None`, and deleting a nonexistent header does nothing.

Headers objects also support `keys()`, `values()`, and `items()` methods. The lists returned by `keys()` and `items()` can include the same key more than once if there is a multi-valued header. The `len()` of a *Headers* object is the same as the length of its `items()`, which is the same as the length of the wrapped header list. In fact, the `items()` method just returns a copy of the wrapped header list.

Calling `str()` on a *Headers* object returns a formatted string suitable for transmission as HTTP response headers. Each header is placed on a line with its value, separated by a colon and a space. Each line is terminated by a carriage return and line feed, and the string is terminated with a blank line.

In addition to their mapping interface and formatting features, *Headers* objects also have the following methods for querying and adding multi-valued headers, and for adding headers with MIME parameters :

get_all(name)

Return a list of all the values for the named header.

The returned list will be sorted in the order they appeared in the original header list or were added to this instance, and may contain duplicates. Any fields deleted and re-inserted are always appended to the header list. If no fields exist with the given name, returns an empty list.

add_header(name, value, **_params)

Add a (possibly multi-valued) header, with optional MIME parameters specified via keyword arguments.

name is the header field to add. Keyword arguments can be used to set MIME parameters for the header field. Each parameter must be a string or `None`. Underscores in parameter names are converted to dashes, since dashes are illegal in Python identifiers, but many MIME parameter names include dashes. If the parameter value is a string, it is added to the header value parameters in the form `name="value"`. If it is `None`, only the parameter name is added. (This is used for MIME parameters without a value.) Example usage :

```
h.add_header('content-disposition', 'attachment', filename='bud.gif')
```

The above will add a header that looks like this :

```
Content-Disposition: attachment; filename="bud.gif"
```

20.4.3 wsgiref.simple_server – a simple WSGI HTTP server

This module implements a simple HTTP server (based on *BaseHTTPServer*) that serves WSGI applications. Each server instance serves a single WSGI application on a given host and port. If you want to serve multiple applications on a single host and port, you should create a WSGI application that parses `PATH_INFO` to select which application to invoke for each request. (E.g., using the `shift_path_info()` function from *wsgiref.util*.)

```
wsgiref.simple_server.make_server(host, port, app, server_class=WSGIServer, handler_class=WSGIRequestHandler)
```

Create a new WSGI server listening on *host* and *port*, accepting connections for *app*. The return value is an instance of the supplied *server_class*, and will process requests using the specified *handler_class*. *app* must be a WSGI application object, as defined by [PEP 333](#).

Example usage :

```
from wsgiref.simple_server import make_server, demo_app

httpd = make_server('', 8000, demo_app)
print "Serving HTTP on port 8000..."

# Respond to requests until process is killed
httpd.serve_forever()

# Alternative: serve one request, then exit
httpd.handle_request()
```

`wsgiref.simple_server.demo_app(environ, start_response)`

This function is a small but complete WSGI application that returns a text page containing the message « Hello world! » and a list of the key/value pairs provided in the *environ* parameter. It's useful for verifying that a WSGI server (such as *wsgiref.simple_server*) is able to run a simple WSGI application correctly.

`class wsgiref.simple_server.WSGIServer(server_address, RequestHandlerClass)`

Create a *WSGIServer* instance. *server_address* should be a (host,port) tuple, and *RequestHandlerClass* should be the subclass of *BaseHTTPServer.BaseHTTPRequestHandler* that will be used to process requests.

You do not normally need to call this constructor, as the *make_server()* function can handle all the details for you.

WSGIServer is a subclass of *BaseHTTPServer.HTTPServer*, so all of its methods (such as *serve_forever()* and *handle_request()*) are available. *WSGIServer* also provides these WSGI-specific methods :

`set_app(application)`

Sets the callable *application* as the WSGI application that will receive requests.

`get_app()`

Returns the currently-set application callable.

Normally, however, you do not need to use these additional methods, as *set_app()* is normally called by *make_server()*, and the *get_app()* exists mainly for the benefit of request handler instances.

`class wsgiref.simple_server.WSGIRequestHandler(request, client_address, server)`

Create an HTTP handler for the given *request* (i.e. a socket), *client_address* (a (host,port) tuple), and *server* (*WSGIServer* instance).

You do not need to create instances of this class directly; they are automatically created as needed by *WSGIServer* objects. You can, however, subclass this class and supply it as a *handler_class* to the *make_server()* function. Some possibly relevant methods for overriding in subclasses :

`get_environ()`

Returns a dictionary containing the WSGI environment for a request. The default implementation copies the contents of the *WSGIServer* object's *base_environ* dictionary attribute and then adds various headers derived from the HTTP request. Each call to this method should return a new dictionary containing all of the relevant CGI environment variables as specified in **PEP 333**.

`get_stderr()`

Return the object that should be used as the *wsgi.errors* stream. The default implementation just returns *sys.stderr*.

`handle()`

Process the HTTP request. The default implementation creates a handler instance using a *wsgiref.handlers* class to implement the actual WSGI application interface.

20.4.4 `wsgiref.validate` — WSGI conformance checker

When creating new WSGI application objects, frameworks, servers, or middleware, it can be useful to validate the new code's conformance using `wsgiref.validate`. This module provides a function that creates WSGI application objects that validate communications between a WSGI server or gateway and a WSGI application object, to check both sides for protocol conformance.

Note that this utility does not guarantee complete **PEP 333** compliance; an absence of errors from this module does not necessarily mean that errors do not exist. However, if this module does produce an error, then it is virtually certain that either the server or application is not 100% compliant.

This module is based on the `paste.lint` module from Ian Bicking's « Python Paste » library.

`wsgiref.validate.validator(application)`

Wrap *application* and return a new WSGI application object. The returned application will forward all requests to the original *application*, and will check that both the *application* and the server invoking it are conforming to the WSGI specification and to RFC 2616.

Any detected nonconformance results in an `AssertionError` being raised; note, however, that how these errors are handled is server-dependent. For example, `wsgiref.simple_server` and other servers based on `wsgiref.handlers` (that don't override the error handling methods to do something else) will simply output a message that an error has occurred, and dump the traceback to `sys.stderr` or some other error stream.

This wrapper may also generate output using the `warnings` module to indicate behaviors that are questionable but which may not actually be prohibited by **PEP 333**. Unless they are suppressed using Python command-line options or the `warnings` API, any such warnings will be written to `sys.stderr` (not `wsgi.errors`, unless they happen to be the same object).

Example usage :

```
from wsgiref.validate import validator
from wsgiref.simple_server import make_server

# Our callable object which is intentionally not compliant to the
# standard, so the validator is going to break
def simple_app(environ, start_response):
    status = '200 OK' # HTTP Status
    headers = [('Content-type', 'text/plain')] # HTTP Headers
    start_response(status, headers)

    # This is going to break because we need to return a list, and
    # the validator is going to inform us
    return "Hello World"

# This is the application wrapped in a validator
validator_app = validator(simple_app)

httpd = make_server('', 8000, validator_app)
print "Listening on port 8000..."
httpd.serve_forever()
```

20.4.5 `wsgiref.handlers` – server/gateway base classes

This module provides base handler classes for implementing WSGI servers and gateways. These base classes handle most of the work of communicating with a WSGI application, as long as they are given a CGI-like environment, along with input, output, and error streams.

`class wsgiref.handlers.CGIHandler`

CGI-based invocation via `sys.stdin`, `sys.stdout`, `sys.stderr` and `os.environ`. This is useful when you have a WSGI application and want to run it as a CGI script. Simply invoke `CGIHandler().run(app)`, where `app` is the WSGI application object you wish to invoke.

This class is a subclass of `BaseCGIHandler` that sets `wsgi.run_once` to true, `wsgi.multithread` to false, and `wsgi.multiprocess` to true, and always uses `sys` and `os` to obtain the necessary CGI streams and environment.

```
class wsgiref.handlers.BaseCGIHandler(stdin, stdout, stderr, environ, multithread=True, multiprocess=False)
```

Similar to `CGIHandler`, but instead of using the `sys` and `os` modules, the CGI environment and I/O streams are specified explicitly. The `multithread` and `multiprocess` values are used to set the `wsgi.multithread` and `wsgi.multiprocess` flags for any applications run by the handler instance.

This class is a subclass of `SimpleHandler` intended for use with software other than HTTP « origin servers ». If you are writing a gateway protocol implementation (such as CGI, FastCGI, SCGI, etc.) that uses a `Status`: header to send an HTTP status, you probably want to subclass this instead of `SimpleHandler`.

```
class wsgiref.handlers.SimpleHandler(stdin, stdout, stderr, environ, multithread=True, multiprocess=False)
```

Similar to `BaseCGIHandler`, but designed for use with HTTP origin servers. If you are writing an HTTP server implementation, you will probably want to subclass this instead of `BaseCGIHandler`.

This class is a subclass of `BaseHandler`. It overrides the `__init__()`, `get_stdin()`, `get_stderr()`, `add_cgi_vars()`, `_write()`, and `_flush()` methods to support explicitly setting the environment and streams via the constructor. The supplied environment and streams are stored in the `stdin`, `stdout`, `stderr`, and `environ` attributes.

```
class wsgiref.handlers.BaseHandler
```

This is an abstract base class for running WSGI applications. Each instance will handle a single HTTP request, although in principle you could create a subclass that was reusable for multiple requests.

`BaseHandler` instances have only one method intended for external use :

```
run(app)
```

Run the specified WSGI application, `app`.

All of the other `BaseHandler` methods are invoked by this method in the process of running the application, and thus exist primarily to allow customizing the process.

The following methods MUST be overridden in a subclass :

```
_write(data)
```

Buffer the string `data` for transmission to the client. It's okay if this method actually transmits the data; `BaseHandler` just separates write and flush operations for greater efficiency when the underlying system actually has such a distinction.

```
_flush()
```

Force buffered data to be transmitted to the client. It's okay if this method is a no-op (i.e., if `_write()` actually sends the data).

```
get_stdin()
```

Return an input stream object suitable for use as the `wsgi.input` of the request currently being processed.

```
get_stderr()
```

Return an output stream object suitable for use as the `wsgi.errors` of the request currently being processed.

```
add_cgi_vars()
```

Insert CGI variables for the current request into the `environ` attribute.

Here are some other methods and attributes you may wish to override. This list is only a summary, however, and does not include every method that can be overridden. You should consult the docstrings and source code for additional information before attempting to create a customized `BaseHandler` subclass.

Attributes and methods for customizing the WSGI environment :

wsgi_multithread

The value to be used for the `wsgi.multithread` environment variable. It defaults to true in *BaseHandler*, but may have a different default (or be set by the constructor) in the other subclasses.

wsgi_multiprocess

The value to be used for the `wsgi.multiprocess` environment variable. It defaults to true in *BaseHandler*, but may have a different default (or be set by the constructor) in the other subclasses.

wsgi_run_once

The value to be used for the `wsgi.run_once` environment variable. It defaults to false in *BaseHandler*, but *CGIHandler* sets it to true by default.

os_environ

The default environment variables to be included in every request's WSGI environment. By default, this is a copy of `os.environ` at the time that *wsgiref.handlers* was imported, but subclasses can either create their own at the class or instance level. Note that the dictionary should be considered read-only, since the default value is shared between multiple classes and instances.

server_software

If the *origin_server* attribute is set, this attribute's value is used to set the default `SERVER_SOFTWARE` WSGI environment variable, and also to set a default `Server:` header in HTTP responses. It is ignored for handlers (such as *BaseCGIHandler* and *CGIHandler*) that are not HTTP origin servers.

get_scheme()

Return the URL scheme being used for the current request. The default implementation uses the `guess_scheme()` function from *wsgiref.util* to guess whether the scheme should be « http » or « https », based on the current request's `environ` variables.

setup_environ()

Set the `environ` attribute to a fully-populated WSGI environment. The default implementation uses all of the above methods and attributes, plus the `get_stdin()`, `get_stderr()`, and `add_cgi_vars()` methods and the *wsgi_file_wrapper* attribute. It also inserts a `SERVER_SOFTWARE` key if not present, as long as the *origin_server* attribute is a true value and the *server_software* attribute is set.

Methods and attributes for customizing exception handling :

log_exception(exc_info)

Log the *exc_info* tuple in the server log. *exc_info* is a (type, value, traceback) tuple. The default implementation simply writes the traceback to the request's `wsgi.errors` stream and flushes it. Subclasses can override this method to change the format or retarget the output, mail the traceback to an administrator, or whatever other action may be deemed suitable.

traceback_limit

The maximum number of frames to include in tracebacks output by the default *log_exception()* method. If `None`, all frames are included.

error_output(environ, start_response)

This method is a WSGI application to generate an error page for the user. It is only invoked if an error occurs before headers are sent to the client.

This method can access the current error information using `sys.exc_info()`, and should pass that information to *start_response* when calling it (as described in the « Error Handling » section of [PEP 333](#)).

The default implementation just uses the *error_status*, *error_headers*, and *error_body* attributes to generate an output page. Subclasses can override this to produce more dynamic error output.

Note, however, that it's not recommended from a security perspective to spit out diagnostics to any old user ; ideally, you should have to do something special to enable diagnostic output, which is why the default implementation doesn't include any.

error_status

The HTTP status used for error responses. This should be a status string as defined in [PEP 333](#); it defaults to a 500 code and message.

error_headers

The HTTP headers used for error responses. This should be a list of WSGI response headers ((name, value) tuples), as described in [PEP 333](#). The default list just sets the content type to text/plain.

error_body

The error response body. This should be an HTTP response body string. It defaults to the plain text, « A server error occurred. Please contact the administrator. »

Methods and attributes for [PEP 333](#)'s « Optional Platform-Specific File Handling » feature :

wsgi_file_wrapper

A `wsgi.file_wrapper` factory, or None. The default value of this attribute is the `FileWrapper` class from `wsgiref.util`.

sendfile()

Override to implement platform-specific file transmission. This method is called only if the application's return value is an instance of the class specified by the `wsgi_file_wrapper` attribute. It should return a true value if it was able to successfully transmit the file, so that the default transmission code will not be executed. The default implementation of this method just returns a false value.

Miscellaneous methods and attributes :

origin_server

This attribute should be set to a true value if the handler's `_write()` and `_flush()` are being used to communicate directly to the client, rather than via a CGI-like gateway protocol that wants the HTTP status in a special `Status:` header.

This attribute's default value is true in `BaseHandler`, but false in `BaseCGIHandler` and `CGIHandler`.

http_version

If `origin_server` is true, this string attribute is used to set the HTTP version of the response set to the client. It defaults to "1.0".

20.4.6 Examples

This is a working « Hello World » WSGI application :

```
from wsgiref.simple_server import make_server

# Every WSGI application must have an application object - a callable
# object that accepts two arguments. For that purpose, we're going to
# use a function (note that you're not limited to a function, you can
# use a class for example). The first argument passed to the function
# is a dictionary containing CGI-style environment variables and the
# second variable is the callable object (see PEP 333).
def hello_world_app(environ, start_response):
    status = '200 OK' # HTTP Status
    headers = [('Content-type', 'text/plain')] # HTTP Headers
    start_response(status, headers)

    # The returned object is going to be printed
    return ["Hello World"]

httpd = make_server('', 8000, hello_world_app)
```

(suite sur la page suivante)

(suite de la page précédente)

```
print "Serving on port 8000..."

# Serve until process is killed
httpd.serve_forever()
```

20.5 urllib — Open arbitrary resources by URL

Note : The `urllib` module has been split into parts and renamed in Python 3 to `urllib.request`, `urllib.parse`, and `urllib.error`. The *2to3* tool will automatically adapt imports when converting your sources to Python 3. Also note that the `urllib.request.urlopen()` function in Python 3 is equivalent to `urllib2.urlopen()` and that `urllib.urlopen()` has been removed.

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 Universal Resource Locators (URLs) instead of filenames. Some restrictions apply — it can only open URLs for reading, and no seek operations are available.

Voir aussi :

The `Requests` package is recommended for a higher-level HTTP client interface.

Modifié dans la version 2.7.9 : For HTTPS URIs, `urllib` performs all the necessary certificate and hostname checks by default.

Avertissement : For Python versions earlier than 2.7.9, `urllib` does not attempt to validate the server certificates of HTTPS URIs. Use at your own risk!

20.5.1 High-level interface

```
urllib.urlopen(uri[, data[, proxies[, context]]])
```

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 (without *universal newlines*) ; otherwise it opens a socket to a server somewhere on the network. If the connection cannot be made 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()`, `info()`, `getcode()` and `geturl()`. It also has proper support for the *iterator* protocol. One caveat : the `read()` method, if the size argument is omitted or negative, may not read until the end of the data stream ; there is no good way to determine that the entire stream from a socket has been read in the general case.

Except for the `info()`, `getcode()` and `geturl()` methods, these methods have the same interface as for file objects — see section *Objets fichiers* in this manual. (It is 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 `mimetypes.Message` containing meta-information associated with the URL. When the method is HTTP, these headers are those returned by the server at the head of the retrieved HTML page (including Content-Length and Content-Type). When the method is FTP, a Content-Length header will be present if (as is now usual) the server passed back a file length in response to the FTP retrieval request. A Content-Type header will be present if the MIME type can be guessed. When the method is local-file, returned headers will include a Date representing the file's last-modified time, a Content-Length giving file size, and a Content-Type containing a guess at the file's type. See also the description of the `mimetypes` module.

The `geturl()` method returns the real URL of the page. In some cases, the HTTP server redirects a client to another URL. The `urlopen()` function handles this transparently, but in some cases the caller needs to know which URL the client was redirected to. The `geturl()` method can be used to get at this redirected URL.

The `getcode()` method returns the HTTP status code that was sent with the response, or `None` if the URL is no HTTP URL.

If the *url* uses the `http:` scheme identifier, the optional *data* argument may be given to specify a POST request (normally the request type is GET). The *data* argument must be in standard *application/x-www-form-urlencoded* format; see the `urlencode()` function below.

The `urlopen()` function works transparently with proxies which do not require authentication. In a Unix or Windows environment, set the `http_proxy`, or `ftp_proxy` environment variables to a URL that identifies the proxy server before starting the Python interpreter. For example (the `'%'` is the command prompt) :

```
% http_proxy="http://www.someproxy.com:3128"
% export http_proxy
% python
...
```

The `no_proxy` environment variable can be used to specify hosts which shouldn't be reached via proxy; if set, it should be a comma-separated list of hostname suffixes, optionally with `:port` appended, for example `cern.ch,ncsa.uiuc.edu,some.host:8080`.

In a Windows environment, if no proxy environment variables are set, proxy settings are obtained from the registry's Internet Settings section.

In a Mac OS X environment, `urlopen()` will retrieve proxy information from the OS X System Configuration Framework, which can be managed with Network System Preferences panel.

Alternatively, the optional *proxies* argument may be used to explicitly specify proxies. It must be a dictionary mapping scheme names to proxy URLs, where an empty dictionary causes no proxies to be used, and `None` (the default value) causes environmental proxy settings to be used as discussed above. For example :

```
# Use http://www.someproxy.com:3128 for HTTP proxying
proxies = {'http': 'http://www.someproxy.com:3128'}
filehandle = urllib.urlopen(some_url, proxies=proxies)
# Don't use any proxies
filehandle = urllib.urlopen(some_url, proxies={})
# Use proxies from environment - both versions are equivalent
filehandle = urllib.urlopen(some_url, proxies=None)
filehandle = urllib.urlopen(some_url)
```

Proxies which require authentication for use are not currently supported; this is considered an implementation limitation.

The *context* parameter may be set to a `ssl.SSLContext` instance to configure the SSL settings that are used if `urlopen()` makes a HTTPS connection.

Modifié dans la version 2.3 : Added the *proxies* support.

Modifié dans la version 2.6 : Added `getcode()` to returned object and support for the `no_proxy` environment variable.

Modifié dans la version 2.7.9 : The *context* parameter was added. All the necessary certificate and hostname checks are done by default.

Obsolète depuis la version 2.6 : The `urlopen()` function has been removed in Python 3 in favor of `urllib2.urlopen()`.

`urllib.urlretrieve(url[, filename[, reporthook[, data[, context]]]])`

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 whatever the `info()` method of the object returned by `urlopen()` returned (for a remote object, possibly cached). Exceptions are the same as for `urlopen()`.

The second argument, if present, specifies the file location to copy to (if absent, the location will be a tempfile with a generated name). The third argument, if present, is a callable that will be called once on establishment of the network connection and once after each block read thereafter. The callable will be passed three arguments; a count of blocks transferred so far, a block size in bytes, and the total size of the file. The third argument may be `-1` on older FTP servers which do not return a file size in response to a retrieval request.

If the *url* uses the `http:` scheme identifier, the optional *data* argument may be given to specify a POST request (normally the request type is GET). The *data* argument must in standard *application/x-www-form-urlencoded* format; see the `urlencode()` function below.

The *context* parameter may be set to a `ssl.SSLContext` instance to configure the SSL settings that are used if `urlretrieve()` makes a HTTPS connection.

Modifié dans la version 2.5 : `urlretrieve()` will raise `ContentTooShortError` when it detects that the amount of data available was less than the expected amount (which is the size reported by a *Content-Length* header). This can occur, for example, when the download is interrupted.

The *Content-Length* is treated as a lower bound : if there's more data to read, `urlretrieve()` reads more data, but if less data is available, it raises the exception.

You can still retrieve the downloaded data in this case, it is stored in the `content` attribute of the exception instance.

If no *Content-Length* header was supplied, `urlretrieve()` can not check the size of the data it has downloaded, and just returns it. In this case you just have to assume that the download was successful.

Modifié dans la version 2.7.9 : The *context* parameter was added. All the necessary certificate and hostname checks are done by default.

`urllib._urlopener`

The public functions `urlopen()` and `urlretrieve()` create an instance of the `FancyURLopener` class and use it to perform their requested actions. To override this functionality, programmers can create a subclass of `URLopener` or `FancyURLopener`, then assign an instance of that class to the `urllib._urlopener` variable before calling the desired function. For example, applications may want to specify a different *User-Agent* header than `URLopener` defines. This can be accomplished with the following code :

```
import urllib

class AppURLopener(urllib.FancyURLopener):
    version = "App/1.7"

urllib._urlopener = AppURLopener()
```

`urllib.urlcleanup()`

Clear the cache that may have been built up by previous calls to `urlretrieve()`.

20.5.2 Utility functions

`urllib.quote(string[, safe])`

Replace special characters in *string* using the `%xx` escape. Letters, digits, and the characters `'_.'` are never quoted. By default, this function is intended for quoting the path section of the URL. The optional *safe* parameter specifies additional characters that should not be quoted — its default value is `('/')`.

Example : `quote('/~connolly/')` yields `/%7econnolly/`.

`urllib.quote_plus(string[, safe])`

Like `quote()`, but also replaces spaces by plus signs, as required for quoting HTML form values when building up a query string to go into a URL. Plus signs in the original string are escaped unless they are included in *safe*. It also does not have *safe* default to `'/'`.

`urllib.unquote(string)`

Replace `%xx` escapes by their single-character equivalent.

Example : `unquote('%7Econnolly/')` yields `'/~connolly/'`.

`urllib.unquote_plus(string)`

Like `unquote()`, but also replaces plus signs by spaces, as required for unquoting HTML form values.

`urllib.urlencode(query[, doseq])`

Convert a mapping object or a sequence of two-element tuples to a « percent-encoded » string, suitable to pass to `urlopen()` above as the optional *data* argument. This is useful to pass a dictionary of form fields to a POST request. The resulting string is a series of `key=value` pairs separated by `'&'` characters, where both *key* and *value* are quoted using `quote_plus()` above. When a sequence of two-element tuples is used as the *query* argument, the first element of each tuple is a key and the second is a value. The value element in itself can be a sequence and in that case, if the optional parameter *doseq* is evaluates to `True`, individual `key=value` pairs separated by `'&'` are generated for each element of the value sequence for the key. The order of parameters in the encoded string will match the order of parameter tuples in the sequence. The `urlparse` module provides the functions `parse_qs()` and `parse_qsl()` which are used to parse query strings into Python data structures.

`urllib.pathname2url(path)`

Convert the pathname *path* from the local syntax for a path to the form used in the path component of a URL. This does not produce a complete URL. The return value will already be quoted using the `quote()` function.

`urllib.url2pathname(path)`

Convert the path component *path* from a percent-encoded URL to the local syntax for a path. This does not accept a complete URL. This function uses `unquote()` to decode *path*.

`urllib.getproxies()`

This helper function returns a dictionary of scheme to proxy server URL mappings. It scans the environment for variables named `<scheme>_proxy`, in case insensitive way, for all operating systems first, and when it cannot find it, looks for proxy information from Mac OSX System Configuration for Mac OS X and Windows Systems Registry for Windows. If both lowercase and uppercase environment variables exist (and disagree), lowercase is preferred.

Note : If the environment variable `REQUEST_METHOD` is set, which usually indicates your script is running in a CGI environment, the environment variable `HTTP_PROXY` (uppercase `_PROXY`) will be ignored. This is because that variable can be injected by a client using the « Proxy : » HTTP header. If you need to use an HTTP proxy in a CGI environment, either use `ProxyHandler` explicitly, or make sure the variable name is in lowercase (or at least the `_proxy` suffix).

Note : `urllib` also exposes certain utility functions like `splitttype`, `splithost` and others parsing URL into various components. But it is recommended to use `urlparse` for parsing URLs rather than using these functions directly. Python 3 does not expose these helper functions from `urllib.parse` module.

20.5.3 URL Opener objects

`class urllib.URLopener([proxies[, context[, **x509]]])`

Base class for opening and reading URLs. Unless you need to support opening objects using schemes

other than `http:`, `ftp:`, or `file:`, you probably want to use *FancyURLopener*.

By default, the *URLopener* class sends a *User-Agent* header of `urllib/VVV`, where *VVV* is the *urllib* version number. Applications can define their own *User-Agent* header by subclassing *URLopener* or *FancyURLopener* and setting the class attribute *version* to an appropriate string value in the subclass definition.

The optional *proxies* parameter should be a dictionary mapping scheme names to proxy URLs, where an empty dictionary turns proxies off completely. Its default value is `None`, in which case environmental proxy settings will be used if present, as discussed in the definition of *urlopen()*, above.

The *context* parameter may be a *ssl.SSLContext* instance. If given, it defines the SSL settings the opener uses to make HTTPS connections.

Additional keyword parameters, collected in *x509*, may be used for authentication of the client when using the `https:` scheme. The keywords *key_file* and *cert_file* are supported to provide an SSL key and certificate; both are needed to support client authentication.

URLopener objects will raise an *IOError* exception if the server returns an error code.

Modifié dans la version 2.7.9 : The *context* parameter was added. All the necessary certificate and hostname checks are done by default.

open(*fullurl*[, *data*])

Open *fullurl* using the appropriate protocol. This method sets up cache and proxy information, then calls the appropriate open method with its input arguments. If the scheme is not recognized, *open_unknown()* is called. The *data* argument has the same meaning as the *data* argument of *urlopen()*.

open_unknown(*fullurl*[, *data*])

Overridable interface to open unknown URL types.

retrieve(*url*[, *filename*[, *repthook*[, *data*]]])

Retrieves the contents of *url* and places it in *filename*. The return value is a tuple consisting of a local filename and either a *mimertools.Message* object containing the response headers (for remote URLs) or `None` (for local URLs). The caller must then open and read the contents of *filename*. If *filename* is not given and the URL refers to a local file, the input filename is returned. If the URL is non-local and *filename* is not given, the filename is the output of *tempfile.mktemp()* with a suffix that matches the suffix of the last path component of the input URL. If *repthook* is given, it must be a function accepting three numeric parameters. It will be called after each chunk of data is read from the network. *repthook* is ignored for local URLs.

If the *url* uses the `http:` scheme identifier, the optional *data* argument may be given to specify a POST request (normally the request type is GET). The *data* argument must in standard *application/x-www-form-urlencoded* format; see the *urlencode()* function below.

version

Variable that specifies the user agent of the opener object. To get *urllib* to tell servers that it is a particular user agent, set this in a subclass as a class variable or in the constructor before calling the base constructor.

class *urllib.FancyURLopener*(...)

FancyURLopener subclasses *URLopener* providing default handling for the following HTTP response codes : 301, 302, 303, 307 and 401. For the 30x response codes listed above, the *Location* header is used to fetch the actual URL. For 401 response codes (authentication required), basic HTTP authentication is performed. For the 30x response codes, recursion is bounded by the value of the *maxtries* attribute, which defaults to 10.

For all other response codes, the method *http_error_default()* is called which you can override in subclasses to handle the error appropriately.

Note : According to the letter of **RFC 2616**, 301 and 302 responses to POST requests must not be automatically redirected without confirmation by the user. In reality, browsers do allow automatic redirection of these responses, changing the POST to a GET, and *urllib* reproduces this behaviour.

The parameters to the constructor are the same as those for *URLopener*.

Note : When performing basic authentication, a *FancyURLopener* instance calls its *prompt_user_passwd()* method. The default implementation asks the users for the required information on the controlling terminal. A subclass may override this method to support more appropriate behavior if needed.

The *FancyURLopener* class offers one additional method that should be overloaded to provide the appropriate behavior :

prompt_user_passwd(*host, realm*)

Return information needed to authenticate the user at the given host in the specified security realm. The return value should be a tuple, (*user, password*), which can be used for basic authentication.

The implementation prompts for this information on the terminal ; an application should override this method to use an appropriate interaction model in the local environment.

exception `urllib.ContentTooShortError`(*msg*[, *content*])

This exception is raised when the *urlretrieve()* function detects that the amount of the downloaded data is less than the expected amount (given by the *Content-Length* header). The *content* attribute stores the downloaded (and supposedly truncated) data.

Nouveau dans la version 2.5.

20.5.4 urllib Restrictions

- Currently, only the following protocols are supported : HTTP, (versions 0.9 and 1.0), 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 (such as 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. If the returned data is HTML, you can use the module *htmllib* to parse it.
- The code handling the FTP protocol cannot differentiate between a file and a directory. This can lead to unexpected behavior when attempting to read a URL that points to a file that is not accessible. If the URL ends in a /, it is assumed to refer to a directory and will be handled accordingly. But if an attempt to read a file leads to a 550 error (meaning the URL cannot be found or is not accessible, often for permission reasons), then the path is treated as a directory in order to handle the case when a directory is specified by a URL but the trailing / has been left off. This can cause misleading results when you try to fetch a file whose read permissions make it inaccessible ; the FTP code will try to read it, fail with a 550 error, and then perform a directory listing for the unreadable file. If fine-grained control is needed, consider using the *ftplib* module, subclassing *FancyURLopener*, or changing *_urlopener* to meet your needs.
- This module does not support the use of proxies which require authentication. This may be implemented in the future.
- Although the *urllib* module contains (undocumented) routines to parse and unparse URL strings, the recommended interface for URL manipulation is in module *urlparse*.

20.5.5 Examples

Here is an example session that uses the GET method to retrieve a URL containing parameters :

```
>>> import urllib
>>> params = urllib.urlencode({'spam': 1, 'eggs': 2, 'bacon': 0})
>>> f = urllib.urlopen("http://www.musi-cal.com/cgi-bin/query?" + params)
>>> print f.read()
```

The following example uses the POST method instead :

```
>>> import urllib
>>> params = urllib.urlencode({'spam': 1, 'eggs': 2, 'bacon': 0})
>>> f = urllib.urlopen("http://www.musi-cal.com/cgi-bin/query", params)
>>> print f.read()
```

The following example uses an explicitly specified HTTP proxy, overriding environment settings :

```
>>> import urllib
>>> proxies = {'http': 'http://proxy.example.com:8080/'}
>>> opener = urllib.FancyURLopener(proxies)
>>> f = opener.open("http://www.python.org")
>>> f.read()
```

The following example uses no proxies at all, overriding environment settings :

```
>>> import urllib
>>> opener = urllib.FancyURLopener({})
>>> f = opener.open("http://www.python.org/")
>>> f.read()
```

20.6 urllib2 — extensible library for opening URLs

Note : The `urllib2` module has been split across several modules in Python 3 named `urllib.request` and `urllib.error`. The *2to3* tool will automatically adapt imports when converting your sources to Python 3.

The `urllib2` module defines functions and classes which help in opening URLs (mostly HTTP) in a complex world — basic and digest authentication, redirections, cookies and more.

Voir aussi :

The `Requests` package is recommended for a higher-level HTTP client interface.

The `urllib2` module defines the following functions :

`urllib2.urlopen(url[, data[, timeout[, cafile[, capath[, cadefault[, context]]]])`

Open the URL *url*, which can be either a string or a `Request` object.

data may be a string specifying additional data to send to the server, or `None` if no such data is needed. Currently HTTP requests are the only ones that use *data*; the HTTP request will be a POST instead of a GET when the *data* parameter is provided. *data* should be a buffer in the standard *application/x-www-form-urlencoded* format. The `urllib.urlencode()` function takes a mapping or sequence of 2-tuples and returns a string in this format. `urllib2` module sends HTTP/1.1 requests with `Connection:close` header included.

The optional *timeout* parameter specifies a timeout in seconds for blocking operations like the connection attempt (if not specified, the global default timeout setting will be used). This actually only works for HTTP, HTTPS and FTP connections.

If *context* is specified, it must be a `ssl.SSLContext` instance describing the various SSL options. See `HTTPConnection` for more details.

The optional *cafile* and *capath* parameters specify a set of trusted CA certificates for HTTPS requests. *cafile* should point to a single file containing a bundle of CA certificates, whereas *capath* should point to a directory of hashed certificate files. More information can be found in `ssl.SSLContext.load_verify_locations()`.

The *cadefault* parameter is ignored.

This function returns a file-like object with three additional methods :

- `geturl()` — return the URL of the resource retrieved, commonly used to determine if a redirect was followed
- `info()` — return the meta-information of the page, such as headers, in the form of an `mimetypes.Message` instance (see Quick Reference to HTTP Headers)
- `getcode()` — return the HTTP status code of the response.

Raises `URLError` on errors.

Note that `None` may be returned if no handler handles the request (though the default installed global `OpenerDirector` uses `UnknownHandler` to ensure this never happens).

In addition, if proxy settings are detected (for example, when a `*_proxy` environment variable like `http_proxy` is set), `ProxyHandler` is default installed and makes sure the requests are handled through the proxy.

Modifié dans la version 2.6 : Ajout de *timeout*.

Modifié dans la version 2.7.9 : *cafile*, *capath*, *cadefault*, and *context* were added.

`urllib2.install_opener(opener)`

Install an `OpenerDirector` instance as the default global opener. Installing an opener is only necessary if you want `urlopen` to use that opener; otherwise, simply call `OpenerDirector.open()` instead of `urlopen()`. The code does not check for a real `OpenerDirector`, and any class with the appropriate interface will work.

`urllib2.build_opener([handler, ...])`

Return an `OpenerDirector` instance, which chains the handlers in the order given. *handlers* can be either instances of `BaseHandler`, or subclasses of `BaseHandler` (in which case it must be possible to call the constructor without any parameters). Instances of the following classes will be in front of the *handlers*, unless the *handlers* contain them, instances of them or subclasses of them : `ProxyHandler` (if proxy settings are detected), `UnknownHandler`, `HTTPHandler`, `HTTPDefaultErrorHandler`, `HTTPRedirectHandler`, `FTPHandler`, `FileHandler`, `HTTPErrorProcessor`.

If the Python installation has SSL support (i.e., if the `ssl` module can be imported), `HTTPSHandler` will also be added.

Beginning in Python 2.3, a `BaseHandler` subclass may also change its `handler_order` attribute to modify its position in the handlers list.

The following exceptions are raised as appropriate :

exception `urllib2.URLError`

The handlers raise this exception (or derived exceptions) when they run into a problem. It is a subclass of `IOError`.

reason

The reason for this error. It can be a message string or another exception instance (`socket.error` for remote URLs, `OSError` for local URLs).

exception `urllib2.HTTPError`

Though being an exception (a subclass of `URLError`), an `HTTPError` can also function as a non-exceptional file-like return value (the same thing that `urlopen()` returns). This is useful when handling exotic HTTP errors, such as requests for authentication.

code

An HTTP status code as defined in [RFC 2616](#). This numeric value corresponds to a value found in the dictionary of codes as found in `BaseHTTPServer.BaseHTTPRequestHandler.responses`.

reason

La raison de cette erreur. Il peut s'agir d'un message textuel ou d'une autre instance d'exception.

The following classes are provided :

```
class urllib2.Request(url[, data][, headers][, origin_req_host][, unverifiable])
```

This class is an abstraction of a URL request.

url should be a string containing a valid URL.

data may be a string specifying additional data to send to the server, or `None` if no such data is needed. Currently HTTP requests are the only ones that use *data*; the HTTP request will be a POST instead of a GET when the *data* parameter is provided. *data* should be a buffer in the standard *application/x-www-form-urlencoded* format. The `urllib.urlencode()` function takes a mapping or sequence of 2-tuples and returns a string in this format.

headers should be a dictionary, and will be treated as if `add_header()` was called with each key and value as arguments. This is often used to « spoof » the *User-Agent* header value, which is used by a browser to identify itself – some HTTP servers only allow requests coming from common browsers as opposed to scripts. For example, Mozilla Firefox may identify itself as "Mozilla/5.0 (X11; U; Linux i686) Gecko/20071127 Firefox/2.0.0.11", while `urllib2`'s default user agent string is "Python-urllib/2.6" (on Python 2.6).

The final two arguments are only of interest for correct handling of third-party HTTP cookies :

origin_req_host should be the request-host of the origin transaction, as defined by [RFC 2965](#). It defaults to `cookielib.request_host(self)`. This is the host name or IP address of the original request that was initiated by the user. For example, if the request is for an image in an HTML document, this should be the request-host of the request for the page containing the image.

unverifiable should indicate whether the request is unverifiable, as defined by RFC 2965. It defaults to `False`. An unverifiable request is one whose URL the user did not have the option to approve. For example, if the request is for an image in an HTML document, and the user had no option to approve the automatic fetching of the image, this should be true.

```
class urllib2.OpenerDirector
```

The *OpenerDirector* class opens URLs via *BaseHandlers* chained together. It manages the chaining of handlers, and recovery from errors.

```
class urllib2.BaseHandler
```

This is the base class for all registered handlers — and handles only the simple mechanics of registration.

```
class urllib2.HTTPDefaultErrorHandler
```

A class which defines a default handler for HTTP error responses; all responses are turned into *HTTPError* exceptions.

```
class urllib2.HTTPRedirectHandler
```

A class to handle redirections.

```
class urllib2.HTTPCookieProcessor([cookiejar])
```

A class to handle HTTP Cookies.

```
class urllib2.ProxyHandler([proxies])
```

Cause requests to go through a proxy. If *proxies* is given, it must be a dictionary mapping protocol names to URLs of proxies. The default is to read the list of proxies from the environment variables `<protocol>_proxy`. If no proxy environment variables are set, then in a Windows environment proxy settings are obtained from the registry's Internet Settings section, and in a Mac OS X environment proxy information is retrieved from the OS X System Configuration Framework.

To disable autodetected proxy pass an empty dictionary.

Note : HTTP_PROXY will be ignored if a variable REQUEST_METHOD is set ; see the documentation on [getproxies\(\)](#).

class urllib2.HTTPPasswordMgr

Keep a database of (realm, uri) -> (user, password) mappings.

class urllib2.HTTPPasswordMgrWithDefaultRealm

Keep a database of (realm, uri) -> (user, password) mappings. A realm of None is considered a catch-all realm, which is searched if no other realm fits.

class urllib2.AbstractBasicAuthHandler([password_mgr])

This is a mixin class that helps with HTTP authentication, both to the remote host and to a proxy. *password_mgr*, if given, should be something that is compatible with [HTTPPasswordMgr](#) ; refer to section [HTTPPasswordMgr Objects](#) for information on the interface that must be supported.

class urllib2.HTTPBasicAuthHandler([password_mgr])

Handle authentication with the remote host. *password_mgr*, if given, should be something that is compatible with [HTTPPasswordMgr](#) ; refer to section [HTTPPasswordMgr Objects](#) for information on the interface that must be supported.

class urllib2.ProxyBasicAuthHandler([password_mgr])

Handle authentication with the proxy. *password_mgr*, if given, should be something that is compatible with [HTTPPasswordMgr](#) ; refer to section [HTTPPasswordMgr Objects](#) for information on the interface that must be supported.

class urllib2.AbstractDigestAuthHandler([password_mgr])

This is a mixin class that helps with HTTP authentication, both to the remote host and to a proxy. *password_mgr*, if given, should be something that is compatible with [HTTPPasswordMgr](#) ; refer to section [HTTPPasswordMgr Objects](#) for information on the interface that must be supported.

class urllib2.HTTPDigestAuthHandler([password_mgr])

Handle authentication with the remote host. *password_mgr*, if given, should be something that is compatible with [HTTPPasswordMgr](#) ; refer to section [HTTPPasswordMgr Objects](#) for information on the interface that must be supported.

class urllib2.ProxyDigestAuthHandler([password_mgr])

Handle authentication with the proxy. *password_mgr*, if given, should be something that is compatible with [HTTPPasswordMgr](#) ; refer to section [HTTPPasswordMgr Objects](#) for information on the interface that must be supported.

class urllib2.HTTPHandler

A class to handle opening of HTTP URLs.

class urllib2.HTTPSHandler([debuglevel[, context]])

A class to handle opening of HTTPS URLs. *context* has the same meaning as for [httplib.HTTPSConnection](#).

Modifié dans la version 2.7.9 : *context* added.

class urllib2.FileHandler

Open local files.

class urllib2.FTPHandler

Open FTP URLs.

class urllib2.CacheFTPHandler

Open FTP URLs, keeping a cache of open FTP connections to minimize delays.

`class urllib2.UnknownHandler`
A catch-all class to handle unknown URLs.

`class urllib2.HTTPErrorProcessor`
Process HTTP error responses.

20.6.1 Request Objects

The following methods describe all of *Request*'s public interface, and so all must be overridden in subclasses.

`Request.add_data(data)`
Set the *Request* data to *data*. This is ignored by all handlers except HTTP handlers — and there it should be a byte string, and will change the request to be POST rather than GET.

`Request.get_method()`
Return a string indicating the HTTP request method. This is only meaningful for HTTP requests, and currently always returns 'GET' or 'POST'.

`Request.has_data()`
Return whether the instance has a non-None data.

`Request.get_data()`
Return the instance's data.

`Request.add_header(key, val)`
Add another header to the request. Headers are currently ignored by all handlers except HTTP handlers, where they are added to the list of headers sent to the server. Note that there cannot be more than one header with the same name, and later calls will overwrite previous calls in case the *key* collides. Currently, this is no loss of HTTP functionality, since all headers which have meaning when used more than once have a (header-specific) way of gaining the same functionality using only one header.

`Request.add_unredirected_header(key, header)`
Add a header that will not be added to a redirected request.
Nouveau dans la version 2.4.

`Request.has_header(header)`
Return whether the instance has the named header (checks both regular and unredirected).
Nouveau dans la version 2.4.

`Request.get_full_url()`
Return the URL given in the constructor.

`Request.get_type()`
Return the type of the URL — also known as the scheme.

`Request.get_host()`
Return the host to which a connection will be made.

`Request.get_selector()`
Return the selector — the part of the URL that is sent to the server.

`Request.get_header(header_name, default=None)`
Return the value of the given header. If the header is not present, return the default value.

`Request.header_items()`
Return a list of tuples (header_name, header_value) of the Request headers.

`Request.set_proxy(host, type)`
Prepare the request by connecting to a proxy server. The *host* and *type* will replace those of the instance, and the instance's selector will be the original URL given in the constructor.

`Request.get_origin_req_host()`

Return the request-host of the origin transaction, as defined by [RFC 2965](#). See the documentation for the [Request](#) constructor.

`Request.is_unverifiable()`

Return whether the request is unverifiable, as defined by RFC 2965. See the documentation for the [Request](#) constructor.

20.6.2 OpenerDirector Objects

[OpenerDirector](#) instances have the following methods :

`OpenerDirector.add_handler(handler)`

handler should be an instance of [BaseHandler](#). The following methods are searched, and added to the possible chains (note that HTTP errors are a special case).

- *protocol_open* — signal that the handler knows how to open *protocol* URLs.
- *http_error_type* — signal that the handler knows how to handle HTTP errors with HTTP error code *type*.
- *protocol_error* — signal that the handler knows how to handle errors from (non-*http*) *protocol*.
- *protocol_request* — signal that the handler knows how to pre-process *protocol* requests.
- *protocol_response* — signal that the handler knows how to post-process *protocol* responses.

`OpenerDirector.open(url[, data][, timeout])`

Open the given *url* (which can be a request object or a string), optionally passing the given *data*. Arguments, return values and exceptions raised are the same as those of [urlopen\(\)](#) (which simply calls the [open\(\)](#) method on the currently installed global [OpenerDirector](#)). The optional *timeout* parameter specifies a timeout in seconds for blocking operations like the connection attempt (if not specified, the global default timeout setting will be used). The timeout feature actually works only for HTTP, HTTPS and FTP connections).

Modifié dans la version 2.6 : Ajout de *timeout*.

`OpenerDirector.error(proto[, arg[, ...]])`

Handle an error of the given protocol. This will call the registered error handlers for the given protocol with the given arguments (which are protocol specific). The HTTP protocol is a special case which uses the HTTP response code to determine the specific error handler; refer to the `http_error_*`() methods of the handler classes.

Return values and exceptions raised are the same as those of [urlopen\(\)](#).

[OpenerDirector](#) objects open URLs in three stages :

The order in which these methods are called within each stage is determined by sorting the handler instances.

1. Every handler with a method named like *protocol_request* has that method called to pre-process the request.
2. Handlers with a method named like *protocol_open* are called to handle the request. This stage ends when a handler either returns a non-*None* value (ie. a response), or raises an exception (usually [URLError](#)). Exceptions are allowed to propagate.

In fact, the above algorithm is first tried for methods named `default_open()`. If all such methods return *None*, the algorithm is repeated for methods named like *protocol_open*. If all such methods return *None*, the algorithm is repeated for methods named `unknown_open()`.

Note that the implementation of these methods may involve calls of the parent [OpenerDirector](#) instance's [open\(\)](#) and [error\(\)](#) methods.

3. Every handler with a method named like *protocol_response* has that method called to post-process the response.

20.6.3 BaseHandler Objects

BaseHandler objects provide a couple of methods that are directly useful, and others that are meant to be used by derived classes. These are intended for direct use :

`BaseHandler.add_parent(director)`
Add a director as parent.

`BaseHandler.close()`
Remove any parents.

The following attributes and methods should only be used by classes derived from *BaseHandler*.

Note : The convention has been adopted that subclasses defining `protocol_request()` or `protocol_response()` methods are named **Processor* ; all others are named **Handler*.

`BaseHandler.parent`
A valid *OpenerDirector*, which can be used to open using a different protocol, or handle errors.

`BaseHandler.default_open(req)`
This method is *not* defined in *BaseHandler*, but subclasses should define it if they want to catch all URLs.
This method, if implemented, will be called by the parent *OpenerDirector*. It should return a file-like object as described in the return value of the `open()` of *OpenerDirector*, or None. It should raise *URLError*, unless a truly exceptional thing happens (for example, *MemoryError* should not be mapped to *URLError*).
This method will be called before any protocol-specific open method.

`BaseHandler.protocol_open(req)`
(« protocol » is to be replaced by the protocol name.)
This method is *not* defined in *BaseHandler*, but subclasses should define it if they want to handle URLs with the given *protocol*.
This method, if defined, will be called by the parent *OpenerDirector*. Return values should be the same as for `default_open()`.

`BaseHandler.unknown_open(req)`
This method is *not* defined in *BaseHandler*, but subclasses should define it if they want to catch all URLs with no specific registered handler to open it.
This method, if implemented, will be called by the *parent OpenerDirector*. Return values should be the same as for `default_open()`.

`BaseHandler.http_error_default(req, fp, code, msg, hdrs)`
This method is *not* defined in *BaseHandler*, but subclasses should override it if they intend to provide a catch-all for otherwise unhandled HTTP errors. It will be called automatically by the *OpenerDirector* getting the error, and should not normally be called in other circumstances.
req will be a *Request* object, *fp* will be a file-like object with the HTTP error body, *code* will be the three-digit code of the error, *msg* will be the user-visible explanation of the code and *hdrs* will be a mapping object with the headers of the error.
Return values and exceptions raised should be the same as those of `urlopen()`.

`BaseHandler.http_error_nnn(req, fp, code, msg, hdrs)`
nnn should be a three-digit HTTP error code. This method is also not defined in *BaseHandler*, but will be called, if it exists, on an instance of a subclass, when an HTTP error with code *nnn* occurs.
Subclasses should override this method to handle specific HTTP errors.
Arguments, return values and exceptions raised should be the same as for `http_error_default()`.

`BaseHandler.protocol_request(req)`

(« protocol » is to be replaced by the protocol name.)

This method is *not* defined in *BaseHandler*, but subclasses should define it if they want to pre-process requests of the given *protocol*.

This method, if defined, will be called by the parent *OpenerDirector*. *req* will be a *Request* object. The return value should be a *Request* object.

`BaseHandler.protocol_response(req, response)`

(« protocol » is to be replaced by the protocol name.)

This method is *not* defined in *BaseHandler*, but subclasses should define it if they want to post-process responses of the given *protocol*.

This method, if defined, will be called by the parent *OpenerDirector*. *req* will be a *Request* object. *response* will be an object implementing the same interface as the return value of *urlopen()*. The return value should implement the same interface as the return value of *urlopen()*.

20.6.4 HTTPRedirectHandler Objects

Note : Some HTTP redirections require action from this module’s client code. If this is the case, *HTTPError* is raised. See [RFC 2616](#) for details of the precise meanings of the various redirection codes.

`HTTPRedirectHandler.redirect_request(req, fp, code, msg, hdrs, newurl)`

Return a *Request* or *None* in response to a redirect. This is called by the default implementations of the `http_error_30*`() methods when a redirection is received from the server. If a redirection should take place, return a new *Request* to allow `http_error_30*`() to perform the redirect to *newurl*. Otherwise, raise *HTTPError* if no other handler should try to handle this URL, or return *None* if you can’t but another handler might.

Note : The default implementation of this method does not strictly follow [RFC 2616](#), which says that 301 and 302 responses to POST requests must not be automatically redirected without confirmation by the user. In reality, browsers do allow automatic redirection of these responses, changing the POST to a GET, and the default implementation reproduces this behavior.

`HTTPRedirectHandler.http_error_301(req, fp, code, msg, hdrs)`

Redirect to the Location: or URI: URL. This method is called by the parent *OpenerDirector* when getting an HTTP “moved permanently” response.

`HTTPRedirectHandler.http_error_302(req, fp, code, msg, hdrs)`

The same as `http_error_301()`, but called for the “found” response.

`HTTPRedirectHandler.http_error_303(req, fp, code, msg, hdrs)`

The same as `http_error_301()`, but called for the “see other” response.

`HTTPRedirectHandler.http_error_307(req, fp, code, msg, hdrs)`

The same as `http_error_301()`, but called for the “temporary redirect” response.

20.6.5 HTTPCookieProcessor Objects

Nouveau dans la version 2.4.

HTTPCookieProcessor instances have one attribute :

`HTTPCookieProcessor.cookiejar`

The *cookielib.CookieJar* in which cookies are stored.

20.6.6 ProxyHandler Objects

`ProxyHandler.protocol_open(request)`

(« protocol » is to be replaced by the protocol name.)

The *ProxyHandler* will have a method `protocol_open` for every *protocol* which has a proxy in the *proxies* dictionary given in the constructor. The method will modify requests to go through the proxy, by calling `request.set_proxy()`, and call the next handler in the chain to actually execute the protocol.

20.6.7 HTTPPasswordMgr Objects

These methods are available on *HTTPPasswordMgr* and *HTTPPasswordMgrWithDefaultRealm* objects.

`HTTPPasswordMgr.add_password(realm, uri, user, passwd)`

uri can be either a single URI, or a sequence of URIs. *realm*, *user* and *passwd* must be strings. This causes (*user*, *passwd*) to be used as authentication tokens when authentication for *realm* and a super-URI of any of the given URIs is given.

`HTTPPasswordMgr.find_user_password(realm, authuri)`

Get user/password for given realm and URI, if any. This method will return (*None*, *None*) if there is no matching user/password.

For *HTTPPasswordMgrWithDefaultRealm* objects, the realm *None* will be searched if the given *realm* has no matching user/password.

20.6.8 AbstractBasicAuthHandler Objects

`AbstractBasicAuthHandler.http_error_auth_requed(authreq, host, req, headers)`

Handle an authentication request by getting a user/password pair, and re-trying the request. *authreq* should be the name of the header where the information about the realm is included in the request, *host* specifies the URL and path to authenticate for, *req* should be the (failed) *Request* object, and *headers* should be the error headers.

host is either an authority (e.g. "python.org") or a URL containing an authority component (e.g. "http://python.org/"). In either case, the authority must not contain a userinfo component (so, "python.org" and "python.org:80" are fine, "joe:password@python.org" is not).

20.6.9 HTTPBasicAuthHandler Objects

`HTTPBasicAuthHandler.http_error_401(req, fp, code, msg, hdrs)`

Retry the request with authentication information, if available.

20.6.10 ProxyBasicAuthHandler Objects

`ProxyBasicAuthHandler.http_error_407(req, fp, code, msg, hdrs)`

Retry the request with authentication information, if available.

20.6.11 AbstractDigestAuthHandler Objects

`AbstractDigestAuthHandler.http_error_auth_requed(authreq, host, req, headers)`

authreq should be the name of the header where the information about the realm is included in the request, *host* should be the host to authenticate to, *req* should be the (failed) *Request* object, and *headers* should be the error headers.

20.6.12 HTTPDigestAuthHandler Objects

`HTTPDigestAuthHandler.http_error_401(req, fp, code, msg, hdrs)`

Retry the request with authentication information, if available.

20.6.13 ProxyDigestAuthHandler Objects

`ProxyDigestAuthHandler.http_error_407(req, fp, code, msg, hdrs)`
 Retry the request with authentication information, if available.

20.6.14 HTTPHandler Objects

`HTTPHandler.http_open(req)`
 Send an HTTP request, which can be either GET or POST, depending on `req.has_data()`.

20.6.15 HTTPSHandler Objects

`HTTPSHandler.https_open(req)`
 Send an HTTPS request, which can be either GET or POST, depending on `req.has_data()`.

20.6.16 FileHandler Objects

`FileHandler.file_open(req)`
 Open the file locally, if there is no host name, or the host name is 'localhost'. Change the protocol to ftp otherwise, and retry opening it using `parent`.

20.6.17 FTPHandler Objects

`FTPHandler.ftp_open(req)`
 Open the FTP file indicated by `req`. The login is always done with empty username and password.

20.6.18 CacheFTPHandler Objects

CacheFTPHandler objects are *FTPHandler* objects with the following additional methods :

`CacheFTPHandler.setTimeout(t)`
 Set timeout of connections to *t* seconds.

`CacheFTPHandler.setMaxConns(m)`
 Set maximum number of cached connections to *m*.

20.6.19 UnknownHandler Objects

`UnknownHandler.unknown_open()`
 Raise a *URLError* exception.

20.6.20 HTTPErrorProcessor Objects

Nouveau dans la version 2.4.

`HTTPErrorProcessor.http_response()`
 Process HTTP error responses.
 For 200 error codes, the response object is returned immediately.
 For non-200 error codes, this simply passes the job on to the *protocol_error_code* handler methods, via *OpenerDirector.error()*. Eventually, *urllib2.HTTPDefaultErrorHandler* will raise an *HTTPError* if no other handler handles the error.

`HTTPErrorProcessor.https_response()`
 Process HTTPS error responses.
 The behavior is same as *http_response()*.

20.6.21 Examples

In addition to the examples below, more examples are given in `urllib-howto`.

This example gets the `python.org` main page and displays the first 100 bytes of it :

```
>>> import urllib2
>>> f = urllib2.urlopen('http://www.python.org/')
>>> print f.read(100)
<!DOCTYPE html PUBLIC "-//W3C//DTD HTML 4.01 Transitional//EN">
<?xml-styleeet href="./css/ht2html
```

Here we are sending a data-stream to the stdin of a CGI and reading the data it returns to us. Note that this example will only work when the Python installation supports SSL.

```
>>> import urllib2
>>> req = urllib2.Request(url='https://localhost/cgi-bin/test.cgi',
...                        data='This data is passed to stdin of the CGI')
>>> f = urllib2.urlopen(req)
>>> print f.read()
Got Data: "This data is passed to stdin of the CGI"
```

The code for the sample CGI used in the above example is :

```
#!/usr/bin/env python
import sys
data = sys.stdin.read()
print 'Content-type: text-plain\n\nGot Data: "%s"' % data
```

Use of Basic HTTP Authentication :

```
import urllib2
# Create an OpenerDirector with support for Basic HTTP Authentication...
auth_handler = urllib2.HTTPBasicAuthHandler()
auth_handler.add_password(realm='PDQ Application',
                          uri='https://mahler:8092/site-updates.py',
                          user='klem',
                          passwd='kadidd!ehopper')
opener = urllib2.build_opener(auth_handler)
# ...and install it globally so it can be used with urlopen.
urllib2.install_opener(opener)
urllib2.urlopen('http://www.example.com/login.html')
```

`build_opener()` provides many handlers by default, including a `ProxyHandler`. By default, `ProxyHandler` uses the environment variables named `<scheme>_proxy`, where `<scheme>` is the URL scheme involved. For example, the `http_proxy` environment variable is read to obtain the HTTP proxy's URL.

This example replaces the default `ProxyHandler` with one that uses programmatically-supplied proxy URLs, and adds proxy authorization support with `ProxyBasicAuthHandler`.

```
proxy_handler = urllib2.ProxyHandler({'http': 'http://www.example.com:3128/'})
proxy_auth_handler = urllib2.ProxyBasicAuthHandler()
proxy_auth_handler.add_password('realm', 'host', 'username', 'password')

opener = urllib2.build_opener(proxy_handler, proxy_auth_handler)
```

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(suite de la page précédente)

```
# This time, rather than install the OpenerDirector, we use it directly:
opener.open('http://www.example.com/login.html')
```

Adding HTTP headers :

Use the *headers* argument to the *Request* constructor, or :

```
import urllib2
req = urllib2.Request('http://www.example.com/')
req.add_header('Referer', 'http://www.python.org/')
# Customize the default User-Agent header value:
req.add_header('User-Agent', 'urllib-example/0.1 (Contact: . . .)')
r = urllib2.urlopen(req)
```

OpenerDirector automatically adds a *User-Agent* header to every *Request*. To change this :

```
import urllib2
opener = urllib2.build_opener()
opener.addheaders = [('User-agent', 'Mozilla/5.0')]
opener.open('http://www.example.com/')
```

Also, remember that a few standard headers (*Content-Length*, *Content-Type* and *Host*) are added when the *Request* is passed to *urlopen()* (or *OpenerDirector.open()*).

20.7 httplib — HTTP protocol client

Note : The *httplib* module has been renamed to *http.client* in Python 3. The *2to3* tool will automatically adapt imports when converting your sources to Python 3.

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

This module defines classes which implement the client side of the HTTP and HTTPS protocols. It is normally not used directly — the module *urllib* uses it to handle URLs that use HTTP and HTTPS.

Voir aussi :

The *Requests* package is recommended for a higher-level HTTP client interface.

Note : HTTPS support is only available if the *socket* module was compiled with SSL support.

Note : The public interface for this module changed substantially in Python 2.0. The *HTTP* class is retained only for backward compatibility with 1.5.2. It should not be used in new code. Refer to the online docstrings for usage.

The module provides the following classes :

```
class httplib.HTTPConnection(host[, port[, strict[, timeout[, source_address]]]])
    An HTTPConnection 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. When true, the optional parameter *strict* (which defaults to a false value) causes `BadStatusLine` to be raised if the status line can't be parsed as a valid HTTP/1.0 or 1.1 status line. If the optional *timeout* parameter is given, blocking operations (like connection attempts) will timeout after that many seconds (if it is not given, the global default timeout setting is used). The optional *source_address* parameter may be a tuple of a (host, port) to use as the source address the HTTP connection is made from.

For example, the following calls all create instances that connect to the server at the same host and port :

```
>>> h1 = httplib.HTTPConnection('www.cwi.nl')
>>> h2 = httplib.HTTPConnection('www.cwi.nl:80')
>>> h3 = httplib.HTTPConnection('www.cwi.nl', 80)
>>> h3 = httplib.HTTPConnection('www.cwi.nl', 80, timeout=10)
```

Nouveau dans la version 2.0.

Modifié dans la version 2.6 : Ajout de *timeout*.

Modifié dans la version 2.7 : *source_address* was added.

```
class httplib.HTTPSConnection(host[, port[, key_file[, cert_file[, strict[, timeout[,
                                source_address[, context]]]]]]])
```

A subclass of `HTTPConnection` that uses SSL for communication with secure servers. Default port is 443. If *context* is specified, it must be a `ssl.SSLContext` instance describing the various SSL options. *key_file* and *cert_file* are deprecated, please use `ssl.SSLContext.load_cert_chain()` instead, or let `ssl.create_default_context()` select the system's trusted CA certificates for you.

Please read *Security considerations* for more information on best practices.

Nouveau dans la version 2.0.

Modifié dans la version 2.6 : Ajout de *timeout*.

Modifié dans la version 2.7 : *source_address* was added.

Modifié dans la version 2.7.9 : *context* was added.

This class now performs all the necessary certificate and hostname checks by default. To revert to the previous, unverified, behavior `ssl._create_unverified_context()` can be passed to the *context* parameter.

```
class httplib.HTTPResponse(sock, debuglevel=0, strict=0)
```

Class whose instances are returned upon successful connection. Not instantiated directly by user.

Nouveau dans la version 2.0.

```
class httplib.HTTPMessage
```

An `HTTPMessage` instance is used to hold the headers from an HTTP response. It is implemented using the `mimetypes.Message` class and provides utility functions to deal with HTTP Headers. It is not directly instantiated by the users.

The following exceptions are raised as appropriate :

```
exception httplib.HTTPException
```

The base class of the other exceptions in this module. It is a subclass of `Exception`.

Nouveau dans la version 2.0.

```
exception httplib.NotConnected
```

A subclass of `HTTPException`.

Nouveau dans la version 2.0.

```
exception httplib.InvalidURL
```

A subclass of `HTTPException`, raised if a port is given and is either non-numeric or empty.

Nouveau dans la version 2.3.

exception `httplib.UnknownProtocol`

A subclass of [*HTTPException*](#).

Nouveau dans la version 2.0.

exception `httplib.UnknownTransferEncoding`

A subclass of [*HTTPException*](#).

Nouveau dans la version 2.0.

exception `httplib.UnimplementedFileMode`

A subclass of [*HTTPException*](#).

Nouveau dans la version 2.0.

exception `httplib.IncompleteRead`

A subclass of [*HTTPException*](#).

Nouveau dans la version 2.0.

exception `httplib.ImproperConnectionState`

A subclass of [*HTTPException*](#).

Nouveau dans la version 2.0.

exception `httplib.CannotSendRequest`

A subclass of [*ImproperConnectionState*](#).

Nouveau dans la version 2.0.

exception `httplib.CannotSendHeader`

A subclass of [*ImproperConnectionState*](#).

Nouveau dans la version 2.0.

exception `httplib.ResponseNotReady`

A subclass of [*ImproperConnectionState*](#).

Nouveau dans la version 2.0.

exception `httplib.BadStatusLine`

A subclass of [*HTTPException*](#). Raised if a server responds with a HTTP status code that we don't understand.

Nouveau dans la version 2.0.

Les constantes définies dans ce module sont :

httplib.HTTP_PORT

The default port for the HTTP protocol (always 80).

httplib.HTTPS_PORT

The default port for the HTTPS protocol (always 443).

and also the following constants for integer status codes :

Constante	Valeur	Définition
CONTINUE	100	HTTP/1.1, RFC 2616, Section 10.1.1
SWITCHING_PROTOCOLS	101	HTTP/1.1, RFC 2616, Section 10.1.2
PROCESSING	102	WEBDAV, RFC 2518, Section 10.1
OK	200	HTTP/1.1, RFC 2616, Section 10.2.1
CREATED	201	HTTP/1.1, RFC 2616, Section 10.2.2
ACCEPTED	202	HTTP/1.1, RFC 2616, Section 10.2.3
NON_AUTHORITATIVE_INFORMATION	203	HTTP/1.1, RFC 2616, Section 10.2.4
NO_CONTENT	204	HTTP/1.1, RFC 2616, Section 10.2.5
RESET_CONTENT	205	HTTP/1.1, RFC 2616, Section 10.2.6

Suite sur la page suivante

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Constante	Valeur	Définition
PARTIAL_CONTENT	206	HTTP/1.1, RFC 2616, Section 10.2.7
MULTI_STATUS	207	WEBDAV RFC 2518, Section 10.2
IM_USED	226	Delta encoding in HTTP, RFC 3229 , Section 10.4.1
MULTIPLE_CHOICES	300	HTTP/1.1, RFC 2616, Section 10.3.1
MOVED_PERMANENTLY	301	HTTP/1.1, RFC 2616, Section 10.3.2
FOUND	302	HTTP/1.1, RFC 2616, Section 10.3.3
SEE_OTHER	303	HTTP/1.1, RFC 2616, Section 10.3.4
NOT_MODIFIED	304	HTTP/1.1, RFC 2616, Section 10.3.5
USE_PROXY	305	HTTP/1.1, RFC 2616, Section 10.3.6
TEMPORARY_REDIRECT	307	HTTP/1.1, RFC 2616, Section 10.3.8
BAD_REQUEST	400	HTTP/1.1, RFC 2616, Section 10.4.1
UNAUTHORIZED	401	HTTP/1.1, RFC 2616, Section 10.4.2
PAYMENT_REQUIRED	402	HTTP/1.1, RFC 2616, Section 10.4.3
FORBIDDEN	403	HTTP/1.1, RFC 2616, Section 10.4.4
NOT_FOUND	404	HTTP/1.1, RFC 2616, Section 10.4.5
METHOD_NOT_ALLOWED	405	HTTP/1.1, RFC 2616, Section 10.4.6
NOT_ACCEPTABLE	406	HTTP/1.1, RFC 2616, Section 10.4.7
PROXY_AUTHENTICATION_REQUIRED	407	HTTP/1.1, RFC 2616, Section 10.4.8
REQUEST_TIMEOUT	408	HTTP/1.1, RFC 2616, Section 10.4.9
CONFLICT	409	HTTP/1.1, RFC 2616, Section 10.4.10
GONE	410	HTTP/1.1, RFC 2616, Section 10.4.11
LENGTH_REQUIRED	411	HTTP/1.1, RFC 2616, Section 10.4.12
PRECONDITION_FAILED	412	HTTP/1.1, RFC 2616, Section 10.4.13
REQUEST_ENTITY_TOO_LARGE	413	HTTP/1.1, RFC 2616, Section 10.4.14
REQUEST_URI_TOO_LONG	414	HTTP/1.1, RFC 2616, Section 10.4.15
UNSUPPORTED_MEDIA_TYPE	415	HTTP/1.1, RFC 2616, Section 10.4.16
REQUESTED_RANGE_NOT_SATISFIABLE	416	HTTP/1.1, RFC 2616, Section 10.4.17
EXPECTATION_FAILED	417	HTTP/1.1, RFC 2616, Section 10.4.18
UNPROCESSABLE_ENTITY	422	WEBDAV, RFC 2518, Section 10.3
LOCKED	423	WEBDAV RFC 2518, Section 10.4
FAILED_DEPENDENCY	424	WEBDAV, RFC 2518, Section 10.5
UPGRADE_REQUIRED	426	HTTP Upgrade to TLS, RFC 2817 , Section 6
INTERNAL_SERVER_ERROR	500	HTTP/1.1, RFC 2616, Section 10.5.1
NOT_IMPLEMENTED	501	HTTP/1.1, RFC 2616, Section 10.5.2
BAD_GATEWAY	502	HTTP/1.1 RFC 2616, Section 10.5.3
SERVICE_UNAVAILABLE	503	HTTP/1.1, RFC 2616, Section 10.5.4
GATEWAY_TIMEOUT	504	HTTP/1.1 RFC 2616, Section 10.5.5
HTTP_VERSION_NOT_SUPPORTED	505	HTTP/1.1, RFC 2616, Section 10.5.6
INSUFFICIENT_STORAGE	507	WEBDAV, RFC 2518, Section 10.6
NOT_EXTENDED	510	An HTTP Extension Framework, RFC 2774 , Section 7

httplib.responses

This dictionary maps the HTTP 1.1 status codes to the W3C names.

Exemple : `httplib.responses[httplib.NOT_FOUND]` is 'Not Found'.

Nouveau dans la version 2.5.

20.7.1 HTTPConnection Objects

HTTPConnection instances have the following methods :

`HTTPConnection.request(method, url[, body[, headers]])`

This will send a request to the server using the HTTP request method *method* and the selector *url*. If the *body* argument is present, it should be a string of data to send after the headers are finished. Alternatively, it may be an open file object, in which case the contents of the file is sent ; this file object should support `fileno()` and `read()` methods. The *headers* argument should be a mapping of extra HTTP headers to send with the request.

If one is not provided in *headers*, a **Content-Length** header is added automatically for all methods if the length of the body can be determined, either from the length of the `str` representation, or from the reported size of the file on disk. If *body* is `None` the header is not set except for methods that expect a body (PUT, POST, and PATCH) in which case it is set to 0.

Modifié dans la version 2.6 : *body* can be a file object.

`HTTPConnection.getresponse()`

Should be called after a request is sent to get the response from the server. Returns an *HTTPResponse* instance.

Note : Note that you must have read the whole response before you can send a new request to the server.

`HTTPConnection.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.

`HTTPConnection.set_tunnel(host, port=None, headers=None)`

Set the host and the port for HTTP Connect Tunnelling. Normally used when it is required to do HTTPS Connection through a proxy server.

The headers argument should be a mapping of extra HTTP headers to send with the CONNECT request.

Nouveau dans la version 2.7.

`HTTPConnection.connect()`

Connect to the server specified when the object was created.

`HTTPConnection.close()`

Close the connection to the server.

As an alternative to using the `request()` method described above, you can also send your request step by step, by using the four functions below.

`HTTPConnection.putrequest(request, selector[, skip_host[, skip_accept_encoding]])`

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/1.1). To disable automatic sending of **Host:** or **Accept-Encoding:** headers (for example to accept additional content encodings), specify *skip_host* or *skip_accept_encoding* with non-False values.

Modifié dans la version 2.4 : *skip_accept_encoding* argument added.

`HTTPConnection.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.

`HTTPConnection.endheaders(message_body=None)`

Send a blank line to the server, signalling the end of the headers. The optional *message_body* argument can be used to pass a message body associated with the request. The message body will be sent in the same packet as the message headers if it is string, otherwise it is sent in a separate packet.

Modifié dans la version 2.7 : *message_body* was added.

`HTTPConnection.send(data)`

Send data to the server. This should be used directly only after the `endheaders()` method has been called and before `getresponse()` is called.

20.7.2 HTTPResponse Objects

`HTTPResponse` instances have the following methods and attributes :

`HTTPResponse.read([amt])`

Reads and returns the response body, or up to the next *amt* bytes.

`HTTPResponse.getheader(name[, default])`

Get the contents of the header *name*, or *default* if there is no matching header.

`HTTPResponse.getheaders()`

Return a list of (header, value) tuples.

Nouveau dans la version 2.4.

`HTTPResponse.fileno()`

Returns the `fileno` of the underlying socket.

`HTTPResponse.msg`

A `mimetools.Message` instance containing the response headers.

`HTTPResponse.version`

HTTP protocol version used by server. 10 for HTTP/1.0, 11 for HTTP/1.1.

`HTTPResponse.status`

Status code returned by server.

`HTTPResponse.reason`

Reason phrase returned by server.

20.7.3 Exemples

Here is an example session that uses the GET method :

```
>>> import httpplib
>>> conn = httpplib.HTTPSConnection("www.python.org")
>>> conn.request("GET", "/")
>>> r1 = conn.getresponse()
>>> print r1.status, r1.reason
200 OK
>>> data1 = r1.read()
>>> conn.request("GET", "/")
>>> r2 = conn.getresponse()
>>> print r2.status, r2.reason
404 Not Found
>>> data2 = r2.read()
>>> conn.close()
```

Here is an example session that uses the HEAD method. Note that the HEAD method never returns any data.

```
>>> import httpplib
>>> conn = httpplib.HTTPSConnection("www.python.org")
>>> conn.request("HEAD", "/")
>>> res = conn.getresponse()
```

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```
>>> print res.status, res.reason
200 OK
>>> data = res.read()
>>> print len(data)
0
>>> data == ''
True
```

Here is an example session that shows how to POST requests :

```
>>> import urllib, urllib
>>> params = urllib.urlencode({'@number': 12524, '@type': 'issue', '@action': 'show'})
>>> headers = {"Content-type": "application/x-www-form-urlencoded",
...           "Accept": "text/plain"}
>>> conn = urllib.HTTPConnection("bugs.python.org")
>>> conn.request("POST", "", params, headers)
>>> response = conn.getresponse()
>>> print response.status, response.reason
302 Found
>>> data = response.read()
>>> data
'Redirecting to <a href="http://bugs.python.org/issue12524">http://bugs.python.org/
↪issue12524</a>'
>>> conn.close()
```

Client side HTTP PUT requests are very similar to POST requests. The difference lies only the server side where HTTP server will allow resources to be created via PUT request. Here is an example session that shows how to do PUT request using urllib :

```
>>> # This creates an HTTP message
>>> # with the content of BODY as the enclosed representation
>>> # for the resource http://localhost:8080/foobar
...
>>> import urllib
>>> BODY = "****filecontents****"
>>> conn = urllib.HTTPConnection("localhost", 8080)
>>> conn.request("PUT", "/file", BODY)
>>> response = conn.getresponse()
>>> print response.status, response.reason
200, OK
```

20.8 ftplib — FTP protocol client

Code source : [Lib/ftplib.py](#)

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.debian.org')      # connect to host, default port
>>> ftp.login()                      # user anonymous, passwd anonymous@
'230 Login successful.'
>>> ftp.cwd('debian')                # change into "debian" directory
>>> ftp.retrlines('LIST')            # list directory contents
-rw-rw-r-- 1 1176      1176      1063 Jun 15 10:18 README
...
drwxr-sr-x 5 1176      1176      4096 Dec 19 2000 pool
drwxr-sr-x 4 1176      1176      4096 Nov 17 2008 project
drwxr-xr-x 3 1176      1176      4096 Oct 10 2012 tools
'226 Directory send OK.'
>>> ftp.retrbinary('RETR README', open('README', 'wb').write)
'226 Transfer complete.'
>>> ftp.quit()

```

Le module définit les éléments suivants :

```
class ftplib.FTP([host[, user[, passwd[, acct[, timeout]]]]])
```

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). The optional `timeout` parameter specifies a timeout in seconds for blocking operations like the connection attempt (if is not specified, the global default timeout setting will be used).

Modifié dans la version 2.6 : Ajout de `timeout`.

```
class ftplib.FTP_TLS([host[, user[, passwd[, acct[, keyfile[, certfile[, context[, timeout]]]]]]])
```

A `FTP` subclass which adds TLS support to FTP as described in [RFC 4217](#). Connect as usual to port 21 implicitly securing the FTP control connection before authenticating. Securing the data connection requires the user to explicitly ask for it by calling the `prot_p()` method. `context` is a `ssl.SSLContext` object which allows bundling SSL configuration options, certificates and private keys into a single (potentially long-lived) structure. Please read *Security considerations* for best practices.

`keyfile` and `certfile` are a legacy alternative to `context` – they can point to PEM-formatted private key and certificate chain files (respectively) for the SSL connection.

Nouveau dans la version 2.7.

Modifié dans la version 2.7.10 : The `context` parameter was added.

Here's a sample session using the `FTP_TLS` class :

```

>>> from ftplib import FTP_TLS
>>> ftps = FTP_TLS('ftp.python.org')
>>> ftps.login()                    # login anonymously before securing control channel
>>> ftps.prot_p()                   # switch to secure data connection
>>> ftps.retrlines('LIST')          # list directory content securely
total 9
drwxr-xr-x 8 root      wheel      1024 Jan  3 1994 .
drwxr-xr-x 8 root      wheel      1024 Jan  3 1994 ..
drwxr-xr-x 2 root      wheel      1024 Jan  3 1994 bin
drwxr-xr-x 2 root      wheel      1024 Jan  3 1994 etc
d-wxrwxr-x 2 ftp      wheel      1024 Sep  5 13:43 incoming
drwxr-xr-x 2 root      wheel      1024 Nov 17 1993 lib
drwxr-xr-x 6 1094      wheel      1024 Sep 13 19:07 pub
drwxr-xr-x 3 root      wheel      1024 Jan  3 1994 usr
-rw-r--r-- 1 root      root       312 Aug  1 1994 welcome.msg

```

(suite sur la page suivante)

(suite de la page précédente)

```
'226 Transfer complete.'
>>> ftps.quit()
>>>
```

exception `ftplib.error_reply`

Exception raised when an unexpected reply is received from the server.

exception `ftplib.error_temp`

Exception raised when an error code signifying a temporary error (response codes in the range 400–499) is received.

exception `ftplib.error_perm`

Exception raised when an error code signifying a permanent error (response codes in the range 500–599) is received.

exception `ftplib.error_proto`

Exception raised when a reply is received from the server that does not fit the response specifications of the File Transfer Protocol, i.e. begin with a digit in the range 1–5.

`ftplib.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 above as well as *socket.error* and *IOError*.

Voir aussi :

Module *netrc* Parser for the *.netrc* file format. The file *.netrc* is typically used by FTP clients to load user authentication information before prompting the user.

The file `Tools/scripts/ftpmirror.py` in the Python source distribution is a script that can mirror FTP sites, or portions thereof, using the *ftplib* module. It can be used as an extended example that applies this module.

20.8.1 FTP Objects

Several methods are available in two flavors : one for handling text files and another for binary files. These are named for the command which is used followed by **lines** for the text version or **binary** for the binary version.

FTP instances have the following methods :

`FTP.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.

`FTP.connect(host[, port[, timeout]])`

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.

The optional *timeout* parameter specifies a timeout in seconds for the connection attempt. If no *timeout* is passed, the global default timeout setting will be used.

Modifié dans la version 2.6 : Ajout de *timeout*.

FTP.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.)

FTP.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 'anonymous@'. 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. The *acct* parameter supplies « accounting information »; few systems implement this.

FTP.abort()

Abort a file transfer that is in progress. Using this does not always work, but it's worth a try.

FTP.sendcmd(*command*)

Send a simple command string to the server and return the response string.

FTP.voidcmd(*command*)

Send a simple command string to the server and handle the response. Return nothing if a response code corresponding to success (codes in the range 200–299) is received. Raise *error_reply* otherwise.

FTP.retrbinary(*command*, *callback*[, *maxblocksize*[, *rest*]])

Retrieve a file in binary transfer mode. *command* should be an appropriate RETR command : '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. *rest* means the same thing as in the *transfercmd()* method.

FTP.retrlines(*command*[, *callback*])

Retrieve a file or directory listing in ASCII transfer mode. *command* should be an appropriate RETR command (see *retrbinary()*) or a command such as LIST, NLST or MLSD (usually just the string 'LIST'). LIST retrieves a list of files and information about those files. NLST retrieves a list of file names. On some servers, MLSD retrieves a machine readable list of files and information about those files. The *callback* function is called for each line with a string argument containing the line with the trailing CRLF stripped. The default *callback* prints the line to *sys.stdout*.

FTP.set_pasv(*val*)

Enable « passive » mode if *val* is true, otherwise disable passive mode. (In Python 2.0 and before, passive mode was off by default; in Python 2.1 and later, it is on by default.)

FTP.storbinary(*command*, *fp*[, *blocksize*, *callback*, *rest*])

Store a file in binary transfer mode. *command* should be an appropriate STOR command : "STOR *filename*". *fp* 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. The *blocksize* argument defaults to 8192. *callback* is an optional single parameter callable that is called on each block of data after it is sent. *rest* means the same thing as in the *transfercmd()* method.

Modifié dans la version 2.1 : default for *blocksize* added.

Modifié dans la version 2.6 : *callback* parameter added.

Modifié dans la version 2.7 : *rest* parameter added.

FTP.storlines(*command*, *fp*[, *callback*])

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 *fp* using its *readline()* method to provide the data to be stored. *callback* is an optional single parameter callable that is called on each line after it is sent.

Modifié dans la version 2.6 : *callback* parameter added.

FTP.transfercmd(*cmd*[, *rest*])

Initiate a transfer over the data connection. If the transfer is active, send an EPRT or PORT command and the transfer command specified by *cmd*, and accept the connection. If the server is passive, send an EPSV or PASV command, connect to it, and start the transfer command. Either way, return the socket for the connection.

If optional *rest* is given, a REST command is sent to the server, passing *rest* as an argument. *rest* is usually a byte offset into the requested file, telling the server to restart sending the file's bytes at the requested offset, skipping over the initial bytes. Note however that RFC 959 requires only that *rest* be a string containing characters in the printable range from ASCII code 33 to ASCII code 126. The *transfercmd()* method, therefore, converts *rest* to a string, but no check is performed on the string's contents. If the server does not recognize the REST command, an *error_reply* exception will be raised. If this happens, simply call *transfercmd()* without a *rest* argument.

FTP.ntransfercmd(*cmd*[, *rest*])

Like *transfercmd()*, but returns a tuple of the data connection and the expected size of the data. If the expected size could not be computed, *None* will be returned as the expected size. *cmd* and *rest* means the same thing as in *transfercmd()*.

FTP.nlst(*argument*[, ...])

Return a list of file names 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.

FTP.dir(*argument*[, ...])

Produce a directory listing as returned by the LIST command, printing it to standard output. 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()*; the default prints to *sys.stdout*. This method returns *None*.

FTP.rename(*fromname*, *toname*)

Rename file *fromname* on the server to *toname*.

FTP.delete(*filename*)

Remove the file named *filename* from the server. If successful, returns the text of the response, otherwise raises *error_perm* on permission errors or *error_reply* on other errors.

FTP.cwd(*pathname*)

Set the current directory on the server.

FTP.mkd(*pathname*)

Create a new directory on the server.

FTP.pwd()

Return the pathname of the current directory on the server.

FTP.rmd(*dirname*)

Remove the directory named *dirname* on the server.

FTP.size(*filename*)

Request the size of the file named *filename* on the server. On success, the size of the file is returned as an integer, otherwise *None* is returned. Note that the SIZE command is not standardized, but is supported by many common server implementations.

FTP.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 if the server responds with an error to the QUIT command.

This implies a call to the `close()` method which renders the `FTP` instance useless for subsequent calls (see below).

FTP.close()

Close the connection unilaterally. This should not be applied to an already closed connection such as after a successful call to `quit()`. After this call the `FTP` instance should not be used any more (after a call to `close()` or `quit()` you cannot reopen the connection by issuing another `login()` method).

20.8.2 FTP_TLS Objects

`FTP_TLS` class inherits from `FTP`, defining these additional objects :

FTP_TLS.ssl_version

The SSL version to use (defaults to `ssl.PROTOCOL_SSLv23`).

FTP_TLS.auth()

Set up secure control connection by using TLS or SSL, depending on what specified in `ssl_version()` attribute.

FTP_TLS.prot_p()

Set up secure data connection.

FTP_TLS.prot_c()

Set up clear text data connection.

20.9 poplib — POP3 protocol client

Code source : [Lib/poplib.py](#)

This module defines a class, `POP3`, which encapsulates a connection to a POP3 server and implements the protocol as defined in [RFC 1725](#). The `POP3` class supports both the minimal and optional command sets. Additionally, this module provides a class `POP3_SSL`, which provides support for connecting to POP3 servers that use SSL as an underlying protocol layer.

Note that POP3, though widely supported, is obsolescent. The implementation quality of POP3 servers varies widely, and too many are quite poor. If your mailserver supports IMAP, you would be better off using the `imaplib.IMAP4` class, as IMAP servers tend to be better implemented.

The `poplib` module provides two classes :

```
class poplib.POP3(host[, port[, timeout]])
```

This class implements the actual POP3 protocol. The connection is created when the instance is initialized. If `port` is omitted, the standard POP3 port (110) is used. The optional `timeout` parameter specifies a timeout in seconds for the connection attempt (if not specified, the global default timeout setting will be used).

Modifié dans la version 2.6 : Ajout de `timeout`.

```
class poplib.POP3_SSL(host[, port[, keyfile[, certfile]]])
```

This is a subclass of `POP3` that connects to the server over an SSL encrypted socket. If `port` is not specified, 995, the standard POP3-over-SSL port is used. `keyfile` and `certfile` are also optional - they can contain a PEM formatted private key and certificate chain file for the SSL connection.

Nouveau dans la version 2.4.

One exception is defined as an attribute of the `poplib` module :

```
exception poplib.error_proto
```

Exception raised on any errors from this module (errors from `socket` module are not caught). The reason for the exception is passed to the constructor as a string.

Voir aussi :

Module `imaplib` The standard Python IMAP module.

Frequently Asked Questions About Fetchmail The FAQ for the `fetchmail` POP/IMAP client collects information on POP3 server variations and RFC noncompliance that may be useful if you need to write an application based on the POP protocol.

20.9.1 POP3 Objects

All POP3 commands are represented by methods of the same name, in lower-case; most return the response text sent by the server.

An `POP3` instance has the following methods :

`POP3.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.

`POP3.getwelcome()`

Returns the greeting string sent by the POP3 server.

`POP3.user(username)`

Send user command, response should indicate that a password is required.

`POP3.pass_(password)`

Send password, response includes message count and mailbox size. Note : the mailbox on the server is locked until `quit()` is called.

`POP3.apop(user, secret)`

Use the more secure APOP authentication to log into the POP3 server.

`POP3.rpop(user)`

Use RPOP authentication (similar to UNIX r-commands) to log into POP3 server.

`POP3.stat()`

Get mailbox status. The result is a tuple of 2 integers : (message count, mailbox size).

`POP3.list([which])`

Request message list, result is in the form (response, ['mesg_num octets', ...], octets). If *which* is set, it is the message to list.

`POP3.retr(which)`

Retrieve whole message number *which*, and set its seen flag. Result is in form (response, ['line', ...], octets).

`POP3.delete(which)`

Flag message number *which* for deletion. On most servers deletions are not actually performed until QUIT (the major exception is Eudora QPOP, which deliberately violates the RFCs by doing pending deletes on any disconnect).

`POP3.rset()`

Remove any deletion marks for the mailbox.

`POP3.noop()`

Do nothing. Might be used as a keep-alive.

`POP3.quit()`

Signoff : commit changes, unlock mailbox, drop connection.

`POP3.top(which, howmuch)`

Retrieves the message header plus *howmuch* lines of the message after the header of message number *which*. Result is in form (`response`, `['line', ...]`, octets).

The POP3 TOP command this method uses, unlike the RETR command, doesn't set the message's seen flag; unfortunately, TOP is poorly specified in the RFCs and is frequently broken in off-brand servers. Test this method by hand against the POP3 servers you will use before trusting it.

`POP3.uidl([which])`

Return message digest (unique id) list. If *which* is specified, result contains the unique id for that message in the form '`response mesgnum uid`', otherwise result is list (`response`, `['mesgnum uid', ...]`, octets).

Instances of `POP3_SSL` have no additional methods. The interface of this subclass is identical to its parent.

20.9.2 POP3 Example

Here is a minimal example (without error checking) that opens a mailbox and retrieves and prints all messages :

```
import getpass, poplib

M = poplib.POP3('localhost')
M.user(getpass.getuser())
M.pass_(getpass.getpass())
numMessages = len(M.list()[1])
for i in range(numMessages):
    for j in M.retr(i+1)[1]:
        print j
```

At the end of the module, there is a test section that contains a more extensive example of usage.

20.10 imaplib — IMAP4 protocol client

Code source : [Lib/imaplib.py](#)

This module defines three classes, `IMAP4`, `IMAP4_SSL` and `IMAP4_stream`, which encapsulate a connection to an IMAP4 server and implement a large subset of the IMAP4rev1 client protocol as defined in [RFC 2060](#). It is backward compatible with IMAP4 ([RFC 1730](#)) servers, but note that the `STATUS` command is not supported in IMAP4.

Three classes are provided by the `imaplib` module, `IMAP4` is the base class :

`class imaplib.IMAP4([host[, port]])`

This class implements the actual IMAP4 protocol. The connection is created and protocol version (IMAP4 or IMAP4rev1) is determined when the instance is initialized. If *host* is not specified, '' (the local host) is used. If *port* is omitted, the standard IMAP4 port (143) is used.

Three exceptions are defined as attributes of the `IMAP4` class :

`exception IMAP4.error`

Exception raised on any errors. The reason for the exception is passed to the constructor as a string.

`exception IMAP4.abort`

IMAP4 server errors cause this exception to be raised. This is a sub-class of `IMAP4.error`. Note that closing the instance and instantiating a new one will usually allow recovery from this exception.

exception IMAP4.readonly

This exception is raised when a writable mailbox has its status changed by the server. This is a subclass of *IMAP4.error*. Some other client now has write permission, and the mailbox will need to be re-opened to re-obtain write permission.

There's also a subclass for secure connections :

```
class imaplib.IMAP4_SSL([host[, port[, keyfile[, certfile]]]])
```

This is a subclass derived from *IMAP4* that connects over an SSL encrypted socket (to use this class you need a socket module that was compiled with SSL support). If *host* is not specified, '' (the local host) is used. If *port* is omitted, the standard IMAP4-over-SSL port (993) is used. *keyfile* and *certfile* are also optional - they can contain a PEM formatted private key and certificate chain file for the SSL connection.

The second subclass allows for connections created by a child process :

```
class imaplib.IMAP4_stream(command)
```

This is a subclass derived from *IMAP4* that connects to the *stdin/stdout* file descriptors created by passing *command* to *os.popen2()*.

Nouveau dans la version 2.3.

The following utility functions are defined :

```
imaplib.Internaldate2tuple(datestr)
```

Parse an IMAP4 INTERNALDATE string and return corresponding local time. The return value is a *time.struct_time* instance or *None* if the string has wrong format.

```
imaplib.Int2AP(num)
```

Converts an integer into a string representation using characters from the set [A .. P].

```
imaplib.ParseFlags(flagstr)
```

Converts an IMAP4 FLAGS response to a tuple of individual flags.

```
imaplib.Time2Internaldate(date_time)
```

Convert *date_time* to an IMAP4 INTERNALDATE representation. The return value is a string in the form : "DD-Mmm-YYYY HH:MM:SS +HHMM" (including double-quotes). The *date_time* argument can be a number (int or float) representing seconds since epoch (as returned by *time.time()*), a 9-tuple representing local time (as returned by *time.localtime()*), or a double-quoted string. In the last case, it is assumed to already be in the correct format.

Note that IMAP4 message numbers change as the mailbox changes ; in particular, after an **EXPUNGE** command performs deletions the remaining messages are renumbered. So it is highly advisable to use UIDs instead, with the UID command.

At the end of the module, there is a test section that contains a more extensive example of usage.

Voir aussi :

Documents describing the protocol, and sources and binaries for servers implementing it, can all be found at the University of Washington's *IMAP Information Center* (<https://www.washington.edu/imap/>).

20.10.1 IMAP4 Objects

All IMAP4rev1 commands are represented by methods of the same name, either upper-case or lower-case.

All arguments to commands are converted to strings, except for **AUTHENTICATE**, and the last argument to **APPEND** which is passed as an IMAP4 literal. If necessary (the string contains IMAP4 protocol-sensitive characters and isn't enclosed with either parentheses or double quotes) each string is quoted. However, the *password* argument to the **LOGIN** command is always quoted. If you want to avoid having an argument string quoted (eg : the *flags* argument to **STORE**) then enclose the string in parentheses (eg : *r'(\Deleted)'*).

Each command returns a tuple : (type, [data, ...]) where *type* is usually 'OK' or 'NO', and *data* is either the text from the command response, or mandated results from the command. Each *data* is either a string, or a tuple. If a tuple, then the first part is the header of the response, and the second part contains the data (ie : “literal” value).

The *message_set* options to commands below is a string specifying one or more messages to be acted upon. It may be a simple message number ('1'), a range of message numbers ('2:4'), or a group of non-contiguous ranges separated by commas ('1:3,6:9'). A range can contain an asterisk to indicate an infinite upper bound ('3:*').

An *IMAP4* instance has the following methods :

IMAP4.append(*mailbox*, *flags*, *date_time*, *message*)

Append *message* to named mailbox.

IMAP4.authenticate(*mechanism*, *authobject*)

Authenticate command — requires response processing.

mechanism specifies which authentication mechanism is to be used - it should appear in the instance variable *capabilities* in the form AUTH=*mechanism*.

authobject must be a callable object :

```
data = authobject(response)
```

It will be called to process server continuation responses. It should return **data** that will be encoded and sent to server. It should return **None** if the client abort response * should be sent instead.

IMAP4.check()

Checkpoint mailbox on server.

IMAP4.close()

Close currently selected mailbox. Deleted messages are removed from writable mailbox. This is the recommended command before LOGOUT.

IMAP4.copy(*message_set*, *new_mailbox*)

Copy *message_set* messages onto end of *new_mailbox*.

IMAP4.create(*mailbox*)

Create new mailbox named *mailbox*.

IMAP4.delete(*mailbox*)

Delete old mailbox named *mailbox*.

IMAP4.deleteacl(*mailbox*, *who*)

Delete the ACLs (remove any rights) set for *who* on mailbox.

Nouveau dans la version 2.4.

IMAP4.expunge()

Permanently remove deleted items from selected mailbox. Generates an EXPUNGE response for each deleted message. Returned data contains a list of EXPUNGE message numbers in order received.

IMAP4.fetch(*message_set*, *message_parts*)

Fetch (parts of) messages. *message_parts* should be a string of message part names enclosed within parentheses, eg : "(UID BODY[TEXT])". Returned data are tuples of message part envelope and data.

IMAP4.getacl(*mailbox*)

Get the ACLs for *mailbox*. The method is non-standard, but is supported by the Cyrus server.

IMAP4.getannotation(*mailbox*, *entry*, *attribute*)

Retrieve the specified ANNOTATIONS for *mailbox*. The method is non-standard, but is supported by the Cyrus server.

Nouveau dans la version 2.5.

IMAP4.getquota(*root*)

Get the **quota** *root*'s resource usage and limits. This method is part of the IMAP4 QUOTA extension defined in rfc2087.

Nouveau dans la version 2.3.

IMAP4.getquotaroot(*mailbox*)

Get the list of **quota roots** for the named *mailbox*. This method is part of the IMAP4 QUOTA extension defined in rfc2087.

Nouveau dans la version 2.3.

IMAP4.list([*directory*], [*pattern*])

List mailbox names in *directory* matching *pattern*. *directory* defaults to the top-level mail folder, and *pattern* defaults to match anything. Returned data contains a list of LIST responses.

IMAP4.login(*user*, *password*)

Identify the client using a plaintext password. The *password* will be quoted.

IMAP4.login_cram_md5(*user*, *password*)

Force use of CRAM-MD5 authentication when identifying the client to protect the password. Will only work if the server **CAPABILITY** response includes the phrase **AUTH=CRAM-MD5**.

Nouveau dans la version 2.3.

IMAP4.logout()

Shutdown connection to server. Returns server BYE response.

IMAP4.lsub([*directory*], [*pattern*])

List subscribed mailbox names in directory matching pattern. *directory* defaults to the top level directory and *pattern* defaults to match any mailbox. Returned data are tuples of message part envelope and data.

IMAP4.myrights(*mailbox*)

Show my ACLs for a mailbox (i.e. the rights that I have on mailbox).

Nouveau dans la version 2.4.

IMAP4.namespace()

Returns IMAP namespaces as defined in RFC2342.

Nouveau dans la version 2.3.

IMAP4.noop()

Send NOOP to server.

IMAP4.open(*host*, *port*)

Opens socket to *port* at *host*. This method is implicitly called by the *IMAP4* constructor. The connection objects established by this method will be used in the *IMAP4.read()*, *IMAP4.readline()*, *IMAP4.send()*, and *IMAP4.shutdown()* methods. You may override this method.

IMAP4.partial(*message_num*, *message_part*, *start*, *length*)

Fetch truncated part of a message. Returned data is a tuple of message part envelope and data.

IMAP4.proxyauth(*user*)

Assume authentication as *user*. Allows an authorised administrator to proxy into any user's mailbox.

Nouveau dans la version 2.3.

IMAP4.read(*size*)

Reads *size* bytes from the remote server. You may override this method.

IMAP4.readline()

Reads one line from the remote server. You may override this method.

IMAP4.recent()

Prompt server for an update. Returned data is **None** if no new messages, else value of RECENT response.

IMAP4.rename(*oldmailbox*, *newmailbox*)
Rename mailbox named *oldmailbox* to *newmailbox*.

IMAP4.response(*code*)
Return data for response *code* if received, or **None**. Returns the given code, instead of the usual type.

IMAP4.search(*charset*, *criterion*[, ...])
Search mailbox for matching messages. *charset* may be **None**, in which case no **CHARSET** will be specified in the request to the server. The IMAP protocol requires that at least one criterion be specified; an exception will be raised when the server returns an error.
Exemple :

```
# M is a connected IMAP4 instance...
typ, msgnums = M.search(None, 'FROM', '"LDJ"')

# or:
typ, msgnums = M.search(None, '(FROM "LDJ")')
```

IMAP4.select([*mailbox*[, *readonly*]])
Select a mailbox. Returned data is the count of messages in *mailbox* (**EXISTS** response). The default *mailbox* is **'INBOX'**. If the *readonly* flag is set, modifications to the mailbox are not allowed.

IMAP4.send(*data*)
Sends *data* to the remote server. You may override this method.

IMAP4.setacl(*mailbox*, *who*, *what*)
Set an ACL for *mailbox*. The method is non-standard, but is supported by the Cyrus server.

IMAP4.setannotation(*mailbox*, *entry*, *attribute*[, ...])
Set **ANNOTATIONS** for *mailbox*. The method is non-standard, but is supported by the Cyrus server.
Nouveau dans la version 2.5.

IMAP4.setquota(*root*, *limits*)
Set the **quota** *root*'s resource *limits*. This method is part of the IMAP4 QUOTA extension defined in rfc2087.
Nouveau dans la version 2.3.

IMAP4.shutdown()
Close connection established in **open**. This method is implicitly called by *IMAP4.logout()*. You may override this method.

IMAP4.socket()
Returns socket instance used to connect to server.

IMAP4.sort(*sort_criteria*, *charset*, *search_criterion*[, ...])
The **sort** command is a variant of **search** with sorting semantics for the results. Returned data contains a space separated list of matching message numbers.
Sort has two arguments before the *search_criterion* argument(s); a parenthesized list of *sort_criteria*, and the searching *charset*. Note that unlike **search**, the searching *charset* argument is mandatory. There is also a **uid sort** command which corresponds to **sort** the way that **uid search** corresponds to **search**. The **sort** command first searches the mailbox for messages that match the given searching criteria using the *charset* argument for the interpretation of strings in the searching criteria. It then returns the numbers of matching messages.
This is an **IMAP4rev1** extension command.

IMAP4.status(*mailbox*, *names*)
Request named status conditions for *mailbox*.

IMAP4.store(*message_set*, *command*, *flag_list*)

Alters flag dispositions for messages in mailbox. *command* is specified by section 6.4.6 of [RFC 2060](#) as being one of « **FLAGS** », « **+FLAGS** », or « **-FLAGS** », optionally with a suffix of « **.SILENT** ». For example, to set the delete flag on all messages :

```
typ, data = M.search(None, 'ALL')
for num in data[0].split():
    M.store(num, '+FLAGS', '\\Deleted')
M.expunge()
```

IMAP4.subscribe(*mailbox*)

Subscribe to new mailbox.

IMAP4.thread(*threading_algorithm*, *charset*, *search_criterion*[, ...])

The **thread** command is a variant of **search** with threading semantics for the results. Returned data contains a space separated list of thread members.

Thread members consist of zero or more messages numbers, delimited by spaces, indicating successive parent and child.

Thread has two arguments before the *search_criterion* argument(s) ; a *threading_algorithm*, and the searching *charset*. Note that unlike **search**, the searching *charset* argument is mandatory. There is also a **uid thread** command which corresponds to **thread** the way that **uid search** corresponds to **search**. The **thread** command first searches the mailbox for messages that match the given searching criteria using the *charset* argument for the interpretation of strings in the searching criteria. It then returns the matching messages threaded according to the specified threading algorithm.

This is an IMAP4rev1 extension command.

Nouveau dans la version 2.4.

IMAP4.uid(*command*, *arg*[, ...])

Execute command args with messages identified by UID, rather than message number. Returns response appropriate to command. At least one argument must be supplied ; if none are provided, the server will return an error and an exception will be raised.

IMAP4.unsubscribe(*mailbox*)

Unsubscribe from old mailbox.

IMAP4.xatom(*name*[, *arg*[, ...]])

Allow simple extension commands notified by server in **CAPABILITY** response.

Instances of *IMAP4_SSL* have just one additional method :

IMAP4_SSL.ssl()

Returns SSLObject instance used for the secure connection with the server.

The following attributes are defined on instances of *IMAP4* :

IMAP4.PROTOCOL_VERSION

The most recent supported protocol in the **CAPABILITY** response from the server.

IMAP4.debug

Integer value to control debugging output. The initialize value is taken from the module variable **Debug**. Values greater than three trace each command.

20.10.2 IMAP4 Example

Here is a minimal example (without error checking) that opens a mailbox and retrieves and prints all messages :

```
import getpass, imaplib

M = imaplib.IMAP4()
M.login(getpass.getuser(), getpass.getpass())
M.select()
typ, data = M.search(None, 'ALL')
for num in data[0].split():
    typ, data = M.fetch(num, '(RFC822)')
    print 'Message %s\n%s\n' % (num, data[0][1])
M.close()
M.logout()
```

20.11 nntplib — NNTP protocol client

Code source : [Lib/nntplib.py](#)

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.gmane.org')
>>> resp, count, first, last, name = s.group('gmane.comp.python.committers')
>>> print 'Group', name, 'has', count, 'articles, range', first, 'to', last
Group gmane.comp.python.committers has 1071 articles, range 1 to 1071
>>> resp, subs = s.xhdr('subject', first + '-' + last)
>>> for id, sub in subs[-10:]: print id, sub
...
1062 Re: Mercurial Status?
1063 Re: [python-committers] (Windows) buildbots on 3.x
1064 Re: Mercurial Status?
1065 Re: Mercurial Status?
1066 Python 2.6.6 status
1067 Commit Privileges for Ask Solem
1068 Re: Commit Privileges for Ask Solem
1069 Re: Commit Privileges for Ask Solem
1070 Re: Commit Privileges for Ask Solem
1071 2.6.6 rc 2
>>> s.quit()
'205 Bye!'
```

To post an article from a file (this assumes that the article has valid headers, and that you have right to post on the particular newsgroup) :

```
>>> s = NNTP('news.gmane.org')
>>> f = open('articlefile')
>>> s.post(f)
'240 Article posted successfully.'
>>> s.quit()
'205 Bye!'
```

The module itself defines the following items :

class `nntplib.NNTP(host[, port[, user[, password[, readermode][, usenetrc]]])`

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. If the optional *user* and *password* are provided, or if suitable credentials are present in `/.netrc` and the optional flag *usenetcrc* is true (the default), the `AUTHINFO USER` and `AUTHINFO PASS` commands are used to identify and authenticate the user to the server. If the optional flag *readermode* is true, then a `mode reader` command is sent before authentication is performed. Reader mode is sometimes necessary if you are connecting to an NNTP server on the local machine and intend to call reader-specific commands, such as `group`. If you get unexpected `NNTPPermanentErrors`, you might need to set *readermode*. *readermode* defaults to `None`. *usenetcrc* defaults to `True`.

Modifié dans la version 2.4 : *usenetcrc* argument added.

exception `nntplib.NNTPError`

Derived from the standard exception `Exception`, this is the base class for all exceptions raised by the `nntplib` module.

exception `nntplib.NNTPReplyError`

Exception raised when an unexpected reply is received from the server. For backwards compatibility, the exception `error_reply` is equivalent to this class.

exception `nntplib.NNTPTemporaryError`

Exception raised when an error code in the range 400–499 is received. For backwards compatibility, the exception `error_temp` is equivalent to this class.

exception `nntplib.NNTPPermanentError`

Exception raised when an error code in the range 500–599 is received. For backwards compatibility, the exception `error_perm` is equivalent to this class.

exception `nntplib.NNTPProtocolError`

Exception raised when a reply is received from the server that does not begin with a digit in the range 1–5. For backwards compatibility, the exception `error_proto` is equivalent to this class.

exception `nntplib.NNTPDataError`

Exception raised when there is some error in the response data. For backwards compatibility, the exception `error_data` is equivalent to this class.

20.11.1 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.

`NNTP.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.)

`NNTP.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).

`NNTP.newgroups(date, time[, file])`

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. If the *file* parameter is supplied, then the output of the `NEWGROUPS` command is stored in a file. If *file* is a string,

then the method will open a file object with that name, write to it then close it. If *file* is a file object, then it will start calling `write()` on it to store the lines of the command output. If *file* is supplied, then the returned *list* is an empty list.

`NNTP.newnews(group, date, time[, file])`

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 message ids. If the *file* parameter is supplied, then the output of the NEWNEWS command is stored in a file. If *file* is a string, then the method will open a file object with that name, write to it then close it. If *file* is a file object, then it will start calling `write()` on it to store the lines of the command output. If *file* is supplied, then the returned *list* is an empty list.

`NNTP.list([file])`

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*.) If the *file* parameter is supplied, then the output of the LIST command is stored in a file. If *file* is a string, then the method will open a file object with that name, write to it then close it. If *file* is a file object, then it will start calling `write()` on it to store the lines of the command output. If *file* is supplied, then the returned *list* is an empty list.

`NNTP.descriptions(grouppattern)`

Send a LIST NEWSGROUPS command, where *grouppattern* is a wildmat string as specified in RFC2980 (it's essentially the same as DOS or UNIX shell wildcard strings). Return a pair (`response`, `list`), where *list* is a list of tuples containing (`name`, `title`).

Nouveau dans la version 2.4.

`NNTP.description(group)`

Get a description for a single group *group*. If more than one group matches (if "group" is a real wildmat string), return the first match. If no group matches, return an empty string.

This elides the response code from the server. If the response code is needed, use `descriptions()`.

Nouveau dans la version 2.4.

`NNTP.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.

`NNTP.help([file])`

Send a HELP command. Return a pair (`response`, `list`) where *list* is a list of help strings. If the *file* parameter is supplied, then the output of the HELP command is stored in a file. If *file* is a string, then the method will open a file object with that name, write to it then close it. If *file* is a file object, then it will start calling `write()` on it to store the lines of the command output. If *file* is supplied, then the returned *list* is an empty list.

`NNTP.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 message id (enclosed in '<' and '>').

`NNTP.next()`

Send a NEXT command. Return as for `stat()`.

`NNTP.last()`

Send a LAST command. Return as for `stat()`.

NNTP.head(*id*)

Send a HEAD command, where *id* has the same meaning as for *stat()*. Return a tuple (**response**, **number**, **id**, **list**) where the first three are the same as for *stat()*, and *list* is a list of the article's headers (an uninterpreted list of lines, without trailing newlines).

NNTP.body(*id*[, *file*])

Send a BODY command, where *id* has the same meaning as for *stat()*. If the *file* parameter is supplied, then the body is stored in a file. If *file* is a string, then the method will open a file object with that name, write to it then close it. If *file* is a file object, then it will start calling *write()* on it to store the lines of the body. Return as for *head()*. If *file* is supplied, then the returned *list* is an empty list.

NNTP.article(*id*)

Send an ARTICLE command, where *id* has the same meaning as for *stat()*. Return as for *head()*.

NNTP.slave()

Send a SLAVE command. Return the server's *response*.

NNTP.xhdr(*header*, *string*[, *file*])

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 number (as a string) and *text* is the text of the requested header for that article. If the *file* parameter is supplied, then the output of the XHDR command is stored in a file. If *file* is a string, then the method will open a file object with that name, write to it then close it. If *file* is a file object, then it will start calling *write()* on it to store the lines of the command output. If *file* is supplied, then the returned *list* is an empty list.

NNTP.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 ..

NNTP.ihave(*id*, *file*)

Send an IHAVE command. *id* is a message id (enclosed in '<' and '>'). If the response is not an error, treat *file* exactly as for the *post()* method.

NNTP.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.

NNTP.xgtitle(*name*[, *file*])

Process an XGTITLE command, returning a pair (**response**, **list**), where *list* is a list of tuples containing (**name**, **title**). If the *file* parameter is supplied, then the output of the XGTITLE command is stored in a file. If *file* is a string, then the method will open a file object with that name, write to it then close it. If *file* is a file object, then it will start calling *write()* on it to store the lines of the command output. If *file* is supplied, then the returned *list* is an empty list. This is an optional NNTP extension, and may not be supported by all servers.

RFC2980 says « It is suggested that this extension be deprecated ». Use *descriptions()* or *description()* instead.

NNTP.xover(*start*, *end*[, *file*])

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**). If the *file* parameter is supplied, then the output of the XOVER command is stored in a file. If *file* is a string, then the method will open a file object with that name, write to it then close it. If *file* is a file object, then it will start calling *write()* on it to store the lines

of the command output. If *file* is supplied, then the returned *list* is an empty list. This is an optional NNTP extension, and may not be supported by all servers.

NNTP.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.

NNTP.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.

20.12 smtplib — SMTP protocol client

Code source : [Lib/smtplib.py](#)

The *smtplib* module defines an SMTP client session object that can be used to send mail to any Internet machine with an SMTP or ESMTP listener daemon. For details of SMTP and ESMTP operation, consult [RFC 821](#) (Simple Mail Transfer Protocol) and [RFC 1869](#) (SMTP Service Extensions).

class smtplib.SMTP([*host*[, *port*[, *local_hostname*[, *timeout*]]]])

An *SMTP* instance encapsulates an SMTP connection. It has methods that support a full repertoire of SMTP and ESMTP operations. If the optional *host* and *port* parameters are given, the *SMTP.connect()* method is called with those parameters during initialization. If specified, *local_hostname* is used as the FQDN of the local host in the HELO/EHLO command. Otherwise, the local hostname is found using *socket.getfqdn()*. If the *connect()* call returns anything other than a success code, an *SMTPConnectError* is raised. The optional *timeout* parameter specifies a timeout in seconds for blocking operations like the connection attempt (if not specified, the global default timeout setting will be used). If the timeout expires, *socket.timeout* is raised.

For normal use, you should only require the initialization/connect, *sendmail()*, and *SMTP.quit()* methods. An example is included below.

Modifié dans la version 2.6 : Ajout de *timeout*.

class smtplib.SMTP_SSL([*host*[, *port*[, *local_hostname*[, *keyfile*[, *certfile*[, *timeout*]]]]]])

An *SMTP_SSL* instance behaves exactly the same as instances of *SMTP*. *SMTP_SSL* should be used for situations where SSL is required from the beginning of the connection and using *starttls()* is not appropriate. If *host* is not specified, the local host is used. If *port* is omitted, the standard SMTP-over-SSL port (465) is used. *local_hostname* has the same meaning as it does for the *SMTP* class. *keyfile* and *certfile* are also optional, and can contain a PEM formatted private key and certificate chain file for the SSL connection. The optional *timeout* parameter specifies a timeout in seconds for blocking operations like the connection attempt (if not specified, the global default timeout setting will be used). If the timeout expires, *socket.timeout* is raised.

Nouveau dans la version 2.6.

class smtplib.LMTP([*host*[, *port*[, *local_hostname*]]])

The LMTP protocol, which is very similar to ESMTP, is heavily based on the standard SMTP client. It's common to use Unix sockets for LMTP, so our *connect()* method must support that as well as a regular *host :port* server. *local_hostname* has the same meaning as it does for the *SMTP* class. To specify a Unix socket, you must use an absolute path for *host*, starting with a *"/*.

Authentication is supported, using the regular SMTP mechanism. When using a Unix socket, LMTP generally don't support or require any authentication, but your mileage might vary.

Nouveau dans la version 2.6.

A nice selection of exceptions is defined as well :

exception `smtplib.SMTPException`

The base exception class for all the other exceptions provided by this module.

exception `smtplib.SMTPServerDisconnected`

This exception is raised when the server unexpectedly disconnects, or when an attempt is made to use the *SMTP* instance before connecting it to a server.

exception `smtplib.SMTPResponseException`

Base class for all exceptions that include an SMTP error code. These exceptions are generated in some instances when the SMTP server returns an error code. The error code is stored in the `smtp_code` attribute of the error, and the `smtp_error` attribute is set to the error message.

exception `smtplib.SMTPSenderRefused`

Sender address refused. In addition to the attributes set by on all *SMTPResponseException* exceptions, this sets “sender” to the string that the SMTP server refused.

exception `smtplib.SMTPRecipientsRefused`

All recipient addresses refused. The errors for each recipient are accessible through the attribute `recipients`, which is a dictionary of exactly the same sort as *SMTP.sendmail()* returns.

exception `smtplib.SMTPDataError`

The SMTP server refused to accept the message data.

exception `smtplib.SMTPConnectError`

Error occurred during establishment of a connection with the server.

exception `smtplib.SMTPHeloError`

The server refused our HELO message.

exception `smtplib.SMTPAuthenticationError`

SMTP authentication went wrong. Most probably the server didn’t accept the username/password combination provided.

Voir aussi :

RFC 821 - Simple Mail Transfer Protocol Protocol definition for SMTP. This document covers the model, operating procedure, and protocol details for SMTP.

RFC 1869 - SMTP Service Extensions Definition of the ESMTP extensions for SMTP. This describes a framework for extending SMTP with new commands, supporting dynamic discovery of the commands provided by the server, and defines a few additional commands.

20.12.1 SMTP Objects

An *SMTP* instance has the following methods :

`SMTP.set_debuglevel(level)`

Set the debug output level. A true value for *level* results in debug messages for connection and for all messages sent to and received from the server.

`SMTP.docmd(cmd [, argstring])`

Send a command *cmd* to the server. The optional argument *argstring* is simply concatenated to the command, separated by a space.

This returns a 2-tuple composed of a numeric response code and the actual response line (multiline responses are joined into one long line.)

In normal operation it should not be necessary to call this method explicitly. It is used to implement other methods and may be useful for testing private extensions.

If the connection to the server is lost while waiting for the reply, *SMTPServerDisconnected* will be raised.

`SMTP.connect([host[, port]])`

Connect to a host on a given port. The defaults are to connect to the local host at the standard SMTP port (25). If the hostname ends with a colon (':') followed by a number, that suffix will be stripped off and the number interpreted as the port number to use. This method is automatically invoked by the constructor if a host is specified during instantiation. Returns a 2-tuple of the response code and message sent by the server in its connection response.

`SMTP.helo([hostname])`

Identify yourself to the SMTP server using HELO. The hostname argument defaults to the fully qualified domain name of the local host. The message returned by the server is stored as the `helo_resp` attribute of the object.

In normal operation it should not be necessary to call this method explicitly. It will be implicitly called by the `sendmail()` when necessary.

`SMTP.ehlo([hostname])`

Identify yourself to an ESMTP server using EHLO. The hostname argument defaults to the fully qualified domain name of the local host. Examine the response for ESMTP option and store them for use by `has_extn()`. Also sets several informational attributes : the message returned by the server is stored as the `ehlo_resp` attribute, `does_esmtp` is set to true or false depending on whether the server supports ESMTP, and `esmtp_features` will be a dictionary containing the names of the SMTP service extensions this server supports, and their parameters (if any).

Unless you wish to use `has_extn()` before sending mail, it should not be necessary to call this method explicitly. It will be implicitly called by `sendmail()` when necessary.

`SMTP.ehlo_or_helo_if_needed()`

This method call `ehlo()` and or `helo()` if there has been no previous EHLO or HELO command this session. It tries ESMTP EHLO first.

SMTPHeloError The server didn't reply properly to the HELO greeting.

Nouveau dans la version 2.6.

`SMTP.has_extn(name)`

Return `True` if `name` is in the set of SMTP service extensions returned by the server, `False` otherwise. Case is ignored.

`SMTP.verify(address)`

Check the validity of an address on this server using SMTP VRFY. Returns a tuple consisting of code 250 and a full **RFC 822** address (including human name) if the user address is valid. Otherwise returns an SMTP error code of 400 or greater and an error string.

Note : Many sites disable SMTP VRFY in order to foil spammers.

`SMTP.login(user, password)`

Log in on an SMTP server that requires authentication. The arguments are the username and the password to authenticate with. If there has been no previous EHLO or HELO command this session, this method tries ESMTP EHLO first. This method will return normally if the authentication was successful, or may raise the following exceptions :

SMTPHeloError The server didn't reply properly to the HELO greeting.

SMTPAuthenticationError The server didn't accept the username/password combination.

SMTPException No suitable authentication method was found.

`SMTP.starttls([keyfile[, certfile]])`

Put the SMTP connection in TLS (Transport Layer Security) mode. All SMTP commands that follow will be encrypted. You should then call `ehlo()` again.

If `keyfile` and `certfile` are provided, these are passed to the `socket` module's `ssl()` function.

If there has been no previous `EHLO` or `HELO` command this session, this method tries ESMTP `EHLO` first. Modifié dans la version 2.6.

`SMTPHeloError` The server didn't reply properly to the `HELO` greeting.

`SMTPException` The server does not support the `STARTTLS` extension.

Modifié dans la version 2.6.

`RuntimeError` SSL/TLS support is not available to your Python interpreter.

`SMTP.sendmail`(*from_addr*, *to_addrs*, *msg*[, *mail_options*, *rcpt_options*])

Send mail. The required arguments are an **RFC 822** from-address string, a list of **RFC 822** to-address strings (a bare string will be treated as a list with 1 address), and a message string. The caller may pass a list of ESMTP options (such as `8bitmime`) to be used in `MAIL FROM` commands as *mail_options*. ESMTP options (such as `DSN` commands) that should be used with all `RCPT` commands can be passed as *rcpt_options*. (If you need to use different ESMTP options to different recipients you have to use the low-level methods such as `mail()`, `rcpt()` and `data()` to send the message.)

Note : The *from_addr* and *to_addrs* parameters are used to construct the message envelope used by the transport agents. The **`SMTP`** does not modify the message headers in any way.

If there has been no previous `EHLO` or `HELO` command this session, this method tries ESMTP `EHLO` first. If the server does ESMTP, message size and each of the specified options will be passed to it (if the option is in the feature set the server advertises). If `EHLO` fails, `HELO` will be tried and ESMTP options suppressed.

This method will return normally if the mail is accepted for at least one recipient. Otherwise it will raise an exception. That is, if this method does not raise an exception, then someone should get your mail. If this method does not raise an exception, it returns a dictionary, with one entry for each recipient that was refused. Each entry contains a tuple of the SMTP error code and the accompanying error message sent by the server.

This method may raise the following exceptions :

`SMTPRecipientsRefused` All recipients were refused. Nobody got the mail. The `recipients` attribute of the exception object is a dictionary with information about the refused recipients (like the one returned when at least one recipient was accepted).

`SMTPHeloError` The server didn't reply properly to the `HELO` greeting.

`SMTPSenderRefused` The server didn't accept the *from_addr*.

`SMTPDataError` The server replied with an unexpected error code (other than a refusal of a recipient).

Unless otherwise noted, the connection will be open even after an exception is raised.

`SMTP.quit`()

Terminate the SMTP session and close the connection. Return the result of the SMTP `QUIT` command.

Modifié dans la version 2.6 : Return a value.

Low-level methods corresponding to the standard SMTP/ESMTP commands `HELP`, `RSET`, `NOOP`, `MAIL`, `RCPT`, and `DATA` are also supported. Normally these do not need to be called directly, so they are not documented here. For details, consult the module code.

20.12.2 SMTP Example

This example prompts the user for addresses needed in the message envelope ("To" and "From" addresses), and the message to be delivered. Note that the headers to be included with the message must be included in the message as entered ; this example doesn't do any processing of the **RFC 822** headers. In particular, the "To" and "From" addresses must be included in the message headers explicitly.

```
import smtplib

def prompt(prompt):
    return raw_input(prompt).strip()

fromaddr = prompt("From: ")
toaddrs = prompt("To: ").split()
print "Enter message, end with ^D (Unix) or ^Z (Windows):"

# Add the From: and To: headers at the start!
msg = ("From: %s\r\nTo: %s\r\n\r\n"
       % (fromaddr, ", ".join(toaddrs)))
while 1:
    try:
        line = raw_input()
    except EOFError:
        break
    if not line:
        break
    msg = msg + line

print "Message length is " + repr(len(msg))

server = smtplib.SMTP('localhost')
server.set_debuglevel(1)
server.sendmail(fromaddr, toaddrs, msg)
server.quit()
```

Note : In general, you will want to use the [email](#) package's features to construct an email message, which you can then convert to a string and send via `sendmail()`; see [email : Examples](#).

20.13 smtpd — SMTP Server

Code source : [Lib/smtpd.py](#)

This module offers several classes to implement SMTP servers. One is a generic do-nothing implementation, which can be overridden, while the other two offer specific mail-sending strategies.

20.13.1 SMTPServer Objects

`class smtpd.SMTPServer(localaddr, remoteaddr)`

Create a new *SMTPServer* object, which binds to local address *localaddr*. It will treat *remoteaddr* as an upstream SMTP relay. Both *localaddr* and *remoteaddr* should be a *(host, port)* tuple. The object inherits from *asyncore.dispatcher*, and so will insert itself into *asyncore*'s event loop on instantiation.

`process_message(peer, mailfrom, rcpttos, data)`

Raise *NotImplementedError* exception. Override this in subclasses to do something useful with this message. Whatever was passed in the constructor as *remoteaddr* will be available as the `_remoteaddr` attribute. *peer* is the remote host's address, *mailfrom* is the envelope originator,

rcpttos are the envelope recipients and *data* is a string containing the contents of the e-mail (which should be in [RFC 2822](#) format).

20.13.2 DebuggingServer Objects

class smtpd.DebuggingServer(*localaddr*, *remoteaddr*)

Create a new debugging server. Arguments are as per [SMTPServer](#). Messages will be discarded, and printed on stdout.

20.13.3 PureProxy Objects

class smtpd.PureProxy(*localaddr*, *remoteaddr*)

Create a new pure proxy server. Arguments are as per [SMTPServer](#). Everything will be relayed to *remoteaddr*. Note that running this has a good chance to make you into an open relay, so please be careful.

20.13.4 MailmanProxy Objects

class smtpd.MailmanProxy(*localaddr*, *remoteaddr*)

Create a new pure proxy server. Arguments are as per [SMTPServer](#). Everything will be relayed to *remoteaddr*, unless local mailman configurations knows about an address, in which case it will be handled via mailman. Note that running this has a good chance to make you into an open relay, so please be careful.

20.14 telnetlib — Telnet client

Code source : [Lib/telnetlib.py](#)

The [telnetlib](#) module provides a [Telnet](#) class that implements the Telnet protocol. See [RFC 854](#) for details about the protocol. In addition, it provides symbolic constants for the protocol characters (see below), and for the telnet options. The symbolic names of the telnet options follow the definitions in [arpa/telnet.h](#), with the leading `TELOPT_` removed. For symbolic names of options which are traditionally not included in [arpa/telnet.h](#), see the module source itself.

The symbolic constants for the telnet commands are : IAC, DONT, DO, WONT, WILL, SE (Subnegotiation End), NOP (No Operation), DM (Data Mark), BRK (Break), IP (Interrupt process), AO (Abort output), AYT (Are You There), EC (Erase Character), EL (Erase Line), GA (Go Ahead), SB (Subnegotiation Begin).

class telnetlib.Telnet([*host*[, *port*[, *timeout*]]])

[Telnet](#) represents a connection to a Telnet server. The instance is initially not connected by default ; the [open\(\)](#) method must be used to establish a connection. Alternatively, the host name and optional port number can be passed to the constructor, to, in which case the connection to the server will be established before the constructor returns. The optional *timeout* parameter specifies a timeout in seconds for blocking operations like the connection attempt (if not specified, the global default timeout setting will be used).

Do not reopen an already connected instance.

This class has many `read_*()` methods. Note that some of them raise [EOFError](#) when the end of the connection is read, because they can return an empty string for other reasons. See the individual descriptions below.

Modifié dans la version 2.6 : Ajout de *timeout*.

Voir aussi :

[RFC 854 - Telnet Protocol Specification](#) Definition of the Telnet protocol.

20.14.1 Telnet Objects

Telnet instances have the following methods :

`Telnet.read_until(expected[, timeout])`

Read until a given string, *expected*, is encountered or until *timeout* seconds have passed.

When no match is found, return whatever is available instead, possibly the empty string. Raise *EOFError* if the connection is closed and no cooked data is available.

`Telnet.read_all()`

Read all data until EOF ; block until connection closed.

`Telnet.read_some()`

Read at least one byte of cooked data unless EOF is hit. Return '' if EOF is hit. Block if no data is immediately available.

`Telnet.read_very_eager()`

Read everything that can be without blocking in I/O (eager).

Raise *EOFError* if connection closed and no cooked data available. Return '' if no cooked data available otherwise. Do not block unless in the midst of an IAC sequence.

`Telnet.read_eager()`

Read readily available data.

Raise *EOFError* if connection closed and no cooked data available. Return '' if no cooked data available otherwise. Do not block unless in the midst of an IAC sequence.

`Telnet.read_lazy()`

Process and return data already in the queues (lazy).

Raise *EOFError* if connection closed and no data available. Return '' if no cooked data available otherwise. Do not block unless in the midst of an IAC sequence.

`Telnet.read_very_lazy()`

Return any data available in the cooked queue (very lazy).

Raise *EOFError* if connection closed and no data available. Return '' if no cooked data available otherwise. This method never blocks.

`Telnet.read_sb_data()`

Return the data collected between a SB/SE pair (suboption begin/end). The callback should access these data when it was invoked with a SE command. This method never blocks.

Nouveau dans la version 2.3.

`Telnet.open(host[, port, timeout])`

Connect to a host. The optional second argument is the port number, which defaults to the standard Telnet port (23). The optional *timeout* parameter specifies a timeout in seconds for blocking operations like the connection attempt (if not specified, the global default timeout setting will be used).

Do not try to reopen an already connected instance.

Modifié dans la version 2.6 : Ajout de *timeout*.

`Telnet.msg(msg[, *args])`

Print a debug message when the debug level is > 0. If extra arguments are present, they are substituted in the message using the standard string formatting operator.

`Telnet.set_debuglevel(debuglevel)`

Set the debug level. The higher the value of *debuglevel*, the more debug output you get (on `sys.stdout`).

`Telnet.close()`

Close the connection.

`Telnet.get_socket()`

Return the socket object used internally.

`Telnet.fileno()`

Return the file descriptor of the socket object used internally.

`Telnet.write(buffer)`

Write a string to the socket, doubling any IAC characters. This can block if the connection is blocked. May raise `socket.error` if the connection is closed.

`Telnet.interact()`

Interaction function, emulates a very dumb Telnet client.

`Telnet.mt_interact()`

Multithreaded version of `interact()`.

`Telnet.expect(list[, timeout])`

Read until one from a list of a regular expressions matches.

The first argument is a list of regular expressions, either compiled (**regex objects**) or uncompiled (strings). The optional second argument is a timeout, in seconds; the default is to block indefinitely.

Return a tuple of three items : the index in the list of the first regular expression that matches; the match object returned; and the text read up till and including the match.

If end of file is found and no text was read, raise `EOFError`. Otherwise, when nothing matches, return `(-1, None, text)` where `text` is the text received so far (may be the empty string if a timeout happened).

If a regular expression ends with a greedy match (such as `.*`) or if more than one expression can match the same input, the results are non-deterministic, and may depend on the I/O timing.

`Telnet.set_option_negotiation_callback(callback)`

Each time a telnet option is read on the input flow, this *callback* (if set) is called with the following parameters : `callback(telnet socket, command (DO/DONT/WILL/WONT), option)`. No other action is done afterwards by `telnetlib`.

20.14.2 Telnet Example

A simple example illustrating typical use :

```
import getpass
import sys
import telnetlib

HOST = "localhost"
user = raw_input("Enter your remote account: ")
password = getpass.getpass()

tn = telnetlib.Telnet(HOST)

tn.read_until("login: ")
tn.write(user + "\n")
if password:
    tn.read_until("Password: ")
    tn.write(password + "\n")

tn.write("ls\n")
tn.write("exit\n")

print tn.read_all()
```


20.15 uuid — UUID objects according to RFC 4122

Nouveau dans la version 2.5.

This module provides immutable *UUID* objects (the *UUID* class) and the functions *uuid1()*, *uuid3()*, *uuid4()*, *uuid5()* for generating version 1, 3, 4, and 5 UUIDs as specified in [RFC 4122](#).

If all you want is a unique ID, you should probably call *uuid1()* or *uuid4()*. Note that *uuid1()* may compromise privacy since it creates a UUID containing the computer's network address. *uuid4()* creates a random UUID.

```
class uuid.UUID([hex[, bytes[, bytes_le[, fields[, int[, version]]]]]])
```

Create a UUID from either a string of 32 hexadecimal digits, a string of 16 bytes in big-endian order as the *bytes* argument, a string of 16 bytes in little-endian order as the *bytes_le* argument, a tuple of six integers (32-bit *time_low*, 16-bit *time_mid*, 16-bit *time_hi_version*, 8-bit *clock_seq_hi_variant*, 8-bit *clock_seq_low*, 48-bit *node*) as the *fields* argument, or a single 128-bit integer as the *int* argument. When a string of hex digits is given, curly braces, hyphens, and a URN prefix are all optional. For example, these expressions all yield the same UUID :

```
UUID('{12345678-1234-5678-1234-567812345678}')
UUID('12345678123456781234567812345678')
UUID('urn:uuid:12345678-1234-5678-1234-567812345678')
UUID(bytes='x12\x34\x56\x78'*4)
UUID(bytes_le='x78\x56\x34\x12\x34\x12\x78\x56' +
              'x12\x34\x56\x78\x12\x34\x56\x78')
UUID(fields=(0x12345678, 0x1234, 0x5678, 0x12, 0x34, 0x567812345678))
UUID(int=0x12345678123456781234567812345678)
```

Exactly one of *hex*, *bytes*, *bytes_le*, *fields*, or *int* must be given. The *version* argument is optional; if given, the resulting UUID will have its variant and version number set according to RFC 4122, overriding bits in the given *hex*, *bytes*, *bytes_le*, *fields*, or *int*.

UUID instances have these read-only attributes :

UUID.bytes

The UUID as a 16-byte string (containing the six integer fields in big-endian byte order).

UUID.bytes_le

The UUID as a 16-byte string (with *time_low*, *time_mid*, and *time_hi_version* in little-endian byte order).

UUID.fields

A tuple of the six integer fields of the UUID, which are also available as six individual attributes and two derived attributes :

Field	Signification
<code>time_low</code>	the first 32 bits of the UUID
<code>time_mid</code>	the next 16 bits of the UUID
<code>time_hi_version</code>	the next 16 bits of the UUID
<code>clock_seq_hi_variant</code>	the next 8 bits of the UUID
<code>clock_seq_low</code>	the next 8 bits of the UUID
<code>node</code>	the last 48 bits of the UUID
<code>time</code>	the 60-bit timestamp
<code>clock_seq</code>	the 14-bit sequence number

UUID.hex

The UUID as a 32-character hexadecimal string.

UUID.int

The UUID as a 128-bit integer.

UUID.urn

The UUID as a URN as specified in RFC 4122.

UUID.variant

The UUID variant, which determines the internal layout of the UUID. This will be one of the constants *RESERVED_NCS*, *RFC_4122*, *RESERVED_MICROSOFT*, or *RESERVED_FUTURE*.

UUID.version

The UUID version number (1 through 5, meaningful only when the variant is *RFC_4122*).

The *uuid* module defines the following functions :

uuid.getnode()

Get the hardware address as a 48-bit positive integer. The first time this runs, it may launch a separate program, which could be quite slow. If all attempts to obtain the hardware address fail, we choose a random 48-bit number with its eighth bit set to 1 as recommended in RFC 4122. « Hardware address » means the MAC address of a network interface, and on a machine with multiple network interfaces the MAC address of any one of them may be returned.

uuid.uuid1([node[, clock_seq]])

Generate a UUID from a host ID, sequence number, and the current time. If *node* is not given, *getnode()* is used to obtain the hardware address. If *clock_seq* is given, it is used as the sequence number ; otherwise a random 14-bit sequence number is chosen.

uuid.uuid3(namespace, name)

Generate a UUID based on the MD5 hash of a namespace identifier (which is a UUID) and a name (which is a string).

uuid.uuid4()

Generate a random UUID.

uuid.uuid5(namespace, name)

Generate a UUID based on the SHA-1 hash of a namespace identifier (which is a UUID) and a name (which is a string).

The *uuid* module defines the following namespace identifiers for use with *uuid3()* or *uuid5()*.

uuid.NAMESPACE_DNS

When this namespace is specified, the *name* string is a fully-qualified domain name.

uuid.NAMESPACE_URL

When this namespace is specified, the *name* string is a URL.

uuid.NAMESPACE_OID

When this namespace is specified, the *name* string is an ISO OID.

uuid.NAMESPACE_X500

When this namespace is specified, the *name* string is an X.500 DN in DER or a text output format.

The *uuid* module defines the following constants for the possible values of the **variant** attribute :

uuid.RESERVED_NCS

Reserved for NCS compatibility.

uuid.RFC_4122

Specifies the UUID layout given in **RFC 4122**.

uuid.RESERVED_MICROSOFT

Reserved for Microsoft compatibility.

`uuid.RESERVED_FUTURE`

Reserved for future definition.

Voir aussi :

RFC 4122 - A Universally Unique IDentifier (UUID) URN Namespace This specification defines a Uniform Resource Name namespace for UUIDs, the internal format of UUIDs, and methods of generating UUIDs.

20.15.1 Exemple

Here are some examples of typical usage of the `uuid` module :

```
>>> import uuid

>>> # make a UUID based on the host ID and current time
>>> uuid.uuid1()
UUID('a8098c1a-f86e-11da-bd1a-00112444be1e')

>>> # make a UUID using an MD5 hash of a namespace UUID and a name
>>> uuid.uuid3(uuid.NAMESPACE_DNS, 'python.org')
UUID('6fa459ea-ee8a-3ca4-894e-db77e160355e')

>>> # make a random UUID
>>> uuid.uuid4()
UUID('16fd2706-8baf-433b-82eb-8c7fada847da')

>>> # make a UUID using a SHA-1 hash of a namespace UUID and a name
>>> uuid.uuid5(uuid.NAMESPACE_DNS, 'python.org')
UUID('886313e1-3b8a-5372-9b90-0c9aee199e5d')

>>> # make a UUID from a string of hex digits (braces and hyphens ignored)
>>> x = uuid.UUID('{00010203-0405-0607-0809-0a0b0c0d0e0f}')

>>> # convert a UUID to a string of hex digits in standard form
>>> str(x)
'00010203-0405-0607-0809-0a0b0c0d0e0f'

>>> # get the raw 16 bytes of the UUID
>>> x.bytes
'\x00\x01\x02\x03\x04\x05\x06\x07\x08\t\n\x0b\x0c\r\x0e\x0f'

>>> # make a UUID from a 16-byte string
>>> uuid.UUID(bytes=x.bytes)
UUID('00010203-0405-0607-0809-0a0b0c0d0e0f')
```

20.16 urlparse — Parse URLs into components

Note : The `urlparse` module is renamed to `urllib.parse` in Python 3. The *2to3* tool will automatically adapt imports when converting your sources to Python 3.

Source code : `Lib/urlparse.py`

This module defines a standard interface to break Uniform Resource Locator (URL) strings up in components (addressing 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 Internet RFC on Relative Uniform Resource Locators. It supports the following URL schemes : `file`, `ftp`, `gopher`, `hdl`, `http`, `https`, `imap`, `mailto`, `mms`, `news`, `nntp`, `prospero`, `rsync`, `rtsp`, `rtspu`, `sftp`, `shttp`, `sip`, `sips`, `snews`, `svn`, `svn+ssh`, `telnet`, `wais`.

Nouveau dans la version 2.5 : Support for the `sftp` and `sips` schemes.

The `urlparse` module defines the following functions :

`urlparse.urlparse(urlstring[, scheme[, allow_fragments]])`

Parse a URL into six components, returning a 6-tuple. 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 (for example, the network location is a single string), and % escapes are not expanded. The delimiters as shown above are not part of the result, except for a leading slash in the *path* component, which is retained if present. For example :

```
>>> from urlparse import urlparse
>>> o = urlparse('http://www.cwi.nl:80/%7Eguido/Python.html')
>>> o      # doctest: +NORMALIZE_WHITESPACE
ParseResult(scheme='http', netloc='www.cwi.nl:80', path='/%7Eguido/Python.html',
            params='', query='', fragment='')
>>> o.scheme
'http'
>>> o.port
80
>>> o.geturl()
'http://www.cwi.nl:80/%7Eguido/Python.html'
```

Following the syntax specifications in [RFC 1808](#), `urlparse` recognizes a netloc only if it is properly introduced by `“//”`. Otherwise the input is presumed to be a relative URL and thus to start with a path component.

```
>>> from urlparse import urlparse
>>> urlparse('//www.cwi.nl:80/%7Eguido/Python.html')
ParseResult(scheme='', netloc='www.cwi.nl:80', path='/%7Eguido/Python.html',
            params='', query='', fragment='')
>>> urlparse('www.cwi.nl/%7Eguido/Python.html')
ParseResult(scheme='', netloc='', path='www.cwi.nl/%7Eguido/Python.html',
            params='', query='', fragment='')
>>> urlparse('help/Python.html')
ParseResult(scheme='', netloc='', path='help/Python.html', params='',
            query='', fragment='')
```

If the *scheme* argument is specified, it gives the default addressing scheme, to be used only if the URL does not specify one. The default value for this argument is the empty string.

If the *allow_fragments* argument is false, fragment identifiers are not recognized and parsed as part of the preceding component, even if the URL’s addressing scheme normally does support them. The default value for this argument is `True`.

The return value is actually an instance of a subclass of `tuple`. This class has the following additional read-only convenience attributes :

Attribut	Index	Valeur	Value if not present
scheme	0	URL scheme specifier	<i>scheme</i> parameter
netloc	1	Network location part	empty string
path	2	Hierarchical path	empty string
params	3	Parameters for last path element	empty string
query	4	Query component	empty string
fragment	5	Fragment identifier	empty string
username		User name	<i>None</i>
password		Password	<i>None</i>
hostname		Host name (lower case)	<i>None</i>
port		Port number as integer, if present	<i>None</i>

See section [Results of `urlparse\(\)` and `urlsplit\(\)`](#) for more information on the result object.

Modifié dans la version 2.5 : Added attributes to return value.

Modifié dans la version 2.7 : Added IPv6 URL parsing capabilities.

`urlparse.parse_qs(qs[, keep_blank_values[, strict_parsing[, max_num_fields]])]`

Parse a query string given as a string argument (data of type *application/x-www-form-urlencoded*). Data are returned as a dictionary. The dictionary keys are the unique query variable names and the values are lists of values for each name.

The optional argument *keep_blank_values* is a flag indicating whether blank values in percent-encoded queries should be treated as blank strings. A true value indicates that blanks should be retained as blank strings. The default false value indicates that blank values are to be ignored and treated as if they were not included.

The optional argument *strict_parsing* is a flag indicating what to do with parsing errors. If false (the default), errors are silently ignored. If true, errors raise a *ValueError* exception.

The optional argument *max_num_fields* is the maximum number of fields to read. If set, then throws a *ValueError* if there are more than *max_num_fields* fields read.

Use the [`urllib.urlencode\(\)`](#) function to convert such dictionaries into query strings.

Nouveau dans la version 2.6 : Copied from the *cgi* module.

Modifié dans la version 2.7.16 : Added *max_num_fields* parameter.

`urlparse.parse_qsl(qs[, keep_blank_values[, strict_parsing[, max_num_fields]])]`

Parse a query string given as a string argument (data of type *application/x-www-form-urlencoded*). Data are returned as a list of name, value pairs.

The optional argument *keep_blank_values* is a flag indicating whether blank values in percent-encoded queries should be treated as blank strings. A true value indicates that blanks should be retained as blank strings. The default false value indicates that blank values are to be ignored and treated as if they were not included.

The optional argument *strict_parsing* is a flag indicating what to do with parsing errors. If false (the default), errors are silently ignored. If true, errors raise a *ValueError* exception.

The optional argument *max_num_fields* is the maximum number of fields to read. If set, then throws a *ValueError* if there are more than *max_num_fields* fields read.

Use the [`urllib.urlencode\(\)`](#) function to convert such lists of pairs into query strings.

Nouveau dans la version 2.6 : Copied from the *cgi* module.

Modifié dans la version 2.7.16 : Added *max_num_fields* parameter.

`urlparse.urlunparse(parts)`

Construct a URL from a tuple as returned by `urlparse()`. The *parts* argument can be any six-item iterable. This may result in a slightly different, but equivalent URL, if the URL that was parsed originally had unnecessary delimiters (for example, a ? with an empty query; the RFC states that these are equivalent).

`urlparse.urlsplit(urlstring[, scheme[, allow_fragments]])`

This is similar to `urlparse()`, but does not split the params from the URL. This should generally be used instead of `urlparse()` if the more recent URL syntax allowing parameters to be applied to each segment of the *path* portion of the URL (see [RFC 2396](#)) is wanted. A separate function is needed to separate the path segments and parameters. This function returns a 5-tuple : (addressing scheme, network location, path, query, fragment identifier).

The return value is actually an instance of a subclass of `tuple`. This class has the following additional read-only convenience attributes :

Attribut	Index	Valeur	Value if not present
<code>scheme</code>	0	URL scheme specifier	<i>scheme</i> parameter
<code>netloc</code>	1	Network location part	empty string
<code>path</code>	2	Hierarchical path	empty string
<code>query</code>	3	Query component	empty string
<code>fragment</code>	4	Fragment identifier	empty string
<code>username</code>		User name	<i>None</i>
<code>password</code>		Password	<i>None</i>
<code>hostname</code>		Host name (lower case)	<i>None</i>
<code>port</code>		Port number as integer, if present	<i>None</i>

See section *Results of urlparse() and urlsplit()* for more information on the result object.

Nouveau dans la version 2.2.

Modifié dans la version 2.5 : Added attributes to return value.

`urlparse.urlunsplit(parts)`

Combine the elements of a tuple as returned by `urlsplit()` into a complete URL as a string. The *parts* argument can be any five-item iterable. This may result in a slightly different, but equivalent URL, if the URL that was parsed originally had unnecessary delimiters (for example, a ? with an empty query ; the RFC states that these are equivalent).

Nouveau dans la version 2.2.

`urlparse.urljoin(base, url[, allow_fragments])`

Construct a full (« absolute ») URL by combining a « base URL » (*base*) with another 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. For example :

```
>>> from urlparse import urljoin
>>> urljoin('http://www.cwi.nl/%7Eguido/Python.html', 'FAQ.html')
'http://www.cwi.nl/%7Eguido/FAQ.html'
```

The *allow_fragments* argument has the same meaning and default as for `urlparse()`.

Note : If *url* is an absolute URL (that is, starting with `//` or `scheme://`), the *url*'s host name and/or scheme will be present in the result. For example :

```
>>> urljoin('http://www.cwi.nl/%7Eguido/Python.html',
...         '//www.python.org/%7Eguido')
'http://www.python.org/%7Eguido'
```

If you do not want that behavior, preprocess the *url* with `urlsplit()` and `urlunsplit()`, removing possible *scheme* and *netloc* parts.

`urlparse.urldefrag(url)`

If *url* contains a fragment identifier, returns a modified version of *url* with no fragment identifier,

and the fragment identifier as a separate string. If there is no fragment identifier in *url*, returns *url* unmodified and an empty string.

Voir aussi :

RFC 3986 - Uniform Resource Identifiers This is the current standard (STD66). Any changes to `urlparse` module should conform to this. Certain deviations could be observed, which are mostly for backward compatibility purposes and for certain de-facto parsing requirements as commonly observed in major browsers.

RFC 2732 - Format for Literal IPv6 Addresses in URL's. This specifies the parsing requirements of IPv6 URLs.

RFC 2396 - Uniform Resource Identifiers (URI) : Generic Syntax Document describing the generic syntactic requirements for both Uniform Resource Names (URNs) and Uniform Resource Locators (URLs).

RFC 2368 - The mailto URL scheme. Parsing requirements for mailto URL schemes.

RFC 1808 - Relative Uniform Resource Locators This Request For Comments includes the rules for joining an absolute and a relative URL, including a fair number of « Abnormal Examples » which govern the treatment of border cases.

RFC 1738 - Uniform Resource Locators (URL) This specifies the formal syntax and semantics of absolute URLs.

20.16.1 Results of `urlparse()` and `urlsplit()`

The result objects from the `urlparse()` and `urlsplit()` functions are subclasses of the `tuple` type. These subclasses add the attributes described in those functions, as well as provide an additional method :

`ParseResult.geturl()`

Return the re-combined version of the original URL as a string. This may differ from the original URL in that the scheme will always be normalized to lower case and empty components may be dropped. Specifically, empty parameters, queries, and fragment identifiers will be removed.

The result of this method is a fixpoint if passed back through the original parsing function :

```
>>> import urlparse
>>> url = 'HTTP://www.Python.org/doc/#'
```

```
>>> r1 = urlparse.urlsplit(url)
>>> r1.geturl()
'http://www.Python.org/doc/'
```

```
>>> r2 = urlparse.urlsplit(r1.geturl())
>>> r2.geturl()
'http://www.Python.org/doc/'
```

Nouveau dans la version 2.5.

The following classes provide the implementations of the parse results :

`class urlparse.ParseResult(scheme, netloc, path, params, query, fragment)`
Concrete class for `urlparse()` results.

`class urlparse.SplitResult(scheme, netloc, path, query, fragment)`
Concrete class for `urlsplit()` results.

20.17 SocketServer — A framework for network servers

Note : The *SocketServer* module has been renamed to `socketserver` in Python 3. The *2to3* tool will automatically adapt imports when converting your sources to Python 3.

Source code : `Lib/SocketServer.py`

The *SocketServer* module simplifies the task of writing network servers.

There are four basic concrete server classes :

class `SocketServer.TCPServer(server_address, RequestHandlerClass, bind_and_activate=True)`

This uses the Internet TCP protocol, which provides for continuous streams of data between the client and server. If *bind_and_activate* is true, the constructor automatically attempts to invoke *server_bind()* and *server_activate()*. The other parameters are passed to the *BaseServer* base class.

class `SocketServer.UDPServer(server_address, RequestHandlerClass, bind_and_activate=True)`

This uses datagrams, which are discrete packets of information that may arrive out of order or be lost while in transit. The parameters are the same as for *TCPServer*.

class `SocketServer.UnixStreamServer(server_address, RequestHandlerClass, bind_and_activate=True)`

class `SocketServer.UnixDatagramServer(server_address, RequestHandlerClass, bind_and_activate=True)`

These more infrequently used classes are similar to the TCP and UDP classes, but use Unix domain sockets; they're not available on non-Unix platforms. The parameters are the same as for *TCPServer*.

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. Then call the *handle_request()* or *serve_forever()* method of the server object to process one or many requests. Finally, call *server_close()* to close the socket.

When inheriting from *ThreadingMixIn* for threaded connection behavior, you should explicitly declare how you want your threads to behave on an abrupt shutdown. The *ThreadingMixIn* class defines an attribute *daemon_threads*, which indicates whether or not the server should wait for thread termination. You should set the flag explicitly if you would like threads to behave autonomously; the default is *False*, meaning that Python will not exit until all threads created by *ThreadingMixIn* have exited.

Server classes have the same external methods and attributes, no matter what network protocol they use.

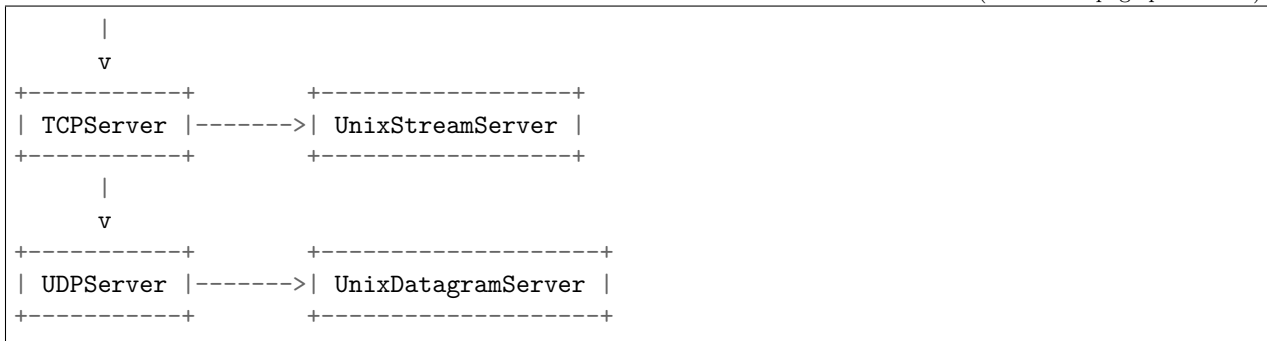
20.17.1 Server Creation Notes

There are five classes in an inheritance diagram, four of which represent synchronous servers of four types :

```
+-----+
| BaseServer |
+-----+
```

(suite sur la page suivante)

(suite de la page précédente)



Note that *UnixDatagramServer* derives from *UDPServer*, not from *UnixStreamServer* — the only difference between an IP and a Unix stream server is the address family, which is simply repeated in both Unix server classes.

```
class SocketServer.ForkingMixIn
```

```
class SocketServer.ThreadingMixIn
```

Forking and threading versions of each type of server can be created using these mix-in classes. For instance, *ThreadingUDPServer* is created as follows :

```
class ThreadingUDPServer(ThreadingMixIn, UDPServer):
    pass
```

The mix-in class comes first, since it overrides a method defined in *UDPServer*. Setting the various attributes also changes the behavior of the underlying server mechanism.

ForkingMixIn and the Forking classes mentioned below are only available on POSIX platforms that support *fork()*.

```
class SocketServer.ForkingTCPServer
```

```
class SocketServer.ForkingUDPServer
```

```
class SocketServer.ThreadingTCPServer
```

```
class SocketServer.ThreadingUDPServer
```

These classes are pre-defined using the mix-in classes.

To implement a service, you must derive a class from *BaseRequestHandler* and redefine its *handle()* method. You can then run various versions of the service by combining one of the server classes with your request handler class. The request handler class must be different for datagram or stream services. This can be hidden by using the handler subclasses *StreamRequestHandler* or *DatagramRequestHandler*.

Of course, you still have to use your head! For instance, it makes no sense to use a forking server if the service contains state in memory that can be modified by different requests, since the modifications in the child process would never reach the initial state kept in the parent process and passed to each child. In this case, you can use a threading server, but you will probably have to use locks to protect the integrity of the shared data.

On the other hand, if you are building an HTTP server where all data is stored externally (for instance, in the file system), a synchronous class will essentially render the service « deaf » while one request is being handled – which may be for a very long time if a client is slow to receive all the data it has requested. Here a threading or forking server is appropriate.

In some cases, it may be appropriate to process part of a request synchronously, but to finish processing in a forked child depending on the request data. This can be implemented by using a synchronous server and doing an explicit fork in the request handler class *handle()* method.

Another approach to handling multiple simultaneous requests in an environment that supports neither threads nor *fork()* (or where these are too expensive or inappropriate for the service) is to maintain an explicit table of partially finished requests and to use *select()* to decide which request to work on next (or

whether to handle a new incoming request). This is particularly important for stream services where each client can potentially be connected for a long time (if threads or subprocesses cannot be used). See [asyncore](#) for another way to manage this.

20.17.2 Server Objects

class `SocketServer.BaseServer(server_address, RequestHandlerClass)`

This is the superclass of all Server objects in the module. It defines the interface, given below, but does not implement most of the methods, which is done in subclasses. The two parameters are stored in the respective `server_address` and `RequestHandlerClass` attributes.

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. If no request is received within `timeout` seconds, `handle_timeout()` will be called and `handle_request()` will return.

serve_forever(poll_interval=0.5)

Handle requests until an explicit `shutdown()` request. Poll for shutdown every `poll_interval` seconds. Ignores the `timeout` attribute. If you need to do periodic tasks, do them in another thread.

shutdown()

Tell the `serve_forever()` loop to stop and wait until it does.

Nouveau dans la version 2.6.

server_close()

Clean up the server. May be overridden.

Nouveau dans la version 2.6.

address_family

The family of protocols to which the server's socket belongs. Common examples are `socket.AF_INET` and `socket.AF_UNIX`.

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 :

allow_reuse_address

Whether the server will allow the reuse of an address. This defaults to `False`, and can be set in subclasses to change the policy.

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 common values.

timeout

Timeout duration, measured in seconds, or *None* if no timeout is desired. If *handle_request()* receives no incoming requests within the timeout period, the *handle_timeout()* method is called.

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(request, client_address)

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 *handle()* method of a *RequestHandlerClass* instance raises an exception. The default action is to print the traceback to standard output and continue handling further requests.

handle_timeout()

This function is called when the *timeout* attribute has been set to a value other than *None* and the timeout period has passed with no requests being received. The default action for forking servers is to collect the status of any child processes that have exited, while in threading servers this method does nothing.

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. The default behavior for a TCP server just invokes *listen()* on the server's socket. 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 returns *True*.

20.17.3 Request Handler Objects

class SocketServer.BaseRequestHandler

This is the superclass of all request handler objects. It defines the interface, given below. A concrete request handler subclass must define a new *handle()* method, and can override any of the other methods. A new instance of the subclass is created for each request.

setup()

Called before the *handle()* method to perform any initialization actions required. The default implementation does nothing.

handle()

This function must do all the work required to service a request. The default implementation does nothing. Several instance attributes are available to it; the request is available as *self.request*; the client address as *self.client_address*; 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 pair of string and socket.

finish()

Called after the *handle()* method to perform any clean-up actions required. The default implementation does nothing. If *setup()* raises an exception, this function will not be called.

```
class SocketServer.StreamRequestHandler
class SocketServer.DatagramRequestHandler
```

These *BaseRequestHandler* subclasses override the *setup()* and *finish()* methods, and provide *self.rfile* and *self.wfile* attributes. The *self.rfile* and *self.wfile* attributes can be read or written, respectively, to get the request data or return data to the client.

20.17.4 Examples

SocketServer.TCPServer Example

This is the server side :

```
import SocketServer

class MyTCPHandler(SocketServer.BaseRequestHandler):
    """
    The request handler class for our server.

    It is instantiated once per connection to the server, and must
    override the handle() method to implement communication to the
    client.
    """

    def handle(self):
        # self.request is the TCP socket connected to the client
        self.data = self.request.recv(1024).strip()
        print "{} wrote:".format(self.client_address[0])
        print self.data
        # just send back the same data, but upper-cased
        self.request.sendall(self.data.upper())

if __name__ == "__main__":
    HOST, PORT = "localhost", 9999

    # Create the server, binding to localhost on port 9999
    server = SocketServer.TCPServer((HOST, PORT), MyTCPHandler)

    # Activate the server; this will keep running until you
    # interrupt the program with Ctrl-C
    server.serve_forever()
```

An alternative request handler class that makes use of streams (file-like objects that simplify communication by providing the standard file interface) :

```
class MyTCPHandler(SocketServer.StreamRequestHandler):

    def handle(self):
        # self.rfile is a file-like object created by the handler;
        # we can now use e.g. readline() instead of raw recv() calls
        self.data = self.rfile.readline().strip()
        print "{} wrote:".format(self.client_address[0])
        print self.data
        # Likewise, self.wfile is a file-like object used to write back
        # to the client
```

(suite sur la page suivante)

(suite de la page précédente)

```
self.wfile.write(self.data.upper())
```

The difference is that the `readline()` call in the second handler will call `recv()` multiple times until it encounters a newline character, while the single `recv()` call in the first handler will just return what has been sent from the client in one `sendall()` call.

This is the client side :

```
import socket
import sys

HOST, PORT = "localhost", 9999
data = " ".join(sys.argv[1:])

# Create a socket (SOCK_STREAM means a TCP socket)
sock = socket.socket(socket.AF_INET, socket.SOCK_STREAM)

try:
    # Connect to server and send data
    sock.connect((HOST, PORT))
    sock.sendall(data + "\n")

    # Receive data from the server and shut down
    received = sock.recv(1024)
finally:
    sock.close()

print "Sent:      {}".format(data)
print "Received: {}".format(received)
```

The output of the example should look something like this :

Serveur :

```
$ python TCPServer.py
127.0.0.1 wrote:
hello world with TCP
127.0.0.1 wrote:
python is nice
```

Client :

```
$ python TCPClient.py hello world with TCP
Sent:      hello world with TCP
Received: HELLO WORLD WITH TCP
$ python TCPClient.py python is nice
Sent:      python is nice
Received: PYTHON IS NICE
```

SocketServer.UDPServer Example

This is the server side :

```

import SocketServer

class MyUDPHandler(SocketServer.BaseRequestHandler):
    """
    This class works similar to the TCP handler class, except that
    self.request consists of a pair of data and client socket, and since
    there is no connection the client address must be given explicitly
    when sending data back via sendto().
    """

    def handle(self):
        data = self.request[0].strip()
        socket = self.request[1]
        print "{} wrote:".format(self.client_address[0])
        print data
        socket.sendto(data.upper(), self.client_address)

if __name__ == "__main__":
    HOST, PORT = "localhost", 9999
    server = SocketServer.UDPServer((HOST, PORT), MyUDPHandler)
    server.serve_forever()

```

This is the client side :

```

import socket
import sys

HOST, PORT = "localhost", 9999
data = " ".join(sys.argv[1:])

# SOCK_DGRAM is the socket type to use for UDP sockets
sock = socket.socket(socket.AF_INET, socket.SOCK_DGRAM)

# As you can see, there is no connect() call; UDP has no connections.
# Instead, data is directly sent to the recipient via sendto().
sock.sendto(data + "\n", (HOST, PORT))
received = sock.recv(1024)

print "Sent:      {}".format(data)
print "Received: {}".format(received)

```

The output of the example should look exactly like for the TCP server example.

Asynchronous Mixins

To build asynchronous handlers, use the *ThreadingMixIn* and *ForkingMixIn* classes.

An example for the *ThreadingMixIn* class :

```

import socket
import threading
import SocketServer

class ThreadedTCPRequestHandler(SocketServer.BaseRequestHandler):

```

(suite sur la page suivante)

(suite de la page précédente)

```

def handle(self):
    data = self.request.recv(1024)
    cur_thread = threading.current_thread()
    response = "{}: {}".format(cur_thread.name, data)
    self.request.sendall(response)

class ThreadedTCPServer(SocketServer.ThreadingMixIn, SocketServer.TCPServer):
    pass

def client(ip, port, message):
    sock = socket.socket(socket.AF_INET, socket.SOCK_STREAM)
    sock.connect((ip, port))
    try:
        sock.sendall(message)
        response = sock.recv(1024)
        print "Received: {}".format(response)
    finally:
        sock.close()

if __name__ == "__main__":
    # Port 0 means to select an arbitrary unused port
    HOST, PORT = "localhost", 0

    server = ThreadedTCPServer((HOST, PORT), ThreadedTCPRequestHandler)
    ip, port = server.server_address

    # Start a thread with the server -- that thread will then start one
    # more thread for each request
    server_thread = threading.Thread(target=server.serve_forever)
    # Exit the server thread when the main thread terminates
    server_thread.daemon = True
    server_thread.start()
    print "Server loop running in thread:", server_thread.name

    client(ip, port, "Hello World 1")
    client(ip, port, "Hello World 2")
    client(ip, port, "Hello World 3")

    server.shutdown()
    server.server_close()

```

The output of the example should look something like this :

```

$ python ThreadedTCPServer.py
Server loop running in thread: Thread-1
Received: Thread-2: Hello World 1
Received: Thread-3: Hello World 2
Received: Thread-4: Hello World 3

```

The *ForkingMixIn* class is used in the same way, except that the server will spawn a new process for each request. Available only on POSIX platforms that support *fork()*.

20.18 BaseHTTPServer — Basic HTTP server

Note : The *BaseHTTPServer* module has been merged into `http.server` in Python 3. The *2to3* tool will automatically adapt imports when converting your sources to Python 3.

Source code : `Lib/BaseHTTPServer.py`

This module defines two classes for implementing HTTP servers (Web servers). Usually, this module isn't used directly, but is used as a basis for building functioning Web servers. See the *SimpleHTTPServer* and *CGIHTTPServer* modules.

The first class, *HTTPServer*, is a *SocketServer.TCPServer* subclass, and therefore implements the *SocketServer.BaseServer* interface. It creates and listens at the HTTP socket, dispatching the requests to a handler. Code to create and run the server looks like this :

```
def run(server_class=BaseHTTPServer.HTTPServer,
        handler_class=BaseHTTPServer.BaseHTTPRequestHandler):
    server_address = ('', 8000)
    httpd = server_class(server_address, handler_class)
    httpd.serve_forever()
```

class `BaseHTTPServer.HTTPServer(server_address, RequestHandlerClass)`

This class builds on the *TCPServer* class by storing the server address as instance variables named `server_name` and `server_port`. The server is accessible by the handler, typically through the handler's `server` instance variable.

class `BaseHTTPServer.BaseHTTPRequestHandler(request, client_address, server)`

This class is used to handle the HTTP requests that arrive at the server. By itself, it cannot respond to any actual HTTP requests; it must be subclassed to handle each request method (e.g. GET or POST). *BaseHTTPRequestHandler* provides a number of class and instance variables, and methods for use by subclasses.

The handler will parse the request and the headers, then call a method specific to the request type. The method name is constructed from the request. For example, for the request method SPAM, the `do_SPAM()` method will be called with no arguments. All of the relevant information is stored in instance variables of the handler. Subclasses should not need to override or extend the `__init__()` method.

BaseHTTPRequestHandler has the following instance variables :

client_address

Contains a tuple of the form (host, port) referring to the client's address.

server

Contains the server instance.

command

Contains the command (request type). For example, 'GET'.

path

Contains the request path.

request_version

Contains the version string from the request. For example, 'HTTP/1.0'.

headers

Holds an instance of the class specified by the *MessageClass* class variable. This instance parses and manages the headers in the HTTP request.

rfile

Contains an input stream, positioned at the start of the optional input data.

wfile

Contains the output stream for writing a response back to the client. Proper adherence to the HTTP protocol must be used when writing to this stream.

BaseHTTPRequestHandler has the following class variables :

server_version

Specifies the server software version. You may want to override this. The format is multiple whitespace-separated strings, where each string is of the form *name[/version]*. For example, 'BaseHTTP/0.2'.

sys_version

Contains the Python system version, in a form usable by the *version_string* method and the *server_version* class variable. For example, 'Python/1.4'.

error_message_format

Specifies a format string for building an error response to the client. It uses parenthesized, keyed format specifiers, so the format operand must be a dictionary. The *code* key should be an integer, specifying the numeric HTTP error code value. *message* should be a string containing a (detailed) error message of what occurred, and *explain* should be an explanation of the error code number. Default *message* and *explain* values can found in the *responses* class variable.

error_content_type

Specifies the Content-Type HTTP header of error responses sent to the client. The default value is 'text/html'.

Nouveau dans la version 2.6 : Previously, the content type was always 'text/html'.

protocol_version

This specifies the HTTP protocol version used in responses. If set to 'HTTP/1.1', the server will permit HTTP persistent connections; however, your server *must* then include an accurate Content-Length header (using *send_header()*) in all of its responses to clients. For backwards compatibility, the setting defaults to 'HTTP/1.0'.

MessageClass

Specifies a *rfc822.Message*-like class to parse HTTP headers. Typically, this is not overridden, and it defaults to *mimetools.Message*.

responses

This variable contains a mapping of error code integers to two-element tuples containing a short and long message. For example, {*code*: (*shortmessage*, *longmessage*)}. The *shortmessage* is usually used as the *message* key in an error response, and *longmessage* as the *explain* key (see the *error_message_format* class variable).

A *BaseHTTPRequestHandler* instance has the following methods :

handle()

Calls *handle_one_request()* once (or, if persistent connections are enabled, multiple times) to handle incoming HTTP requests. You should never need to override it; instead, implement appropriate *do_**() methods.

handle_one_request()

This method will parse and dispatch the request to the appropriate *do_**() method. You should never need to override it.

send_error(*code*[, *message*])

Sends and logs a complete error reply to the client. The numeric *code* specifies the HTTP error code, with *message* as optional, more specific text. A complete set of headers is sent, followed by text composed using the *error_message_format* class variable. The body will be empty if the method is HEAD or the response code is one of the following : 1xx, 204 No Content, 205 Reset Content, 304 Not Modified.

send_response(*code*[, *message*])

Sends a response header and logs the accepted request. The HTTP response line is sent, followed by *Server* and *Date* headers. The values for these two headers are picked up from the *version_string()* and *date_time_string()* methods, respectively.

send_header(*keyword*, *value*)
Writes a specific HTTP header to the output stream. *keyword* should specify the header keyword, with *value* specifying its value.

end_headers()
Sends a blank line, indicating the end of the HTTP headers in the response.

log_request(*[code*, *size*])
Logs an accepted (successful) request. *code* should specify the numeric HTTP code associated with the response. If a size of the response is available, then it should be passed as the *size* parameter.

log_error(...)
Logs an error when a request cannot be fulfilled. By default, it passes the message to *log_message()*, so it takes the same arguments (*format* and additional values).

log_message(*format*, ...)
Logs an arbitrary message to `sys.stderr`. This is typically overridden to create custom error logging mechanisms. The *format* argument is a standard printf-style format string, where the additional arguments to *log_message()* are applied as inputs to the formatting. The client ip address and current date and time are prefixed to every message logged.

version_string()
Returns the server software's version string. This is a combination of the *server_version* and *sys_version* class variables.

date_time_string(*[timestamp]*)
Returns the date and time given by *timestamp* (which must be in the format returned by *time.time()*), formatted for a message header. If *timestamp* is omitted, it uses the current date and time.
The result looks like 'Sun, 06 Nov 1994 08:49:37 GMT'.
Nouveau dans la version 2.5 : The *timestamp* parameter.

log_date_time_string()
Returns the current date and time, formatted for logging.

address_string()
Returns the client address, formatted for logging. A name lookup is performed on the client's IP address.

20.18.1 More examples

To create a server that doesn't run forever, but until some condition is fulfilled :

```
def run_while_true(server_class=BaseHTTPServer.HTTPServer,
                  handler_class=BaseHTTPServer.BaseHTTPRequestHandler):
    """
    This assumes that keep_running() is a function of no arguments which
    is tested initially and after each request. If its return value
    is true, the server continues.
    """
    server_address = ('', 8000)
    httpd = server_class(server_address, handler_class)
    while keep_running():
        httpd.handle_request()
```

Voir aussi :

Module *CGIHTTPServer* Extended request handler that supports CGI scripts.

Module *SimpleHTTPServer* Basic request handler that limits response to files actually under the document root.

20.19 SimpleHTTPServer — Simple HTTP request handler

Note : The *SimpleHTTPServer* module has been merged into `http.server` in Python 3. The *2to3* tool will automatically adapt imports when converting your sources to Python 3.

Avertissement : `mod :SimpleHTTPServer` is not recommended for production. It only implements basic security checks.

The *SimpleHTTPServer* module defines a single class, *SimpleHTTPRequestHandler*, which is interface-compatible with *BaseHTTPServer.BaseHTTPRequestHandler*.

The *SimpleHTTPServer* module defines the following class :

class SimpleHTTPServer.SimpleHTTPRequestHandler(request, client_address, server)

This class serves files from the current directory and below, directly mapping the directory structure to HTTP requests.

A lot of the work, such as parsing the request, is done by the base class *BaseHTTPServer.BaseHTTPRequestHandler*. This class implements the *do_GET()* and *do_HEAD()* functions.

The following are defined as class-level attributes of *SimpleHTTPRequestHandler* :

server_version

This will be "SimpleHTTP/" + `__version__`, where `__version__` is defined at the module level.

extensions_map

A dictionary mapping suffixes into MIME types. The default is signified by an empty string, and is considered to be `application/octet-stream`. The mapping is used case-insensitively, and so should contain only lower-cased keys.

The *SimpleHTTPRequestHandler* class defines the following methods :

do_HEAD()

This method serves the 'HEAD' request type : it sends the headers it would send for the equivalent GET request. See the *do_GET()* method for a more complete explanation of the possible headers.

do_GET()

The request is mapped to a local file by interpreting the request as a path relative to the current working directory.

If the request was mapped to a directory, the directory is checked for a file named `index.html` or `index.htm` (in that order). If found, the file's contents are returned ; otherwise a directory listing is generated by calling the `list_directory()` method. This method uses `os.listdir()` to scan the directory, and returns a 404 error response if the `listdir()` fails.

If the request was mapped to a file, it is opened and the contents are returned. Any *IOError* exception in opening the requested file is mapped to a 404, 'File not found' error. Otherwise, the content type is guessed by calling the `guess_type()` method, which in turn uses the `extensions_map` variable.

A 'Content-type:' header with the guessed content type is output, followed by a 'Content-Length:' header with the file's size and a 'Last-Modified:' header with the file's modification time.

Then follows a blank line signifying the end of the headers, and then the contents of the file are output. If the file's MIME type starts with `text/` the file is opened in text mode ; otherwise binary mode is used.

The *test()* function in the *SimpleHTTPServer* module is an example which creates a server using the *SimpleHTTPRequestHandler* as the Handler.

Nouveau dans la version 2.5 : The 'Last-Modified' header.

The *SimpleHTTPServer* module can be used in the following manner in order to set up a very basic web server serving files relative to the current directory.

```
import SimpleHTTPServer
import SocketServer

PORT = 8000

Handler = SimpleHTTPServer.SimpleHTTPRequestHandler

httpd = SocketServer.TCPServer(("", PORT), Handler)

print "serving at port", PORT
httpd.serve_forever()
```

The *SimpleHTTPServer* module can also be invoked directly using the `-m` switch of the interpreter with a `port number` argument. Similar to the previous example, this serves the files relative to the current directory.

```
python -m SimpleHTTPServer 8000
```

Voir aussi :

Module *BaseHTTPServer* Base class implementation for Web server and request handler.

20.20 CGIHTTPServer — CGI-capable HTTP request handler

Note : The *CGIHTTPServer* module has been merged into `http.server` in Python 3. The *2to3* tool will automatically adapt imports when converting your sources to Python 3.

The *CGIHTTPServer* module defines a request-handler class, interface compatible with *BaseHTTPServer.BaseHTTPRequestHandler* and inherits behavior from *SimpleHTTPServer.SimpleHTTPRequestHandler* but can also run CGI scripts.

Note : This module can run CGI scripts on Unix and Windows systems.

Note : CGI scripts run by the *CGIHTTPRequestHandler* class cannot execute redirects (HTTP code 302), because code 200 (script output follows) is sent prior to execution of the CGI script. This pre-empts the status code.

The *CGIHTTPServer* module defines the following class :

```
class CGIHTTPServer.CGIHTTPRequestHandler(request, client_address, server)
```

This class is used to serve either files or output of CGI scripts from the current directory and below. Note that mapping HTTP hierarchic structure to local directory structure is exactly as in *SimpleHTTPServer.SimpleHTTPRequestHandler*.

The class will however, run the CGI script, instead of serving it as a file, if it guesses it to be a CGI script. Only directory-based CGI are used — the other common server configuration is to treat special extensions as denoting CGI scripts.

The `do_GET()` and `do_HEAD()` functions are modified to run CGI scripts and serve the output, instead of serving files, if the request leads to somewhere below the `cgi_directories` path.

The *CGIHTTPRequestHandler* defines the following data member :

cgi_directories

This defaults to `['/cgi-bin', '/htbin']` and describes directories to treat as containing CGI scripts.

The *CGIHTTPRequestHandler* defines the following methods :

do_POST()

This method serves the 'POST' request type, only allowed for CGI scripts. Error 501, « Can only POST to CGI scripts », is output when trying to POST to a non-CGI url.

Note that CGI scripts will be run with UID of user nobody, for security reasons. Problems with the CGI script will be translated to error 403.

For example usage, see the implementation of the *test()* function.

Voir aussi :

Module *BaseHTTPServer* Base class implementation for Web server and request handler.

20.21 cookielib — Cookie handling for HTTP clients

Note : The *cookielib* module has been renamed to `http.cookiejar` in Python 3. The *2to3* tool will automatically adapt imports when converting your sources to Python 3.

Nouveau dans la version 2.4.

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

The *cookielib* module defines classes for automatic handling of HTTP cookies. It is useful for accessing web sites that require small pieces of data – *cookies* – to be set on the client machine by an HTTP response from a web server, and then returned to the server in later HTTP requests.

Both the regular Netscape cookie protocol and the protocol defined by **RFC 2965** are handled. RFC 2965 handling is switched off by default. **RFC 2109** cookies are parsed as Netscape cookies and subsequently treated either as Netscape or RFC 2965 cookies according to the “policy” in effect. Note that the great majority of cookies on the Internet are Netscape cookies. *cookielib* attempts to follow the de-facto Netscape cookie protocol (which differs substantially from that set out in the original Netscape specification), including taking note of the `max-age` and `port` cookie-attributes introduced with RFC 2965.

Note : The various named parameters found in *Set-Cookie* and *Set-Cookie2* headers (eg. `domain` and `expires`) are conventionally referred to as *attributes*. To distinguish them from Python attributes, the documentation for this module uses the term *cookie-attribute* instead.

The module defines the following exception :

exception `cookielib.LoadError`

Instances of *FileCookieJar* raise this exception on failure to load cookies from a file.

Note : For backwards-compatibility with Python 2.4 (which raised an *IOError*), *LoadError* is a subclass of *IOError*.

The following classes are provided :

```
class cookielib.CookieJar(policy=None)
```

policy is an object implementing the *CookiePolicy* interface.

The *CookieJar* class stores HTTP cookies. It extracts cookies from HTTP requests, and returns them in HTTP responses. *CookieJar* instances automatically expire contained cookies when necessary. Subclasses are also responsible for storing and retrieving cookies from a file or database.

```
class cookielib.FileCookieJar(filename, delayload=None, policy=None)
```

policy is an object implementing the *CookiePolicy* interface. For the other arguments, see the documentation for the corresponding attributes.

A *CookieJar* which can load cookies from, and perhaps save cookies to, a file on disk. Cookies are **NOT** loaded from the named file until either the *load()* or *revert()* method is called. Subclasses of this class are documented in section *FileCookieJar subclasses and co-operation with web browsers*.

```
class cookielib.CookiePolicy
```

This class is responsible for deciding whether each cookie should be accepted from / returned to the server.

```
class cookielib.DefaultCookiePolicy(blocked_domains=None, allowed_domains=None, netscape=True, rfc2965=False, rfc2109_as_netscape=None, hide_cookie2=False, strict_domain=False, strict_rfc2965_unverifiable=True, strict_ns_unverifiable=False, strict_ns_domain=DefaultCookiePolicy.DomainLiberal, strict_ns_set_initial_dollar=False, strict_ns_set_path=False)
```

Constructor arguments should be passed as keyword arguments only. *blocked_domains* is a sequence of domain names that we never accept cookies from, nor return cookies to. *allowed_domains* if not *None*, this is a sequence of the only domains for which we accept and return cookies. For all other arguments, see the documentation for *CookiePolicy* and *DefaultCookiePolicy* objects.

DefaultCookiePolicy implements the standard accept / reject rules for Netscape and RFC 2965 cookies. By default, RFC 2109 cookies (ie. cookies received in a *Set-Cookie* header with a version cookie-attribute of 1) are treated according to the RFC 2965 rules. However, if RFC 2965 handling is turned off or *rfc2109_as_netscape* is *True*, RFC 2109 cookies are “downgraded” by the *CookieJar* instance to Netscape cookies, by setting the *version* attribute of the *Cookie* instance to 0. *DefaultCookiePolicy* also provides some parameters to allow some fine-tuning of policy.

```
class cookielib.Cookie
```

This class represents Netscape, RFC 2109 and RFC 2965 cookies. It is not expected that users of *cookielib* construct their own *Cookie* instances. Instead, if necessary, call *make_cookies()* on a *CookieJar* instance.

Voir aussi :

Module *urllib2* URL opening with automatic cookie handling.

Module *Cookie* HTTP cookie classes, principally useful for server-side code. The *cookielib* and *Cookie* modules do not depend on each other.

https://curl.haxx.se/rfc/cookie_spec.html The specification of the original Netscape cookie protocol. Though this is still the dominant protocol, the “Netscape cookie protocol” implemented by all the major browsers (and *cookielib*) only bears a passing resemblance to the one sketched out in *cookie_spec.html*.

RFC 2109 - HTTP State Management Mechanism Obsoleted by RFC 2965. Uses *Set-Cookie* with *version=1*.

RFC 2965 - HTTP State Management Mechanism The Netscape protocol with the bugs fixed. Uses *Set-Cookie2* in place of *Set-Cookie*. Not widely used.

<http://kristol.org/cookie/errata.html> Unfinished errata to RFC 2965.

RFC 2964 - Use of HTTP State Management

20.21.1 CookieJar and FileCookieJar Objects

CookieJar objects support the *iterator* protocol for iterating over contained *Cookie* objects.

CookieJar has the following methods :

CookieJar.add_cookie_header(*request*)

Add correct *Cookie* header to *request*.

If policy allows (ie. the `rfc2965` and `hide_cookie2` attributes of the *CookieJar*'s *CookiePolicy* instance are true and false respectively), the *Cookie2* header is also added when appropriate.

The *request* object (usually a *urllib2.Request* instance) must support the methods `get_full_url()`, `get_host()`, `get_type()`, `unverifiable()`, `get_origin_req_host()`, `has_header()`, `get_header()`, `header_items()`, and `add_unredirected_header()`, as documented by *urllib2*.

CookieJar.extract_cookies(*response*, *request*)

Extract cookies from HTTP *response* and store them in the *CookieJar*, where allowed by policy.

The *CookieJar* will look for allowable *Set-Cookie* and *Set-Cookie2* headers in the *response* argument, and store cookies as appropriate (subject to the *CookiePolicy.set_ok()* method's approval).

The *response* object (usually the result of a call to *urllib2.urlopen()*, or similar) should support an `info()` method, which returns an object with a `getallmatchingheaders()` method (usually a *mimetools.Message* instance).

The *request* object (usually a *urllib2.Request* instance) must support the methods `get_full_url()`, `get_host()`, `unverifiable()`, and `get_origin_req_host()`, as documented by *urllib2*. The request is used to set default values for cookie-attributes as well as for checking that the cookie is allowed to be set.

CookieJar.set_policy(*policy*)

Set the *CookiePolicy* instance to be used.

CookieJar.make_cookies(*response*, *request*)

Return sequence of *Cookie* objects extracted from *response* object.

See the documentation for *extract_cookies()* for the interfaces required of the *response* and *request* arguments.

CookieJar.set_cookie_if_ok(*cookie*, *request*)

Set a *Cookie* if policy says it's OK to do so.

CookieJar.set_cookie(*cookie*)

Set a *Cookie*, without checking with policy to see whether or not it should be set.

CookieJar.clear([*domain*[, *path*[, *name*]])])

Clear some cookies.

If invoked without arguments, clear all cookies. If given a single argument, only cookies belonging to that *domain* will be removed. If given two arguments, cookies belonging to the specified *domain* and URL *path* are removed. If given three arguments, then the cookie with the specified *domain*, *path* and *name* is removed.

Raises *KeyError* if no matching cookie exists.

CookieJar.clear_session_cookies()

Discard all session cookies.

Discards all contained cookies that have a true `discard` attribute (usually because they had either no `max-age` or `expires` cookie-attribute, or an explicit `discard` cookie-attribute). For interactive browsers, the end of a session usually corresponds to closing the browser window.

Note that the `save()` method won't save session cookies anyway, unless you ask otherwise by passing a true `ignore_discard` argument.

FileCookieJar implements the following additional methods :

FileCookieJar.save(*filename=None, ignore_discard=False, ignore_expires=False*)

Save cookies to a file.

This base class raises *NotImplementedError*. Subclasses may leave this method unimplemented.

filename is the name of file in which to save cookies. If *filename* is not specified, *self.filename* is used (whose default is the value passed to the constructor, if any); if *self.filename* is *None*, *ValueError* is raised.

ignore_discard : save even cookies set to be discarded. *ignore_expires* : save even cookies that have expired

The file is overwritten if it already exists, thus wiping all the cookies it contains. Saved cookies can be restored later using the *load()* or *revert()* methods.

FileCookieJar.load(*filename=None, ignore_discard=False, ignore_expires=False*)

Load cookies from a file.

Old cookies are kept unless overwritten by newly loaded ones.

Arguments are as for *save()*.

The named file must be in the format understood by the class, or *LoadError* will be raised. Also, *IOError* may be raised, for example if the file does not exist.

Note : For backwards-compatibility with Python 2.4 (which raised an *IOError*), *LoadError* is a subclass of *IOError*.

FileCookieJar.revert(*filename=None, ignore_discard=False, ignore_expires=False*)

Clear all cookies and reload cookies from a saved file.

revert() can raise the same exceptions as *load()*. If there is a failure, the object's state will not be altered.

FileCookieJar instances have the following public attributes :

FileCookieJar.filename

Filename of default file in which to keep cookies. This attribute may be assigned to.

FileCookieJar.delayload

If true, load cookies lazily from disk. This attribute should not be assigned to. This is only a hint, since this only affects performance, not behaviour (unless the cookies on disk are changing). A *CookieJar* object may ignore it. None of the *FileCookieJar* classes included in the standard library lazily loads cookies.

20.21.2 FileCookieJar subclasses and co-operation with web browsers

The following *CookieJar* subclasses are provided for reading and writing.

class *cookielib.MozillaCookieJar*(*filename, delayload=None, policy=None*)

A *FileCookieJar* that can load from and save cookies to disk in the Mozilla *cookies.txt* file format (which is also used by the Lynx and Netscape browsers).

Note : Version 3 of the Firefox web browser no longer writes cookies in the *cookies.txt* file format.

Note : This loses information about RFC 2965 cookies, and also about newer or non-standard cookie-attributes such as *port*.

Avertissement : Back up your cookies before saving if you have cookies whose loss / corruption would be inconvenient (there are some subtleties which may lead to slight changes in the file over a load / save round-trip).

Also note that cookies saved while Mozilla is running will get clobbered by Mozilla.

`class cookielib.LWPCookieJar(filename, delayload=None, policy=None)`

A *FileCookieJar* that can load from and save cookies to disk in format compatible with the libwww-perl library's Set-Cookie3 file format. This is convenient if you want to store cookies in a human-readable file.

20.21.3 CookiePolicy Objects

Objects implementing the *CookiePolicy* interface have the following methods :

`CookiePolicy.set_ok(cookie, request)`

Return boolean value indicating whether cookie should be accepted from server.

cookie is a *cookielib.Cookie* instance. *request* is an object implementing the interface defined by the documentation for *CookieJar.extract_cookies()*.

`CookiePolicy.return_ok(cookie, request)`

Return boolean value indicating whether cookie should be returned to server.

cookie is a *cookielib.Cookie* instance. *request* is an object implementing the interface defined by the documentation for *CookieJar.add_cookie_header()*.

`CookiePolicy.domain_return_ok(domain, request)`

Return false if cookies should not be returned, given cookie domain.

This method is an optimization. It removes the need for checking every cookie with a particular domain (which might involve reading many files). Returning true from *domain_return_ok()* and *path_return_ok()* leaves all the work to *return_ok()*.

If *domain_return_ok()* returns true for the cookie domain, *path_return_ok()* is called for the cookie path. Otherwise, *path_return_ok()* and *return_ok()* are never called for that cookie domain. If *path_return_ok()* returns true, *return_ok()* is called with the *Cookie* object itself for a full check. Otherwise, *return_ok()* is never called for that cookie path.

Note that *domain_return_ok()* is called for every *cookie* domain, not just for the *request* domain. For example, the function might be called with both ".example.com" and "www.example.com" if the request domain is "www.example.com". The same goes for *path_return_ok()*.

The *request* argument is as documented for *return_ok()*.

`CookiePolicy.path_return_ok(path, request)`

Return false if cookies should not be returned, given cookie path.

See the documentation for *domain_return_ok()*.

In addition to implementing the methods above, implementations of the *CookiePolicy* interface must also supply the following attributes, indicating which protocols should be used, and how. All of these attributes may be assigned to.

`CookiePolicy.netscape`

Implement Netscape protocol.

`CookiePolicy.rfc2965`

Implement RFC 2965 protocol.

`CookiePolicy.hide_cookie2`

Don't add *Cookie2* header to requests (the presence of this header indicates to the server that we understand RFC 2965 cookies).

The most useful way to define a *CookiePolicy* class is by subclassing from *DefaultCookiePolicy* and overriding some or all of the methods above. *CookiePolicy* itself may be used as a “null policy” to allow setting and receiving any and all cookies (this is unlikely to be useful).

20.21.4 DefaultCookiePolicy Objects

Implements the standard rules for accepting and returning cookies.

Both RFC 2965 and Netscape cookies are covered. RFC 2965 handling is switched off by default.

The easiest way to provide your own policy is to override this class and call its methods in your overridden implementations before adding your own additional checks :

```
import cookielib
class MyCookiePolicy(cockielib.DefaultCookiePolicy):
    def set_ok(self, cookie, request):
        if not cookielib.DefaultCookiePolicy.set_ok(self, cookie, request):
            return False
        if i_dont_want_to_store_this_cookie(cookie):
            return False
        return True
```

In addition to the features required to implement the *CookiePolicy* interface, this class allows you to block and allow domains from setting and receiving cookies. There are also some strictness switches that allow you to tighten up the rather loose Netscape protocol rules a little bit (at the cost of blocking some benign cookies).

A domain blacklist and whitelist is provided (both off by default). Only domains not in the blacklist and present in the whitelist (if the whitelist is active) participate in cookie setting and returning. Use the *blocked_domains* constructor argument, and *blocked_domains()* and *set_blocked_domains()* methods (and the corresponding argument and methods for *allowed_domains*). If you set a whitelist, you can turn it off again by setting it to *None*.

Domains in block or allow lists that do not start with a dot must equal the cookie domain to be matched. For example, "example.com" matches a blacklist entry of "example.com", but "www.example.com" does not. Domains that do start with a dot are matched by more specific domains too. For example, both "www.example.com" and "www.coyote.example.com" match ".example.com" (but "example.com" itself does not). IP addresses are an exception, and must match exactly. For example, if *blocked_domains* contains "192.168.1.2" and ".168.1.2", 192.168.1.2 is blocked, but 193.168.1.2 is not.

DefaultCookiePolicy implements the following additional methods :

DefaultCookiePolicy.blocked_domains()

Return the sequence of blocked domains (as a tuple).

DefaultCookiePolicy.set_blocked_domains(blocked_domains)

Set the sequence of blocked domains.

DefaultCookiePolicy.is_blocked(domain)

Return whether *domain* is on the blacklist for setting or receiving cookies.

DefaultCookiePolicy.allowed_domains()

Return *None*, or the sequence of allowed domains (as a tuple).

DefaultCookiePolicy.set_allowed_domains(allowed_domains)

Set the sequence of allowed domains, or *None*.

DefaultCookiePolicy.is_not_allowed(domain)

Return whether *domain* is not on the whitelist for setting or receiving cookies.

DefaultCookiePolicy instances have the following attributes, which are all initialised from the constructor arguments of the same name, and which may all be assigned to.

DefaultCookiePolicy.rfc2109_as_netscape

If true, request that the *CookieJar* instance downgrade RFC 2109 cookies (ie. cookies received in a *Set-Cookie* header with a version cookie-attribute of 1) to Netscape cookies by setting the version attribute of the *Cookie* instance to 0. The default value is *None*, in which case RFC 2109 cookies are downgraded if and only if RFC 2965 handling is turned off. Therefore, RFC 2109 cookies are downgraded by default.

Nouveau dans la version 2.5.

General strictness switches :

DefaultCookiePolicy.strict_domain

Don't allow sites to set two-component domains with country-code top-level domains like *.co.uk*, *.gov.uk*, *.co.nz*.etc. This is far from perfect and isn't guaranteed to work!

RFC 2965 protocol strictness switches :

DefaultCookiePolicy.strict_rfc2965_unverifiable

Follow RFC 2965 rules on unverifiable transactions (usually, an unverifiable transaction is one resulting from a redirect or a request for an image hosted on another site). If this is false, cookies are *never* blocked on the basis of verifiability

Netscape protocol strictness switches :

DefaultCookiePolicy.strict_ns_unverifiable

Apply RFC 2965 rules on unverifiable transactions even to Netscape cookies.

DefaultCookiePolicy.strict_ns_domain

Flags indicating how strict to be with domain-matching rules for Netscape cookies. See below for acceptable values.

DefaultCookiePolicy.strict_ns_set_initial_dollar

Ignore cookies in Set-Cookie : headers that have names starting with '\$'.

DefaultCookiePolicy.strict_ns_set_path

Don't allow setting cookies whose path doesn't path-match request URI.

strict_ns_domain is a collection of flags. Its value is constructed by or-ing together (for example, *DomainStrictNoDots|DomainStrictNonDomain* means both flags are set).

DefaultCookiePolicy.DomainStrictNoDots

When setting cookies, the "host prefix" must not contain a dot (eg. *www.foo.bar.com* can't set a cookie for *.bar.com*, because *www.foo* contains a dot).

DefaultCookiePolicy.DomainStrictNonDomain

Cookies that did not explicitly specify a *domain* cookie-attribute can only be returned to a domain equal to the domain that set the cookie (eg. *spam.example.com* won't be returned cookies from *example.com* that had no *domain* cookie-attribute).

DefaultCookiePolicy.DomainRFC2965Match

When setting cookies, require a full RFC 2965 domain-match.

The following attributes are provided for convenience, and are the most useful combinations of the above flags :

DefaultCookiePolicy.DomainLiberal

Equivalent to 0 (ie. all of the above Netscape domain strictness flags switched off).

DefaultCookiePolicy.DomainStrict

Equivalent to *DomainStrictNoDots|DomainStrictNonDomain*.

20.21.5 Cookie Objects

Cookie instances have Python attributes roughly corresponding to the standard cookie-attributes specified in the various cookie standards. The correspondence is not one-to-one, because there are complicated rules for assigning default values, because the `max-age` and `expires` cookie-attributes contain equivalent information, and because RFC 2109 cookies may be “downgraded” by *cookieilib* from version 1 to version 0 (Netscape) cookies.

Assignment to these attributes should not be necessary other than in rare circumstances in a *CookiePolicy* method. The class does not enforce internal consistency, so you should know what you’re doing if you do that.

`Cookie.version`

Integer or *None*. Netscape cookies have *version* 0. RFC 2965 and RFC 2109 cookies have a *version* cookie-attribute of 1. However, note that *cookieilib* may “downgrade” RFC 2109 cookies to Netscape cookies, in which case *version* is 0.

`Cookie.name`

Cookie name (a string).

`Cookie.value`

Cookie value (a string), or *None*.

`Cookie.port`

String representing a port or a set of ports (eg. “80”, or “80,8080”), or *None*.

`Cookie.path`

Cookie path (a string, eg. `'/acme/rocket_launchers'`).

`Cookie.secure`

True if cookie should only be returned over a secure connection.

`Cookie.expires`

Integer expiry date in seconds since epoch, or *None*. See also the *is_expired()* method.

`Cookie.discard`

True if this is a session cookie.

`Cookie.comment`

String comment from the server explaining the function of this cookie, or *None*.

`Cookie.comment_url`

URL linking to a comment from the server explaining the function of this cookie, or *None*.

`Cookie.rfc2109`

True if this cookie was received as an RFC 2109 cookie (ie. the cookie arrived in a *Set-Cookie* header, and the value of the Version cookie-attribute in that header was 1). This attribute is provided because *cookieilib* may “downgrade” RFC 2109 cookies to Netscape cookies, in which case *version* is 0. Nouveau dans la version 2.5.

`Cookie.port_specified`

True if a port or set of ports was explicitly specified by the server (in the *Set-Cookie* / *Set-Cookie2* header).

`Cookie.domain_specified`

True if a domain was explicitly specified by the server.

`Cookie.domain_initial_dot`

True if the domain explicitly specified by the server began with a dot (`'.'`).

Cookies may have additional non-standard cookie-attributes. These may be accessed using the following methods :

`Cookie.has_nonstandard_attr(name)`
Return true if cookie has the named cookie-attribute.

`Cookie.get_nonstandard_attr(name, default=None)`
If cookie has the named cookie-attribute, return its value. Otherwise, return *default*.

`Cookie.set_nonstandard_attr(name, value)`
Set the value of the named cookie-attribute.

The *Cookie* class also defines the following method :

`Cookie.is_expired([now=None])`
True if cookie has passed the time at which the server requested it should expire. If *now* is given (in seconds since the epoch), return whether the cookie has expired at the specified time.

20.21.6 Examples

The first example shows the most common usage of *cookielib* :

```
import cookielib, urllib2
cj = cookielib.CookieJar()
opener = urllib2.build_opener(urllib2.HTTPCookieProcessor(cj))
r = opener.open("http://example.com/")
```

This example illustrates how to open a URL using your Netscape, Mozilla, or Lynx cookies (assumes Unix/Netscape convention for location of the cookies file) :

```
import os, cookielib, urllib2
cj = cookielib.MozillaCookieJar()
cj.load(os.path.join(os.path.expanduser("~"), ".netscape", "cookies.txt"))
opener = urllib2.build_opener(urllib2.HTTPCookieProcessor(cj))
r = opener.open("http://example.com/")
```

The next example illustrates the use of *DefaultCookiePolicy*. Turn on RFC 2965 cookies, be more strict about domains when setting and returning Netscape cookies, and block some domains from setting cookies or having them returned :

```
import urllib2
from cookielib import CookieJar, DefaultCookiePolicy
policy = DefaultCookiePolicy(
    rfc2965=True, strict_ns_domain=DefaultCookiePolicy.DomainStrict,
    blocked_domains=["ads.net", ".ads.net"])
cj = CookieJar(policy)
opener = urllib2.build_opener(urllib2.HTTPCookieProcessor(cj))
r = opener.open("http://example.com/")
```

20.22 Cookie — HTTP state management

Note : The *Cookie* module has been renamed to `http.cookies` in Python 3. The *2to3* tool will automatically adapt imports when converting your sources to Python 3.

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

The `Cookie` module defines classes for abstracting the concept of cookies, an HTTP state management mechanism. It supports both simple string-only cookies, and provides an abstraction for having any serializable data-type as cookie value.

The module formerly strictly applied the parsing rules described in the [RFC 2109](#) and [RFC 2068](#) specifications. It has since been discovered that MSIE 3.0x doesn't follow the character rules outlined in those specs and also many current day browsers and servers have relaxed parsing rules when comes to Cookie handling. As a result, the parsing rules used are a bit less strict.

The character set, `string.ascii_letters`, `string.digits` and `!#$%&'*+-.^_`|~` denote the set of valid characters allowed by this module in Cookie name (as *key*).

Note : On encountering an invalid cookie, `CookieError` is raised, so if your cookie data comes from a browser you should always prepare for invalid data and catch `CookieError` on parsing.

exception `Cookie.CookieError`

Exception failing because of [RFC 2109](#) invalidity : incorrect attributes, incorrect *Set-Cookie* header, etc.

class `Cookie.BaseCookie([input])`

This class is a dictionary-like object whose keys are strings and whose values are *Morsel* instances. Note that upon setting a key to a value, the value is first converted to a *Morsel* containing the key and the value.

If *input* is given, it is passed to the `load()` method.

class `Cookie.SimpleCookie([input])`

This class derives from *BaseCookie* and overrides `value_decode()` and `value_encode()` to be the identity and `str()` respectively.

class `Cookie.SerialCookie([input])`

This class derives from *BaseCookie* and overrides `value_decode()` and `value_encode()` to be the `pickle.loads()` and `pickle.dumps()`.

Obsolète depuis la version 2.3 : Reading pickled values from untrusted cookie data is a huge security hole, as pickle strings can be crafted to cause arbitrary code to execute on your server. It is supported for backwards compatibility only, and may eventually go away.

class `Cookie.SmartCookie([input])`

This class derives from *BaseCookie*. It overrides `value_decode()` to be `pickle.loads()` if it is a valid pickle, and otherwise the value itself. It overrides `value_encode()` to be `pickle.dumps()` unless it is a string, in which case it returns the value itself.

Obsolète depuis la version 2.3 : The same security warning from *SerialCookie* applies here.

A further security note is warranted. For backwards compatibility, the *Cookie* module exports a class named `Cookie` which is just an alias for *SmartCookie*. This is probably a mistake and will likely be removed in a future version. You should not use the `Cookie` class in your applications, for the same reason why you should not use the *SerialCookie* class.

Voir aussi :

Module `cookielib` HTTP cookie handling for web *clients*. The `cookielib` and *Cookie* modules do not depend on each other.

RFC 2109 - HTTP State Management Mechanism This is the state management specification implemented by this module.

20.22.1 Cookie Objects

`BaseCookie.value_decode(val)`

Return a decoded value from a string representation. Return value can be any type. This method does nothing in *BaseCookie* — it exists so it can be overridden.

`BaseCookie.value_encode(val)`

Return an encoded value. *val* can be any type, but return value must be a string. This method does nothing in *BaseCookie* — it exists so it can be overridden.

In general, it should be the case that *value_encode()* and *value_decode()* are inverses on the range of *value_decode*.

`BaseCookie.output([attrs[, header[, sep]]])`

Return a string representation suitable to be sent as HTTP headers. *attrs* and *header* are sent to each *Morsel*'s *output()* method. *sep* is used to join the headers together, and is by default the combination `'\r\n'` (CRLF).

Modifié dans la version 2.5 : The default separator has been changed from `'\n'` to match the cookie specification.

`BaseCookie.js_output([attrs])`

Return an embeddable JavaScript snippet, which, if run on a browser which supports JavaScript, will act the same as if the HTTP headers was sent.

The meaning for *attrs* is the same as in *output()*.

`BaseCookie.load(rawdata)`

If *rawdata* is a string, parse it as an HTTP_COOKIE and add the values found there as *Morsels*. If it is a dictionary, it is equivalent to :

```
for k, v in rawdata.items():
    cookie[k] = v
```

20.22.2 Morsel Objects

`class Cookie.Morsel`

Abstract a key/value pair, which has some **RFC 2109** attributes.

Morsels are dictionary-like objects, whose set of keys is constant — the valid **RFC 2109** attributes, which are

- `expires`
- `path`
- `comment`
- `domain`
- `max-age`
- `secure`
- `version`
- `httponly`

The attribute `httponly` specifies that the cookie is only transferred in HTTP requests, and is not accessible through JavaScript. This is intended to mitigate some forms of cross-site scripting.

The keys are case-insensitive.

Nouveau dans la version 2.6 : The `httponly` attribute was added.

`Morsel.value`

The value of the cookie.

`Morsel.coded_value`

The encoded value of the cookie — this is what should be sent.

`Morsel.key`

The name of the cookie.

`Morsel.set(key, value, coded_value)`

Set the *key*, *value* and *coded_value* attributes.

`Morsel.isReservedKey(K)`

Whether *K* is a member of the set of keys of a *Morsel*.

`Morsel.output([attrs[, header]])`

Return a string representation of the Morsel, suitable to be sent as an HTTP header. By default, all the attributes are included, unless *attrs* is given, in which case it should be a list of attributes to use. *header* is by default "Set-Cookie:".

`Morsel.js_output([attrs])`

Return an embeddable JavaScript snippet, which, if run on a browser which supports JavaScript, will act the same as if the HTTP header was sent.

The meaning for *attrs* is the same as in `output()`.

`Morsel.OutputString([attrs])`

Return a string representing the Morsel, without any surrounding HTTP or JavaScript.

The meaning for *attrs* is the same as in `output()`.

20.22.3 Exemple

The following example demonstrates how to use the *Cookie* module.

```
>>> import Cookie
>>> C = Cookie.SimpleCookie()
>>> C["fig"] = "newton"
>>> C["sugar"] = "wafer"
>>> print C # generate HTTP headers
Set-Cookie: fig=newton
Set-Cookie: sugar=wafer
>>> print C.output() # same thing
Set-Cookie: fig=newton
Set-Cookie: sugar=wafer
>>> C = Cookie.SimpleCookie()
>>> C["rocky"] = "road"
>>> C["rocky"]["path"] = "/cookie"
>>> print C.output(header="Cookie:")
Cookie: rocky=road; Path=/cookie
>>> print C.output(attrs=[], header="Cookie:")
Cookie: rocky=road
>>> C = Cookie.SimpleCookie()
>>> C.load("chips=ahoy; vienna=finger") # load from a string (HTTP header)
>>> print C
Set-Cookie: chips=ahoy
Set-Cookie: vienna=finger
>>> C = Cookie.SimpleCookie()
>>> C.load('keebler="E=everybody; L=\\\"Loves\\\"; fudge=\\\"012;\";')
>>> print C
Set-Cookie: keebler="E=everybody; L=\\\"Loves\\\"; fudge=\\\"012;"
>>> C = Cookie.SimpleCookie()
>>> C["oreo"] = "doublestuff"
```

(suite sur la page suivante)

(suite de la page précédente)

```

>>> C["oreo"]["path"] = "/"
>>> print C
Set-Cookie: oreo=doublestuff; Path=/
>>> C["twix"] = "none for you"
>>> C["twix"].value
'none for you'
>>> C = Cookie.SimpleCookie()
>>> C["number"] = 7 # equivalent to C["number"] = str(7)
>>> C["string"] = "seven"
>>> C["number"].value
'7'
>>> C["string"].value
'seven'
>>> print C
Set-Cookie: number=7
Set-Cookie: string=seven
>>> # SerialCookie and SmartCookie are deprecated
>>> # using it can cause security loopholes in your code.
>>> C = Cookie.SerialCookie()
>>> C["number"] = 7
>>> C["string"] = "seven"
>>> C["number"].value
7
>>> C["string"].value
'seven'
>>> print C
Set-Cookie: number="I7\012."
Set-Cookie: string="S'seven'\012p1\012."
>>> C = Cookie.SmartCookie()
>>> C["number"] = 7
>>> C["string"] = "seven"
>>> C["number"].value
7
>>> C["string"].value
'seven'
>>> print C
Set-Cookie: number="I7\012."
Set-Cookie: string=seven

```

20.23 xmlrpclib — XML-RPC client access

Note : The *xmlrpclib* module has been renamed to `xmlrpc.client` in Python 3. The *2to3* tool will automatically adapt imports when converting your sources to Python 3.

Nouveau dans la version 2.2.

Source code : `Lib/xmlrpclib.py`

XML-RPC is a Remote Procedure Call method that uses XML passed via HTTP(S) as a transport. With it, a client can call methods with parameters on a remote server (the server is named by a URI) and get

back structured data. This module supports writing XML-RPC client code; it handles all the details of translating between conformable Python objects and XML on the wire.

Avertissement : The `xmlrpclib` module is not secure against maliciously constructed data. If you need to parse untrusted or unauthenticated data see *Vulnérabilités XML*.

Modifié dans la version 2.7.9 : For HTTPS URIs, `xmlrpclib` now performs all the necessary certificate and hostname checks by default.

```
class xmlrpclib.ServerProxy(uri[, transport[, encoding[, verbose[, allow_none[, use_datetime[,
                                context]]]]]])
```

A `ServerProxy` instance is an object that manages communication with a remote XML-RPC server. The required first argument is a URI (Uniform Resource Indicator), and will normally be the URL of the server. The optional second argument is a transport factory instance; by default it is an internal `SafeTransport` instance for https : URLs and an internal `HTTP Transport` instance otherwise. The optional third argument is an encoding, by default UTF-8. The optional fourth argument is a debugging flag.

The following parameters govern the use of the returned proxy instance. If `allow_none` is true, the Python constant `None` will be translated into XML; the default behaviour is for `None` to raise a `TypeError`. This is a commonly-used extension to the XML-RPC specification, but isn't supported by all clients and servers; see <http://ontosys.com/xml-rpc/extensions.php> for a description. The `use_datetime` flag can be used to cause date/time values to be presented as `datetime.datetime` objects; this is false by default. `datetime.datetime` objects may be passed to calls.

Both the HTTP and HTTPS transports support the URL syntax extension for HTTP Basic Authentication : `http://user:pass@host:port/path`. The `user:pass` portion will be base64-encoded as an HTTP “Authorization” header, and sent to the remote server as part of the connection process when invoking an XML-RPC method. You only need to use this if the remote server requires a Basic Authentication user and password. If an HTTPS URL is provided, `context` may be `ssl.SSLContext` and configures the SSL settings of the underlying HTTPS connection.

The returned instance is a proxy object with methods that can be used to invoke corresponding RPC calls on the remote server. If the remote server supports the introspection API, the proxy can also be used to query the remote server for the methods it supports (service discovery) and fetch other server-associated metadata.

Types that are conformable (e.g. that can be marshalled through XML), include the following (and except where noted, they are unmarshalled as the same Python type) :

XML-RPC type	Type Python
boolean	<code>bool</code>
int or i4	<code>int</code> or <code>long</code> in range from -2147483648 to 2147483647.
double	<code>float</code>
string	<code>str</code> or <code>unicode</code>
array	list or <code>tuple</code> containing conformable elements. Arrays are returned as lists.
struct	<code>dict</code> . Keys must be strings, values may be any conformable type. Objects of user-defined classes can be passed in; only their <code>__dict__</code> attribute is transmitted.
dateTime.iso8601	<code>DateTime</code> or <code>datetime.datetime</code> . Returned type depends on values of the <code>use_datetime</code> flags.
base64	<code>Binary</code>
nil	The <code>None</code> constant. Passing is allowed only if <code>allow_none</code> is true.

This is the full set of data types supported by XML-RPC. Method calls may also raise a special `Fault` instance, used to signal XML-RPC server errors, or `ProtocolError` used to signal an error in

the HTTP/HTTPS transport layer. Both *Fault* and *ProtocolError* derive from a base class called *Error*. Note that even though starting with Python 2.2 you can subclass built-in types, the *xmlrpclib* module currently does not marshal instances of such subclasses.

When passing strings, characters special to XML such as `<`, `>`, and `&` will be automatically escaped. However, it's the caller's responsibility to ensure that the string is free of characters that aren't allowed in XML, such as the control characters with ASCII values between 0 and 31 (except, of course, tab, newline and carriage return); failing to do this will result in an XML-RPC request that isn't well-formed XML. If you have to pass arbitrary strings via XML-RPC, use the *Binary* wrapper class described below.

Server is retained as an alias for *ServerProxy* for backwards compatibility. New code should use *ServerProxy*.

Modifié dans la version 2.5 : The *use_datetime* flag was added.

Modifié dans la version 2.6 : Instances of *new-style classes* can be passed in if they have an *__dict__* attribute and don't have a base class that is marshalled in a special way.

Modifié dans la version 2.7.9 : Added the *context* argument.

Voir aussi :

XML-RPC HOWTO A good description of XML-RPC operation and client software in several languages. Contains pretty much everything an XML-RPC client developer needs to know.

XML-RPC Introspection Describes the XML-RPC protocol extension for introspection.

XML-RPC Specification The official specification.

Unofficial XML-RPC Errata Fredrik Lundh's « unofficial errata, intended to clarify certain details in the XML-RPC specification, as well as hint at “best practices” to use when designing your own XML-RPC implementations. »

20.23.1 ServerProxy Objects

A *ServerProxy* instance has a method corresponding to each remote procedure call accepted by the XML-RPC server. Calling the method performs an RPC, dispatched by both name and argument signature (e.g. the same method name can be overloaded with multiple argument signatures). The RPC finishes by returning a value, which may be either returned data in a conformant type or a *Fault* or *ProtocolError* object indicating an error.

Servers that support the XML introspection API support some common methods grouped under the reserved *system* attribute :

ServerProxy.system.listMethods()

This method returns a list of strings, one for each (non-system) method supported by the XML-RPC server.

ServerProxy.system.methodSignature(name)

This method takes one parameter, the name of a method implemented by the XML-RPC server. It returns an array of possible signatures for this method. A signature is an array of types. The first of these types is the return type of the method, the rest are parameters.

Because multiple signatures (ie. overloading) is permitted, this method returns a list of signatures rather than a singleton.

Signatures themselves are restricted to the top level parameters expected by a method. For instance if a method expects one array of structs as a parameter, and it returns a string, its signature is simply « string, array ». If it expects three integers and returns a string, its signature is « string, int, int, int ».

If no signature is defined for the method, a non-array value is returned. In Python this means that the type of the returned value will be something other than list.

`ServerProxy.system.methodHelp(name)`

This method takes one parameter, the name of a method implemented by the XML-RPC server. It returns a documentation string describing the use of that method. If no such string is available, an empty string is returned. The documentation string may contain HTML markup.

20.23.2 Les objets booléens

This class may be initialized from any Python value; the instance returned depends only on its truth value. It supports various Python operators through `__cmp__()`, `__repr__()`, `__int__()`, and `__nonzero__()` methods, all implemented in the obvious ways.

It also has the following method, supported mainly for internal use by the unmarshalling code :

`Boolean.encode(out)`

Write the XML-RPC encoding of this Boolean item to the out stream object.

A working example follows. The server code :

```
import xmlrpclib
from SimpleXMLRPCServer import SimpleXMLRPCServer

def is_even(n):
    return n % 2 == 0

server = SimpleXMLRPCServer(("localhost", 8000))
print "Listening on port 8000..."
server.register_function(is_even, "is_even")
server.serve_forever()
```

The client code for the preceding server :

```
import xmlrpclib

proxy = xmlrpclib.ServerProxy("http://localhost:8000/")
print "3 is even: %s" % str(proxy.is_even(3))
print "100 is even: %s" % str(proxy.is_even(100))
```

20.23.3 Objets DateTime

`class xmlrpclib.DateTime`

This class may be initialized with seconds since the epoch, a time tuple, an ISO 8601 time/date string, or a `datetime.datetime` instance. It has the following methods, supported mainly for internal use by the marshalling/unmarshalling code :

`decode(string)`

Accept a string as the instance's new time value.

`encode(out)`

Write the XML-RPC encoding of this `DateTime` item to the `out` stream object.

It also supports certain of Python's built-in operators through `__cmp__()` and `__repr__()` methods.

A working example follows. The server code :

```
import datetime
from SimpleXMLRPCServer import SimpleXMLRPCServer
import xmlrpclib
```

(suite sur la page suivante)

(suite de la page précédente)

```
def today():
    today = datetime.datetime.today()
    return xmlrpclib.DateTime(today)

server = SimpleXMLRPCServer(("localhost", 8000))
print "Listening on port 8000..."
server.register_function(today, "today")
server.serve_forever()
```

The client code for the preceding server :

```
import xmlrpclib
import datetime

proxy = xmlrpclib.ServerProxy("http://localhost:8000/")

today = proxy.today()
# convert the ISO8601 string to a datetime object
converted = datetime.datetime.strptime(today.value, "%Y%m%dT%H:%M:%S")
print "Today: %s" % converted.strftime("%d.%m.%Y, %H:%M")
```

20.23.4 Binary Objects

`class xmlrpclib.Binary`

This class may be initialized from string data (which may include NULs). The primary access to the content of a *Binary* object is provided by an attribute :

data

The binary data encapsulated by the *Binary* instance. The data is provided as an 8-bit string. *Binary* objects have the following methods, supported mainly for internal use by the marshaling/unmarshaling code :

decode(string)

Accept a base64 string and decode it as the instance's new data.

encode(out)

Write the XML-RPC base 64 encoding of this binary item to the *out* stream object.

The encoded data will have newlines every 76 characters as per RFC 2045 section 6.8, which was the de facto standard base64 specification when the XML-RPC spec was written.

It also supports certain of Python's built-in operators through a `__cmp__()` method.

Example usage of the binary objects. We're going to transfer an image over XMLRPC :

```
from SimpleXMLRPCServer import SimpleXMLRPCServer
import xmlrpclib

def python_logo():
    with open("python_logo.jpg", "rb") as handle:
        return xmlrpclib.Binary(handle.read())

server = SimpleXMLRPCServer(("localhost", 8000))
print "Listening on port 8000..."
server.register_function(python_logo, 'python_logo')

server.serve_forever()
```

The client gets the image and saves it to a file :

```
import xmlrpclib

proxy = xmlrpclib.ServerProxy("http://localhost:8000/")
with open("fetched_python_logo.jpg", "wb") as handle:
    handle.write(proxy.python_logo().data)
```

20.23.5 Fault Objects

`class xmlrpclib.Fault`

A *Fault* object encapsulates the content of an XML-RPC fault tag. Fault objects have the following attributes :

faultCode

A string indicating the fault type.

faultString

A string containing a diagnostic message associated with the fault.

In the following example we’re going to intentionally cause a *Fault* by returning a complex type object. The server code :

```
from SimpleXMLRPCServer import SimpleXMLRPCServer

# A marshalling error is going to occur because we're returning a
# complex number
def add(x, y):
    return x+y+0j

server = SimpleXMLRPCServer(("localhost", 8000))
print "Listening on port 8000..."
server.register_function(add, 'add')

server.serve_forever()
```

The client code for the preceding server :

```
import xmlrpclib

proxy = xmlrpclib.ServerProxy("http://localhost:8000/")
try:
    proxy.add(2, 5)
except xmlrpclib.Fault as err:
    print "A fault occurred"
    print "Fault code: %d" % err.faultCode
    print "Fault string: %s" % err.faultString
```

20.23.6 ProtocolError Objects

`class xmlrpclib.ProtocolError`

A *ProtocolError* object describes a protocol error in the underlying transport layer (such as a 404 “not found” error if the server named by the URI does not exist). It has the following attributes :

url

The URI or URL that triggered the error.

errcode

The error code.

errmsg

The error message or diagnostic string.

headers

A string containing the headers of the HTTP/HTTPS request that triggered the error.

In the following example we're going to intentionally cause a *ProtocolError* by providing a URI that doesn't point to an XMLRPC server :

```
import xmlrpclib

# create a ServerProxy with a URI that doesn't respond to XMLRPC requests
proxy = xmlrpclib.ServerProxy("http://www.google.com/")

try:
    proxy.some_method()
except xmlrpclib.ProtocolError as err:
    print "A protocol error occurred"
    print "URL: %s" % err.url
    print "HTTP/HTTPS headers: %s" % err.headers
    print "Error code: %d" % err.errcode
    print "Error message: %s" % err.errmsg
```

20.23.7 MultiCall Objects

Nouveau dans la version 2.4.

The *MultiCall* object provides a way to encapsulate multiple calls to a remote server into a single request ¹.

class xmlrpclib.MultiCall(server)

Create an object used to boxcar method calls. *server* is the eventual target of the call. Calls can be made to the result object, but they will immediately return *None*, and only store the call name and parameters in the *MultiCall* object. Calling the object itself causes all stored calls to be transmitted as a single *system.multicall* request. The result of this call is a *generator*; iterating over this generator yields the individual results.

A usage example of this class follows. The server code

```
from SimpleXMLRPCServer import SimpleXMLRPCServer

def add(x,y):
    return x+y

def subtract(x, y):
    return x-y

def multiply(x, y):
    return x*y

def divide(x, y):
    return x/y
```

(suite sur la page suivante)

1. This approach has been first presented in a [discussion](#) on [xmlrpc.com](#).

(suite de la page précédente)

```
# A simple server with simple arithmetic functions
server = SimpleXMLRPCServer(("localhost", 8000))
print "Listening on port 8000..."
server.register_multicall_functions()
server.register_function(add, 'add')
server.register_function(subtract, 'subtract')
server.register_function(multiply, 'multiply')
server.register_function(divide, 'divide')
server.serve_forever()
```

The client code for the preceding server :

```
import xmlrpclib

proxy = xmlrpclib.ServerProxy("http://localhost:8000/")
multicall = xmlrpclib.MultiCall(proxy)
multicall.add(7,3)
multicall.subtract(7,3)
multicall.multiply(7,3)
multicall.divide(7,3)
result = multicall()

print "7+3=%d, 7-3=%d, 7*3=%d, 7/3=%d" % tuple(result)
```

20.23.8 Convenience Functions

`xmlrpclib.boolean(value)`

Convert any Python value to one of the XML-RPC Boolean constants, `True` or `False`.

`xmlrpclib.dumps(params[, methodname[, methodresponse[, encoding[, allow_none]]])`

Convert *params* into an XML-RPC request. or into a response if *methodresponse* is true. *params* can be either a tuple of arguments or an instance of the `Fault` exception class. If *methodresponse* is true, only a single value can be returned, meaning that *params* must be of length 1. *encoding*, if supplied, is the encoding to use in the generated XML; the default is UTF-8. Python's `None` value cannot be used in standard XML-RPC; to allow using it via an extension, provide a true value for *allow_none*.

`xmlrpclib.loads(data[, use_datetime])`

Convert an XML-RPC request or response into Python objects, a `(params, methodname)`. *params* is a tuple of argument; *methodname* is a string, or `None` if no method name is present in the packet. If the XML-RPC packet represents a fault condition, this function will raise a `Fault` exception. The *use_datetime* flag can be used to cause date/time values to be presented as `datetime.datetime` objects; this is false by default.

Modifié dans la version 2.5 : The *use_datetime* flag was added.

20.23.9 Example of Client Usage

```
# simple test program (from the XML-RPC specification)
from xmlrpclib import ServerProxy, Error

# server = ServerProxy("http://localhost:8000") # local server
server = ServerProxy("http://betty.userland.com")
```

(suite sur la page suivante)

(suite de la page précédente)

```
print server

try:
    print server.examples.getStateName(41)
except Error as v:
    print "ERROR", v
```

To access an XML-RPC server through a HTTP proxy, you need to define a custom transport. The following example shows how :

```
import xmlrpclib, httplib

class ProxiedTransport(xmlrpclib.Transport):
    def set_proxy(self, proxy):
        self.proxy = proxy

    def make_connection(self, host):
        self.realhost = host
        h = httplib.HTTPConnection(self.proxy)
        return h

    def send_request(self, connection, handler, request_body):
        connection.putrequest("POST", 'http://%s%s' % (self.realhost, handler))

    def send_host(self, connection, host):
        connection.putheader('Host', self.realhost)

p = ProxiedTransport()
p.set_proxy('proxy-server:8080')
server = xmlrpclib.ServerProxy('http://time.xmlrpc.com/RPC2', transport=p)
print server.currentTime.getCurrentTime()
```

20.23.10 Example of Client and Server Usage

See *SimpleXMLRPCServer Example*.

Notes

20.24 SimpleXMLRPCServer — Basic XML-RPC server

Note : The *SimpleXMLRPCServer* module has been merged into `xmlrpc.server` in Python 3. The *2to3* tool will automatically adapt imports when converting your sources to Python 3.

Nouveau dans la version 2.2.

Source code : `Lib/SimpleXMLRPCServer.py`

The *SimpleXMLRPCServer* module provides a basic server framework for XML-RPC servers written in Python. Servers can either be free standing, using *SimpleXMLRPCServer*, or embedded in a CGI environment, using *CGIXMLRPCRequestHandler*.


```
class SimpleXMLRPCServer.SimpleXMLRPCServer(addr[, requestHandler[, logRequests[, allow_none[, encoding[, bind_and_activate]]]])
```

Create a new server instance. This class provides methods for registration of functions that can be called by the XML-RPC protocol. The *requestHandler* parameter should be a factory for request handler instances; it defaults to *SimpleXMLRPCRequestHandler*. The *addr* and *requestHandler* parameters are passed to the *SocketServer.TCPServer* constructor. If *logRequests* is true (the default), requests will be logged; setting this parameter to false will turn off logging. The *allow_none* and *encoding* parameters are passed on to *xmrlplib* and control the XML-RPC responses that will be returned from the server. The *bind_and_activate* parameter controls whether *server_bind()* and *server_activate()* are called immediately by the constructor; it defaults to true. Setting it to false allows code to manipulate the *allow_reuse_address* class variable before the address is bound.

Modifié dans la version 2.5 : The *allow_none* and *encoding* parameters were added.

Modifié dans la version 2.6 : The *bind_and_activate* parameter was added.

```
class SimpleXMLRPCServer.CGIXMLRPCRequestHandler([allow_none[, encoding]])
```

Create a new instance to handle XML-RPC requests in a CGI environment. The *allow_none* and *encoding* parameters are passed on to *xmrlplib* and control the XML-RPC responses that will be returned from the server.

Nouveau dans la version 2.3.

Modifié dans la version 2.5 : The *allow_none* and *encoding* parameters were added.

```
class SimpleXMLRPCServer.SimpleXMLRPCRequestHandler
```

Create a new request handler instance. This request handler supports POST requests and modifies logging so that the *logRequests* parameter to the *SimpleXMLRPCServer* constructor parameter is honored.

20.24.1 SimpleXMLRPCServer Objects

The *SimpleXMLRPCServer* class is based on *SocketServer.TCPServer* and provides a means of creating simple, stand alone XML-RPC servers.

```
SimpleXMLRPCServer.register_function(function[, name])
```

Register a function that can respond to XML-RPC requests. If *name* is given, it will be the method name associated with *function*, otherwise *function.__name__* will be used. *name* can be either a normal or Unicode string, and may contain characters not legal in Python identifiers, including the period character.

```
SimpleXMLRPCServer.register_instance(instance[, allow_dotted_names])
```

Register an object which is used to expose method names which have not been registered using *register_function()*. If *instance* contains a *_dispatch()* method, it is called with the requested method name and the parameters from the request. Its API is *def _dispatch(self, method, params)* (note that *params* does not represent a variable argument list). If it calls an underlying function to perform its task, that function is called as *func(*params)*, expanding the parameter list. The return value from *_dispatch()* is returned to the client as the result. If *instance* does not have a *_dispatch()* method, it is searched for an attribute matching the name of the requested method.

If the optional *allow_dotted_names* argument is true and the instance does not have a *_dispatch()* method, then if the requested method name contains periods, each component of the method name is searched for individually, with the effect that a simple hierarchical search is performed. The value found from this search is then called with the parameters from the request, and the return value is passed back to the client.

Avertissement : Enabling the *allow_dotted_names* option allows intruders to access your module's global variables and may allow intruders to execute arbitrary code on your machine. Only use this option on a secure, closed network.

Modifié dans la version 2.3.5, : 2.4.1 `allow_dotted_names` was added to plug a security hole; prior versions are insecure.

`SimpleXMLRPCServer.register_introspection_functions()`

Registers the XML-RPC introspection functions `system.listMethods`, `system.methodHelp` and `system.methodSignature`.

Nouveau dans la version 2.3.

`SimpleXMLRPCServer.register_multicall_functions()`

Registers the XML-RPC multicall function `system.multicall`.

`SimpleXMLRPCRequestHandler.rpc_paths`

An attribute value that must be a tuple listing valid path portions of the URL for receiving XML-RPC requests. Requests posted to other paths will result in a 404 « no such page » HTTP error. If this tuple is empty, all paths will be considered valid. The default value is `('/', '/RPC2')`.

Nouveau dans la version 2.5.

`SimpleXMLRPCRequestHandler.encode_threshold`

If this attribute is not `None`, responses larger than this value will be encoded using the *gzip* transfer encoding, if permitted by the client. The default is 1400 which corresponds roughly to a single TCP packet.

Nouveau dans la version 2.7.

SimpleXMLRPCServer Example

Server code :

```
from SimpleXMLRPCServer import SimpleXMLRPCServer
from SimpleXMLRPCServer import SimpleXMLRPCRequestHandler

# Restrict to a particular path.
class RequestHandler(SimpleXMLRPCRequestHandler):
    rpc_paths = ('/RPC2',)

# Create server
server = SimpleXMLRPCServer(("localhost", 8000),
                           requestHandler=RequestHandler)
server.register_introspection_functions()

# Register pow() function; this will use the value of
# pow.__name__ as the name, which is just 'pow'.
server.register_function(pow)

# Register a function under a different name
def adder_function(x,y):
    return x + y
server.register_function(adder_function, 'add')

# Register an instance; all the methods of the instance are
# published as XML-RPC methods (in this case, just 'div').
class MyFuncs:
    def div(self, x, y):
        return x // y

server.register_instance(MyFuncs())
```

(suite sur la page suivante)

(suite de la page précédente)

```
# Run the server's main loop
server.serve_forever()
```

The following client code will call the methods made available by the preceding server :

```
import xmlrpclib

s = xmlrpclib.ServerProxy('http://localhost:8000')
print s.pow(2,3) # Returns 2**3 = 8
print s.add(2,3) # Returns 5
print s.div(5,2) # Returns 5//2 = 2

# Print list of available methods
print s.system.listMethods()
```

The following *SimpleXMLRPCServer* example is included in the module *Lib/SimpleXMLRPCServer.py* :

```
server = SimpleXMLRPCServer(("localhost", 8000))
server.register_function(pow)
server.register_function(lambda x,y: x+y, 'add')
server.register_multicall_functions()
server.serve_forever()
```

This demo server can be run from the command line as :

```
python -m SimpleXMLRPCServer
```

Example client code which talks to the above server is included with *Lib/xmlrpclib.py* :

```
server = ServerProxy("http://localhost:8000")
print server
multi = MultiCall(server)
multi.pow(2, 9)
multi.add(5, 1)
multi.add(24, 11)
try:
    for response in multi():
        print response
except Error, v:
    print "ERROR", v
```

And the client can be invoked directly using the following command :

```
python -m xmlrpclib
```

20.24.2 CGIXMLRPCRequestHandler

The *CGIXMLRPCRequestHandler* class can be used to handle XML-RPC requests sent to Python CGI scripts.

CGIXMLRPCRequestHandler.register_function(function[, name])

Register a function that can respond to XML-RPC requests. If *name* is given, it will be the method name associated with function, otherwise *function.__name__* will be used. *name* can be either a

normal or Unicode string, and may contain characters not legal in Python identifiers, including the period character.

`CGIXMLRPCRequestHandler.register_instance(instance)`

Register an object which is used to expose method names which have not been registered using `register_function()`. If instance contains a `_dispatch()` method, it is called with the requested method name and the parameters from the request; the return value is returned to the client as the result. If instance does not have a `_dispatch()` method, it is searched for an attribute matching the name of the requested method; if the requested method name contains periods, each component of the method name is searched for individually, with the effect that a simple hierarchical search is performed. The value found from this search is then called with the parameters from the request, and the return value is passed back to the client.

`CGIXMLRPCRequestHandler.register_introspection_functions()`

Register the XML-RPC introspection functions `system.listMethods`, `system.methodHelp` and `system.methodSignature`.

`CGIXMLRPCRequestHandler.register_multicall_functions()`

Register the XML-RPC multicall function `system.multicall`.

`CGIXMLRPCRequestHandler.handle_request([request_text = None])`

Handle an XML-RPC request. If `request_text` is given, it should be the POST data provided by the HTTP server, otherwise the contents of stdin will be used.

Exemple :

```
class MyFuncs:
    def div(self, x, y): return x // y

handler = CGIXMLRPCRequestHandler()
handler.register_function(pow)
handler.register_function(lambda x,y: x+y, 'add')
handler.register_introspection_functions()
handler.register_instance(MyFuncs())
handler.handle_request()
```

20.25 DocXMLRPCServer — Self-documenting XML-RPC server

Note : The `DocXMLRPCServer` module has been merged into `xmlrpc.server` in Python 3. The *2to3* tool will automatically adapt imports when converting your sources to Python 3.

Nouveau dans la version 2.3.

The `DocXMLRPCServer` module extends the classes found in `SimpleXMLRPCServer` to serve HTML documentation in response to HTTP GET requests. Servers can either be free standing, using `DocXMLRPCServer`, or embedded in a CGI environment, using `DocCGIXMLRPCRequestHandler`.

```
class DocXMLRPCServer.DocXMLRPCServer(addr[, requestHandler[, logRequests[, allow_none[, encoding[, bind_and_activate]]]]])
```

Create a new server instance. All parameters have the same meaning as for `SimpleXMLRPCServer`. `SimpleXMLRPCServer`; `requestHandler` defaults to `DocXMLRPCRequestHandler`.

```
class DocXMLRPCServer.DocCGIXMLRPCRequestHandler
```

Create a new instance to handle XML-RPC requests in a CGI environment.

class DocXMLRPCServer.DocXMLRPCRequestHandler

Create a new request handler instance. This request handler supports XML-RPC POST requests, documentation GET requests, and modifies logging so that the *logRequests* parameter to the *DocXMLRPCServer* constructor parameter is honored.

20.25.1 DocXMLRPCServer Objects

The *DocXMLRPCServer* class is derived from *SimpleXMLRPCServer.SimpleXMLRPCServer* and provides a means of creating self-documenting, stand alone XML-RPC servers. HTTP POST requests are handled as XML-RPC method calls. HTTP GET requests are handled by generating pydoc-style HTML documentation. This allows a server to provide its own web-based documentation.

DocXMLRPCServer.set_server_title(server_title)

Set the title used in the generated HTML documentation. This title will be used inside the HTML « title » element.

DocXMLRPCServer.set_server_name(server_name)

Set the name used in the generated HTML documentation. This name will appear at the top of the generated documentation inside a « h1 » element.

DocXMLRPCServer.set_server_documentation(server_documentation)

Set the description used in the generated HTML documentation. This description will appear as a paragraph, below the server name, in the documentation.

20.25.2 DocCGIXMLRPCRequestHandler

The *DocCGIXMLRPCRequestHandler* class is derived from *SimpleXMLRPCServer.CGIXMLRPCRequestHandler* and provides a means of creating self-documenting, XML-RPC CGI scripts. HTTP POST requests are handled as XML-RPC method calls. HTTP GET requests are handled by generating pydoc-style HTML documentation. This allows a server to provide its own web-based documentation.

DocCGIXMLRPCRequestHandler.set_server_title(server_title)

Set the title used in the generated HTML documentation. This title will be used inside the HTML « title » element.

DocCGIXMLRPCRequestHandler.set_server_name(server_name)

Set the name used in the generated HTML documentation. This name will appear at the top of the generated documentation inside a « h1 » element.

DocCGIXMLRPCRequestHandler.set_server_documentation(server_documentation)

Set the description used in the generated HTML documentation. This description will appear as a paragraph, below the server name, in the documentation.

Les modules documentés dans ce chapitre implémentent divers algorithmes ou interfaces principalement utiles pour les applications multimédia. Ils peuvent ne pas être disponibles sur votre installation. En voici un aperçu :

21.1 audioloop — Manipulation de données audio brutes

The `audioloop` 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.

This module provides support for a-LAW, u-LAW and Intel/DVI ADPCM encodings.

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 :

exception `audioloop.error`

This exception is raised on all errors, such as unknown number of bytes per sample, etc.

audioloop.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. Samples are truncated in case of overflow.

audioloop.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*.

audioloop.alaw2lin(*fragment*, *width*)

Convert sound fragments in a-LAW encoding to linearly encoded sound fragments. a-LAW encoding always uses 8 bits samples, so *width* refers only to the sample width of the output fragment here.

Nouveau dans la version 2.5.

`audioop.avg(fragment, width)`

Return the average over all samples in the fragment.

`audioop.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.

`audioop.bias(fragment, width, bias)`

Return a fragment that is the original fragment with a bias added to each sample. Samples wrap around in case of overflow.

`audioop.cross(fragment, width)`

Return the number of zero crossings in the fragment passed as an argument.

`audioop.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)`.

`audioop.findfit(fragment, reference)`

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()`.

`audioop.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)`.

`audioop.getsample(fragment, width, index)`

Return the value of sample *index* from the fragment.

`audioop.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.

`audioop.lin2alaw(fragment, width)`

Convert samples in the audio fragment to a-LAW encoding and return this as a Python string. a-LAW is an audio encoding format whereby you get a dynamic range of about 13 bits using only 8 bit samples. It is used by the Sun audio hardware, among others.

Nouveau dans la version 2.5.

`audioop.lin2lin(fragment, width, newwidth)`

Convert samples between 1-, 2- and 4-byte formats.

Note : In some audio formats, such as .WAV files, 16 and 32 bit samples are signed, but 8 bit samples are unsigned. So when converting to 8 bit wide samples for these formats, you need to also add 128 to the result :


```
new_frames = audioop.lin2lin(frames, old_width, 1)
new_frames = audioop.bias(new_frames, 1, 128)
```

The same, in reverse, has to be applied when converting from 8 to 16 or 32 bit width samples.

audioop.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.

audioop.max(fragment, width)

Return the maximum of the *absolute value* of all samples in a fragment.

audioop.maxpp(fragment, width)

Return the maximum peak-peak value in the sound fragment.

audioop.minmax(fragment, width)

Return a tuple consisting of the minimum and maximum values of all samples in the sound fragment.

audioop.mul(fragment, width, factor)

Return a fragment that has all samples in the original fragment multiplied by the floating-point value *factor*. Samples are truncated in case of overflow.

audioop.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 tuple (**newfragment**, **newstate**), and *newstate* should be passed to the next call of *ratecv()*. The initial call should pass **None** as the state.

The *weightA* and *weightB* arguments are parameters for a simple digital filter and default to 1 and 0 respectively.

audioop.reverse(fragment, width)

Reverse the samples in a fragment and returns the modified fragment.

audioop.rms(fragment, width)

Return the root-mean-square of the fragment, i.e. $\sqrt{\text{sum}(S_i^2)/n}$.

C'est une mesure de la puissance dans un signal audio.

audioop.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.

audioop.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*.

audioop.ulaw2lin(fragment, width)

Convert sound fragments in u-LAW encoding to linearly encoded sound fragments. u-LAW 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)
```

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(suite de la page précédente)

```

lsample = audioop.mul(lsample, width, lfactor)
rsample = audioop.mul(rsample, 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.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)

```

21.2 imageop — Manipulate raw image data

Obsolète depuis la version 2.6 : The `imageop` module has been removed in Python 3.

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.rectwrite()` and the `imgfile` module.

The module defines the following variables and functions :

exception `imageop.error`

This exception is raised on all errors, such as unknown number of bits per pixel, etc.

`imageop.crop(image, psize, width, height, x0, y0, x1, y1)`

Return the selected part of *image*, which should be *width* by *height* in size and consist of pixels of *psize* bytes. *x0*, *y0*, *x1* and *y1* are like the `gl.rectread()` 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.

`imageop.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.

`imageop.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.

`imageop.grey2mono(image, width, height, threshold)`

Convert an 8-bit deep greyscale image to a 1-bit deep image by thresholding all the pixels. The resulting image is tightly packed and is probably only useful as an argument to `mono2grey()`.

`imageop.dither2mono(image, width, height)`

Convert an 8-bit greyscale image to a 1-bit monochrome image using a (simple-minded) dithering algorithm.

`imageop.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.

`imageop.grey2grey4(image, width, height)`

Convert an 8-bit greyscale image to a 4-bit greyscale image without dithering.

`imageop.grey2grey2(image, width, height)`

Convert an 8-bit greyscale image to a 2-bit greyscale image without dithering.

`imageop.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.

`imageop.grey42grey(image, width, height)`

Convert a 4-bit greyscale image to an 8-bit greyscale image.

`imageop.grey22grey(image, width, height)`

Convert a 2-bit greyscale image to an 8-bit greyscale image.

`imageop.backward_compatible`

If set to 0, the functions in this module use a non-backward compatible way of representing multi-byte pixels on little-endian systems. The SGI for which this module was originally written is a big-endian system, so setting this variable will have no effect. However, the code wasn't originally intended to run on anything else, so it made assumptions about byte order which are not universal. Setting this variable to 0 will cause the byte order to be reversed on little-endian systems, so that it then is the same as on big-endian systems.

21.3 aifc — Lis et écrit dans les fichiers AIFF et AIFC

Code source : [Lib/aifc.py](#)

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.

Note : Some operations may only work under IRIX; these will raise `ImportError` when attempting to import the `c1` module, which is only available on IRIX.

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 (176,400 bytes).

Le module `aifc` définit les fonctions suivantes :

`aifc.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. *mode* must be 'r' or 'rb' when the file must be opened for reading, or 'w' or 'wb' when the file must be opened for writing. If omitted, `file.mode` is used if it exists, otherwise 'rb' is used. 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 `open()` when a file is opened for reading have the following methods :

`aifc.getnchannels()`

Return the number of audio channels (1 for mono, 2 for stereo).

`aifc.getsampwidth()`

Donne la taille en octets des échantillons, individuellement.

`aifc.getframerate()`

Return the sampling rate (number of audio frames per second).

`aifc.getnframes()`

Donne le nombre de trames (*frames*) audio du fichier.

`aifc.getcomptype()`

Return a four-character string describing the type of compression used in the audio file. For AIFF files, the returned value is 'NONE'.

`aifc.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'.

`aifc.getparams()`

Return a tuple consisting of all of the above values in the above order.

`aifc.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).

`aifc.getmark(id)`

Return the tuple as described in `getmarkers()` for the mark with the given *id*.

`aifc.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.

`aifc.rewind()`

Rewind the read pointer. The next `readframes()` will start from the beginning.

`aifc.setpos(pos)`

Va à la trame de numéro donné.

`aifc.tell()`

Donne le numéro de la trame courante.

`aifc.close()`

Close the AIFF file. After calling this method, the object can no longer be used.

Objects returned by `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.

`aifc.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.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.

`aifc.setnchannels(nchannels)`

Définit le nombre de canaux du fichier audio.

`aifc.setsampwidth(width)`

Définit la taille en octets des échantillons audio.

`aifc.setframerate(rate)`

Specify the sampling frequency in frames per second.

`aifc.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.

`aifc.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.

`aifc.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()`.

`aifc.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()`.

`aifc.tell()`

Return the current write position in the output file. Useful in combination with `setmark()`.

`aifc.writeframes(data)`

Write data to the output file. This method can only be called after the audio file parameters have been set.

`aifc.writeframesraw(data)`

Like `writeframes()`, except that the header of the audio file is not updated.

`aifc.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.

21.4 sunau — Read and write Sun AU files

Code source : [Lib/sunau.py](#)

The `sunau` module provides a convenient interface to the Sun AU sound format. Note that this module is interface-compatible with the modules `aifc` and `wave`.

An audio file consists of a header followed by the data. The fields of the header are :

Field	Sommaire
magic word	The four bytes <code>.snd</code> .
header size	Size of the header, including info, in bytes.
data size	Physical size of the data, in bytes.
encoding	Indicates how the audio samples are encoded.
sample rate	The sampling rate.
# of channels	The number of channels in the samples.
info	ASCII string giving a description of the audio file (padded with null bytes).

Apart from the info field, all header fields are 4 bytes in size. They are all 32-bit unsigned integers encoded in big-endian byte order.

The `sunau` module defines the following functions :

`sunau.open(file, mode)`

If *file* is a string, open the file by that name, otherwise treat it as a seekable file-like object. *mode* can be any of

'r' Read only mode.

'w' Write only mode.

Note that it does not allow read/write files.

A *mode* of 'r' returns an `AU_read` object, while a *mode* of 'w' or 'wb' returns an `AU_write` object.

`sunau.openfp(file, mode)`

A synonym for `open()`, maintained for backwards compatibility.

The `sunau` module defines the following exception :

exception `sunau.Error`

An error raised when something is impossible because of Sun AU specs or implementation deficiency.

The `sunau` module defines the following data items :

`sunau.AUDIO_FILE_MAGIC`

An integer every valid Sun AU file begins with, stored in big-endian form. This is the string `.snd` interpreted as an integer.

`sunau.AUDIO_FILE_ENCODING_MULAW_8`

`sunau.AUDIO_FILE_ENCODING_LINEAR_8`

`sunau.AUDIO_FILE_ENCODING_LINEAR_16`

`sunau.AUDIO_FILE_ENCODING_LINEAR_24`

`sunau.AUDIO_FILE_ENCODING_LINEAR_32`

`sunau.AUDIO_FILE_ENCODING_ALAW_8`

Values of the encoding field from the AU header which are supported by this module.

`sunau.AUDIO_FILE_ENCODING_FLOAT`

`sunau.AUDIO_FILE_ENCODING_DOUBLE`

`sunau.AUDIO_FILE_ENCODING_ADPCM_G721`

```

sunau.AUDIO_FILE_ENCODING_ADPCM_G722
sunau.AUDIO_FILE_ENCODING_ADPCM_G723_3
sunau.AUDIO_FILE_ENCODING_ADPCM_G723_5

```

Additional known values of the encoding field from the AU header, but which are not supported by this module.

21.4.1 AU_read Objects

AU_read objects, as returned by *open()* above, have the following methods :

AU_read.close()

Close the stream, and make the instance unusable. (This is called automatically on deletion.)

AU_read.getnchannels()

Returns number of audio channels (1 for mono, 2 for stereo).

AU_read.getsampwidth()

Returns sample width in bytes.

AU_read.getframerate()

Returns sampling frequency.

AU_read.getnframes()

Returns number of audio frames.

AU_read.getcomptype()

Returns compression type. Supported compression types are 'ULAW', 'ALAW' and 'NONE'.

AU_read.getcompname()

Human-readable version of *getcomptype()*. The supported types have the respective names 'CCITT G.711 u-law', 'CCITT G.711 A-law' and 'not compressed'.

AU_read.getparams()

Returns a tuple (nchannels, sampwidth, framerate, nframes, comptype, compname), equivalent to output of the *get*()* methods.

AU_read.readframes(*n*)

Reads and returns at most *n* frames of audio, as a string of bytes. The data will be returned in linear format. If the original data is in u-LAW format, it will be converted.

AU_read.rewind()

Rewind the file pointer to the beginning of the audio stream.

The following two methods define a term « position » which is compatible between them, and is otherwise implementation dependent.

AU_read.setpos(*pos*)

Set the file pointer to the specified position. Only values returned from *tell()* should be used for *pos*.

AU_read.tell()

Return current file pointer position. Note that the returned value has nothing to do with the actual position in the file.

The following two functions are defined for compatibility with the *aifc*, and don't do anything interesting.

AU_read.getmarkers()

Returns None.

AU_read.getmark(*id*)

Raise an error.

21.4.2 AU_write Objects

AU_write objects, as returned by *open()* above, have the following methods :

`AU_write.setnchannels(n)`

Set the number of channels.

`AU_write.setsampwidth(n)`

Set the sample width (in bytes.)

`AU_write.setframerate(n)`

Set the frame rate.

`AU_write.setnframes(n)`

Set the number of frames. This can be later changed, when and if more frames are written.

`AU_write.setcomptype(type, name)`

Set the compression type and description. Only 'NONE' and 'ULAW' are supported on output.

`AU_write.setparams(tuple)`

The *tuple* should be (*nchannels*, *sampwidth*, *framerate*, *nframes*, *comptype*, *compname*), with values valid for the *set*()* methods. Set all parameters.

`AU_write.tell()`

Return current position in the file, with the same disclaimer for the *AU_read.tell()* and *AU_read.setpos()* methods.

`AU_write.writeframesraw(data)`

Write audio frames, without correcting *nframes*.

`AU_write.writeframes(data)`

Write audio frames and make sure *nframes* is correct.

`AU_write.close()`

Make sure *nframes* is correct, and close the file.

This method is called upon deletion.

Note that it is invalid to set any parameters after calling *writeframes()* or *writeframesraw()*.

21.5 wave — Read and write WAV files

Code source : [Lib/wave.py](#)

The *wave* module provides a convenient interface to the WAV sound format. It does not support compression/decompression, but it does support mono/stereo.

The *wave* module defines the following function and exception :

`wave.open(file[, mode])`

If *file* is a string, open the file by that name, otherwise treat it as a seekable file-like object. *mode* can be any of

'r', 'rb' Read only mode.

'w', 'wb' Write only mode.

Note that it does not allow read/write WAV files.

A *mode* of 'r' or 'rb' returns a *Wave_read* object, while a *mode* of 'w' or 'wb' returns a *Wave_write* object. If *mode* is omitted and a file-like object is passed as *file*, *file.mode* is used as the default value for *mode* (the 'b' flag is still added if necessary).

If you pass in a file-like object, the wave object will not close it when its *close()* method is called ; it is the caller's responsibility to close the file object.

`wave.openfp(file, mode)`

A synonym for `open()`, maintained for backwards compatibility.

exception `wave.Error`

An error raised when something is impossible because it violates the WAV specification or hits an implementation deficiency.

21.5.1 Wave_read Objects

Wave_read objects, as returned by `open()`, have the following methods :

`Wave_read.close()`

Close the stream if it was opened by `wave`, and make the instance unusable. This is called automatically on object collection.

`Wave_read.getnchannels()`

Returns number of audio channels (1 for mono, 2 for stereo).

`Wave_read.getsampwidth()`

Returns sample width in bytes.

`Wave_read.getframerate()`

Returns sampling frequency.

`Wave_read.getnframes()`

Returns number of audio frames.

`Wave_read.getcomptype()`

Returns compression type ('NONE' is the only supported type).

`Wave_read.getcompname()`

Human-readable version of `getcomptype()`. Usually 'not compressed' parallels 'NONE'.

`Wave_read.getparams()`

Returns a tuple (nchannels, sampwidth, framerate, nframes, comptype, compname), equivalent to output of the `get*()` methods.

`Wave_read.readframes(n)`

Reads and returns at most *n* frames of audio, as a string of bytes.

`Wave_read.rewind()`

Rewind the file pointer to the beginning of the audio stream.

The following two methods are defined for compatibility with the `aifc` module, and don't do anything interesting.

`Wave_read.getmarkers()`

Returns None.

`Wave_read.getmark(id)`

Raise an error.

The following two methods define a term « position » which is compatible between them, and is otherwise implementation dependent.

`Wave_read.setpos(pos)`

Set the file pointer to the specified position.

`Wave_read.tell()`

Return current file pointer position.

21.5.2 Wave_write Objects

Wave_write objects, as returned by `open()`, have the following methods :

`Wave_write.close()`

Make sure *nframes* is correct, and close the file if it was opened by *wave*. This method is called upon object collection.

`Wave_write.setnchannels(n)`

Set the number of channels.

`Wave_write.setsampwidth(n)`

Set the sample width to *n* bytes.

`Wave_write.setframerate(n)`

Set the frame rate to *n*.

`Wave_write.setnframes(n)`

Set the number of frames to *n*. This will be changed later if more frames are written.

`Wave_write.setcomptype(type, name)`

Set the compression type and description. At the moment, only compression type NONE is supported, meaning no compression.

`Wave_write.setparams(tuple)`

The *tuple* should be (*nchannels*, *sampwidth*, *framerate*, *nframes*, *comptype*, *compname*), with values valid for the `set*()` methods. Sets all parameters.

`Wave_write.tell()`

Return current position in the file, with the same disclaimer for the `Wave_read.tell()` and `Wave_read.setpos()` methods.

`Wave_write.writeframesraw(data)`

Write audio frames, without correcting *nframes*.

`Wave_write.writeframes(data)`

Write audio frames and make sure *nframes* is correct.

Note that it is invalid to set any parameters after calling `writeframes()` or `writeframesraw()`, and any attempt to do so will raise `wave.Error`.

21.6 chunk — Read IFF chunked data

This module provides an interface for reading files that use EA IFF 85 chunks.¹ This format is used in at least the Audio Interchange File Format (AIFF/AIFF-C) and the Real Media File Format (RMFF). The WAVE audio file format is closely related and can also be read using this module.

A chunk has the following structure :

Offset	Length	Sommaire
0	4	Chunk ID
4	4	Size of chunk in big-endian byte order, not including the header
8	<i>n</i>	Data bytes, where <i>n</i> is the size given in the preceding field
8 + <i>n</i>	0 or 1	Pad byte needed if <i>n</i> is odd and chunk alignment is used

The ID is a 4-byte string which identifies the type of chunk.

1. « EA IFF 85 » Standard for Interchange Format Files, Jerry Morrison, Electronic Arts, January 1985.

The size field (a 32-bit value, encoded using big-endian byte order) gives the size of the chunk data, not including the 8-byte header.

Usually an IFF-type file consists of one or more chunks. The proposed usage of the `Chunk` class defined here is to instantiate an instance at the start of each chunk and read from the instance until it reaches the end, after which a new instance can be instantiated. At the end of the file, creating a new instance will fail with an `EOFError` exception.

```
class chunk.Chunk(file[, align, bigendian, inclheader])
```

Class which represents a chunk. The *file* argument is expected to be a file-like object. An instance of this class is specifically allowed. The only method that is needed is `read()`. If the methods `seek()` and `tell()` are present and don't raise an exception, they are also used. If these methods are present and raise an exception, they are expected to not have altered the object. If the optional argument *align* is true, chunks are assumed to be aligned on 2-byte boundaries. If *align* is false, no alignment is assumed. The default value is true. If the optional argument *bigendian* is false, the chunk size is assumed to be in little-endian order. This is needed for WAVE audio files. The default value is true. If the optional argument *inclheader* is true, the size given in the chunk header includes the size of the header. The default value is false.

A `Chunk` object supports the following methods :

`getname()`

Returns the name (ID) of the chunk. This is the first 4 bytes of the chunk.

`getsize()`

Returns the size of the chunk.

`close()`

Close and skip to the end of the chunk. This does not close the underlying file.

The remaining methods will raise `IOError` if called after the `close()` method has been called.

`isatty()`

Returns `False`.

`seek(pos[, whence])`

Set the chunk's current position. 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. If the underlying file does not allow seek, only forward seeks are allowed.

`tell()`

Return the current position into the chunk.

`read([size])`

Read at most *size* bytes from the chunk (less if the read hits the end of the chunk before obtaining *size* bytes). If the *size* argument is negative or omitted, read all data until the end of the chunk. The bytes are returned as a string object. An empty string is returned when the end of the chunk is encountered immediately.

`skip()`

Skip to the end of the chunk. All further calls to `read()` for the chunk will return ''. If you are not interested in the contents of the chunk, this method should be called so that the file points to the start of the next chunk.

Notes

21.7 colorsys — Conversions entre les systèmes de couleurs

Code source : [Lib/colors.py](#)

Le module `colorsys` définit les conversions bidirectionnelles des valeurs de couleur entre les couleurs exprimées dans l'espace colorimétrique RVB (Rouge Vert Bleu) utilisé par les écrans d'ordinateur et trois autres

systèmes de coordonnées : YIQ, HLS (Hue Lightness Saturation) et HSV (Hue Saturation Value). Les coordonnées dans tous ces espaces colorimétriques sont des valeurs en virgule flottante. Dans l'espace YIQ, la coordonnée Y est comprise entre 0 et 1, mais les coordonnées I et Q peuvent être positives ou négatives. Dans tous les autres espaces, les coordonnées sont toutes comprises entre 0 et 1.

Voir aussi :

Consultez <http://www.poynton.com/ColorFAQ.html> et <https://www.cambridgeincolour.com/tutorials/color-spaces.htm> pour plus d'informations concernant les espaces colorimétriques.

Le module `colorsys` définit les fonctions suivantes :

`colorsys.rgb_to_yiq(r, g, b)`

Convertit la couleur des coordonnées RGB (RVB) vers les coordonnées YIQ.

`colorsys.yiq_to_rgb(y, i, q)`

Convertit la couleur des coordonnées YIQ vers les coordonnées RGB (RVB).

`colorsys.rgb_to_hls(r, g, b)`

Convertit la couleur des coordonnées RGB (RVB) vers les coordonnées HLS (TSV).

`colorsys.hls_to_rgb(h, l, s)`

Convertit la couleur des coordonnées HLS (TSV) vers les coordonnées RGB (RVB).

`colorsys.rgb_to_hsv(r, g, b)`

Convertit la couleur des coordonnées RGB (RVB) vers les coordonnées HSV (TSV).

`colorsys.hsv_to_rgb(h, s, v)`

Convertit la couleur des coordonnées HSV (TSV) vers les coordonnées RGB (RVB).

Exemple :

```
>>> import colorsys
>>> colorsys.rgb_to_hsv(0.2, 0.4, 0.4)
(0.5, 0.5, 0.4)
>>> colorsys.hsv_to_rgb(0.5, 0.5, 0.4)
(0.2, 0.4, 0.4)
```

21.8 imghdr — Determine the type of an image

Code source : [Lib/imghdr.py](#)

The `imghdr` module determines the type of image contained in a file or byte stream.

The `imghdr` module defines the following function :

`imghdr.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()` :

Valeur	Image format
'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 JFIF or Exif formats
'bmp'	BMP files
'png'	Portable Network Graphics

Nouveau dans la version 2.5 : Exif detection.

You can extend the list of file types *imghdr* can recognize by appending to this variable :

imghdr.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.

Exemple :

```
>>> import imghdr
>>> imghdr.what('bass.gif')
'gif'
```

21.9 sndhdr — Détermine le type d'un fichier audio

Code source : [Lib/sndhdr.py](#)

The *sndhdr* provides utility functions which attempt to determine the type of sound data which is in a file. When these functions are able to determine what type of sound data is stored in a file, they return a tuple (*type*, *sampling_rate*, *channels*, *frames*, *bits_per_sample*). The value for *type* indicates the data type and will be one of the strings 'aifc', 'aiff', 'au', 'hcom', 'sndr', 'sndt', 'voc', 'wav', '8svx', 'sb', 'ub', or 'ul'. The *sampling_rate* will be either the actual value or 0 if unknown or difficult to decode. Similarly, *channels* will be either the number of channels or 0 if it cannot be determined or if the value is difficult to decode. The value for *frames* will be either the number of frames or -1. The last item in the tuple, *bits_per_sample*, will either be the sample size in bits or 'A' for A-LAW or 'U' for u-LAW.

sndhdr.what(filename)

Determines the type of sound data stored in the file *filename* using *whathdr()*. If it succeeds, returns a tuple as described above, otherwise *None* is returned.

sndhdr.whathdr(filename)

Determines the type of sound data stored in a file based on the file header. The name of the file is given by *filename*. This function returns a tuple as described above on success, or *None*.

21.10 ossaudiodev — Access to OSS-compatible audio devices

Nouveau dans la version 2.3.

This module allows you to access the OSS (Open Sound System) audio interface. OSS is available for a wide range of open-source and commercial Unices, and is the standard audio interface for Linux and recent versions of FreeBSD.

Voir aussi :

Open Sound System Programmer's Guide the official documentation for the OSS C API

The module defines a large number of constants supplied by the OSS device driver ; see `<sys/soundcard.h>` on either Linux or FreeBSD for a listing.

`ossaudiodev` defines the following variables and functions :

exception `ossaudiodev.OSSAudioError`

This exception is raised on certain errors. The argument is a string describing what went wrong.

(If `ossaudiodev` receives an error from a system call such as `open()`, `write()`, or `ioctl()`, it raises `IOError`. Errors detected directly by `ossaudiodev` result in `OSSAudioError`.)

(For backwards compatibility, the exception class is also available as `ossaudiodev.error`.)

`ossaudiodev.open(mode)`

`ossaudiodev.open(device, mode)`

Open an audio device and return an OSS audio device object. This object supports many file-like methods, such as `read()`, `write()`, and `fileno()` (although there are subtle differences between conventional Unix read/write semantics and those of OSS audio devices). It also supports a number of audio-specific methods ; see below for the complete list of methods.

device is the audio device filename to use. If it is not specified, this module first looks in the environment variable `AUDIODEV` for a device to use. If not found, it falls back to `/dev/dsp`.

mode is one of `'r'` for read-only (record) access, `'w'` for write-only (playback) access and `'rw'` for both. Since many sound cards only allow one process to have the recorder or player open at a time, it is a good idea to open the device only for the activity needed. Further, some sound cards are half-duplex : they can be opened for reading or writing, but not both at once.

Note the unusual calling syntax : the *first* argument is optional, and the second is required. This is a historical artifact for compatibility with the older `linuxaudiodev` module which `ossaudiodev` supersedes.

`ossaudiodev.openmixer([device])`

Open a mixer device and return an OSS mixer device object. *device* is the mixer device filename to use. If it is not specified, this module first looks in the environment variable `MIXERDEV` for a device to use. If not found, it falls back to `/dev/mixer`.

21.10.1 Audio Device Objects

Before you can write to or read from an audio device, you must call three methods in the correct order :

1. `setfmt()` to set the output format
2. `channels()` to set the number of channels
3. `speed()` to set the sample rate

Alternately, you can use the `setparameters()` method to set all three audio parameters at once. This is more convenient, but may not be as flexible in all cases.

The audio device objects returned by `open()` define the following methods and (read-only) attributes :

`oss_audio_device.close()`

Explicitly close the audio device. When you are done writing to or reading from an audio device, you should explicitly close it. A closed device cannot be used again.

`oss_audio_device.fileno()`

Return the file descriptor associated with the device.

`oss_audio_device.read(size)`

Read *size* bytes from the audio input and return them as a Python string. Unlike most Unix device drivers, OSS audio devices in blocking mode (the default) will block `read()` until the entire requested amount of data is available.

`oss_audio_device.write(data)`

Write the Python string *data* to the audio device and return the number of bytes written. If the audio device is in blocking mode (the default), the entire string is always written (again, this is different from usual Unix device semantics). If the device is in non-blocking mode, some data may not be written—see `writeall()`.

`oss_audio_device.writeall(data)`

Write the entire Python string *data* to the audio device : waits until the audio device is able to accept data, writes as much data as it will accept, and repeats until *data* has been completely written. If the device is in blocking mode (the default), this has the same effect as `write()`; `writeall()` is only useful in non-blocking mode. Has no return value, since the amount of data written is always equal to the amount of data supplied.

The following methods each map to exactly one `ioctl()` system call. The correspondence is obvious : for example, `setfmt()` corresponds to the `SNDCTL_DSP_SETFMT` `ioctl`, and `sync()` to `SNDCTL_DSP_SYNC` (this can be useful when consulting the OSS documentation). If the underlying `ioctl()` fails, they all raise `IOError`.

`oss_audio_device.nonblock()`

Put the device into non-blocking mode. Once in non-blocking mode, there is no way to return it to blocking mode.

`oss_audio_device.getfmts()`

Return a bitmask of the audio output formats supported by the soundcard. Some of the formats supported by OSS are :

Format	Description
AFMT_MU_LAW	a logarithmic encoding (used by Sun .au files and /dev/audio)
AFMT_A_LAW	a logarithmic encoding
AFMT_IMA_ADPCM	a 4 :1 compressed format defined by the Interactive Multimedia Association
AFMT_U8	Unsigned, 8-bit audio
AFMT_S16_LE	Signed, 16-bit audio, little-endian byte order (as used by Intel processors)
AFMT_S16_BE	Signed, 16-bit audio, big-endian byte order (as used by 68k, PowerPC, Sparc)
AFMT_S8	Signed, 8 bit audio
AFMT_U16_LE	Unsigned, 16-bit little-endian audio
AFMT_U16_BE	Unsigned, 16-bit big-endian audio

Consult the OSS documentation for a full list of audio formats, and note that most devices support only a subset of these formats. Some older devices only support `AFMT_U8`; the most common format used today is `AFMT_S16_LE`.

`oss_audio_device.setfmt(format)`

Try to set the current audio format to *format*—see `getfmts()` for a list. Returns the audio format that the device was set to, which may not be the requested format. May also be used to return the current audio format—do this by passing an « audio format » of `AFMT_QUERY`.

`oss_audio_device.channels(nchannels)`

Set the number of output channels to *nchannels*. A value of 1 indicates monophonic sound, 2 stereophonic. Some devices may have more than 2 channels, and some high-end devices may not support mono. Returns the number of channels the device was set to.

`oss_audio_device.speed(samplerate)`

Try to set the audio sampling rate to *samplerate* samples per second. Returns the rate actually set. Most sound devices don't support arbitrary sampling rates. Common rates are :

Rate	Description
8000	default rate for <code>/dev/audio</code>
11025	speech recording
22050	
44100	CD quality audio (at 16 bits/sample and 2 channels)
96000	DVD quality audio (at 24 bits/sample)

`oss_audio_device.sync()`

Wait until the sound device has played every byte in its buffer. (This happens implicitly when the device is closed.) The OSS documentation recommends closing and re-opening the device rather than using `sync()`.

`oss_audio_device.reset()`

Immediately stop playing or recording and return the device to a state where it can accept commands. The OSS documentation recommends closing and re-opening the device after calling `reset()`.

`oss_audio_device.post()`

Tell the driver that there is likely to be a pause in the output, making it possible for the device to handle the pause more intelligently. You might use this after playing a spot sound effect, before waiting for user input, or before doing disk I/O.

The following convenience methods combine several `ioctl`s, or one `ioctl` and some simple calculations.

`oss_audio_device.setparameters(format, nchannels, samplerate[, strict=False])`

Set the key audio sampling parameters—sample format, number of channels, and sampling rate—in one method call. *format*, *nchannels*, and *samplerate* should be as specified in the `setfmt()`, `channels()`, and `speed()` methods. If *strict* is true, `setparameters()` checks to see if each parameter was actually set to the requested value, and raises `OSSAudioError` if not. Returns a tuple (*format*, *nchannels*, *samplerate*) indicating the parameter values that were actually set by the device driver (i.e., the same as the return values of `setfmt()`, `channels()`, and `speed()`).

For example,

```
(fmt, channels, rate) = dsp.setparameters(fmt, channels, rate)
```

is equivalent to

```
fmt = dsp.setfmt(fmt)
channels = dsp.channels(channels)
rate = dsp.rate(rate)
```

`oss_audio_device.bufsize()`

Returns the size of the hardware buffer, in samples.

`oss_audio_device.obufcount()`

Returns the number of samples that are in the hardware buffer yet to be played.

`oss_audio_device.obuffree()`

Returns the number of samples that could be queued into the hardware buffer to be played without blocking.

Audio device objects also support several read-only attributes :

`oss_audio_device.closed`
 Boolean indicating whether the device has been closed.

`oss_audio_device.name`
 String containing the name of the device file.

`oss_audio_device.mode`
 The I/O mode for the file, either "r", "rw", or "w".

21.10.2 Mixer Device Objects

The mixer object provides two file-like methods :

`oss_mixer_device.close()`
 This method closes the open mixer device file. Any further attempts to use the mixer after this file is closed will raise an *IOError*.

`oss_mixer_device.fileno()`
 Returns the file handle number of the open mixer device file.

The remaining methods are specific to audio mixing :

`oss_mixer_device.controls()`
 This method returns a bitmask specifying the available mixer controls (« Control » being a specific mixable « channel », such as `SOUND_MIXER_PCM` or `SOUND_MIXER_SYNTH`). This bitmask indicates a subset of all available mixer controls—the `SOUND_MIXER_*` constants defined at module level. To determine if, for example, the current mixer object supports a PCM mixer, use the following Python code :

```

mixer=ossaudiodev.openmixer()
if mixer.controls() & (1 << ossaudiodev.SOUND_MIXER_PCM):
    # PCM is supported
    ... code ...

```

For most purposes, the `SOUND_MIXER_VOLUME` (master volume) and `SOUND_MIXER_PCM` controls should suffice—but code that uses the mixer should be flexible when it comes to choosing mixer controls. On the Gravis Ultrasound, for example, `SOUND_MIXER_VOLUME` does not exist.

`oss_mixer_device.stereocontrols()`
 Returns a bitmask indicating stereo mixer controls. If a bit is set, the corresponding control is stereo ; if it is unset, the control is either monophonic or not supported by the mixer (use in combination with *controls()* to determine which).
 See the code example for the *controls()* function for an example of getting data from a bitmask.

`oss_mixer_device.recontrols()`
 Returns a bitmask specifying the mixer controls that may be used to record. See the code example for *controls()* for an example of reading from a bitmask.

`oss_mixer_device.get(control)`
 Returns the volume of a given mixer control. The returned volume is a 2-tuple (`left_volume`, `right_volume`). Volumes are specified as numbers from 0 (silent) to 100 (full volume). If the control is monophonic, a 2-tuple is still returned, but both volumes are the same.
 Raises *OSSAudioError* if an invalid control was specified, or *IOError* if an unsupported control is specified.

`oss_mixer_device.set(control, (left, right))`
 Sets the volume for a given mixer control to (`left`, `right`). `left` and `right` must be ints and between 0 (silent) and 100 (full volume). On success, the new volume is returned as a 2-tuple. Note that this may

not be exactly the same as the volume specified, because of the limited resolution of some soundcard's mixers.

Raises *OSSAudioError* if an invalid mixer control was specified, or if the specified volumes were out-of-range.

`oss_mixer_device.get_recsrc()`

This method returns a bitmask indicating which control(s) are currently being used as a recording source.

`oss_mixer_device.set_recsrc(bitmask)`

Call this function to specify a recording source. Returns a bitmask indicating the new recording source (or sources) if successful; raises *IOError* if an invalid source was specified. To set the current recording source to the microphone input :

```
mixer.setrecsrc (1 << ossaudiodev.SOUND_MIXER_MIC)
```

Les modules décrits dans ce chapitre vous aident à rédiger des programmes indépendants des langues et des cultures en fournissant des mécanismes pour sélectionner une langue à utiliser dans les messages, ou en adaptant la sortie aux conventions culturelles.

La liste des modules documentés dans ce chapitre est :

22.1 gettext — Services d'internationalisation multilingue

Code source : [Lib/gettext.py](#)

Le module `gettext` fournit un service d'internationalisation (*I18N*) et de localisation linguistique (*L10N*) pour vos modules et applications Python. Il est compatible avec l'API du catalogue de messages GNU `gettext` et à un plus haut niveau, avec l'API basée sur les classes qui serait peut-être plus adaptée aux fichiers Python. L'interface décrite ci-dessous vous permet d'écrire les textes de vos modules et applications dans une langue naturelle, puis de fournir un catalogue de traductions pour les lancer ensuite dans d'autres langues naturelles.

Quelques astuces sur la localisation de vos modules et applications Python sont également données.

22.1.1 API GNU gettext

Le module `gettext` définit l'API suivante, qui est très proche de l'API de GNU `gettext`. Si vous utilisez cette API, cela affectera la traduction de toute votre application. C'est souvent le comportement attendu si votre application est monolingue, avec le choix de la langue qui dépend des paramètres linguistiques de l'utilisateur. Si vous localisez un module Python ou si votre application a besoin de changer de langue à la volée, il est plus judicieux d'utiliser l'API basée sur des classes.

```
gettext.bindtextdomain(domain[, localedir])
```

Lie `domain` au répertoire `localedir` des localisations. Plus spécifiquement, `gettext` va chercher les fichiers binaires `.mo` pour un domaine donné, en utilisant le chemin suivant (sous Unix) : `localedir/language/LC_MESSAGES/domain.mo`, où `language` est contenu respectivement dans l'une des variables d'environnement suivantes : `LANGUAGE`, `LC_ALL`, `LC_MESSAGES` et `LANG`.

Si *localedir* n'est pas renseigné ou vaut `None`, alors le lien actuel de *domain* est renvoyé.¹

`gettext.bind_textdomain_codeset(domain[, codeset])`

Bind the *domain* to *codeset*, changing the encoding of strings returned by the *gettext()* family of functions. If *codeset* is omitted, then the current binding is returned.

Nouveau dans la version 2.4.

`gettext.textdomain([domain])`

Change ou interroge le domaine global actuel. Si *domain* vaut `None`, alors le domaine global actuel est renvoyé. Sinon, le domaine global est positionné à *domain*, puis renvoyé.

`gettext.gettext(message)`

Renvoie la traduction localisée de *message*, en se basant sur le domaine global actuel, la langue et le répertoire des localisations. Cette fonction est typiquement renommée `_()` dans le namespace courant (voir les exemples ci-dessous).

`gettext.lgettext(message)`

Equivalent to *gettext()*, but the translation is returned in the preferred system encoding, if no other encoding was explicitly set with *bind_textdomain_codeset()*.

Nouveau dans la version 2.4.

`gettext.dgettext(domain, message)`

Like *gettext()*, but look the message up in the specified *domain*.

`gettext.ldgettext(domain, message)`

Equivalent to *dgettext()*, but the translation is returned in the preferred system encoding, if no other encoding was explicitly set with *bind_textdomain_codeset()*.

Nouveau dans la version 2.4.

`gettext.ngettext(singular, plural, n)`

Like *gettext()*, but consider plural forms. If a translation is found, apply the plural formula to *n*, and return the resulting message (some languages have more than two plural forms). If no translation is found, return *singular* if *n* is 1; return *plural* otherwise.

The Plural formula is taken from the catalog header. It is a C or Python expression that has a free variable *n*; the expression evaluates to the index of the plural in the catalog. See the GNU gettext documentation for the precise syntax to be used in `.po` files and the formulas for a variety of languages.

Nouveau dans la version 2.3.

`gettext.lngettext(singular, plural, n)`

Equivalent to *lngettext()*, but the translation is returned in the preferred system encoding, if no other encoding was explicitly set with *bind_textdomain_codeset()*.

Nouveau dans la version 2.4.

`gettext.dngettext(domain, singular, plural, n)`

Comme *lngettext()*, mais cherche le message dans le domaine spécifié.

Nouveau dans la version 2.3.

`gettext.ldngettext(domain, singular, plural, n)`

Equivalent to *dngettext()*, but the translation is returned in the preferred system encoding, if no other encoding was explicitly set with *bind_textdomain_codeset()*.

Nouveau dans la version 2.4.

Notez que GNU **gettext** a aussi une méthode `dcgettext()`, mais elle a été considérée comme inutile et donc actuellement marquée comme non implémentée.

1. Le dossier par défaut pour les localisations dépend du système : par exemple, sur RedHat c'est `/usr/share/locale`, mais sur Solaris c'est `/usr/lib/locale`. Le module *gettext* n'essaie pas de prendre en charge ce paramètre système, mais utilise le dossier `sys.prefix/share/locale`. C'est pour cette raison qu'il est toujours préférable d'appeler *bindtextdomain()* en donnant explicitement un chemin absolu au début de votre application.

Voici un exemple classique d'utilisation de cette API :

```
import gettext
gettext.bindtextdomain('myapplication', '/path/to/my/language/directory')
gettext.textdomain('myapplication')
_ = gettext.gettext
# ...
print _('This is a translatable string.')
```

22.1.2 API basée sur les classes

The class-based API of the `gettext` module gives you more flexibility and greater convenience than the GNU `gettext` API. It is the recommended way of localizing your Python applications and modules. `gettext` defines a « translations » class which implements the parsing of GNU `.mo` format files, and has methods for returning either standard 8-bit strings or Unicode strings. Instances of this « translations » class can also install themselves in the built-in namespace as the function `_()`.

`gettext.find(domain[, loaledir[, languages[, all]]])`

Cette fonction implémente l'algorithme standard de recherche de fichier `.mo`. Il prend en entrée un *domain*, tout comme la fonction `textdomain()`. Le paramètre optionnel *loaledir* est le même que celui de `bindtextdomain()`. Le paramètre optionnel *languages* est une liste de chaînes de caractères correspondants au code d'une langue.

Si *loaledir* n'est pas renseigné, alors le répertoire de la locale par défaut du système est utilisé.² Si *languages* n'est pas renseigné, alors les variables d'environnement suivantes sont utilisées : `LANGUAGE`, `LC_ALL`, `LC_MESSAGES` et `LANG`. La première à renvoyer une valeur non vide est alors utilisée pour *languages*. Ces variables d'environnement doivent contenir une liste de langues, séparées par des deux-points, qui sera utilisée pour générer la liste des codes de langues attendue.

Recherche avec `find()`, découvre et normalise les langues, puis itère sur la liste obtenue afin de trouver un fichier de traduction existant et correspondant :

`loaledir/language/LC_MESSAGES/domain.mo`

Le premier nom de fichier trouvé est renvoyé par `find()`. Si aucun fichier n'a été trouvé, alors `None` est renvoyé. Si *all* est vrai, est renvoyée la liste de tous les noms de fichiers, dans l'ordre dans lequel ils apparaissent dans *languages* ou dans les variables d'environnement.

`gettext.translation(domain[, loaledir[, languages[, class_[, fallback[, codeset]]]])`

Return a `Translations` instance based on the *domain*, *loaledir*, and *languages*, which are first passed to `find()` to get a list of the associated `.mo` file paths. Instances with identical `.mo` file names are cached. The actual class instantiated is either *class_* if provided, otherwise `GNUTranslations`. The class's constructor must take a single file object argument. If provided, *codeset* will change the charset used to encode translated strings.

Si plusieurs fichiers ont été trouvés, les derniers sont utilisés comme substitut des premiers. Pour rendre possible cette substitution, `copy.copy()` est utilisé pour copier chaque objet traduit depuis le cache ; les vraies données de l'instance étant toujours recopiées dans le cache.

If no `.mo` file is found, this function raises `IOError` if *fallback* is false (which is the default), and returns a `NullTranslations` instance if *fallback* is true.

Modifié dans la version 2.4 : Added the *codeset* parameter.

`gettext.install(domain[, loaledir[, unicode[, codeset[, names]]])`

This installs the function `_()` in Python's builtins namespace, based on *domain*, *loaledir*, and *codeset* which are passed to the function `translation()`. The *unicode* flag is passed to the resulting translation object's `install()` method.

Concernant le paramètre *names*, se référer à la description de la méthode `install()`.

2. Voir la note de `bindtextdomain()` ci-dessus.

Habituellement, la fonction `_()` est appliquée aux chaînes de caractères qui doivent être traduites comme suit :

```
print _('This string will be translated.')
```

Pour plus de confort, il vaut mieux positionner la fonction `_()` dans l'espace de noms natif à Python pour la rendre plus accessible dans tous les modules de votre application.

Modifié dans la version 2.4 : Added the *codeset* parameter.

Modifié dans la version 2.5 : Added the *names* parameter.

La classe `NullTranslations`

Translation classes are what actually implement the translation of original source file message strings to translated message strings. The base class used by all translation classes is *NullTranslations*; this provides the basic interface you can use to write your own specialized translation classes. Here are the methods of `NullTranslations` :

`class gettext.NullTranslations([fp])`

Takes an optional file object *fp*, which is ignored by the base class. Initializes « protected » instance variables `__info` and `__charset` which are set by derived classes, as well as `__fallback`, which is set through `add_fallback()`. It then calls `self._parse(fp)` if *fp* is not `None`.

`_parse(fp)`

Cette méthode, non exécutée dans la classe de base, prend en paramètre un objet fichier *fp* et lit les données de ce dernier. Si vous avez un catalogue de messages dont le format n'est pas pris en charge, vous devriez surcharger cette méthode pour analyser votre format.

`add_fallback(fallback)`

Ajoute *fallback* comme objet de substitution pour l'objet de traduction courant. Un objet de traduction devrait interroger cet objet de substitution s'il ne peut fournir une traduction pour un message donné.

`gettext(message)`

If a fallback has been set, forward `gettext()` to the fallback. Otherwise, return the translated message. Overridden in derived classes.

`lgettext(message)`

If a fallback has been set, forward `lgettext()` to the fallback. Otherwise, return the translated message. Overridden in derived classes.

Nouveau dans la version 2.4.

`ugettext(message)`

If a fallback has been set, forward `ugettext()` to the fallback. Otherwise, return the translated message as a Unicode string. Overridden in derived classes.

`ngettext(singular, plural, n)`

If a fallback has been set, forward `ngettext()` to the fallback. Otherwise, return the translated message. Overridden in derived classes.

Nouveau dans la version 2.3.

`lngettext(singular, plural, n)`

If a fallback has been set, forward `lngettext()` to the fallback. Otherwise, return the translated message. Overridden in derived classes.

Nouveau dans la version 2.4.

`ungettext(singular, plural, n)`

If a fallback has been set, forward `ungettext()` to the fallback. Otherwise, return the translated message as a Unicode string. Overridden in derived classes.

Nouveau dans la version 2.3.

`info()`

Renvoie la variable « protégée » `__info`.

charset()

Return the « protected » `_charset` variable.

output_charset()

Return the « protected » `_output_charset` variable, which defines the encoding used to return translated messages.

Nouveau dans la version 2.4.

set_output_charset(charset)

Change the « protected » `_output_charset` variable, which defines the encoding used to return translated messages.

Nouveau dans la version 2.4.

install([unicode[, names]])

If the `unicode` flag is false, this method installs `self.gettext()` into the built-in namespace, binding it to `_`. If `unicode` is true, it binds `self.ugettext()` instead. By default, `unicode` is false. If the `names` parameter is given, it must be a sequence containing the names of functions you want to install in the builtins namespace in addition to `_()`. Supported names are 'gettext' (bound to `self.gettext()` or `self.ugettext()` according to the `unicode` flag), 'ngettext' (bound to `self.ngettext()` or `self.ungettext()` according to the `unicode` flag), 'lgettext' and 'lngettext'.

Notez que ce n'est là qu'un moyen parmi d'autres, quoique le plus pratique, pour rendre la fonction `_()` accessible à votre application. Puisque cela affecte toute l'application, et plus particulièrement l'espace de noms natif, les modules localisés ne devraient jamais y positionner `_()`. Au lieu de cela, ces derniers doivent plutôt utiliser le code suivant pour rendre `_()` accessible par leurs modules :

```
import gettext
t = gettext.translation('mymodule', ...)
_ = t.gettext
```

Cela met `_()` dans l'espace de noms global du module uniquement et donc n'affectera ses appels que dans ce module.

Modifié dans la version 2.5 : Added the `names` parameter.

La classe GNUTranslations

The `gettext` module provides one additional class derived from `NullTranslations` : `GNUTranslations`. This class overrides `_parse()` to enable reading GNU `gettext` format `.mo` files in both big-endian and little-endian format. It also coerces both message ids and message strings to Unicode.

`GNUTranslations` parses optional meta-data out of the translation catalog. It is convention with GNU `gettext` to include meta-data as the translation for the empty string. This meta-data is in [RFC 822](#)-style `key: value` pairs, and should contain the `Project-Id-Version` key. If the key `Content-Type` is found, then the `charset` property is used to initialize the « protected » `_charset` instance variable, defaulting to `None` if not found. If the charset encoding is specified, then all message ids and message strings read from the catalog are converted to Unicode using this encoding. The `ugettext()` method always returns a Unicode, while the `gettext()` returns an encoded 8-bit string. For the message id arguments of both methods, either Unicode strings or 8-bit strings containing only US-ASCII characters are acceptable. Note that the Unicode version of the methods (i.e. `ugettext()` and `ungettext()`) are the recommended interface to use for internationalized Python programs.

La totalité des paires clef / valeur est insérée dans un dictionnaire et représente la variable d'instance « protégée » `_info`.

If the `.mo` file's magic number is invalid, or if other problems occur while reading the file, instantiating a `GNUTranslations` class can raise `IOError`.

Les méthodes suivantes, provenant de l'implémentation de la classe de base, ont été surchargées :

GNUTranslations.gettext(message)

Look up the *message* id in the catalog and return the corresponding message string, as an 8-bit string encoded with the catalog's charset encoding, if known. If there is no entry in the catalog for the *message* id, and a fallback has been set, the look up is forwarded to the fallback's *gettext()* method. Otherwise, the *message* id is returned.

GNUTranslations.lgettext(message)

Equivalent to *gettext()*, but the translation is returned in the preferred system encoding, if no other encoding was explicitly set with *set_output_charset()*.

Nouveau dans la version 2.4.

GNUTranslations.uggettext(message)

Look up the *message* id in the catalog and return the corresponding message string, as a Unicode string. If there is no entry in the catalog for the *message* id, and a fallback has been set, the look up is forwarded to the fallback's *uggettext()* method. Otherwise, the *message* id is returned.

GNUTranslations.ngettext(singular, plural, n)

Do a plural-forms lookup of a message id. *singular* is used as the message id for purposes of lookup in the catalog, while *n* is used to determine which plural form to use. The returned message string is an 8-bit string encoded with the catalog's charset encoding, if known.

If the message id is not found in the catalog, and a fallback is specified, the request is forwarded to the fallback's *ngettext()* method. Otherwise, when *n* is 1 *singular* is returned, and *plural* is returned in all other cases.

Nouveau dans la version 2.3.

GNUTranslations.lngettext(singular, plural, n)

Equivalent to *gettext()*, but the translation is returned in the preferred system encoding, if no other encoding was explicitly set with *set_output_charset()*.

Nouveau dans la version 2.4.

GNUTranslations.ungettext(singular, plural, n)

Effectue une recherche sur les formes plurielles de l'identifiant d'un message. *singular* est utilisé pour la recherche de l'identifiant dans le catalogue, alors que *n* permet de savoir quelle forme plurielle utiliser. La chaîne de caractère du message renvoyée est une chaîne Unicode.

If the message id is not found in the catalog, and a fallback is specified, the request is forwarded to the fallback's *ungettext()* method. Otherwise, when *n* is 1 *singular* is returned, and *plural* is returned in all other cases.

Voici un exemple :

```
n = len(os.listdir('.'))
cat = GNUTranslations(somefile)
message = cat.ungettext(
    'There is %(num)d file in this directory',
    'There are %(num)d files in this directory',
    n) % {'num': n}
```

Nouveau dans la version 2.3.

Support du catalogue de message de Solaris

Le système d'exploitation Solaris possède son propre format de fichier binaire *.mo*, mais pour l'heure, puisqu'on ne peut trouver de documentation sur ce format, il n'est pas géré.

Le constructeur *Catalog*

GNOME utilise une version du module *gettext* de James Henstridge, mais qui a une API légèrement différente. D'après la documentation, elle s'utilise ainsi :


```
import gettext
cat = gettext.Catalog(domain, localedir)
_ = cat.gettext
print _('hello world')
```

Pour des raisons de compatibilité avec cet ancien module, la fonction `Catalog()` est un alias de la fonction `translation()` décrite ci-dessous.

Une différence entre ce module et celui de Henstridge : les objets de son catalogue étaient accessibles depuis un schéma de l'API, mais cela semblait ne pas être utilisé et donc n'est pas pris en charge.

22.1.3 Internationaliser vos programmes et modules

L'internationalisation (*I18N*) consiste à permettre à un programme de recevoir des traductions dans plusieurs langues. La localisation (*L10N*) consiste à adapter un programme à la langue et aux habitudes culturelles locales, une fois celui-ci internationalisé. Afin de fournir du texte multilingue à votre programme Python, les étapes suivantes sont nécessaires :

1. préparer votre programme ou module en marquant spécifiquement les chaînes à traduire
2. lancer une suite d'outils sur les fichiers contenant des chaînes à traduire pour générer des catalogues de messages brut
3. créer les traductions spécifiques à une langue des catalogues de messages
4. utiliser le module `gettext` pour que les chaînes de caractères soient bien traduites

Afin de préparer votre code à être traduit (*I18N*), vous devrez rechercher toutes les chaînes de caractères de vos fichiers. À chaque chaîne de caractères à traduire doit être appliqué le marqueur `_('...')` — c'est-à-dire en appelant la fonction `_()`. Par exemple :

```
filename = 'mylog.txt'
message = _('writing a log message')
fp = open(filename, 'w')
fp.write(message)
fp.close()
```

Dans cet exemple, la chaîne `'writing a log message'` est maquée comme traduite, contrairement aux chaînes `'mylog.txt'` et `'w'`.

The Python distribution comes with two tools which help you generate the message catalogs once you've prepared your source code. These may or may not be available from a binary distribution, but they can be found in a source distribution, in the `Tools/i18n` directory.

The `pygettext`³ program scans all your Python source code looking for the strings you previously marked as translatable. It is similar to the GNU `gettext` program except that it understands all the intricacies of Python source code, but knows nothing about C or C++ source code. You don't need GNU `gettext` unless you're also going to be translating C code (such as C extension modules).

`pygettext` generates textual Uniform-style human readable message catalog `.pot` files, essentially structured human readable files which contain every marked string in the source code, along with a placeholder for the translation strings. `pygettext` is a command line script that supports a similar command line interface as `xgettext`; for details on its use, run :

```
pygettext.py --help
```

Copies of these `.pot` files are then handed over to the individual human translators who write language-specific versions for every supported natural language. They send you back the filled in language-specific

3. François Pinard has written a program called `xpot` which does a similar job. It is available as part of his `po-utils` package.

versions as a .po file. Using the `msgfmt.py`⁴ program (in the `Tools/i18n` directory), you take the .po files from your translators and generate the machine-readable .mo binary catalog files. The .mo files are what the `gettext` module uses for the actual translation processing during run-time.

La façon dont vous utilisez le module `gettext` dans votre code dépend de si vous internationalisez un seul module ou l'ensemble de votre application. Les deux sections suivantes traitent chacune des cas.

Localiser votre module

Si vous localisez votre module, veillez à ne pas faire de changements globaux, e.g. dans l'espace de nom natif. Vous ne devriez pas utiliser l'API GNU `gettext` mais plutôt celle basée sur les classes.

Disons que votre module s'appelle « spam » et que les fichiers .mo de traduction dans les différentes langues naturelles soient dans `/usr/share/locale` au format GNU `gettext`. Voici ce que vous pouvez alors mettre en haut de votre module :

```
import gettext
t = gettext.translation('spam', '/usr/share/locale')
_ = t.lgettext
```

If your translators were providing you with Unicode strings in their .po files, you'd instead do :

```
import gettext
t = gettext.translation('spam', '/usr/share/locale')
_ = t.ugettext
```

Localiser votre application

Si vous localisez votre application, vous pouvez positionner la fonction `_()` de manière globale dans l'espace de noms natif, généralement dans le fichier principal de votre application. Cela permettra à tous les fichiers de votre application de n'utiliser que `_('...')` sans devoir le redéfinir explicitement dans chaque fichier.

Dans ce cas, vous n'aurez à ajouter que le bout de code suivant au fichier principal de votre application :

```
import gettext
gettext.install('myapplication')
```

If you need to set the locale directory or the `unicode` flag, you can pass these into the `install()` function :

```
import gettext
gettext.install('myapplication', '/usr/share/locale', unicode=1)
```

Changer de langue à la volée

Si votre programme a besoin de prendre en charge plusieurs langues en même temps, vous pouvez créer plusieurs instances de traduction, puis basculer entre elles de façon explicite, comme ceci :

```
import gettext

lang1 = gettext.translation('myapplication', languages=['en'])
lang2 = gettext.translation('myapplication', languages=['fr'])
lang3 = gettext.translation('myapplication', languages=['de'])
```

(suite sur la page suivante)

4. `msgfmt.py` is binary compatible with GNU `msgfmt` except that it provides a simpler, all-Python implementation. With this and `pygettext.py`, you generally won't need to install the GNU `gettext` package to internationalize your Python applications.

(suite de la page précédente)

```
# start by using language1
lang1.install()

# ... time goes by, user selects language 2
lang2.install()

# ... more time goes by, user selects language 3
lang3.install()
```

Traductions différées

Dans la plupart des cas, en programmation, les chaînes de caractères sont traduites à l'endroit où on les écrit. Cependant, il peut arriver que vous ayez besoin de traduire une chaîne de caractères un peu plus loin. Un exemple classique est :

```
animals = ['mollusk',
           'albatross',
           'rat',
           'penguin',
           'python', ]

# ...
for a in animals:
    print a
```

Ici, vous voulez marquer les chaînes de caractères de la liste `animals` comme étant traduisibles, mais ne les traduire qu'au moment de les afficher.

Voici un moyen de gérer ce cas :

```
def _(message): return message

animals = [_('mollusk'),
           _('albatross'),
           _('rat'),
           _('penguin'),
           _('python'), ]

del _

# ...
for a in animals:
    print _(a)
```

Cela fonctionne car la définition factice de `_()` renvoie simplement la chaîne de caractères passée en entrée. Et cette définition factice va temporairement outrepasser toute autre définition de `_()` dans l'espace de noms natif (jusqu'à l'utilisation de la commande `del`). Attention toutefois si vous avez déjà une autre définition de `_()` dans l'espace de noms local.

Note that the second use of `_()` will not identify « a » as being translatable to the `pygettext` program, since it is not a string.

Voici une autre solution :

```
def N_(message): return message

animals = [N_('mollusk'),
           N_('albatross'),
           N_('rat'),
           N_('penguin'),
           N_('python'), ]

# ...
for a in animals:
    print _(a)
```

In this case, you are marking translatable strings with the function `N_()`,⁵ which won't conflict with any definition of `_()`. However, you will need to teach your message extraction program to look for translatable strings marked with `N_()`. `pygettext` and `xpot` both support this through the use of command line switches.

`gettext()` vs. `lgettext()`

In Python 2.4 the `lgettext()` family of functions were introduced. The intention of these functions is to provide an alternative which is more compliant with the current implementation of GNU `gettext`. Unlike `gettext()`, which returns strings encoded with the same codeset used in the translation file, `lgettext()` will return strings encoded with the preferred system encoding, as returned by `locale.getpreferredencoding()`. Also notice that Python 2.4 introduces new functions to explicitly choose the codeset used in translated strings. If a codeset is explicitly set, even `lgettext()` will return translated strings in the requested codeset, as would be expected in the GNU `gettext` implementation.

22.1.4 Remerciements

Les personnes suivantes ont contribué au code, ont fait des retours, ont participé aux suggestions de conception et aux implémentations précédentes, et ont partagé leur expérience précieuse pour la création de ce module :

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- Martin von Löwis
- François Pinard
- Barry Warsaw
- Gustavo Niemeyer

Notes

22.2 `locale` — Internationalization services

The `locale` module opens access to the POSIX locale database and functionality. The POSIX locale mechanism allows programmers to deal with certain cultural issues in an application, 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 exception and functions :

5. The choice of `N_()` here is totally arbitrary ; it could have just as easily been `MarkThisStringForTranslation()`.

exception locale.Error

Exception raised when the locale passed to `setlocale()` is not recognized.

locale.setlocale(*category*[, *locale*])

If *locale* is given and not `None`, `setlocale()` modifies the locale setting for the *category*. The available categories are listed in the data description below. *locale* may be a string, or an iterable of two strings (language code and encoding). If it's an iterable, it's converted to a locale name using the locale aliasing engine. An empty string specifies the user's default settings. If the modification of the locale fails, the exception `Error` is raised. If successful, the new locale setting is returned.

If *locale* is omitted or `None`, the current setting for *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.

Modifié dans la version 2.0 : Added support for iterable values of the *locale* parameter.

locale.localeconv()

Returns the database of the local conventions as a dictionary. This dictionary has the following strings as keys :

Category	Key	Signification
<i>LC_NUMERIC</i>	'decimal_point'	Decimal point character.
	'grouping'	Sequence of numbers specifying which relative positions the 'thousands_sep' is expected. If the sequence is terminated with <i>CHAR_MAX</i> , no further grouping is performed. If the sequence terminates with a 0, the last group size is repeatedly used.
	'thousands_sep'	Character used between groups.
<i>LC_MONETARY</i>	'int_curr_symbol'	International currency symbol.
	'currency_symbol'	Local currency symbol.
	'p_cs_precedes/n_cs_precedes'	Whether the currency symbol precedes the value (for positive resp. negative values).
	'p_sep_by_space/n_sep_by_space'	Whether the currency symbol is separated from the value by a space (for positive resp. negative values).
	'mon_decimal_point'	Decimal point used for monetary values.
	'frac_digits'	Number of fractional digits used in local formatting of monetary values.
	'int_frac_digits'	Number of fractional digits used in international formatting of monetary values.
	'mon_thousands_sep'	Group separator used for monetary values.
	'mon_grouping'	Equivalent to 'grouping', used for monetary values.
	'positive_sign'	Symbol used to annotate a positive monetary value.
	'negative_sign'	Symbol used to annotate a negative monetary value.
	'p_sign_posn/n_sign_posn'	The position of the sign (for positive resp. negative values), see below.

All numeric values can be set to *CHAR_MAX* to indicate that there is no value specified in this locale. The possible values for 'p_sign_posn' and 'n_sign_posn' are given below.

Valeur	Explication
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.
<i>CHAR_MAX</i>	Nothing is specified in this locale.

`locale.nl_langinfo(option)`

Return some locale-specific information as a string. This function is not available on all systems, and the set of possible options might also vary across platforms. The possible argument values are numbers, for which symbolic constants are available in the locale module.

The `nl_langinfo()` function accepts one of the following keys. Most descriptions are taken from the corresponding description in the GNU C library.

locale.CODESET

Get a string with the name of the character encoding used in the selected locale.

locale.D_T_FMT

Get a string that can be used as a format string for *time.strftime()* to represent date and time in a locale-specific way.

locale.D_FMT

Get a string that can be used as a format string for *time.strftime()* to represent a date in a locale-specific way.

locale.T_FMT

Get a string that can be used as a format string for *time.strftime()* to represent a time in a locale-specific way.

locale.T_FMT_AMPM

Get a format string for *time.strftime()* to represent time in the am/pm format.

DAY_1 ... DAY_7

Get the name of the n-th day of the week.

Note : This follows the US convention of DAY_1 being Sunday, not the international convention (ISO 8601) that Monday is the first day of the week.

ABDAY_1 ... ABDAY_7

Get the abbreviated name of the n-th day of the week.

MON_1 ... MON_12

Get the name of the n-th month.

ABMON_1 ... ABMON_12

Get the abbreviated name of the n-th month.

locale.RADIXCHAR

Get the radix character (decimal dot, decimal comma, etc.).

locale.THOUSEP

Get the separator character for thousands (groups of three digits).

locale.YESEXPR

Get a regular expression that can be used with the regex function to recognize a positive response to a yes/no question.

Note : The expression is in the syntax suitable for the *regex()* function from the C library, which might differ from the syntax used in *re*.

locale.NOEXPR

Get a regular expression that can be used with the *regex(3)* function to recognize a negative response to a yes/no question.

locale.CRNCYSTR

Get the currency symbol, preceded by « - » if the symbol should appear before the value, « + » if the symbol should appear after the value, or « . » if the symbol should replace the radix character.

locale.ERA

Get a string that represents the era used in the current locale.

Most locales do not define this value. An example of a locale which does define this value is the Japanese one. In Japan, the traditional representation of dates includes the name of the era corresponding to the then-emperor's reign.

Normally it should not be necessary to use this value directly. Specifying the E modifier in their format strings causes the *time.strftime()* function to use this information. The format of the returned string is not specified, and therefore you should not assume knowledge of it on different systems.

`locale.ERA_D_T_FMT`

Get a format string for `time.strftime()` to represent date and time in a locale-specific era-based way.

`locale.ERA_D_FMT`

Get a format string for `time.strftime()` to represent a date in a locale-specific era-based way.

`locale.ERA_T_FMT`

Get a format string for `time.strftime()` to represent a time in a locale-specific era-based way.

`locale.ALT_DIGITS`

Get a representation of up to 100 values used to represent the values 0 to 99.

`locale.getdefaultlocale([envvars])`

Tries to determine the default locale settings and returns them as a tuple of the form (language code, encoding).

According to POSIX, a program which has not called `setlocale(LC_ALL, '')` runs using the portable 'C' locale. Calling `setlocale(LC_ALL, '')` lets it use the default locale as defined by the LANG variable. Since we do not want to interfere with the current locale setting we thus emulate the behavior in the way described above.

To maintain compatibility with other platforms, not only the LANG variable is tested, but a list of variables given as envvars parameter. The first found to be defined will be used. *envvars* defaults to the search path used in GNU gettext; it must always contain the variable name LANG. The GNU gettext search path contains 'LANGUAGE', 'LC_ALL', 'LC_CTYPE', and 'LANG', in that order.

Except for the code 'C', the language code corresponds to [RFC 1766](#). *language code* and *encoding* may be `None` if their values cannot be determined.

Nouveau dans la version 2.0.

`locale.getlocale([category])`

Returns the current setting for the given locale category as sequence containing *language code*, *encoding*. *category* may be one of the LC_* values except `LC_ALL`. It defaults to `LC_CTYPE`.

Except for the code 'C', the language code corresponds to [RFC 1766](#). *language code* and *encoding* may be `None` if their values cannot be determined.

Nouveau dans la version 2.0.

`locale.getpreferredencoding([do_setlocale])`

Return the encoding used for text data, according to user preferences. User preferences are expressed differently on different systems, and might not be available programmatically on some systems, so this function only returns a guess.

On some systems, it is necessary to invoke `setlocale()` to obtain the user preferences, so this function is not thread-safe. If invoking `setlocale` is not necessary or desired, *do_setlocale* should be set to `False`.

Nouveau dans la version 2.3.

`locale.normalize(localename)`

Returns a normalized locale code for the given locale name. The returned locale code is formatted for use with `setlocale()`. If normalization fails, the original name is returned unchanged.

If the given encoding is not known, the function defaults to the default encoding for the locale code just like `setlocale()`.

Nouveau dans la version 2.0.

`locale.resetlocale([category])`

Sets the locale for *category* to the default setting.

The default setting is determined by calling `getdefaultlocale()`. *category* defaults to `LC_ALL`.

Nouveau dans la version 2.0.

`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.

`locale.strxfrm(string)`

Transforms a string to one that can be used for the built-in 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.

`locale.format(format, val[, grouping[, monetary]])`

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.

If *monetary* is true, the conversion uses monetary thousands separator and grouping strings.

Please note that this function will only work for exactly one `%char` specifier. For whole format strings, use `format_string()`.

Modifié dans la version 2.5 : Added the *monetary* parameter.

`locale.format_string(format, val[, grouping])`

Processes formatting specifiers as in `format % val`, but takes the current locale settings into account.

Nouveau dans la version 2.5.

`locale.currency(val[, symbol[, grouping[, international]]])`

Formats a number *val* according to the current `LC_MONETARY` settings.

The returned string includes the currency symbol if *symbol* is true, which is the default. If *grouping* is true (which is not the default), grouping is done with the value. If *international* is true (which is not the default), the international currency symbol is used.

Note that this function will not work with the “C” locale, so you have to set a locale via `setlocale()` first.

Nouveau dans la version 2.5.

`locale.str(float)`

Formats a floating point number using the same format as the built-in function `str(float)`, but takes the decimal point into account.

`locale.atof(string)`

Converts a string to a floating point number, following the `LC_NUMERIC` settings.

`locale.atoi(string)`

Converts a string to an integer, following the `LC_NUMERIC` conventions.

`locale.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.

`locale.LC_COLLATE`

Locale category for sorting strings. The functions `strcoll()` and `strxfrm()` of the `locale` module are affected.

`locale.LC_TIME`

Locale category for the formatting of time. The function `time.strftime()` follows these conventions.

`locale.LC_MONETARY`

Locale category for formatting of monetary values. The available options are available from the `localeconv()` function.

`locale.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 `os.strerror()` might be affected by this category.

locale.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.

locale.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.

locale.CHAR_MAX

This is a symbolic constant used for different values returned by *localeconv()*.

Example :

```
>>> import locale
>>> loc = locale.getlocale() # get current locale
# use German locale; name might vary with platform
>>> locale.setlocale(locale.LC_ALL, 'de_DE')
>>> locale.strcoll('f\xee4n', 'foo') # compare a string containing an umlaut
>>> locale.setlocale(locale.LC_ALL, '') # use user's preferred locale
>>> locale.setlocale(locale.LC_ALL, 'C') # use default (C) locale
>>> locale.setlocale(locale.LC_ALL, loc) # restore saved locale
```

22.2.1 Background, details, hints, tips and caveats

The C standard defines the locale as a program-wide property that may be relatively expensive to change. On top of that, some implementation are broken in such a way that frequent locale changes may cause core dumps. This makes the locale somewhat painful to use correctly.

Initially, when a program is started, the locale is the C locale, no matter what the user's preferred locale is. The program must explicitly say that it wants the user's preferred locale settings by calling *setlocale(LC_ALL, '')*.

It is generally a bad idea to call *setlocale()* in some library routine, since as a side effect it affects the entire program. Saving and restoring it is almost as bad : it is expensive and affects other threads that happen to run before the settings have been restored.

If, when coding a module for general use, you need a locale independent version of an operation that is affected by the locale (such as *string.lower()*, or certain formats used with *time.strftime()*), you will have to find a way to do it without using the standard library routine. Even better is convincing yourself that using locale settings is okay. Only as a last resort should you document that your module is not compatible with non-C locale settings.

The case conversion functions in the *string* module are affected by the locale settings. When a call to the *setlocale()* function changes the *LC_CTYPE* settings, the variables *string.lowercase*, *string.uppercase* and *string.letters* are recalculated. Note that code that uses these variable through "from ... import ...", e.g. *from string import letters*, is not affected by subsequent *setlocale()* calls.

The only way to perform numeric operations according to the locale is to use the special functions defined by this module : *atof()*, *atoi()*, *format()*, *str()*.

22.2.2 For extension writers and programs that embed Python

Extension modules should never call *setlocale()*, except to find out what the current locale is. But since the return value can only be used portably to restore it, that is not very useful (except perhaps to find out whether or not the locale is C).

When Python code uses the `locale` module to change the locale, this also affects the embedding application. If the embedding application doesn't want this to happen, it should remove the `_locale` extension module (which does all the work) from the table of built-in modules in the `config.c` file, and make sure that the `_locale` module is not accessible as a shared library.

22.2.3 Access to message catalogs

```
locale.gettext(msg)
```

```
locale.dgettext(domain, msg)
```

```
locale.dcgettext(domain, msg, category)
```

```
locale.textdomain(domain)
```

```
locale.bindtextdomain(domain, dir)
```

The `locale` module exposes the C library's `gettext` interface on systems that provide this interface. It consists of the functions `gettext()`, `dgettext()`, `dcgettext()`, `textdomain()`, `bindtextdomain()`, and `bind_textdomain_codeset()`. These are similar to the same functions in the `gettext` module, but use the C library's binary format for message catalogs, and the C library's search algorithms for locating message catalogs.

Python applications should normally find no need to invoke these functions, and should use `gettext` instead. A known exception to this rule are applications that link with additional C libraries which internally invoke `gettext()` or `dcgettext()`. For these applications, it may be necessary to bind the text domain, so that the libraries can properly locate their message catalogs.

Les modules décrits dans ce chapitre sont des *frameworks* qui encadreront la structure de vos programmes. Actuellement tous les modules décrits ici sont destinés à écrire des interfaces en ligne de commande.

La liste complète des modules décrits dans ce chapitre est :

23.1 cmd — Interpréteurs en ligne de commande.

Code source : [Lib/cmd.py](#)

La *Cmd* fournit une base simple permettant d'écrire des interpréteurs en ligne de commande. Ceux-ci sont souvent utiles pour piloter des tests, pour des outils administratifs, et pour des prototypes destinés à être intégrés à une interface plus sophistiquée.

```
class cmd.Cmd([completekey[, stdin[, stdout]]])
```

Une instance de *Cmd* ou d'une classe en héritant est un *framework* orienté ligne de commande. Il n'y a pas de bonne raison d'instancier *Cmd* directement. Elle est plutôt utile en tant que classe mère d'une classe-interprète que vous définirez afin d'hériter des méthodes de *Cmd* et d'encapsuler les opérations.

L'argument facultatif *completekey* est le nom *readline* d'une touche de complétion. Si *completekey* ne vaut pas *None* et que *readline* est disponible, la complétion de commandes est faite automatiquement.

Les arguments facultatifs *stdin* et *stdout* spécifient les objets-fichiers de lecture et d'écriture que l'instance de *Cmd* ou d'une classe fille utilisera comme entrée et sortie. Si ces arguments ne sont pas spécifiés, ils prendront comme valeur par défaut *sys.stdin* et *sys.stdout*.

Si vous souhaitez qu'un *stdin* donné soit utilisé, assurez-vous que l'attribut *use_rawinput* de l'instance vaille *False*, faute de quoi *stdin* sera ignoré.

Modifié dans la version 2.3 : The *stdin* and *stdout* parameters were added.

23.1.1 Objets Cmd

Une instance de *Cmd* possède les méthodes suivantes :

`Cmd.cmdloop([intro])`

Affiche une invite de commande de manière répétée, accepte une entrée, soustrait un préfixe initial de l'entrée reçue et envoie aux méthodes d'opération la partie restante de l'entrée reçue.

L'argument facultatif est une bannière ou chaîne de caractères d'introduction à afficher avant la première invite de commande (il redéfinit l'attribut de classe *intro*).

Si le module *readline* est chargé, l'entrée héritera automatiquement d'une édition d'historique similaire à **bash** (Par exemple, **Control-P** reviendra à la dernière commande, **Control-N** avancera à la suivante, **Control-F** déplace le curseur vers la droite, **Control-B** déplace le curseur vers la gauche, etc...).

Une caractère de fin de fichier est transmis via la chaîne de caractères 'EOF'.

Une instance d'un interpréteur reconnaîtra un nom de commande *foo* si et seulement si celle-ci possède une méthode *do_foo()*. Les lignes commençant par le caractère '?' sont un cas particulier : elles sont envoyées à la méthode *do_help()*. Les lignes commençant par le caractère '!' sont également un cas particulier : elles sont envoyées à la méthode *do_shell()* (si une telle méthode est définie).

Cette méthode ne s'arrêtera que lorsque *postcmd()* renverra une valeur vraie. L'argument *stop* de *postcmd()* est la valeur de retour de la méthode *do_**() correspondant à la commande.

Si la complétion est activée, la complétion de commandes sera faite automatiquement ; et la complétion d'arguments sera faite en appelant *complete_foo()* avec les arguments *text*, *line*, *begidx*, et *endidx*. *text* est le préfixe que nous cherchons à faire coïncider : toutes les valeurs renvoyées doivent commencer par ce préfixe. *line* est la ligne d'entrée actuelle sans les espaces blancs de début. *begidx* et *endidx* sont les index de début et de fin du préfixe, ils pourraient être utilisés pour fournir différentes complétions en fonction de la position de l'argument.

Toutes les classes filles de *Cmd* héritent d'une méthode *do_help()* prédéfinie. Cette méthode appellera la méthode *help_bar()* lorsqu'elle est appelée avec un argument 'bar'. Si celle-ci n'est pas définie, elle affichera la *docstring* de *do_bar()*, (si elle a une *docstring*). Sans argument, *do_help()* listera tous les sujets d'aide (c'est à dire, toutes les commandes avec une méthode *help_**() correspondante ou commande ayant une *docstring*, elle lisera aussi les commandes non documentées.

`Cmd.onecmd(str)`

Interprète l'argument comme si il avait été entré en réponse à l'invite de commande. Cette méthode peut être surchargée, mais ne devrait normalement pas avoir besoin de l'être ; voir les méthodes *precmd()* et *postcmd()* pour altérer l'exécution d'une commande. La valeur de retour est un *flag* indiquant si l'interprétation de commandes par l'interpréteur devrait arrêter. S'il existe une méthode *do_**() pour la commande *str*, la valeur de retour de cette méthode est renvoyée. Dans le cas contraire, la valeur de retour de la méthode *default()* est renvoyée.

`Cmd.emptyline()`

Méthode appelée quand une ligne vide est entrée en réponse à l'invite de commande. Si cette méthode n'est pas surchargée, elle répète la dernière commande non-vide entrée.

`Cmd.default(line)`

Méthode appelée lorsque le préfixe de commande d'une ligne entrée n'est pas reconnu. Si cette méthode n'est pas surchargée, elle affiche un message d'erreur et s'arrête.

`Cmd.completedefault(text, line, begidx, endidx)`

Méthode appelée pour compléter une ligne entrée quand aucune méthode *complete_**() spécifique à la commande n'est disponible. Par défaut, elle renvoie une liste vide.

`Cmd.precmd(line)`

Méthode de rappel exécutée juste avant que la ligne de commande *line* ne soit interprétée, mais après que l'invite de commande ait été généré et affiché. Cette méthode existe afin d'être surchargée par des classes filles de *Cmd*. La valeur de retour est utilisée comme la commande qui sera exécutée par la méthode *onecmd()*. L'implémentation de *precmd()* peut réécrire la commande ou simplement renvoyer *line* sans modification.

`Cmd.postcmd(stop, line)`

Méthode de rappel exécutée juste après qu'une commande ait été exécutée. Cette méthode existe afin

d'être surchargée par des classes filles de `Cmd`. *line* est la ligne de commande ayant été exécutée et **stop* est un *flag* indiquant si l'exécution sera terminée après un appel à `postcmd()`. *stop* sera la valeur de retour de `onecmd()`. La valeur de retour de cette méthode sera utilisée comme nouvelle valeur pour le *flag* interne correspondant à *stop*. Renvoyer `False` permettra à l'interprétation de continuer.

Cmd.preloop()

Méthode de rappel exécutée une fois lorsque `cmdloop()` est appelée. Cette méthode existe afin d'être surchargée par des classes filles de `Cmd`.

Cmd.postloop()

Méthode de rappel exécutée une fois lorsque `cmdloop()` va s'arrêter. Cette méthode existe afin d'être surchargée par des classes filles de `Cmd`.

Les instances de classes filles de `Cmd` possèdent des variables d'instance publiques :

Cmd.prompt

L'invite de commande affiché pour solliciter une entrée.

Cmd.identchars

La chaîne de caractères acceptée en tant que préfixe de commande.

Cmd.lastcmd

Le dernier préfixe de commande non-vide vu.

Cmd.cmdqueue

Une liste de lignes entrées en file. La liste `cmdqueue` est vérifiée dans `cmdloop()` lorsqu'une nouvelle entrée est nécessitée ; si elle n'est pas vide, ses éléments seront traités dans l'ordre, comme si ils avaient entrés dans l'invite de commande.

Cmd.intro

Une chaîne de caractères à afficher en introduction ou bannière. Peut être surchargée en passant un argument à la méthode `cmdloop()`.

Cmd.doc_header

L'en-tête à afficher si la sortie de l'aide possède une section pour les commandes documentées.

Cmd.misc_header

L'en-tête à afficher si la sortie de l'aide possède une section pour divers sujets (c'est-à-dire qu'il existe des méthodes `help_*`() sans méthodes `do_*`() correspondantes).

Cmd.undoc_header

L'en-tête à afficher si la sortie de l'aide possède une section pour les commandes non documentées (c'est-à-dire qu'il existe des méthodes `dop_*`() sans méthodes `help_*`() correspondantes).

Cmd.ruler

Le caractère utilisé pour afficher des lignes de séparation sous les en-têtes de messages d'aide. Si il est vide, aucune ligne de séparation n'est affichée. Par défaut, ce caractère vaut '='.

Cmd.use_rawinput

A flag, defaulting to true. If true, `cmdloop()` uses `raw_input()` to display a prompt and read the next command ; if false, `sys.stdout.write()` and `sys.stdin.readline()` are used. (This means that by importing `readline`, on systems that support it, the interpreter will automatically support **Emacs**-like line editing and command-history keystrokes.)

23.2 shlex — Simple lexical analysis

Nouveau dans la version 1.5.2.

Code source : Lib/shlex.py

The `shlex` class makes it easy to write lexical analyzers for simple syntaxes resembling that of the Unix shell. This will often be useful for writing minilanguages, (for example, in run control files for Python applications) or for parsing quoted strings.

Prior to Python 2.7.3, this module did not support Unicode input.

The `shlex` module defines the following functions :

`shlex.split(s[, comments[, posix]])`

Split the string `s` using shell-like syntax. If `comments` is `False` (the default), the parsing of comments in the given string will be disabled (setting the `commenters` attribute of the `shlex` instance to the empty string). This function operates in POSIX mode by default, but uses non-POSIX mode if the `posix` argument is false.

Nouveau dans la version 2.3.

Modifié dans la version 2.6 : Added the `posix` parameter.

Note : Since the `split()` function instantiates a `shlex` instance, passing `None` for `s` will read the string to split from standard input.

The `shlex` module defines the following class :

`class shlex.shlex([instream[, infile[, posix]]])`

A `shlex` instance or subclass instance is a lexical analyzer object. The initialization argument, if present, specifies where to read characters from. It must be a file-/stream-like object with `read()` and `readline()` methods, or a string (strings are accepted since Python 2.3). If no argument is given, input will be taken from `sys.stdin`. The second optional argument is a filename string, which sets the initial value of the `infile` attribute. If the `instream` argument is omitted or equal to `sys.stdin`, this second argument defaults to « `stdin` ». The `posix` argument was introduced in Python 2.3, and defines the operational mode. When `posix` is not true (default), the `shlex` instance will operate in compatibility mode. When operating in POSIX mode, `shlex` will try to be as close as possible to the POSIX shell parsing rules.

Voir aussi :

Module `ConfigParser` Parser for configuration files similar to the Windows `.ini` files.

23.2.1 shlex Objects

A `shlex` instance has the following methods :

`shlex.get_token()`

Return a token. If tokens have been stacked using `push_token()`, pop a token off the stack. Otherwise, read one from the input stream. If reading encounters an immediate end-of-file, `eof` is returned (the empty string `('')` in non-POSIX mode, and `None` in POSIX mode).

`shlex.push_token(str)`

Push the argument onto the token stack.

`shlex.read_token()`

Read a raw token. Ignore the pushback stack, and do not interpret source requests. (This is not ordinarily a useful entry point, and is documented here only for the sake of completeness.)

`shlex.sourcehook(filename)`

When `shlex` detects a source request (see `source` below) this method is given the following token as argument, and expected to return a tuple consisting of a filename and an open file-like object.

Normally, this method first strips any quotes off the argument. If the result is an absolute pathname, or there was no previous source request in effect, or the previous source was a stream (such as `sys.stdin`),

the result is left alone. Otherwise, if the result is a relative pathname, the directory part of the name of the file immediately before it on the source inclusion stack is prepended (this behavior is like the way the C preprocessor handles `#include "file.h"`).

The result of the manipulations is treated as a filename, and returned as the first component of the tuple, with `open()` called on it to yield the second component. (Note : this is the reverse of the order of arguments in instance initialization!)

This hook is exposed so that you can use it to implement directory search paths, addition of file extensions, and other namespace hacks. There is no corresponding “close” hook, but a `shlex` instance will call the `close()` method of the sourced input stream when it returns EOF.

For more explicit control of source stacking, use the `push_source()` and `pop_source()` methods.

`shlex.push_source(stream[, filename])`

Push an input source stream onto the input stack. If the filename argument is specified it will later be available for use in error messages. This is the same method used internally by the `sourcehook()` method.

Nouveau dans la version 2.1.

`shlex.pop_source()`

Pop the last-pushed input source from the input stack. This is the same method used internally when the lexer reaches EOF on a stacked input stream.

Nouveau dans la version 2.1.

`shlex.error_leader([file[, line]])`

This method generates an error message leader in the format of a Unix C compiler error label; the format is `"%s", line %d: '`, where the `%s` is replaced with the name of the current source file and the `%d` with the current input line number (the optional arguments can be used to override these).

This convenience is provided to encourage `shlex` users to generate error messages in the standard, parseable format understood by Emacs and other Unix tools.

Instances of `shlex` subclasses have some public instance variables which either control lexical analysis or can be used for debugging :

`shlex.commenters`

The string of characters that are recognized as comment beginners. All characters from the comment beginner to end of line are ignored. Includes just `'#'` by default.

`shlex.wordchars`

The string of characters that will accumulate into multi-character tokens. By default, includes all ASCII alphanumerics and underscore.

`shlex.whitespace`

Characters that will be considered whitespace and skipped. Whitespace bounds tokens. By default, includes space, tab, linefeed and carriage-return.

`shlex.escape`

Characters that will be considered as escape. This will be only used in POSIX mode, and includes just `'\'` by default.

Nouveau dans la version 2.3.

`shlex.quotes`

Characters that will be considered string quotes. The token accumulates until the same quote is encountered again (thus, different quote types protect each other as in the shell.) By default, includes ASCII single and double quotes.

`shlex.escapedquotes`

Characters in `quotes` that will interpret escape characters defined in `escape`. This is only used in POSIX mode, and includes just `'\"'` by default.

Nouveau dans la version 2.3.

shlex.whitespace_split

If **True**, tokens will only be split in whitespaces. This is useful, for example, for parsing command lines with *shlex*, getting tokens in a similar way to shell arguments.

Nouveau dans la version 2.3.

shlex.infile

The name of the current input file, as initially set at class instantiation time or stacked by later source requests. It may be useful to examine this when constructing error messages.

shlex.instream

The input stream from which this *shlex* instance is reading characters.

shlex.source

This attribute is **None** by default. If you assign a string to it, that string will be recognized as a lexical-level inclusion request similar to the **source** keyword in various shells. That is, the immediately following token will be opened as a filename and input will be taken from that stream until EOF, at which point the *close()* method of that stream will be called and the input source will again become the original input stream. Source requests may be stacked any number of levels deep.

shlex.debug

If this attribute is numeric and 1 or more, a *shlex* instance will print verbose progress output on its behavior. If you need to use this, you can read the module source code to learn the details.

shlex.lineno

Source line number (count of newlines seen so far plus one).

shlex.token

The token buffer. It may be useful to examine this when catching exceptions.

shlex.eof

Token used to determine end of file. This will be set to the empty string (''), in non-POSIX mode, and to **None** in POSIX mode.

Nouveau dans la version 2.3.

23.2.2 Parsing Rules

When operating in non-POSIX mode, *shlex* will try to obey to the following rules.

- Quote characters are not recognized within words (Do"Not"Separate is parsed as the single word Do"Not"Separate);
- Escape characters are not recognized;
- Enclosing characters in quotes preserve the literal value of all characters within the quotes;
- Closing quotes separate words ("Do"Separate is parsed as "Do" and Separate);
- If *whitespace_split* is **False**, any character not declared to be a word character, whitespace, or a quote will be returned as a single-character token. If it is **True**, *shlex* will only split words in whitespaces;
- EOF is signaled with an empty string ('');
- It's not possible to parse empty strings, even if quoted.

When operating in POSIX mode, *shlex* will try to obey to the following parsing rules.

- Quotes are stripped out, and do not separate words ("Do"Not"Separate" is parsed as the single word DoNotSeparate);
- Non-quoted escape characters (e.g. '\') preserve the literal value of the next character that follows;
- Enclosing characters in quotes which are not part of *escapedquotes* (e.g. '"') preserve the literal value of all characters within the quotes;
- Enclosing characters in quotes which are part of *escapedquotes* (e.g. '"') preserves the literal value of all characters within the quotes, with the exception of the characters mentioned in *escape*. The escape characters retain its special meaning only when followed by the quote in use, or the escape character itself. Otherwise the escape character will be considered a normal character.

- EOF is signaled with a *None* value;
- Quoted empty strings (`' '`) are allowed;

Interfaces Utilisateur Graphiques avec Tk

Tk/Tcl has long been an integral part of Python. It provides a robust and platform independent windowing toolkit, that is available to Python programmers using the *Tkinter* module, and its extensions, the *Tix* and the *ttk* modules.

The *Tkinter* module is a thin object-oriented layer on top of Tcl/Tk. To use *Tkinter*, you don't need to write Tcl code, but you will need to consult the Tk documentation, and occasionally the Tcl documentation. *Tkinter* is a set of wrappers that implement the Tk widgets as Python classes. In addition, the internal module `_tkinter` provides a threadsafe mechanism which allows Python and Tcl to interact.

Tkinter's chief virtues are that it is fast, and that it usually comes bundled with Python. Although its standard documentation is weak, good material is available, which includes : references, tutorials, a book and others. *Tkinter* is also famous for having an outdated look and feel, which has been vastly improved in Tk 8.5. Nevertheless, there are many other GUI libraries that you could be interested in. For more information about alternatives, see the *Autres paquets d'interface graphique utilisateur* section.

24.1 Tkinter — Python interface to Tcl/Tk

The *Tkinter* module (« Tk interface ») is the standard Python interface to the Tk GUI toolkit. Both Tk and *Tkinter* are available on most Unix platforms, as well as on Windows systems. (Tk itself is not part of Python; it is maintained at ActiveState.)

Running `python -m Tkinter` from the command line should open a window demonstrating a simple Tk interface, letting you know that *Tkinter* is properly installed on your system, and also showing what version of Tcl/Tk is installed, so you can read the Tcl/Tk documentation specific to that version.

Note : *Tkinter* has been renamed to `tkinter` in Python 3. The *2to3* tool will automatically adapt imports when converting your sources to Python 3.

Voir aussi :

Tkinter documentation :

Python Tkinter Resources The Python Tkinter Topic Guide provides a great deal of information on using Tk from Python and links to other sources of information on Tk.

TKDocs Extensive tutorial plus friendlier widget pages for some of the widgets.

Tkinter reference : a GUI for Python On-line reference material.

Tkinter docs from effbot Online reference for tkinter supported by effbot.org.

Programming Python Book by Mark Lutz, has excellent coverage of Tkinter.

Modern Tkinter for Busy Python Developers Book by Mark Rozerman about building attractive and modern graphical user interfaces with Python and Tkinter.

Python and Tkinter Programming Book by John Grayson (ISBN 1-884777-81-3).

Tcl/Tk documentation :

Tk commands Most commands are available as *Tkinter* or `Tkinter.ttk` classes. Change “8.6” to match the version of your Tcl/Tk installation.

Tcl/Tk recent man pages Recent Tcl/Tk manuals on www.tcl.tk.

ActiveState Tcl Home Page The Tk/Tcl development is largely taking place at ActiveState.

Tcl and the Tk Toolkit Book by John Ousterhout, the inventor of Tcl.

Practical Programming in Tcl and Tk Brent Welch’s encyclopedic book.

24.1.1 Tkinter Modules

Most of the time, the *Tkinter* module is all you really need, but a number of additional modules are available as well. The Tk interface is located in a binary module named `_tkinter`. This module contains the low-level interface to Tk, and should never be used directly by application programmers. It is usually a shared library (or DLL), but might in some cases be statically linked with the Python interpreter.

In addition to the Tk interface module, *Tkinter* includes a number of Python modules. The two most important modules are the *Tkinter* module itself, and a module called `Tkconstants`. The former automatically imports the latter, so to use Tkinter, all you need to do is to import one module :

```
import Tkinter
```

Or, more often :

```
from Tkinter import *
```

```
class Tkinter.Tk(screenName=None, baseName=None, className='Tk', useTk=1)
```

The *Tk* class is instantiated without arguments. This creates a toplevel widget of Tk which usually is the main window of an application. Each instance has its own associated Tcl interpreter.

Modifié dans la version 2.4 : The *useTk* parameter was added.

```
Tkinter.Tcl(screenName=None, baseName=None, className='Tk', useTk=0)
```

The *Tcl()* function is a factory function which creates an object much like that created by the *Tk* class, except that it does not initialize the Tk subsystem. This is most often useful when driving the Tcl interpreter in an environment where one doesn’t want to create extraneous toplevel windows, or where one cannot (such as Unix/Linux systems without an X server). An object created by the *Tcl()* object can have a Toplevel window created (and the Tk subsystem initialized) by calling its `loadtk()` method.

Nouveau dans la version 2.4.

Other modules that provide Tk support include :

ScrolledText Text widget with a vertical scroll bar built in.

`tkColorChooser` Dialog to let the user choose a color.

`tkCommonDialog` Base class for the dialogs defined in the other modules listed here.

tkFileDialog Common dialogs to allow the user to specify a file to open or save.

tkFont Utilities to help work with fonts.

tkMessageBox Access to standard Tk dialog boxes.

tkSimpleDialog Basic dialogs and convenience functions.

Tkdnd Drag-and-drop support for *Tkinter*. This is experimental and should become deprecated when it is replaced with the Tk DND.

turtle Turtle graphics in a Tk window.

These have been renamed as well in Python 3; they were all made submodules of the new **tkinter** package.

24.1.2 Tkinter Life Preserver

This section is not designed to be an exhaustive tutorial on either Tk or Tkinter. Rather, it is intended as a stop gap, providing some introductory orientation on the system.

Credits :

- Tkinter was written by Steen Lumholt and Guido van Rossum.
- Tk was written by John Ousterhout while at Berkeley.
- This Life Preserver was written by Matt Conway at the University of Virginia.
- The html rendering, and some liberal editing, was produced from a FrameMaker version by Ken Manheimer.
- Fredrik Lundh elaborated and revised the class interface descriptions, to get them current with Tk 4.2.
- Mike Clarkson converted the documentation to LaTeX, and compiled the User Interface chapter of the reference manual.

How To Use This Section

This section is designed in two parts : the first half (roughly) covers background material, while the second half can be taken to the keyboard as a handy reference.

When trying to answer questions of the form « how do I do blah », it is often best to find out how to do « blah » in straight Tk, and then convert this back into the corresponding *Tkinter* call. Python programmers can often guess at the correct Python command by looking at the Tk documentation. This means that in order to use Tkinter, you will have to know a little bit about Tk. This document can't fulfill that role, so the best we can do is point you to the best documentation that exists. Here are some hints :

- The authors strongly suggest getting a copy of the Tk man pages. Specifically, the man pages in the **mann** directory are most useful. The **man3** man pages describe the C interface to the Tk library and thus are not especially helpful for script writers.
- Addison-Wesley publishes a book called Tcl and the Tk Toolkit by John Ousterhout (ISBN 0-201-63337-X) which is a good introduction to Tcl and Tk for the novice. The book is not exhaustive, and for many details it defers to the man pages.
- **Tkinter.py** is a last resort for most, but can be a good place to go when nothing else makes sense.

A Simple Hello World Program

```
from Tkinter import *

class Application(Frame):
    def say_hi(self):
        print "hi there, everyone!"

    def createWidgets(self):
        self.QUIT = Button(self)
```

(suite sur la page suivante)

(suite de la page précédente)

```

self.QUIT["text"] = "QUIT"
self.QUIT["fg"]   = "red"
self.QUIT["command"] = self.quit

self.QUIT.pack({"side": "left"})

self.hi_there = Button(self)
self.hi_there["text"] = "Hello",
self.hi_there["command"] = self.say_hi

self.hi_there.pack({"side": "left"})

def __init__(self, master=None):
    Frame.__init__(self, master)
    self.pack()
    self.createWidgets()

root = Tk()
app = Application(master=root)
app.mainloop()
root.destroy()

```

24.1.3 A (Very) Quick Look at Tcl/Tk

The class hierarchy looks complicated, but in actual practice, application programmers almost always refer to the classes at the very bottom of the hierarchy.

Notes :

- These classes are provided for the purposes of organizing certain functions under one namespace. They aren't meant to be instantiated independently.
- The *Tk* class is meant to be instantiated only once in an application. Application programmers need not instantiate one explicitly, the system creates one whenever any of the other classes are instantiated.
- The *Widget* class is not meant to be instantiated, it is meant only for subclassing to make « real » widgets (in C++, this is called an “abstract class”).

To make use of this reference material, there will be times when you will need to know how to read short passages of Tk and how to identify the various parts of a Tk command. (See section *Mapping Basic Tk into Tkinter* for the *Tkinter* equivalents of what's below.)

Tk scripts are Tcl programs. Like all Tcl programs, Tk scripts are just lists of tokens separated by spaces. A Tk widget is just its *class*, the *options* that help configure it, and the *actions* that make it do useful things.

To make a widget in Tk, the command is always of the form :

```
classCommand newPathname options
```

classCommand denotes which kind of widget to make (a button, a label, a menu...)

newPathname is the new name for this widget. All names in Tk must be unique. To help enforce this, widgets in Tk are named with *pathnames*, just like files in a file system. The top level widget, the *root*, is called . (period) and children are delimited by more periods. For example, *.myApp.controlPanel.okButton* might be the name of a widget.

options configure the widget's appearance and in some cases, its behavior. The options come in the form of a list of flags and values. Flags are preceded by a “-“, like Unix shell command flags, and values are put in quotes if they are more than one word.

Par exemple :

```
button .fred -fg red -text "hi there"
  ^      ^      \-----/
  |      |      |
class  new      options
command widget (-opt val -opt val ...)
```

Once created, the pathname to the widget becomes a new command. This new *widget command* is the programmer's handle for getting the new widget to perform some *action*. In C, you'd express this as `someAction(fred, someOptions)`, in C++, you would express this as `fred.someAction(someOptions)`, and in Tk, you say :

```
.fred someAction someOptions
```

Note that the object name, `.fred`, starts with a dot.

As you'd expect, the legal values for *someAction* will depend on the widget's class : `.fred disable` works if fred is a button (fred gets greyed out), but does not work if fred is a label (disabling of labels is not supported in Tk).

The legal values of *someOptions* is action dependent. Some actions, like `disable`, require no arguments, others, like a text-entry box's `delete` command, would need arguments to specify what range of text to delete.

24.1.4 Mapping Basic Tk into Tkinter

Class commands in Tk correspond to class constructors in Tkinter.

```
button .fred          =====> fred = Button()
```

The master of an object is implicit in the new name given to it at creation time. In Tkinter, masters are specified explicitly.

```
button .panel.fred     =====> fred = Button(panel)
```

The configuration options in Tk are given in lists of hyphenated tags followed by values. In Tkinter, options are specified as keyword-arguments in the instance constructor, and keyword-args for `configure` calls or as instance indices, in dictionary style, for established instances. See section [Setting Options](#) on setting options.

```
button .fred -fg red    =====> fred = Button(panel, fg = "red")
.fred configure -fg red =====> fred["fg"] = red
OR ==> fred.config(fg = "red")
```

In Tk, to perform an action on a widget, use the widget name as a command, and follow it with an action name, possibly with arguments (options). In Tkinter, you call methods on the class instance to invoke actions on the widget. The actions (methods) that a given widget can perform are listed in the `Tkinter.py` module.

```
.fred invoke           =====> fred.invoke()
```

To give a widget to the packer (geometry manager), you call `pack` with optional arguments. In Tkinter, the `Pack` class holds all this functionality, and the various forms of the `pack` command are implemented as methods. All widgets in *Tkinter* are subclassed from the `Packer`, and so inherit all the packing methods. See the [Tix](#) module documentation for additional information on the Form geometry manager.

```
pack .fred -side left      =====>  fred.pack(side = "left")
```

24.1.5 How Tk and Tkinter are Related

From the top down :

Your App Here (Python) A Python application makes a *Tkinter* call.

Tkinter (Python Module) This call (say, for example, creating a button widget), is implemented in the *Tkinter* module, which is written in Python. This Python function will parse the commands and the arguments and convert them into a form that makes them look as if they had come from a Tk script instead of a Python script.

tkinter (C) These commands and their arguments will be passed to a C function in the *tkinter* - note the lowercase - extension module.

Tk Widgets (C and Tcl) This C function is able to make calls into other C modules, including the C functions that make up the Tk library. Tk is implemented in C and some Tcl. The Tcl part of the Tk widgets is used to bind certain default behaviors to widgets, and is executed once at the point where the Python *Tkinter* module is imported. (The user never sees this stage).

Tk (C) The Tk part of the Tk Widgets implement the final mapping to ...

Xlib (C) the Xlib library to draw graphics on the screen.

24.1.6 Handy Reference

Setting Options

Options control things like the color and border width of a widget. Options can be set in three ways :

At object creation time, using keyword arguments

```
fred = Button(self, fg = "red", bg = "blue")
```

After object creation, treating the option name like a dictionary index

```
fred["fg"] = "red"
fred["bg"] = "blue"
```

Use the `config()` method to update multiple attrs subsequent to object creation

```
fred.config(fg = "red", bg = "blue")
```

For a complete explanation of a given option and its behavior, see the Tk man pages for the widget in question.

Note that the man pages list « STANDARD OPTIONS » and « WIDGET SPECIFIC OPTIONS » for each widget. The former is a list of options that are common to many widgets, the latter are the options that are idiosyncratic to that particular widget. The Standard Options are documented on the *options(3)* man page.

No distinction between standard and widget-specific options is made in this document. Some options don't apply to some kinds of widgets. Whether a given widget responds to a particular option depends on the class of the widget; buttons have a `command` option, labels do not.

The options supported by a given widget are listed in that widget's man page, or can be queried at runtime by calling the `config()` method without arguments, or by calling the `keys()` method on that widget. The return value of these calls is a dictionary whose key is the name of the option as a string (for example, `'relief'`) and whose values are 5-tuples.

Some options, like `bg` are synonyms for common options with long names (`bg` is shorthand for « background »). Passing the `config()` method the name of a shorthand option will return a 2-tuple, not 5-tuple. The 2-tuple passed back will contain the name of the synonym and the « real » option (such as `('bg', 'background')`).

Index	Signification	Exemple
0	option name	'relief'
1	option name for database lookup	'relief'
2	option class for database lookup	'Relief'
3	Valeur par défaut	'raised'
4	current value	'groove'

Exemple :

```
>>> print fred.config()
{'relief': ('relief', 'relief', 'Relief', 'raised', 'groove')}
```

Of course, the dictionary printed will include all the options available and their values. This is meant only as an example.

The Packer

The packer is one of Tk's geometry-management mechanisms. Geometry managers are used to specify the relative positioning of the positioning of widgets within their container - their mutual *master*. In contrast to the more cumbersome *placer* (which is used less commonly, and we do not cover here), the packer takes qualitative relationship specification - *above*, *to the left of*, *filling*, etc - and works everything out to determine the exact placement coordinates for you.

The size of any *master* widget is determined by the size of the « slave widgets » inside. The packer is used to control where slave widgets appear inside the master into which they are packed. You can pack widgets into frames, and frames into other frames, in order to achieve the kind of layout you desire. Additionally, the arrangement is dynamically adjusted to accommodate incremental changes to the configuration, once it is packed.

Note that widgets do not appear until they have had their geometry specified with a geometry manager. It's a common early mistake to leave out the geometry specification, and then be surprised when the widget is created but nothing appears. A widget will appear only after it has had, for example, the packer's `pack()` method applied to it.

The `pack()` method can be called with keyword-option/value pairs that control where the widget is to appear within its container, and how it is to behave when the main application window is resized. Here are some examples :

```
fred.pack()                                # defaults to side = "top"
fred.pack(side = "left")
fred.pack(expand = 1)
```

Packer Options

For more extensive information on the packer and the options that it can take, see the man pages and page 183 of John Ousterhout's book.

anchor Anchor type. Denotes where the packer is to place each slave in its parcel.

expand Boolean, 0 or 1.

fill Legal values : 'x', 'y', 'both', 'none'.

ipadx and ipady A distance - designating internal padding on each side of the slave widget.

padx and pady A distance - designating external padding on each side of the slave widget.

side Legal values are : 'left', 'right', 'top', 'bottom'.

Coupling Widget Variables

The current-value setting of some widgets (like text entry widgets) can be connected directly to application variables by using special options. These options are **variable**, **textvariable**, **onvalue**, **offvalue**, and **value**. This connection works both ways : if the variable changes for any reason, the widget it's connected to will be updated to reflect the new value.

Unfortunately, in the current implementation of *Tkinter* it is not possible to hand over an arbitrary Python variable to a widget through a **variable** or **textvariable** option. The only kinds of variables for which this works are variables that are subclassed from a class called **Variable**, defined in the *Tkinter* module.

There are many useful subclasses of **Variable** already defined : **StringVar**, **IntVar**, **DoubleVar**, and **BooleanVar**. To read the current value of such a variable, call the **get()** method on it, and to change its value you call the **set()** method. If you follow this protocol, the widget will always track the value of the variable, with no further intervention on your part.

Par exemple :

```
class App(Frame):
    def __init__(self, master=None):
        Frame.__init__(self, master)
        self.pack()

        self.entrythingy = Entry()
        self.entrythingy.pack()

        # here is the application variable
        self.contents = StringVar()
        # set it to some value
        self.contents.set("this is a variable")
        # tell the entry widget to watch this variable
        self.entrythingy["textvariable"] = self.contents

        # and here we get a callback when the user hits return.
        # we will have the program print out the value of the
        # application variable when the user hits return
        self.entrythingy.bind('<Key-Return>',
                               self.print_contents)

    def print_contents(self, event):
        print "hi. contents of entry is now ---->", \
              self.contents.get()
```

The Window Manager

In Tk, there is a utility command, **wm**, for interacting with the window manager. Options to the **wm** command allow you to control things like titles, placement, icon bitmaps, and the like. In *Tkinter*, these commands have been implemented as methods on the **Wm** class. Toplevel widgets are subclassed from the **Wm** class, and so can call the **Wm** methods directly.

To get at the toplevel window that contains a given widget, you can often just refer to the widget's master. Of course if the widget has been packed inside of a frame, the master won't represent a toplevel window.

To get at the toplevel window that contains an arbitrary widget, you can call the `_root()` method. This method begins with an underscore to denote the fact that this function is part of the implementation, and not an interface to Tk functionality.

Here are some examples of typical usage :

```
from Tkinter import *
class App(Frame):
    def __init__(self, master=None):
        Frame.__init__(self, master)
        self.pack()

# create the application
myapp = App()

#
# here are method calls to the window manager class
#
myapp.master.title("My Do-Nothing Application")
myapp.master.maxsize(1000, 400)

# start the program
myapp.mainloop()
```

Tk Option Data Types

anchor Legal values are points of the compass : "n", "ne", "e", "se", "s", "sw", "w", "nw", and also "center".

bitmap There are eight built-in, named bitmaps : 'error', 'gray25', 'gray50', 'hourglass', 'info', 'questhead', 'question', 'warning'. To specify an X bitmap filename, give the full path to the file, preceded with an @, as in "@usr/contrib/bitmap/gumby.bit".

boolean You can pass integers 0 or 1 or the strings "yes" or "no".

callback This is any Python function that takes no arguments. For example :

```
def print_it():
    print "hi there"
fred["command"] = print_it
```

color Colors can be given as the names of X colors in the rgb.txt file, or as strings representing RGB values in 4 bit : "#RGB", 8 bit : "#RRGGBB", 12 bit » "#RRRGGBBB", or 16 bit "#RRRRGGGGBBBB" ranges, where R,G,B here represent any legal hex digit. See page 160 of Ousterhout's book for details.

cursor The standard X cursor names from `cursorfont.h` can be used, without the `XC_` prefix. For example to get a hand cursor (`XC_hand2`), use the string "hand2". You can also specify a bitmap and mask file of your own. See page 179 of Ousterhout's book.

distance Screen distances can be specified in either pixels or absolute distances. Pixels are given as numbers and absolute distances as strings, with the trailing character denoting units : c for centimetres, i for inches, m for millimetres, p for printer's points. For example, 3.5 inches is expressed as "3.5i".

font Tk uses a list font name format, such as {courier 10 bold}. Font sizes with positive numbers are measured in points; sizes with negative numbers are measured in pixels.

geometry This is a string of the form `widthxheight`, where width and height are measured in pixels for most widgets (in characters for widgets displaying text). For example : `fred["geometry"] = "200x100"`.

justify Legal values are the strings : "left", "center", "right", and "fill".

region This is a string with four space-delimited elements, each of which is a legal distance (see above). For example : "2 3 4 5" and "3i 2i 4.5i 2i" and "3c 2c 4c 10.43c" are all legal regions.

relief Determines what the border style of a widget will be. Legal values are : "raised", "sunken", "flat", "groove", and "ridge".

scrollcommand This is almost always the `set()` method of some scrollbar widget, but can be any widget method that takes a single argument. Refer to the file `Demo/tkinter/matt/canvas-with-scrollbars.py` in the Python source distribution for an example.

wrap : Must be one of : "none", "char", or "word".

Bindings and Events

The `bind` method from the widget command allows you to watch for certain events and to have a callback function trigger when that event type occurs. The form of the `bind` method is :

```
def bind(self, sequence, func, add='')
```

where :

sequence is a string that denotes the target kind of event. (See the `bind` man page and page 201 of John Ousterhout's book for details).

func is a Python function, taking one argument, to be invoked when the event occurs. An `Event` instance will be passed as the argument. (Functions deployed this way are commonly known as *callbacks*.)

add is optional, either '' or '+'. Passing an empty string denotes that this binding is to replace any other bindings that this event is associated with. Passing a '+' means that this function is to be added to the list of functions bound to this event type.

Par exemple :

```
def turnRed(self, event):
    event.widget["activeforeground"] = "red"

self.button.bind("<Enter>", self.turnRed)
```

Notice how the `widget` field of the event is being accessed in the `turnRed()` callback. This field contains the widget that caught the X event. The following table lists the other event fields you can access, and how they are denoted in Tk, which can be useful when referring to the Tk man pages.

Tk	Tkinter Event Field	Tk	Tkinter Event Field
--	-----	--	-----
%f	focus	%A	char
%h	height	%E	send_event
%k	keycode	%K	keysym
%s	state	%N	keysym_num
%t	time	%T	type
%w	width	%W	widget
%x	x	%X	x_root
%y	y	%Y	y_root

The index Parameter

A number of widgets require »index« parameters to be passed. These are used to point at a specific place in a `Text` widget, or to particular characters in an `Entry` widget, or to particular menu items in a `Menu` widget.

Entry widget indexes (index, view index, etc.) Entry widgets have options that refer to character positions in the text being displayed. You can use these *Tkinter* functions to access these special points in text widgets :

AtEnd() refers to the last position in the text

AtInsert() refers to the point where the text cursor is

AtSelFirst() indicates the beginning point of the selected text

AtSelLast() denotes the last point of the selected text and finally

At(x[, y]) refers to the character at pixel location *x*, *y* (with *y* not used in the case of a text entry widget, which contains a single line of text).

Text widget indexes The index notation for Text widgets is very rich and is best described in the Tk man pages.

Menu indexes (menu.invoke(), menu.entryconfig(), etc.) Some options and methods for menus manipulate specific menu entries. Anytime a menu index is needed for an option or a parameter, you may pass in :

- an integer which refers to the numeric position of the entry in the widget, counted from the top, starting with 0 ;
- the string 'active', which refers to the menu position that is currently under the cursor ;
- the string "last" which refers to the last menu item ;
- An integer preceded by @, as in @6, where the integer is interpreted as a y pixel coordinate in the menu's coordinate system ;
- the string "none", which indicates no menu entry at all, most often used with menu.activate() to deactivate all entries, and finally,
- a text string that is pattern matched against the label of the menu entry, as scanned from the top of the menu to the bottom. Note that this index type is considered after all the others, which means that matches for menu items labelled last, active, or none may be interpreted as the above literals, instead.

Images

Images of different formats can be created through the corresponding subclass of `Tkinter.Image` :

- `BitmapImage` for images in XBM format.
- `PhotoImage` for images in PGM, PPM, GIF and PNG formats. The latter is supported starting with Tk 8.6.

Either type of image is created through either the `file` or the `data` option (other options are available as well).

The image object can then be used wherever an `image` option is supported by some widget (e.g. labels, buttons, menus). In these cases, Tk will not keep a reference to the image. When the last Python reference to the image object is deleted, the image data is deleted as well, and Tk will display an empty box wherever the image was used.

Voir aussi :

The *Pillow* package adds support for formats such as BMP, JPEG, TIFF, and WebP, among others.

24.1.7 File Handlers

Tk allows you to register and unregister a callback function which will be called from the Tk mainloop when I/O is possible on a file descriptor. Only one handler may be registered per file descriptor. Example code :

```
import Tkinter
widget = Tkinter.Tk()
mask = Tkinter.READABLE | Tkinter.WRITABLE
```

(suite sur la page suivante)

(suite de la page précédente)

```
widget.tk.createfilehandler(file, mask, callback)
...
widget.tk.deletefilehandler(file)
```

This feature is not available on Windows.

Since you don't know how many bytes are available for reading, you may not want to use the *BufferedIOBase* or *TextIOBase* *read()* or *readline()* methods, since these will insist on reading a predefined number of bytes. For sockets, the *recv()* or *recvfrom()* methods will work fine; for other files, use raw reads or *os.read(file.fileno(), maxbytecount)*.

Widget.tk.createfilehandler(*file*, *mask*, *func*)

Registers the file handler callback function *func*. The *file* argument may either be an object with a *fileno()* method (such as a file or socket object), or an integer file descriptor. The *mask* argument is an ORed combination of any of the three constants below. The callback is called as follows :

```
callback(file, mask)
```

Widget.tk.deletefilehandler(*file*)

Unregisters a file handler.

Tkinter.READABLE

Tkinter.WRITABLE

Tkinter.EXCEPTION

Constants used in the *mask* arguments.

24.2 ttk — Tk themed widgets

The *ttk* module provides access to the Tk themed widget set, which has been introduced in Tk 8.5. If Python is not compiled against Tk 8.5 code may still use this module as long as Tk is installed. However, some features provided by the new Tk, like anti-aliased font rendering under X11, window transparency (on X11 you will need a composition window manager) will be missing.

The basic idea of *ttk* is to separate, to the extent possible, the code implementing a widget's behavior from the code implementing its appearance.

Voir aussi :

Tk Widget Styling Support The document which brought up theming support for Tk

24.2.1 Using Ttk

To start using Ttk, import its module :

```
import ttk
```

But code like this :

```
from Tkinter import *
```

may optionally want to use this :

```
from Tkinter import *
from ttk import *
```


And then several *ttk* widgets (`Button`, `Checkbutton`, `Entry`, `Frame`, `Label`, `LabelFrame`, `Menubutton`, `PanedWindow`, `Radiobutton`, `Scale` and `Scrollbar`) will automatically substitute for the Tk widgets.

This has the direct benefit of using the new widgets, giving better look & feel across platforms, but be aware that they are not totally compatible. The main difference is that widget options such as « `fg` », « `bg` » and others related to widget styling are no longer present in Ttk widgets. Use *ttk.Style* to achieve the same (or better) styling.

Voir aussi :

Converting existing applications to use the Tile widgets A text which talks in Tcl terms about differences typically found when converting applications to use the new widgets.

24.2.2 Ttk Widgets

Ttk comes with 17 widgets, 11 of which already exist in Tkinter : `Button`, `Checkbutton`, `Entry`, `Frame`, `Label`, `LabelFrame`, `Menubutton`, `PanedWindow`, `Radiobutton`, `Scale` and `Scrollbar`. The 6 new widget classes are : *Combobox*, *Notebook*, *Progressbar*, `Separator`, `Sizegrip` and *Treeview*. All of these classes are subclasses of *Widget*.

As said previously, you will notice changes in look-and-feel as well in the styling code. To demonstrate the latter, a very simple example is shown below.

Tk code :

```
l1 = Tkinter.Label(text="Test", fg="black", bg="white")
l2 = Tkinter.Label(text="Test", fg="black", bg="white")
```

Corresponding Ttk code :

```
style = ttk.Style()
style.configure("BW.TLabel", foreground="black", background="white")

l1 = ttk.Label(text="Test", style="BW.TLabel")
l2 = ttk.Label(text="Test", style="BW.TLabel")
```

For more information about *TtkStyling* read the *Style* class documentation.

24.2.3 Widget

ttk.Widget defines standard options and methods supported by Tk themed widgets and is not supposed to be directly instantiated.

Standard Options

All the *ttk* widgets accept the following options :

Op- tion	Description
class	Specifies the window class. The class is used when querying the option database for the window's other options, to determine the default bindtags for the window, and to select the widget's default layout and style. This is a read-only option which may only be specified when the window is created.
cursor	Specifies the mouse cursor to be used for the widget. If set to the empty string (the default), the cursor is inherited from the parent widget.
take- fo- cus	Determines whether the window accepts the focus during keyboard traversal. 0, 1 or an empty string is returned. If 0, the window should be skipped entirely during keyboard traversal. If 1, the window should receive the input focus as long as it is viewable. An empty string means that the traversal scripts make the decision about whether or not to focus on the window.
style	May be used to specify a custom widget style.

Scrollable Widget Options

The following options are supported by widgets that are controlled by a scrollbar.

op- tion	description
xs- croll- com- mand	Used to communicate with horizontal scrollbars. When the view in the widget's window changes, the widget will generate a Tcl command based on the scrollcommand. Usually this option consists of the <code>Scrollbar.set()</code> method of some scrollbar. This will cause the scrollbar to be updated whenever the view in the window changes.
ys- croll- com- mand	Used to communicate with vertical scrollbars. For more information, see above.

Label Options

The following options are supported by labels, buttons and other button-like widgets.

option	description
text	Specifies a text string to be displayed inside the widget.
textvariable	Specifies a name whose value will be used in place of the text option resource.
underline	If set, specifies the index (0-based) of a character to underline in the text string. The underline character is used for mnemonic activation.
image	Specifies an image to display. This is a list of 1 or more elements. The first element is the default image name. The rest of the list is a sequence of statespec/value pairs as defined by <i>Style.map()</i> , specifying different images to use when the widget is in a particular state or a combination of states. All images in the list should have the same size.
compound	Specifies how to display the image relative to the text, in the case both text and image options are present. Valid values are : <ul style="list-style-type: none"> — text : display text only — image : display image only — top, bottom, left, right : display image above, below, left of, or right of the text, respectively. — none : the default. display the image if present, otherwise the text.
width	If greater than zero, specifies how much space, in character widths, to allocate for the text label ; if less than zero, specifies a minimum width. If zero or unspecified, the natural width of the text label is used.

Compatibility Options

option	description
state	May be set to « normal » or « disabled » to control the « disabled » state bit. This is a write-only option : setting it changes the widget state, but the <i>Widget.state()</i> method does not affect this option.

Widget States

The widget state is a bitmap of independent state flags.

option	description
active	The mouse cursor is over the widget and pressing a mouse button will cause some action to occur.
disabled	Widget is disabled under program control.
focus	Widget has keyboard focus.
pressed	Widget is being pressed.
selected	« On », « true », or « current » for things like Checkbuttons and radiobuttons.
background	Windows and Mac have a notion of an « active » or foreground window. The <i>background</i> state is set for widgets in a background window, and cleared for those in the foreground window.
readonly	Widget should not allow user modification.
alternate	A widget-specific alternate display format.
invalid	The widget's value is invalid.

A state specification is a sequence of state names, optionally prefixed with an exclamation point indicating that the bit is off.

ttk.Widget

Besides the methods described below, the `ttk.Widget` class supports the `Tkinter.Widget.cget()` and `Tkinter.Widget.configure()` methods.

class `ttk.Widget`

identify(*x*, *y*)

Returns the name of the element at position *x y*, or the empty string if the point does not lie within any element.

x and *y* are pixel coordinates relative to the widget.

instate(*statespec*, *callback*=None, **args*, ***kw*)

Test the widget's state. If a callback is not specified, returns **True** if the widget state matches *statespec* and **False** otherwise. If callback is specified then it is called with *args* if widget state matches *statespec*.

state([*statespec*=None])

Modify or read widget state. If *statespec* is specified, sets the widget state accordingly and returns a new *statespec* indicating which flags were changed. If *statespec* is not specified, returns the currently-enabled state flags.

statespec will usually be a list or a tuple.

24.2.4 Combobox

The `ttk.Combobox` widget combines a text field with a pop-down list of values. This widget is a subclass of `Entry`.

Besides the methods inherited from `Widget` (`Widget.cget()`, `Widget.configure()`, `Widget.identify()`, `Widget.instate()` and `Widget.state()`) and those inherited from `Entry` (`Entry.bbox()`, `Entry.delete()`,

`Entry.icursor()`, `Entry.index()`, `Entry.insert()`, `Entry.selection()`, `Entry.xview()`), this class has some other methods, described at [`ttk.Combobox`](#).

Options

This widget accepts the following options :

option	description
export-selection	Boolean value. If set, the widget selection is linked to the Window Manager selection (which can be returned by invoking <code>Misc.selection_get()</code> , for example).
justify	Specifies how the text is aligned within the widget. One of « left », « center », or « right ».
height	Specifies the height of the pop-down listbox, in rows.
post-command	A script (possibly registered with <code>Misc.register()</code>) that is called immediately before displaying the values. It may specify which values to display.
state	One of « normal », « readonly », or « disabled ». In the « readonly » state, the value may not be edited directly, and the user can only select one of the values from the dropdown list. In the « normal » state, the text field is directly editable. In the « disabled » state, no interaction is possible.
text-variable	Specifies a name whose value is linked to the widget value. Whenever the value associated with that name changes, the widget value is updated, and vice versa. See <code>Tkinter.StringVar</code> .
values	Specifies the list of values to display in the drop-down listbox.
width	Specifies an integer value indicating the desired width of the entry window, in average-size characters of the widget's font.

Virtual events

The combobox widget generates a `<<ComboboxSelected>>` virtual event when the user selects an element from the list of values.

`ttk.Combobox`

```
class ttk.Combobox
```

```
current([newindex=None])
```

If *newindex* is specified, sets the combobox value to the element position *newindex*. Otherwise, returns the index of the current value or -1 if the current value is not in the values list.

```
get()
```

Returns the current value of the combobox.

```
set(value)
```

Sets the value of the combobox to *value*.

24.2.5 Notebook

The Ttk Notebook widget manages a collection of windows and displays a single one at a time. Each child window is associated with a tab, which the user may select to change the currently-displayed window.

Options

This widget accepts the following specific options :

option	description
height	If present and greater than zero, specifies the desired height of the pane area (not including internal padding or tabs). Otherwise, the maximum height of all panes is used.
padding	Specifies the amount of extra space to add around the outside of the notebook. The padding is a list of up to four length specifications : left top right bottom. If fewer than four elements are specified, bottom defaults to top, right defaults to left, and top defaults to left.
width	If present and greater than zero, specifies the desired width of the pane area (not including internal padding). Otherwise, the maximum width of all panes is used.

Tab Options

There are also specific options for tabs :

option	description
state	Either « normal », « disabled » or « hidden ». If « disabled », then the tab is not selectable. If « hidden », then the tab is not shown.
sticky	Specifies how the child window is positioned within the pane area. Value is a string containing zero or more of the characters « n », « s », « e » or « w ». Each letter refers to a side (north, south, east or west) that the child window will stick to, as per the <code>grid()</code> geometry manager.
padding	Specifies the amount of extra space to add between the notebook and this pane. Syntax is the same as for the option padding used by this widget.
text	Specifies a text to be displayed in the tab.
image	Specifies an image to display in the tab. See the option image described in <i>Widget</i> .
compound	Specifies how to display the image relative to the text, in the case both text and image options are present. See <i>Label Options</i> for legal values.
underline	Specifies the index (0-based) of a character to underline in the text string. The underlined character is used for mnemonic activation if <code>Notebook.enable_traversal()</code> is called.

Tab Identifiers

The `tab_id` present in several methods of `ttk.Notebook` may take any of the following forms :

- An integer between zero and the number of tabs.
- The name of a child window.
- A positional specification of the form « @x,y », which identifies the tab.
- The literal string « current », which identifies the currently-selected tab.
- The literal string « end », which returns the number of tabs (only valid for `Notebook.index()`).

Virtual Events

This widget generates a `<<NotebookTabChanged>>` virtual event after a new tab is selected.

ttk.Notebook

```
class ttk.Notebook
```

```
    add(child, **kw)
```

Adds a new tab to the notebook.

If window is currently managed by the notebook but hidden, it is restored to its previous position.

See [Tab Options](#) for the list of available options.

```
    forget(tab_id)
```

Removes the tab specified by *tab_id*, unmaps and unmanages the associated window.

```
    hide(tab_id)
```

Hides the tab specified by *tab_id*.

The tab will not be displayed, but the associated window remains managed by the notebook and its configuration remembered. Hidden tabs may be restored with the [add\(\)](#) command.

```
    identify(x, y)
```

Returns the name of the tab element at position *x*, *y*, or the empty string if none.

```
    index(tab_id)
```

Returns the numeric index of the tab specified by *tab_id*, or the total number of tabs if *tab_id* is the string « end ».

```
    insert(pos, child, **kw)
```

Inserts a pane at the specified position.

pos is either the string « end », an integer index, or the name of a managed child. If *child* is already managed by the notebook, moves it to the specified position.

See [Tab Options](#) for the list of available options.

```
    select([tab_id])
```

Selects the specified *tab_id*.

The associated child window will be displayed, and the previously-selected window (if different) is unmapped. If *tab_id* is omitted, returns the widget name of the currently selected pane.

```
    tab(tab_id, option=None, **kw)
```

Query or modify the options of the specific *tab_id*.

If *kw* is not given, returns a dictionary of the tab option values. If *option* is specified, returns the value of that *option*. Otherwise, sets the options to the corresponding values.

```
    tabs()
```

Returns a list of windows managed by the notebook.

```
    enable_traversal()
```

Enable keyboard traversal for a toplevel window containing this notebook.

This will extend the bindings for the toplevel window containing the notebook as follows :

- **Control-Tab** : selects the tab following the currently selected one.
- **Shift-Control-Tab** : selects the tab preceding the currently selected one.
- **Alt-K** : where *K* is the mnemonic (underlined) character of any tab, will select that tab.

Multiple notebooks in a single toplevel may be enabled for traversal, including nested notebooks. However, notebook traversal only works properly if all panes have the notebook they are in as master.

24.2.6 Progressbar

The [ttk.Progressbar](#) widget shows the status of a long-running operation. It can operate in two modes : determinate mode shows the amount completed relative to the total amount of work to be done, and indeterminate mode provides an animated display to let the user know that something is happening.

Options

This widget accepts the following specific options :

option	description
orient	One of « horizontal » or « vertical ». Specifies the orientation of the progress bar.
length	Specifies the length of the long axis of the progress bar (width if horizontal, height if vertical).
mode	One of « determinate » or « indeterminate ».
maximum	A number specifying the maximum value. Defaults to 100.
value	The current value of the progress bar. In « determinate » mode, this represents the amount of work completed. In « indeterminate » mode, it is interpreted as modulo <i>maximum</i> ; that is, the progress bar completes one « cycle » when its value increases by <i>maximum</i> .
variable	A name which is linked to the option value. If specified, the value of the progress bar is automatically set to the value of this name whenever the latter is modified.
phase	Read-only option. The widget periodically increments the value of this option whenever its value is greater than 0 and, in determinate mode, less than maximum. This option may be used by the current theme to provide additional animation effects.

ttk.Progressbar

class `ttk.Progressbar`

start(`[interval]`)
Begin autoincrement mode : schedules a recurring timer event that calls `Progressbar.step()` every `interval` milliseconds. If omitted, `interval` defaults to 50 milliseconds.

step(`[amount]`)
Increments the progress bar's value by `amount`.
`amount` defaults to 1.0 if omitted.

stop()
Stop autoincrement mode : cancels any recurring timer event initiated by `Progressbar.start()` for this progress bar.

24.2.7 Separator

The `ttk.Separator` widget displays a horizontal or vertical separator bar.

It has no other methods besides the ones inherited from `ttk.Widget`.

Options

This widget accepts the following specific option :

option	description
orient	One of « horizontal » or « vertical ». Specifies the orientation of the separator.

24.2.8 Sizegrip

The `ttk.Sizegrip` widget (also known as a grow box) allows the user to resize the containing toplevel window by pressing and dragging the grip.

This widget has neither specific options nor specific methods, besides the ones inherited from `ttk.Widget`.

Platform-specific notes

- On Mac OS X, toplevel windows automatically include a built-in size grip by default. Adding a `Sizegrip` is harmless, since the built-in grip will just mask the widget.

Bugs

- If the containing toplevel's position was specified relative to the right or bottom of the screen (e.g.), the `Sizegrip` widget will not resize the window.
- This widget supports only « southeast » resizing.

24.2.9 Treeview

The `ttk.Treeview` widget displays a hierarchical collection of items. Each item has a textual label, an optional image, and an optional list of data values. The data values are displayed in successive columns after the tree label.

The order in which data values are displayed may be controlled by setting the widget option `displaycolumns`. The tree widget can also display column headings. Columns may be accessed by number or symbolic names listed in the widget option `columns`. See *Column Identifiers*.

Each item is identified by a unique name. The widget will generate item IDs if they are not supplied by the caller. There is a distinguished root item, named `{}`. The root item itself is not displayed; its children appear at the top level of the hierarchy.

Each item also has a list of tags, which can be used to associate event bindings with individual items and control the appearance of the item.

The Treeview widget supports horizontal and vertical scrolling, according to the options described in *Scrollable Widget Options* and the methods `Treeview.xview()` and `Treeview.yview()`.

Options

This widget accepts the following specific options :

option	description
columns	A list of column identifiers, specifying the number of columns and their names.
displaycolumns	A list of column identifiers (either symbolic or integer indices) specifying which data columns are displayed and the order in which they appear, or the string « #all ».
height	Specifies the number of rows which should be visible. Note : the requested width is determined from the sum of the column widths.
padding	Specifies the internal padding for the widget. The padding is a list of up to four length specifications.
selectmode	Controls how the built-in class bindings manage the selection. One of « extended », « browse » or « none ». If set to « extended » (the default), multiple items may be selected. If « browse », only a single item will be selected at a time. If « none », the selection will not be changed. Note that the application code and tag bindings can set the selection however they wish, regardless of the value of this option.
show	A list containing zero or more of the following values, specifying which elements of the tree to display. — tree : display tree labels in column #0. — headings : display the heading row. The default is « tree headings », i.e., show all elements. Note : Column #0 always refers to the tree column, even if show= »tree » is not specified.

Item Options

The following item options may be specified for items in the insert and item widget commands.

option	description
text	The textual label to display for the item.
image	A Tk Image, displayed to the left of the label.
values	The list of values associated with the item. Each item should have the same number of values as the widget option columns. If there are fewer values than columns, the remaining values are assumed empty. If there are more values than columns, the extra values are ignored.
open	True/False value indicating whether the item's children should be displayed or hidden.
tags	A list of tags associated with this item.

Tag Options

The following options may be specified on tags :

option	description
foreground	Specifies the text foreground color.
background	Specifies the cell or item background color.
font	Specifies the font to use when drawing text.
image	Specifies the item image, in case the item's image option is empty.

Column Identifiers

Column identifiers take any of the following forms :

- A symbolic name from the list of columns option.

- An integer *n*, specifying the *n*th data column.
- A string of the form *#n*, where *n* is an integer, specifying the *n*th display column.

Notes :

- Item's option values may be displayed in a different order than the order in which they are stored.
- Column *#0* always refers to the tree column, even if *show= »tree »* is not specified.

A data column number is an index into an item's option values list ; a display column number is the column number in the tree where the values are displayed. Tree labels are displayed in column *#0*. If option display-columns is not set, then data column *n* is displayed in column *#n+1*. Again, **column *#0* always refers to the tree column.**

Virtual Events

The Treeview widget generates the following virtual events.

event	description
<<TreeviewSelect>>	Generated whenever the selection changes.
<<TreeviewOpen>>	Generated just before settings the focus item to <i>open=True</i> .
<<TreeviewClose>>	Generated just after setting the focus item to <i>open=False</i> .

The *Treeview.focus()* and *Treeview.selection()* methods can be used to determine the affected item or items.

ttk.Treeview

class `ttk.Treeview`

bbox(*item*, *column=None*)

Returns the bounding box (relative to the treeview widget's window) of the specified *item* in the form (x, y, width, height).

If *column* is specified, returns the bounding box of that cell. If the *item* is not visible (i.e., if it is a descendant of a closed item or is scrolled offscreen), returns an empty string.

get_children([*item*])

Returns the list of children belonging to *item*.

If *item* is not specified, returns root children.

set_children(*item*, **newchildren*)

Replaces *item*'s child with *newchildren*.

Children present in *item* that are not present in *newchildren* are detached from the tree. No items in *newchildren* may be an ancestor of *item*. Note that not specifying *newchildren* results in detaching *item*'s children.

column(*column*, *option=None*, ***kw*)

Query or modify the options for the specified *column*.

If *kw* is not given, returns a dict of the column option values. If *option* is specified then the value for that *option* is returned. Otherwise, sets the options to the corresponding values.

The valid options/values are :

- **id** Returns the column name. This is a read-only option.
- **anchor : One of the standard Tk anchor values.** Specifies how the text in this column should be aligned with respect to the cell.
- **minwidth : width** The minimum width of the column in pixels. The treeview widget will not make the column any smaller than specified by this option when the widget is resized or the user drags a column.
- **stretch : True/False** Specifies whether the column's width should be adjusted when the widget is resized.
- **width : width** The width of the column in pixels.

To configure the tree column, call this with `column = « #0 »`

delete(**items*)
Delete all specified *items* and all their descendants.
The root item may not be deleted.

detach(**items*)
Unlinks all of the specified *items* from the tree.
The items and all of their descendants are still present, and may be reinserted at another point in the tree, but will not be displayed.
The root item may not be detached.

exists(*item*)
Returns **True** if the specified *item* is present in the tree.

focus([*item=None*])
If *item* is specified, sets the focus item to *item*. Otherwise, returns the current focus item, or “” if there is none.

heading(*column*, *option=None*, ***kw*)
Query or modify the heading options for the specified *column*.
If *kw* is not given, returns a dict of the heading option values. If *option* is specified then the value for that *option* is returned. Otherwise, sets the options to the corresponding values.
The valid options/values are :
— **text : text** The text to display in the column heading.
— **image : imageName** Specifies an image to display to the right of the column heading.
— **anchor : anchor** Specifies how the heading text should be aligned. One of the standard Tk anchor values.
— **command : callback** A callback to be invoked when the heading label is pressed.
To configure the tree column heading, call this with `column = « #0 »`.

identify(*component*, *x*, *y*)
Returns a description of the specified *component* under the point given by *x* and *y*, or the empty string if no such *component* is present at that position.

identify_row(*y*)
Returns the item ID of the item at position *y*.

identify_column(*x*)
Returns the data column identifier of the cell at position *x*.
The tree column has ID `#0`.

identify_region(*x*, *y*)
Returns one of :

region	meaning
heading	Tree heading area.
separator	Space between two columns headings.
tree	The tree area.
cell	A data cell.

Availability : Tk 8.6.

identify_element(*x*, *y*)
Returns the element at position *x*, *y*.
Availability : Tk 8.6.

index(*item*)
Returns the integer index of *item* within its parent’s list of children.

insert(*parent*, *index*, *iid=None*, ***kw*)
Creates a new item and returns the item identifier of the newly created item.
parent is the item ID of the parent item, or the empty string to create a new top-level item. *index* is an integer, or the value « end », specifying where in the list of parent’s children to insert the

new item. If *index* is less than or equal to zero, the new node is inserted at the beginning; if *index* is greater than or equal to the current number of children, it is inserted at the end. If *iid* is specified, it is used as the item identifier; *iid* must not already exist in the tree. Otherwise, a new unique identifier is generated.

See [Item Options](#) for the list of available points.

item(*item*[, *option*[, ***kw*]])

Query or modify the options for the specified *item*.

If no options are given, a dict with options/values for the item is returned. If *option* is specified then the value for that option is returned. Otherwise, sets the options to the corresponding values as given by *kw*.

move(*item*, *parent*, *index*)

Moves *item* to position *index* in *parent*'s list of children.

It is illegal to move an item under one of its descendants. If *index* is less than or equal to zero, *item* is moved to the beginning; if greater than or equal to the number of children, it is moved to the end. If *item* was detached it is reattached.

next(*item*)

Returns the identifier of *item*'s next sibling, or "" if *item* is the last child of its parent.

parent(*item*)

Returns the ID of the parent of *item*, or "" if *item* is at the top level of the hierarchy.

prev(*item*)

Returns the identifier of *item*'s previous sibling, or "" if *item* is the first child of its parent.

reattach(*item*, *parent*, *index*)

An alias for [Treeview.move\(\)](#).

see(*item*)

Ensure that *item* is visible.

Sets all of *item*'s ancestors open option to **True**, and scrolls the widget if necessary so that *item* is within the visible portion of the tree.

selection([*selop*=None[, *items*=None]])

If *selop* is not specified, returns selected items. Otherwise, it will act according to the following selection methods.

selection_set(*items*)

items becomes the new selection.

selection_add(*items*)

Add *items* to the selection.

selection_remove(*items*)

Remove *items* from the selection.

selection_toggle(*items*)

Toggle the selection state of each item in *items*.

set(*item*, *column*=None, *value*=None)

With one argument, returns a dictionary of column/value pairs for the specified *item*. With two arguments, returns the current value of the specified *column*. With three arguments, sets the value of given *column* in given *item* to the specified *value*.

tag_bind(*tagname*, *sequence*=None, *callback*=None)

Bind a callback for the given event *sequence* to the tag *tagname*. When an event is delivered to an item, the callbacks for each of the item's tags option are called.

tag_configure(*tagname*, *option*=None, ***kw*)

Query or modify the options for the specified *tagname*.

If *kw* is not given, returns a dict of the option settings for *tagname*. If *option* is specified, returns the value for that *option* for the specified *tagname*. Otherwise, sets the options to the corresponding values for the given *tagname*.

`tag_has(tagname[, item])`

If *item* is specified, returns 1 or 0 depending on whether the specified *item* has the given *tagname*. Otherwise, returns a list of all items that have the specified tag.

Availability : Tk 8.6

`xview(*args)`

Query or modify horizontal position of the treeview.

`yview(*args)`

Query or modify vertical position of the treeview.

24.2.10 Ttk Styling

Each widget in *ttk* is assigned a style, which specifies the set of elements making up the widget and how they are arranged, along with dynamic and default settings for element options. By default the style name is the same as the widget's class name, but it may be overridden by the widget's style option. If the class name of a widget is unknown, use the method `Misc.winfo_class()` (`somewidget.winfo_class()`).

Voir aussi :

Tcl'2004 conference presentation This document explains how the theme engine works

`class ttk.Style`

This class is used to manipulate the style database.

`configure(style, query_opt=None, **kw)`

Query or set the default value of the specified option(s) in *style*.

Each key in *kw* is an option and each value is a string identifying the value for that option.

For example, to change every default button to be a flat button with some padding and a different background color do :

```
import ttk
import Tkinter

root = Tkinter.Tk()

ttk.Style().configure("TButton", padding=6, relief="flat",
                     background="#ccc")

btn = ttk.Button(text="Sample")
btn.pack()

root.mainloop()
```

`map(style, query_opt=None, **kw)`

Query or sets dynamic values of the specified option(s) in *style*.

Each key in *kw* is an option and each value should be a list or a tuple (usually) containing statespecs grouped in tuples, lists, or something else of your preference. A statespec is a compound of one or more states and then a value.

Un exemple :

```
import Tkinter
import ttk

root = Tkinter.Tk()

style = ttk.Style()
```

(suite sur la page suivante)

(suite de la page précédente)

```

style.map("C.TButton",
    foreground=[('pressed', 'red'), ('active', 'blue')],
    background=[('pressed', '!disabled', 'black'), ('active', 'white')]
)

colored_btn = ttk.Button(text="Test", style="C.TButton").pack()

root.mainloop()

```

Note that the order of the (states, value) sequences for an option matters. In the previous example, if you change the order to [('active', 'blue'), ('pressed', 'red')] in the foreground option, for example, you would get a blue foreground when the widget is in the active or pressed states.

lookup(*style*, *option*, *state*=None, *default*=None)

Returns the value specified for *option* in *style*.

If *state* is specified, it is expected to be a sequence of one or more states. If the *default* argument is set, it is used as a fallback value in case no specification for option is found.

To check what font a Button uses by default, do :

```

import ttk

print ttk.Style().lookup("TButton", "font")

```

layout(*style*, *layouts spec*=None)

Define the widget layout for given *style*. If *layouts spec* is omitted, return the layout specification for given style.

layouts spec, if specified, is expected to be a list or some other sequence type (excluding strings), where each item should be a tuple and the first item is the layout name and the second item should have the format described in [Layouts](#).

To understand the format, see the following example (it is not intended to do anything useful) :

```

import ttk
import Tkinter

root = Tkinter.Tk()

style = ttk.Style()
style.layout("TMenubutton", [
    ("Menubutton.background", None),
    ("Menubutton.button", {"children":
        [("Menubutton.focus", {"children":
            [("Menubutton.padding", {"children":
                [("Menubutton.label", {"side": "left", "expand": 1})]
            })]
        })]
    })],
])

mbtn = ttk.Menubutton(text='Text')
mbtn.pack()
root.mainloop()

```

element_create(*elementname*, *etype*, **args*, ***kw*)

Create a new element in the current theme, of the given *etype* which is expected to be either

« image », « from » or « vsapi ». The latter is only available in Tk 8.6a for Windows XP and Vista and is not described here.

If « image » is used, *args* should contain the default image name followed by statespec/value pairs (this is the imagespec), and *kw* may have the following options :

- **border=padding** padding is a list of up to four integers, specifying the left, top, right, and bottom borders, respectively.
- **height=height** Specifies a minimum height for the element. If less than zero, the base image's height is used as a default.
- **padding=padding** Specifies the element's interior padding. Defaults to border's value if not specified.
- **sticky=spec** Specifies how the image is placed within the final parcel. spec contains zero or more characters « n », « s », « w », or « e ».
- **width=width** Specifies a minimum width for the element. If less than zero, the base image's width is used as a default.

If « from » is used as the value of *etype*, *element_create()* will clone an existing element. *args* is expected to contain a themename, from which the element will be cloned, and optionally an element to clone from. If this element to clone from is not specified, an empty element will be used. *kw* is discarded.

element_names()

Returns the list of elements defined in the current theme.

element_options(*elementname*)

Returns the list of *elementname*'s options.

theme_create(*themename*, *parent=None*, *settings=None*)

Create a new theme.

It is an error if *themename* already exists. If *parent* is specified, the new theme will inherit styles, elements and layouts from the parent theme. If *settings* are present they are expected to have the same syntax used for *theme_settings()*.

theme_settings(*themename*, *settings*)

Temporarily sets the current theme to *themename*, apply specified *settings* and then restore the previous theme.

Each key in *settings* is a style and each value may contain the keys “configure”, “map”, “layout” and “element create” and they are expected to have the same format as specified by the methods *Style.configure()*, *Style.map()*, *Style.layout()* and *Style.element_create()* respectively. As an example, let's change the Combobox for the default theme a bit :

```
import ttk
import Tkinter

root = Tkinter.Tk()

style = ttk.Style()
style.theme_settings("default", {
    "TCombobox": {
        "configure": {"padding": 5},
        "map": {
            "background": [("active", "green2"),
                           ("!disabled", "green4")],
            "fieldbackground": [("!disabled", "green3")],
            "foreground": [("focus", "OliveDrab1"),
                           ("!disabled", "OliveDrab2")]
        }
    }
})
```

(suite sur la page suivante)

(suite de la page précédente)

```

}))

combo = ttk.Combobox().pack()

root.mainloop()

```

theme_names()

Returns a list of all known themes.

theme_use([themename])If *themename* is not given, returns the theme in use. Otherwise, sets the current theme to *themename*, refreshes all widgets and emits a <<ThemeChanged>> event.**Layouts**

A layout can be just `None`, if it takes no options, or a dict of options specifying how to arrange the element. The layout mechanism uses a simplified version of the pack geometry manager : given an initial cavity, each element is allocated a parcel. Valid options/values are :

- **side : whichside** Specifies which side of the cavity to place the element ; one of top, right, bottom or left. If omitted, the element occupies the entire cavity.
- **sticky : nswe** Specifies where the element is placed inside its allocated parcel.
- **unit : 0 or 1** If set to 1, causes the element and all of its descendants to be treated as a single element for the purposes of *Widget.identify()* et al. It's used for things like scrollbar thumbs with grips.
- **children : [sublayout...]** Specifies a list of elements to place inside the element. Each element is a tuple (or other sequence type) where the first item is the layout name, and the other is a *Layout*.

24.3 Tix — Extension widgets for Tk

The *Tix* (Tk Interface Extension) module provides an additional rich set of widgets. Although the standard Tk library has many useful widgets, they are far from complete. The *Tix* library provides most of the commonly needed widgets that are missing from standard Tk : *HList*, *ComboBox*, *Control* (a.k.a. *SpinBox*) and an assortment of scrollable widgets. *Tix* also includes many more widgets that are generally useful in a wide range of applications : *NoteBook*, *FileEntry*, *PanedWindow*, etc ; there are more than 40 of them.

With all these new widgets, you can introduce new interaction techniques into applications, creating more useful and more intuitive user interfaces. You can design your application by choosing the most appropriate widgets to match the special needs of your application and users.

Note : *Tix* has been renamed to `tkinter.tix` in Python 3. The *2to3* tool will automatically adapt imports when converting your sources to Python 3.

Voir aussi :

Tix Homepage The home page for *Tix*. This includes links to additional documentation and downloads.

Tix Man Pages On-line version of the man pages and reference material.

Tix Programming Guide On-line version of the programmer's reference material.

Tix Development Applications Tix applications for development of Tix and Tkinter programs. Tide applications work under Tk or Tkinter, and include **TixInspect**, an inspector to remotely modify and debug Tix/Tk/Tkinter applications.

24.3.1 Using Tix

class `Tix.Tix`(*screenName*[, *baseName*[, *className*]])

Toplevel widget of Tix which represents mostly the main window of an application. It has an associated Tcl interpreter.

Classes in the *Tix* module subclasses the classes in the *Tkinter* module. The former imports the latter, so to use *Tix* with Tkinter, all you need to do is to import one module. In general, you can just import *Tix*, and replace the toplevel call to *Tkinter.Tk* with *Tix.Tk* :

```
import Tix
from Tkconstants import *
root = Tix.Tk()
```

To use *Tix*, you must have the *Tix* widgets installed, usually alongside your installation of the Tk widgets. To test your installation, try the following :

```
import Tix
root = Tix.Tk()
root.tk.eval('package require Tix')
```

If this fails, you have a Tk installation problem which must be resolved before proceeding. Use the environment variable `TIX_LIBRARY` to point to the installed *Tix* library directory, and make sure you have the dynamic object library (`tix8183.dll` or `libtix8183.so`) in the same directory that contains your Tk dynamic object library (`tk8183.dll` or `libtk8183.so`). The directory with the dynamic object library should also have a file called `pkgIndex.tcl` (case sensitive), which contains the line :

```
package ifneeded Tix 8.1 [list load "[file join $dir tix8183.dll]" Tix]
```

24.3.2 Tix Widgets

Tix introduces over 40 widget classes to the *Tkinter* repertoire. There is a demo of all the *Tix* widgets in the `Demo/tix` directory of the standard distribution.

Basic Widgets

class `Tix.Balloon`

A *Balloon* that pops up over a widget to provide help. When the user moves the cursor inside a widget to which a *Balloon* widget has been bound, a small pop-up window with a descriptive message will be shown on the screen.

class `Tix.ButtonBox`

The *ButtonBox* widget creates a box of buttons, such as is commonly used for `Ok Cancel`.

class `Tix.ComboBox`

The *ComboBox* widget is similar to the combo box control in MS Windows. The user can select a choice by either typing in the entry subwidget or selecting from the listbox subwidget.

class `Tix.Control`

The *Control* widget is also known as the *SpinBox* widget. The user can adjust the value by pressing the two arrow buttons or by entering the value directly into the entry. The new value will be checked against the user-defined upper and lower limits.

class `Tix.LabelEntry`

The *LabelEntry* widget packages an entry widget and a label into one mega widget. It can be used to simplify the creation of « entry-form » type of interface.

class Tix.LabelFrame

The `LabelFrame` widget packages a frame widget and a label into one mega widget. To create widgets inside a `LabelFrame` widget, one creates the new widgets relative to the `frame` subwidget and manage them inside the `frame` subwidget.

class Tix.Meter

The `Meter` widget can be used to show the progress of a background job which may take a long time to execute.

class Tix.OptionMenu

The `OptionMenu` creates a menu button of options.

class Tix.PopupMenu

The `PopupMenu` widget can be used as a replacement of the `tk_popup` command. The advantage of the *Tix PopupMenu* widget is it requires less application code to manipulate.

class Tix.Select

The `Select` widget is a container of button subwidgets. It can be used to provide radio-box or check-box style of selection options for the user.

class Tix.StdButtonBox

The `StdButtonBox` widget is a group of standard buttons for Motif-like dialog boxes.

File Selectors**class Tix.DirList**

The `DirList` widget displays a list view of a directory, its previous directories and its sub-directories. The user can choose one of the directories displayed in the list or change to another directory.

class Tix.DirTree

The `DirTree` widget displays a tree view of a directory, its previous directories and its sub-directories. The user can choose one of the directories displayed in the list or change to another directory.

class Tix.DirSelectDialog

The `DirSelectDialog` widget presents the directories in the file system in a dialog window. The user can use this dialog window to navigate through the file system to select the desired directory.

class Tix.DirSelectBox

The *DirSelectBox* is similar to the standard Motif(TM) directory-selection box. It is generally used for the user to choose a directory. `DirSelectBox` stores the directories mostly recently selected into a `ComboBox` widget so that they can be quickly selected again.

class Tix.ExFileSelectBox

The `ExFileSelectBox` widget is usually embedded in a `tixExFileSelectDialog` widget. It provides a convenient method for the user to select files. The style of the *ExFileSelectBox* widget is very similar to the standard file dialog on MS Windows 3.1.

class Tix.FileSelectBox

The `FileSelectBox` is similar to the standard Motif(TM) file-selection box. It is generally used for the user to choose a file. `FileSelectBox` stores the files mostly recently selected into a *ComboBox* widget so that they can be quickly selected again.

class Tix.FileEntry

The `FileEntry` widget can be used to input a filename. The user can type in the filename manually. Alternatively, the user can press the button widget that sits next to the entry, which will bring up a file selection dialog.

Hierarchical ListBox

`class Tix.HList`

The `HList` widget can be used to display any data that have a hierarchical structure, for example, file system directory trees. The list entries are indented and connected by branch lines according to their places in the hierarchy.

`class Tix.CheckList`

The `CheckList` widget displays a list of items to be selected by the user. `CheckList` acts similarly to the Tk `checkboxbutton` or `radiobutton` widgets, except it is capable of handling many more items than `checkboxbuttons` or `radiobuttons`.

`class Tix.Tree`

The `Tree` widget can be used to display hierarchical data in a tree form. The user can adjust the view of the tree by opening or closing parts of the tree.

Tabular ListBox

`class Tix.TList`

The `TList` widget can be used to display data in a tabular format. The list entries of a `TList` widget are similar to the entries in the Tk `listbox` widget. The main differences are (1) the `TList` widget can display the list entries in a two dimensional format and (2) you can use graphical images as well as multiple colors and fonts for the list entries.

Manager Widgets

`class Tix.PanedWindow`

The `PanedWindow` widget allows the user to interactively manipulate the sizes of several panes. The panes can be arranged either vertically or horizontally. The user changes the sizes of the panes by dragging the resize handle between two panes.

`class Tix.ListNoteBook`

The `ListNoteBook` widget is very similar to the `TixNoteBook` widget : it can be used to display many windows in a limited space using a notebook metaphor. The notebook is divided into a stack of pages (windows). At one time only one of these pages can be shown. The user can navigate through these pages by choosing the name of the desired page in the `hlist` subwidget.

`class Tix.NoteBook`

The `NoteBook` widget can be used to display many windows in a limited space using a notebook metaphor. The notebook is divided into a stack of pages. At one time only one of these pages can be shown. The user can navigate through these pages by choosing the visual « tabs » at the top of the `NoteBook` widget.

Image Types

The `Tix` module adds :

- `pixmap` capabilities to all `Tix` and `Tkinter` widgets to create color images from XPM files.
- `Compound` image types can be used to create images that consists of multiple horizontal lines ; each line is composed of a series of items (texts, bitmaps, images or spaces) arranged from left to right. For example, a compound image can be used to display a bitmap and a text string simultaneously in a Tk `Button` widget.

Miscellaneous Widgets

`class Tix.InputOnly`

The `InputOnly` widgets are to accept inputs from the user, which can be done with the `bind` command (Unix only).

Form Geometry Manager

In addition, *Tix* augments *Tkinter* by providing :

`class Tix.Form`

The *Form* geometry manager based on attachment rules for all Tk widgets.

24.3.3 Tix Commands

`class Tix.tixCommand`

The *tix commands* provide access to miscellaneous elements of *Tix*'s internal state and the *Tix* application context. Most of the information manipulated by these methods pertains to the application as a whole, or to a screen or display, rather than to a particular window.

To view the current settings, the common usage is :

```
import Tix
root = Tix.Tk()
print root.tix_configure()
```

`tixCommand.tix_configure(cnf=None **kw)`

Query or modify the configuration options of the *Tix* application context. If no option is specified, returns a dictionary all of the available options. If option is specified with no value, then the method returns a list describing the one named option (this list will be identical to the corresponding sublist of the value returned if no option is specified). If one or more option-value pairs are specified, then the method modifies the given option(s) to have the given value(s); in this case the method returns an empty string. Option may be any of the configuration options.

`tixCommand.tix_cget(option)`

Returns the current value of the configuration option given by *option*. Option may be any of the configuration options.

`tixCommand.tix_getbitmap(name)`

Locates a bitmap file of the name *name.xpm* or *name* in one of the bitmap directories (see the *tix_addbitmapdir()* method). By using *tix_getbitmap()*, you can avoid hard coding the pathnames of the bitmap files in your application. When successful, it returns the complete pathname of the bitmap file, prefixed with the character `@`. The returned value can be used to configure the *bitmap* option of the Tk and Tix widgets.

`tixCommand.tix_addbitmapdir(directory)`

Tix maintains a list of directories under which the *tix_getimage()* and *tix_getbitmap()* methods will search for image files. The standard bitmap directory is `$TIX_LIBRARY/bitmaps`. The *tix_addbitmapdir()* method adds *directory* into this list. By using this method, the image files of an applications can also be located using the *tix_getimage()* or *tix_getbitmap()* method.

`tixCommand.tix_filedialog([dlgclass])`

Returns the file selection dialog that may be shared among different calls from this application. This method will create a file selection dialog widget when it is called the first time. This dialog will be returned by all subsequent calls to *tix_filedialog()*. An optional *dlgclass* parameter can be passed as a string to specified what type of file selection dialog widget is desired. Possible options are *tix*, *FileSelectDialog* or *tixExFileSelectDialog*.

`tixCommand.tix_getimage(self, name)`

Locates an image file of the name *name.xpm*, *name.xbm* or *name.ppm* in one of the bitmap directories (see the *tix_addbitmapdir()* method above). If more than one file with the same name (but different extensions) exist, then the image type is chosen according to the depth of the X display : *xbm* images are chosen on monochrome displays and color images are chosen on color displays. By using *tix_getimage()*, you can avoid hard coding the pathnames of the image files in your application.

When successful, this method returns the name of the newly created image, which can be used to configure the `image` option of the Tk and Tix widgets.

`tixCommand.tix_option_get(name)`

Gets the options maintained by the Tix scheme mechanism.

`tixCommand.tix_resetoptions(newScheme, newFontSet[, newScmPrio])`

Resets the scheme and fontset of the Tix application to *newScheme* and *newFontSet*, respectively. This affects only those widgets created after this call. Therefore, it is best to call the `resetoptions` method before the creation of any widgets in a Tix application.

The optional parameter *newScmPrio* can be given to reset the priority level of the Tk options set by the Tix schemes.

Because of the way Tk handles the X option database, after Tix has been imported and initied, it is not possible to reset the color schemes and font sets using the `tix_config()` method. Instead, the `tix_resetoptions()` method must be used.

24.4 ScrolledText — Scrolled Text Widget

The *ScrolledText* module provides a class of the same name which implements a basic text widget which has a vertical scroll bar configured to do the « right thing. » Using the `ScrolledText` class is a lot easier than setting up a text widget and scroll bar directly. The constructor is the same as that of the `Tkinter.Text` class.

Note : *ScrolledText* has been renamed to `tkinter.scrolledtext` in Python 3. The *2to3* tool will automatically adapt imports when converting your sources to Python 3.

The text widget and scrollbar are packed together in a `Frame`, and the methods of the `Grid` and `Pack` geometry managers are acquired from the `Frame` object. This allows the `ScrolledText` widget to be used directly to achieve most normal geometry management behavior.

Si un contrôle plus fin est nécessaire, les attributs suivants sont disponibles :

`ScrolledText.frame`

Le cadre (objet *Frame*) qui englobe le gadget texte et le gadget de la barre de défilement.

`ScrolledText.vbar`

Le gadget de la barre de défilement.

24.5 turtle — Turtle graphics for Tk

24.5.1 Introduction

Turtle graphics is a popular way for introducing programming to kids. It was part of the original Logo programming language developed by Wally Feurzig and Seymour Papert in 1966.

Imagine a robotic turtle starting at (0, 0) in the x-y plane. After an `import turtle`, give it the command `turtle.forward(15)`, and it moves (on-screen!) 15 pixels in the direction it is facing, drawing a line as it moves. Give it the command `turtle.right(25)`, and it rotates in-place 25 degrees clockwise.

By combining together these and similar commands, intricate shapes and pictures can easily be drawn.

The *turtle* module is an extended reimplementaion of the same-named module from the Python standard distribution up to version Python 2.5.

It tries to keep the merits of the old turtle module and to be (nearly) 100% compatible with it. This means in the first place to enable the learning programmer to use all the commands, classes and methods interactively when using the module from within IDLE run with the `-n` switch.

The turtle module provides turtle graphics primitives, in both object-oriented and procedure-oriented ways. Because it uses *Tkinter* for the underlying graphics, it needs a version of Python installed with Tk support.

The object-oriented interface uses essentially two+two classes :

1. The *TurtleScreen* class defines graphics windows as a playground for the drawing turtles. Its constructor needs a *Tkinter.Canvas* or a *ScrolledCanvas* as argument. It should be used when *turtle* is used as part of some application.

The function *Screen()* returns a singleton object of a *TurtleScreen* subclass. This function should be used when *turtle* is used as a standalone tool for doing graphics. As a singleton object, inheriting from its class is not possible.

All methods of *TurtleScreen*/*Screen* also exist as functions, i.e. as part of the procedure-oriented interface.

2. *RawTurtle* (alias : *RawPen*) defines Turtle objects which draw on a *TurtleScreen*. Its constructor needs a *Canvas*, *ScrolledCanvas* or *TurtleScreen* as argument, so the *RawTurtle* objects know where to draw.

Derived from *RawTurtle* is the subclass *Turtle* (alias : *Pen*), which draws on « the » *Screen* - instance which is automatically created, if not already present.

All methods of *RawTurtle*/*Turtle* also exist as functions, i.e. part of the procedure-oriented interface.

The procedural interface provides functions which are derived from the methods of the classes *Screen* and *Turtle*. They have the same names as the corresponding methods. A screen object is automatically created whenever a function derived from a *Screen* method is called. An (unnamed) turtle object is automatically created whenever any of the functions derived from a *Turtle* method is called.

To use multiple turtles on a screen one has to use the object-oriented interface.

Note : In the following documentation the argument list for functions is given. Methods, of course, have the additional first argument *self* which is omitted here.

24.5.2 Overview over available Turtle and Screen methods

Turtle methods

Turtle motion

Move and draw

```
forward() | fd()
backward() | bk() | back()
right() | rt()
left() | lt()
goto() | setpos() | setposition()
setx()
sety()
setheading() | seth()
home()
circle()
dot()
stamp()
clearstamp()
```

clearstamps()

undo()

speed()

Tell Turtle's state

position() | *pos()*

towards()

xcor()

ycor()

heading()

distance()

Setting and measurement

degrees()

radians()

Pen control

Drawing state

pendown() | *pd()* | *down()*

penup() | *pu()* | *up()*

pensize() | *width()*

pen()

isdown()

Color control

color()

pencolor()

fillcolor()

Filling

fill()

begin_fill()

end_fill()

More drawing control

reset()

clear()

write()

Turtle state

Visibility

showturtle() | *st()*

hideturtle() | *ht()*

isvisible()

Appearance

shape()

resizemode()

shapeseize() | *turtlesize()*

settiltangle()

tiltangle()

tilt()

Using events

onclick()


```
onrelease()  
ondrag()  
mainloop() | done()
```

Special Turtle methods

```
begin_poly()  
end_poly()  
get_poly()  
clone()  
getturtle() | getpen()  
getscreen()  
setundobuffer()  
undobufferentries()  
tracer()  
window_width()  
window_height()
```

Methods of TurtleScreen/Screen

Window control

```
bgcolor()  
bgpic()  
clear() | clearscreen()  
reset() | resetscreen()  
screensize()  
setworldcoordinates()
```

Animation control

```
delay()  
tracer()  
update()
```

Using screen events

```
listen()  
onkey()  
onclick() | onscreenclick()  
ontimer()
```

Settings and special methods

```
mode()  
colormode()  
getcanvas()  
getshapes()  
register_shape() | addshape()  
turtles()  
window_height()  
window_width()
```

Methods specific to Screen

```
bye()  
exitonclick()  
setup()  
title()
```

24.5.3 Methods of RawTurtle/Turtle and corresponding functions

Most of the examples in this section refer to a Turtle instance called `turtle`.

Turtle motion

`turtle.forward(distance)`

`turtle.fd(distance)`

Paramètres *distance* – a number (integer or float)

Move the turtle forward by the specified *distance*, in the direction the turtle is headed.

```
>>> turtle.position()
(0.00,0.00)
>>> turtle.forward(25)
>>> turtle.position()
(25.00,0.00)
>>> turtle.forward(-75)
>>> turtle.position()
(-50.00,0.00)
```

`turtle.back(distance)`

`turtle.bk(distance)`

`turtle.backward(distance)`

Paramètres *distance* – a number

Move the turtle backward by *distance*, opposite to the direction the turtle is headed. Do not change the turtle's heading.

```
>>> turtle.position()
(0.00,0.00)
>>> turtle.backward(30)
>>> turtle.position()
(-30.00,0.00)
```

`turtle.right(angle)`

`turtle.rt(angle)`

Paramètres *angle* – a number (integer or float)

Turn turtle right by *angle* units. (Units are by default degrees, but can be set via the `degrees()` and `radians()` functions.) Angle orientation depends on the turtle mode, see `mode()`.

```
>>> turtle.heading()
22.0
>>> turtle.right(45)
>>> turtle.heading()
337.0
```

`turtle.left(angle)`

`turtle.lt(angle)`

Paramètres *angle* – a number (integer or float)

Turn turtle left by *angle* units. (Units are by default degrees, but can be set via the `degrees()` and `radians()` functions.) Angle orientation depends on the turtle mode, see `mode()`.

```
>>> turtle.heading()
22.0
>>> turtle.left(45)
>>> turtle.heading()
67.0
```

```
turtle.goto(x, y=None)
turtle.setpos(x, y=None)
turtle.setposition(x, y=None)
```

Paramètres

- **x** – a number or a pair/vector of numbers
- **y** – a number or None

If *y* is None, *x* must be a pair of coordinates or a *Vec2D* (e.g. as returned by *pos()*).

Move turtle to an absolute position. If the pen is down, draw line. Do not change the turtle's orientation.

```
>>> tp = turtle.pos()
>>> tp
(0.00,0.00)
>>> turtle.setpos(60,30)
>>> turtle.pos()
(60.00,30.00)
>>> turtle.setpos((20,80))
>>> turtle.pos()
(20.00,80.00)
>>> turtle.setpos(tp)
>>> turtle.pos()
(0.00,0.00)
```

```
turtle.setx(x)
```

Paramètres **x** – a number (integer or float)

Set the turtle's first coordinate to *x*, leave second coordinate unchanged.

```
>>> turtle.position()
(0.00,240.00)
>>> turtle.setx(10)
>>> turtle.position()
(10.00,240.00)
```

```
turtle.sety(y)
```

Paramètres **y** – a number (integer or float)

Set the turtle's second coordinate to *y*, leave first coordinate unchanged.

```
>>> turtle.position()
(0.00,40.00)
>>> turtle.sety(-10)
>>> turtle.position()
(0.00,-10.00)
```

```
turtle.setheading(to_angle)
```

```
turtle.seth(to_angle)
```

Paramètres **to_angle** – a number (integer or float)

Set the orientation of the turtle to *to_angle*. Here are some common directions in degrees :

standard mode	logo mode
0 - east	0 - north
90 - north	90 - east
180 - west	180 - south
270 - south	270 - west

```
>>> turtle.setheading(90)
>>> turtle.heading()
90.0
```

turtle.home()

Move turtle to the origin – coordinates (0,0) – and set its heading to its start-orientation (which depends on the mode, see *mode()*).

```
>>> turtle.heading()
90.0
>>> turtle.position()
(0.00,-10.00)
>>> turtle.home()
>>> turtle.position()
(0.00,0.00)
>>> turtle.heading()
0.0
```

turtle.circle(*radius*, *extent*=None, *steps*=None)

Paramètres

- **radius** – a number
- **extent** – a number (or None)
- **steps** – an integer (or None)

Draw a circle with given *radius*. The center is *radius* units left of the turtle; *extent* – an angle – determines which part of the circle is drawn. If *extent* is not given, draw the entire circle. If *extent* is not a full circle, one endpoint of the arc is the current pen position. Draw the arc in counterclockwise direction if *radius* is positive, otherwise in clockwise direction. Finally the direction of the turtle is changed by the amount of *extent*.

As the circle is approximated by an inscribed regular polygon, *steps* determines the number of steps to use. If not given, it will be calculated automatically. May be used to draw regular polygons.

```
>>> turtle.home()
>>> turtle.position()
(0.00,0.00)
>>> turtle.heading()
0.0
>>> turtle.circle(50)
>>> turtle.position()
(-0.00,0.00)
>>> turtle.heading()
0.0
>>> turtle.circle(120, 180) # draw a semicircle
>>> turtle.position()
(0.00,240.00)
```

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(suite de la page précédente)

```
>>> turtle.heading()
180.0
```

`turtle.dot(size=None, *color)`

Paramètres

- **size** – an integer ≥ 1 (if given)
- **color** – a colorstring or a numeric color tuple

Draw a circular dot with diameter *size*, using *color*. If *size* is not given, the maximum of pensize+4 and 2*pensize is used.

```
>>> turtle.home()
>>> turtle.dot()
>>> turtle.fd(50); turtle.dot(20, "blue"); turtle.fd(50)
>>> turtle.position()
(100.00,-0.00)
>>> turtle.heading()
0.0
```

`turtle.stamp()`

Stamp a copy of the turtle shape onto the canvas at the current turtle position. Return a `stamp_id` for that stamp, which can be used to delete it by calling `clearstamp(stamp_id)`.

```
>>> turtle.color("blue")
>>> turtle.stamp()
11
>>> turtle.fd(50)
```

`turtle.clearstamp(stampid)`

Paramètres `stampid` – an integer, must be return value of previous `stamp()` call

Delete stamp with given *stampid*.

```
>>> turtle.position()
(150.00,-0.00)
>>> turtle.color("blue")
>>> astamp = turtle.stamp()
>>> turtle.fd(50)
>>> turtle.position()
(200.00,-0.00)
>>> turtle.clearstamp(astamp)
>>> turtle.position()
(200.00,-0.00)
```

`turtle.clearstamps(n=None)`

Paramètres `n` – an integer (or None)

Delete all or first/last *n* of turtle's stamps. If *n* is None, delete all stamps, if $n > 0$ delete first *n* stamps, else if $n < 0$ delete last *n* stamps.

```
>>> for i in range(8):
...     turtle.stamp(); turtle.fd(30)
13
14
```

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(suite de la page précédente)

```

15
16
17
18
19
20
>>> turtle.clearstamps(2)
>>> turtle.clearstamps(-2)
>>> turtle.clearstamps()

```

turtle.undo()

Undo (repeatedly) the last turtle action(s). Number of available undo actions is determined by the size of the undobuffer.

```

>>> for i in range(4):
...     turtle.fd(50); turtle.lt(80)
...
>>> for i in range(8):
...     turtle.undo()

```

turtle.speed(*speed=None*)

Paramètres **speed** – an integer in the range 0..10 or a speedstring (see below)

Set the turtle's speed to an integer value in the range 0..10. If no argument is given, return current speed.

If input is a number greater than 10 or smaller than 0.5, speed is set to 0. Speedstrings are mapped to speedvalues as follows :

- « fastest » : 0
- « fast » : 10
- « normal » : 6
- « slow » : 3
- « slowest » : 1

Speeds from 1 to 10 enforce increasingly faster animation of line drawing and turtle turning.

Attention : *speed* = 0 means that *no* animation takes place. forward/back makes turtle jump and likewise left/right make the turtle turn instantly.

```

>>> turtle.speed()
3
>>> turtle.speed('normal')
>>> turtle.speed()
6
>>> turtle.speed(9)
>>> turtle.speed()
9

```

Tell Turtle's state

turtle.position()**turtle.pos()**

Return the turtle's current location (x,y) (as a *Vec2D* vector).

```

>>> turtle.pos()
(440.00,-0.00)

```

`turtle.towards(x, y=None)`

Paramètres

- **x** – a number or a pair/vector of numbers or a turtle instance
- **y** – a number if *x* is a number, else `None`

Return the angle between the line from turtle position to position specified by (x,y), the vector or the other turtle. This depends on the turtle's start orientation which depends on the mode - « standard »/ « world » or « logo »).

```
>>> turtle.goto(10, 10)
>>> turtle.towards(0,0)
225.0
```

`turtle.xcor()`

Return the turtle's x coordinate.

```
>>> turtle.home()
>>> turtle.left(50)
>>> turtle.forward(100)
>>> turtle.pos()
(64.28,76.60)
>>> print turtle.xcor()
64.2787609687
```

`turtle.ycor()`

Return the turtle's y coordinate.

```
>>> turtle.home()
>>> turtle.left(60)
>>> turtle.forward(100)
>>> print turtle.pos()
(50.00,86.60)
>>> print turtle.ycor()
86.6025403784
```

`turtle.heading()`

Return the turtle's current heading (value depends on the turtle mode, see [mode\(\)](#)).

```
>>> turtle.home()
>>> turtle.left(67)
>>> turtle.heading()
67.0
```

`turtle.distance(x, y=None)`

Paramètres

- **x** – a number or a pair/vector of numbers or a turtle instance
- **y** – a number if *x* is a number, else `None`

Return the distance from the turtle to (x,y), the given vector, or the given other turtle, in turtle step units.

```
>>> turtle.home()
>>> turtle.distance(30,40)
50.0
>>> turtle.distance((30,40))
```

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(suite de la page précédente)

```
50.0
>>> joe = Turtle()
>>> joe.forward(77)
>>> turtle.distance(joe)
77.0
```

Settings for measurement

`turtle.degrees(fullcircle=360.0)`

Paramètres `fullcircle` – a number

Set angle measurement units, i.e. set number of « degrees » for a full circle. Default value is 360 degrees.

```
>>> turtle.home()
>>> turtle.left(90)
>>> turtle.heading()
90.0
```

Change angle measurement unit to grad (also known as gon, grade, or gradian and equals 1/100-th of the right angle.)

```
>>> turtle.degrees(400.0)
>>> turtle.heading()
100.0
>>> turtle.degrees(360)
>>> turtle.heading()
90.0
```

`turtle.radians()`

Set the angle measurement units to radians. Equivalent to `degrees(2*math.pi)`.

```
>>> turtle.home()
>>> turtle.left(90)
>>> turtle.heading()
90.0
>>> turtle.radians()
>>> turtle.heading()
1.5707963267948966
```

Pen control

Drawing state

`turtle.pendown()`
`turtle.pd()`
`turtle.down()`

Pull the pen down – drawing when moving.

`turtle.penup()`
`turtle.pu()`
`turtle.up()`

Pull the pen up – no drawing when moving.

`turtle.pensize(width=None)`

`turtle.width(width=None)`

Paramètres `width` – a positive number

Set the line thickness to *width* or return it. If `resizemode` is set to « auto » and `turtleshape` is a polygon, that polygon is drawn with the same line thickness. If no argument is given, the current pensize is returned.

```
>>> turtle.pensize()
1
>>> turtle.pensize(10)    # from here on lines of width 10 are drawn
```

`turtle.pen(pen=None, **pendict)`

Paramètres

- `pen` – a dictionary with some or all of the below listed keys
- `pendict` – one or more keyword-arguments with the below listed keys as keywords

Return or set the pen's attributes in a « pen-dictionary » with the following key/value pairs :

- « shown » : True/False
- « pendown » : True/False
- « pencolor » : color-string or color-tuple
- « fillcolor » : color-string or color-tuple
- « pensize » : positive number
- « speed » : number in range 0..10
- « resizingmode » : « auto » or « user » or « noresize »
- « stretchfactor » : (positive number, positive number)
- « outline » : positive number
- « tilt » : number

This dictionary can be used as argument for a subsequent call to `pen()` to restore the former pen-state. Moreover one or more of these attributes can be provided as keyword-arguments. This can be used to set several pen attributes in one statement.

```
>>> turtle.pen(fillcolor="black", pencolor="red", pensize=10)
>>> sorted(turtle.pen().items())
[('fillcolor', 'black'), ('outline', 1), ('pencolor', 'red'),
 ('pendown', True), ('pensize', 10), ('resizingmode', 'noresize'),
 ('shown', True), ('speed', 9), ('stretchfactor', (1, 1)), ('tilt', 0)]
>>> penstate=turtle.pen()
>>> turtle.color("yellow", "")
>>> turtle.penup()
>>> sorted(turtle.pen().items())
[('fillcolor', ''), ('outline', 1), ('pencolor', 'yellow'),
 ('pendown', False), ('pensize', 10), ('resizingmode', 'noresize'),
 ('shown', True), ('speed', 9), ('stretchfactor', (1, 1)), ('tilt', 0)]
>>> turtle.pen(penstate, fillcolor="green")
>>> sorted(turtle.pen().items())
[('fillcolor', 'green'), ('outline', 1), ('pencolor', 'red'),
 ('pendown', True), ('pensize', 10), ('resizingmode', 'noresize'),
 ('shown', True), ('speed', 9), ('stretchfactor', (1, 1)), ('tilt', 0)]
```

`turtle.isdown()`

Return True if pen is down, False if it's up.

```
>>> turtle.penup()
>>> turtle.isdown()
False
```

(suite sur la page suivante)

(suite de la page précédente)

```
>>> turtle.pendown()
>>> turtle.isdown()
True
```

Color control

turtle.pencolor(*args)

Return or set the pencolor.

Four input formats are allowed :

pencolor() Return the current pencolor as color specification string or as a tuple (see example). May be used as input to another color/pencolor/fillcolor call.

pencolor(colorstring) Set pencolor to *colorstring*, which is a Tk color specification string, such as "red", "yellow", or "#33cc8c".

pencolor((r, g, b)) Set pencolor to the RGB color represented by the tuple of *r*, *g*, and *b*. Each of *r*, *g*, and *b* must be in the range 0..colormode, where colormode is either 1.0 or 255 (see [colormode\(\)](#)).

pencolor(r, g, b)

Set pencolor to the RGB color represented by *r*, *g*, and *b*. Each of *r*, *g*, and *b* must be in the range 0..colormode.

If turtleshape is a polygon, the outline of that polygon is drawn with the newly set pencolor.

```
>>> colormode()
1.0
>>> turtle.pencolor()
'red'
>>> turtle.pencolor("brown")
>>> turtle.pencolor()
'brown'
>>> tup = (0.2, 0.8, 0.55)
>>> turtle.pencolor(tup)
>>> turtle.pencolor()
(0.2, 0.8, 0.5490196078431373)
>>> colormode(255)
>>> turtle.pencolor()
(51, 204, 140)
>>> turtle.pencolor('#32c18f')
>>> turtle.pencolor()
(50, 193, 143)
```

turtle.fillcolor(*args)

Return or set the fillcolor.

Four input formats are allowed :

fillcolor() Return the current fillcolor as color specification string, possibly in tuple format (see example). May be used as input to another color/pencolor/fillcolor call.

fillcolor(colorstring) Set fillcolor to *colorstring*, which is a Tk color specification string, such as "red", "yellow", or "#33cc8c".

fillcolor((r, g, b)) Set fillcolor to the RGB color represented by the tuple of *r*, *g*, and *b*. Each of *r*, *g*, and *b* must be in the range 0..colormode, where colormode is either 1.0 or 255 (see [colormode\(\)](#)).

fillcolor(r, g, b)

Set fillcolor to the RGB color represented by *r*, *g*, and *b*. Each of *r*, *g*, and *b* must be in the range 0..colormode.

If `turtleshape` is a polygon, the interior of that polygon is drawn with the newly set `fillcolor`.

```
>>> turtle.fillcolor("violet")
>>> turtle.fillcolor()
'violet'
>>> col = turtle.pencolor()
>>> col
(50, 193, 143)
>>> turtle.fillcolor(col)
>>> turtle.fillcolor()
(50, 193, 143)
>>> turtle.fillcolor('#ffffff')
>>> turtle.fillcolor()
(255, 255, 255)
```

`turtle.color(*args)`

Return or set `pencolor` and `fillcolor`.

Several input formats are allowed. They use 0 to 3 arguments as follows :

`color()` Return the current `pencolor` and the current `fillcolor` as a pair of color specification strings or tuples as returned by `pencolor()` and `fillcolor()`.

`color(colorstring)`, `color((r,g,b))`, `color(r,g,b)` Inputs as in `pencolor()`, set both, `fillcolor` and `pencolor`, to the given value.

`color(colorstring1, colorstring2)`, `color((r1,g1,b1), (r2,g2,b2))`

Equivalent to `pencolor(colorstring1)` and `fillcolor(colorstring2)` and analogously if the other input format is used.

If `turtleshape` is a polygon, outline and interior of that polygon is drawn with the newly set colors.

```
>>> turtle.color("red", "green")
>>> turtle.color()
('red', 'green')
>>> color("#285078", "#a0c8f0")
>>> color()
((40, 80, 120), (160, 200, 240))
```

See also : Screen method `colormode()`.

Filling

`turtle.fill(flag)`

Paramètres `flag` – True/False (or 1/0 respectively)

Call `fill(True)` before drawing the shape you want to fill, and `fill(False)` when done. When used without argument : return `fillstate` (True if filling, False else).

```
>>> turtle.fill(True)
>>> for _ in range(3):
...     turtle.forward(100)
...     turtle.left(120)
...
>>> turtle.fill(False)
```

`turtle.begin_fill()`

Call just before drawing a shape to be filled. Equivalent to `fill(True)`.

`turtle.end_fill()`

Fill the shape drawn after the last call to `begin_fill()`. Equivalent to `fill(False)`.

```
>>> turtle.color("black", "red")
>>> turtle.begin_fill()
>>> turtle.circle(80)
>>> turtle.end_fill()
```

More drawing control

`turtle.reset()`

Delete the turtle's drawings from the screen, re-center the turtle and set variables to the default values.

```
>>> turtle.goto(0,-22)
>>> turtle.left(100)
>>> turtle.position()
(0.00,-22.00)
>>> turtle.heading()
100.0
>>> turtle.reset()
>>> turtle.position()
(0.00,0.00)
>>> turtle.heading()
0.0
```

`turtle.clear()`

Delete the turtle's drawings from the screen. Do not move turtle. State and position of the turtle as well as drawings of other turtles are not affected.

`turtle.write(arg, move=False, align="left", font=("Arial", 8, "normal"))`

Paramètres

- **arg** – object to be written to the TurtleScreen
- **move** – True/False
- **align** – one of the strings « left », « center » or right »
- **font** – a triple (fontname, fontsize, fonttype)

Write text - the string representation of *arg* - at the current turtle position according to *align* (« left », « center » or right ») and with the given font. If *move* is true, the pen is moved to the bottom-right corner of the text. By default, *move* is **False**.

```
>>> turtle.write("Home = ", True, align="center")
>>> turtle.write((0,0), True)
```

Turtle state

Visibility

`turtle.hideturtle()`

`turtle.ht()`

Make the turtle invisible. It's a good idea to do this while you're in the middle of doing some complex drawing, because hiding the turtle speeds up the drawing observably.

```
>>> turtle.hideturtle()
```

`turtle.showturtle()`

`turtle.st()`

Make the turtle visible.

```
>>> turtle.showturtle()
```

`turtle.isvisible()`

Return `True` if the Turtle is shown, `False` if it's hidden.

```
>>> turtle.hideturtle()
>>> turtle.isvisible()
False
>>> turtle.showturtle()
>>> turtle.isvisible()
True
```

Appearance

`turtle.shape(name=None)`

Paramètres `name` – a string which is a valid shapename

Set turtle shape to shape with given `name` or, if name is not given, return name of current shape. Shape with `name` must exist in the TurtleScreen's shape dictionary. Initially there are the following polygon shapes : « arrow », « turtle », « circle », « square », « triangle », « classic ». To learn about how to deal with shapes see Screen method [register_shape\(\)](#).

```
>>> turtle.shape()
'classic'
>>> turtle.shape("turtle")
>>> turtle.shape()
'turtle'
```

`turtle.resizemode(rmode=None)`

Paramètres `rmode` – one of the strings « auto », « user », « noresize »

Set `resizemode` to one of the values : « auto », « user », « noresize ». If `rmode` is not given, return current `resizemode`. Different `resizemodes` have the following effects :

- « auto » : adapts the appearance of the turtle corresponding to the value of `pensize`.
- « user » : adapts the appearance of the turtle according to the values of `stretchfactor` and `outline-width` (outline), which are set by [shapsize\(\)](#).
- « noresize » : no adaption of the turtle's appearance takes place.

`resizemode`(« user ») is called by [shapsize\(\)](#) when used with arguments.

```
>>> turtle.resizemode()
'noresize'
>>> turtle.resizemode("auto")
>>> turtle.resizemode()
'auto'
```

`turtle.shapesize(stretch_wid=None, stretch_len=None, outline=None)`

`turtle.turtlesize(stretch_wid=None, stretch_len=None, outline=None)`

Paramètres

- `stretch_wid` – positive number
- `stretch_len` – positive number
- `outline` – positive number

Return or set the pen's attributes x/y-stretchfactors and/or outline. Set `resizemode` to « user ». If and only if `resizemode` is set to « user », the turtle will be displayed stretched according to its stretchfactors : `stretch_wid` is stretchfactor perpendicular to its orientation, `stretch_len` is stretchfactor in direction of its orientation, `outline` determines the width of the shapes's outline.

```
>>> turtle.shapesize()
(1, 1, 1)
>>> turtle.resizemode("user")
>>> turtle.shapesize(5, 5, 12)
>>> turtle.shapesize()
(5, 5, 12)
>>> turtle.shapesize(outline=8)
>>> turtle.shapesize()
(5, 5, 8)
```

`turtle.tilt(angle)`

Paramètres *angle* – a number

Rotate the turtleshape by *angle* from its current tilt-angle, but do *not* change the turtle's heading (direction of movement).

```
>>> turtle.reset()
>>> turtle.shape("circle")
>>> turtle.shapesize(5,2)
>>> turtle.tilt(30)
>>> turtle.fd(50)
>>> turtle.tilt(30)
>>> turtle.fd(50)
```

`turtle.settiltangle(angle)`

Paramètres *angle* – a number

Rotate the turtleshape to point in the direction specified by *angle*, regardless of its current tilt-angle. Do *not* change the turtle's heading (direction of movement).

```
>>> turtle.reset()
>>> turtle.shape("circle")
>>> turtle.shapesize(5,2)
>>> turtle.settiltangle(45)
>>> turtle.fd(50)
>>> turtle.settiltangle(-45)
>>> turtle.fd(50)
```

`turtle.tiltangle()`

Return the current tilt-angle, i.e. the angle between the orientation of the turtleshape and the heading of the turtle (its direction of movement).

```
>>> turtle.reset()
>>> turtle.shape("circle")
>>> turtle.shapesize(5,2)
>>> turtle.tilt(45)
>>> turtle.tiltangle()
45.0
```

Using events

`turtle.onclick(fun, btn=1, add=None)`

Paramètres

- **fun** – a function with two arguments which will be called with the coordinates of the clicked point on the canvas
- **btn** – number of the mouse-button, defaults to 1 (left mouse button)
- **add** – **True** or **False** – if **True**, a new binding will be added, otherwise it will replace a former binding

Bind *fun* to mouse-click events on this turtle. If *fun* is **None**, existing bindings are removed. Example for the anonymous turtle, i.e. the procedural way :

```
>>> def turn(x, y):
...     left(180)
...
>>> onclick(turn)  # Now clicking into the turtle will turn it.
>>> onclick(None)  # event-binding will be removed
```

`turtle.onrelease(fun, btn=1, add=None)`

Paramètres

- **fun** – a function with two arguments which will be called with the coordinates of the clicked point on the canvas
- **btn** – number of the mouse-button, defaults to 1 (left mouse button)
- **add** – **True** or **False** – if **True**, a new binding will be added, otherwise it will replace a former binding

Bind *fun* to mouse-button-release events on this turtle. If *fun* is **None**, existing bindings are removed.

```
>>> class MyTurtle(Turtle):
...     def glow(self,x,y):
...         self.fillcolor("red")
...     def unglow(self,x,y):
...         self.fillcolor("")
...
>>> turtle = MyTurtle()
>>> turtle.onclick(turtle.glow)      # clicking on turtle turns fillcolor red,
>>> turtle.onrelease(turtle.unglow)  # releasing turns it to transparent.
```

`turtle.ondrag(fun, btn=1, add=None)`

Paramètres

- **fun** – a function with two arguments which will be called with the coordinates of the clicked point on the canvas
- **btn** – number of the mouse-button, defaults to 1 (left mouse button)
- **add** – **True** or **False** – if **True**, a new binding will be added, otherwise it will replace a former binding

Bind *fun* to mouse-move events on this turtle. If *fun* is **None**, existing bindings are removed.

Remark : Every sequence of mouse-move-events on a turtle is preceded by a mouse-click event on that turtle.

```
>>> turtle.ondrag(turtle.goto)
```

Subsequently, clicking and dragging the Turtle will move it across the screen thereby producing hand-drawings (if pen is down).

`turtle.mainloop()`

`turtle.done()`

Starts event loop - calling Tkinter's mainloop function. Must be the last statement in a turtle graphics program.

```
>>> turtle.mainloop()
```

Special Turtle methods

`turtle.begin_poly()`

Start recording the vertices of a polygon. Current turtle position is first vertex of polygon.

`turtle.end_poly()`

Stop recording the vertices of a polygon. Current turtle position is last vertex of polygon. This will be connected with the first vertex.

`turtle.get_poly()`

Return the last recorded polygon.

```
>>> turtle.home()
>>> turtle.begin_poly()
>>> turtle.fd(100)
>>> turtle.left(20)
>>> turtle.fd(30)
>>> turtle.left(60)
>>> turtle.fd(50)
>>> turtle.end_poly()
>>> p = turtle.get_poly()
>>> register_shape("myFavouriteShape", p)
```

`turtle.clone()`

Create and return a clone of the turtle with same position, heading and turtle properties.

```
>>> mick = Turtle()
>>> joe = mick.clone()
```

`turtle.getturtle()`

`turtle.getpen()`

Return the Turtle object itself. Only reasonable use : as a function to return the « anonymous turtle » :

```
>>> pet = getturtle()
>>> pet.fd(50)
>>> pet
<turtle.Turtle object at 0x...>
```

`turtle.getscreen()`

Return the *TurtleScreen* object the turtle is drawing on. TurtleScreen methods can then be called for that object.

```
>>> ts = turtle.getscreen()
>>> ts
<turtle._Screen object at 0x...>
>>> ts.bgcolor("pink")
```

`turtle.setundobuffer(size)`

Paramètres **size** – an integer or None

Set or disable undobuffer. If *size* is an integer an empty undobuffer of given size is installed. *size* gives the maximum number of turtle actions that can be undone by the `undo()` method/function. If *size* is `None`, the undobuffer is disabled.

```
>>> turtle.setundobuffer(42)
```

`turtle.undobufferentries()`

Return number of entries in the undobuffer.

```
>>> while undobufferentries():
...     undo()
```

`turtle.tracer(flag=None, delay=None)`

A replica of the corresponding TurtleScreen method.

Obsolète depuis la version 2.6.

`turtle.window_width()`

`turtle.window_height()`

Both are replicas of the corresponding TurtleScreen methods.

Obsolète depuis la version 2.6.

Excursus about the use of compound shapes

To use compound turtle shapes, which consist of several polygons of different color, you must use the helper class *Shape* explicitly as described below :

1. Create an empty Shape object of type « compound ».
2. Add as many components to this object as desired, using the `addcomponent()` method.

Par exemple :

```
>>> s = Shape("compound")
>>> poly1 = ((0,0),(10,-5),(0,10),(-10,-5))
>>> s.addcomponent(poly1, "red", "blue")
>>> poly2 = ((0,0),(10,-5),(-10,-5))
>>> s.addcomponent(poly2, "blue", "red")
```

3. Now add the Shape to the Screen's shapelist and use it :

```
>>> register_shape("myshape", s)
>>> shape("myshape")
```

Note : The *Shape* class is used internally by the `register_shape()` method in different ways. The application programmer has to deal with the Shape class *only* when using compound shapes like shown above !

24.5.4 Methods of TurtleScreen/Screen and corresponding functions

Most of the examples in this section refer to a TurtleScreen instance called `screen`.

Window control

`turtle.bgcolor(*args)`

Paramètres `args` – a color string or three numbers in the range 0..colormode or a 3-tuple of such numbers

Set or return background color of the TurtleScreen.

```
>>> screen.bgcolor("orange")
>>> screen.bgcolor()
'orange'
>>> screen.bgcolor("#800080")
>>> screen.bgcolor()
(128, 0, 128)
```

`turtle.bgpic(picname=None)`

Paramètres `picname` – a string, name of a gif-file or "nopic", or None

Set background image or return name of current backgroundimage. If *picname* is a filename, set the corresponding image as background. If *picname* is "nopic", delete background image, if present. If *picname* is None, return the filename of the current backgroundimage.

```
>>> screen.bgpic()
'nopic'
>>> screen.bgpic("landscape.gif")
>>> screen.bgpic()
"landscape.gif"
```

`turtle.clear()`

`turtle.clearscreen()`

Delete all drawings and all turtles from the TurtleScreen. Reset the now empty TurtleScreen to its initial state : white background, no background image, no event bindings and tracing on.

Note : This TurtleScreen method is available as a global function only under the name `clearscreen`. The global function `clear` is another one derived from the Turtle method `clear`.

`turtle.reset()`

`turtle.resetscreen()`

Reset all Turtles on the Screen to their initial state.

Note : This TurtleScreen method is available as a global function only under the name `resetscreen`. The global function `reset` is another one derived from the Turtle method `reset`.

`turtle.screensize(canvwidth=None, canvheight=None, bg=None)`

Paramètres

- **canvwidth** – positive integer, new width of canvas in pixels
- **canvheight** – positive integer, new height of canvas in pixels
- **bg** – colorstring or color-tuple, new background color

If no arguments are given, return current (canvaswidth, canvasheight). Else resize the canvas the turtles are drawing on. Do not alter the drawing window. To observe hidden parts of the canvas, use the scrollbars. With this method, one can make visible those parts of a drawing which were outside the canvas before.

```
>>> screen.screensize()
(400, 300)
>>> screen.screensize(2000,1500)
>>> screen.screensize()
(2000, 1500)
```

e.g. to search for an erroneously escaped turtle;-)

`turtle.setworldcoordinates(llx, lly, urx, ury)`

Paramètres

- **llx** – a number, x-coordinate of lower left corner of canvas
- **lly** – a number, y-coordinate of lower left corner of canvas
- **urx** – a number, x-coordinate of upper right corner of canvas
- **ury** – a number, y-coordinate of upper right corner of canvas

Set up user-defined coordinate system and switch to mode « world » if necessary. This performs a `screen.reset()`. If mode « world » is already active, all drawings are redrawn according to the new coordinates.

ATTENTION : in user-defined coordinate systems angles may appear distorted.

```
>>> screen.reset()
>>> screen.setworldcoordinates(-50,-7.5,50,7.5)
>>> for _ in range(72):
...     left(10)
...
>>> for _ in range(8):
...     left(45); fd(2)    # a regular octagon
```

Animation control

`turtle.delay(delay=None)`

Paramètres **delay** – positive integer

Set or return the drawing *delay* in milliseconds. (This is approximately the time interval between two consecutive canvas updates.) The longer the drawing delay, the slower the animation.

Optional argument :

```
>>> screen.delay()
10
>>> screen.delay(5)
>>> screen.delay()
5
```

`turtle.tracer(n=None, delay=None)`

Paramètres

- **n** – nonnegative integer
- **delay** – nonnegative integer

Turn turtle animation on/off and set delay for update drawings. If *n* is given, only each *n*-th regular screen update is really performed. (Can be used to accelerate the drawing of complex graphics.) Second argument sets delay value (see `delay()`).

```
>>> screen.tracer(8, 25)
>>> dist = 2
>>> for i in range(200):
...     fd(dist)
...     rt(90)
...     dist += 2
```

`turtle.update()`

Perform a TurtleScreen update. To be used when tracer is turned off.

See also the RawTurtle/Turtle method `speed()`.

Using screen events

`turtle.listen(xdummy=None, ydummy=None)`

Set focus on TurtleScreen (in order to collect key-events). Dummy arguments are provided in order to be able to pass `listen()` to the onclick method.

`turtle.onkey(fun, key)`

Paramètres

- **fun** – a function with no arguments or **None**
- **key** – a string : key (e.g. « a ») or key-symbol (e.g. « space »)

Bind *fun* to key-release event of key. If *fun* is **None**, event bindings are removed. Remark : in order to be able to register key-events, TurtleScreen must have the focus. (See method `listen()`.)

```
>>> def f():
...     fd(50)
...     lt(60)
...
>>> screen.onkey(f, "Up")
>>> screen.listen()
```

`turtle.onclick(fun, btn=1, add=None)`

`turtle.onscreenclick(fun, btn=1, add=None)`

Paramètres

- **fun** – a function with two arguments which will be called with the coordinates of the clicked point on the canvas
- **btn** – number of the mouse-button, defaults to 1 (left mouse button)
- **add** – True or False – if **True**, a new binding will be added, otherwise it will replace a former binding

Bind *fun* to mouse-click events on this screen. If *fun* is **None**, existing bindings are removed.

Example for a TurtleScreen instance named **screen** and a Turtle instance named **turtle** :

```
>>> screen.onclick(turtle.goto) # Subsequently clicking into the TurtleScreen will
>>>                               # make the turtle move to the clicked point.
>>> screen.onclick(None)        # remove event binding again
```

Note : This TurtleScreen method is available as a global function only under the name **onscreenclick**. The global function **onclick** is another one derived from the Turtle method **onclick**.

`turtle.ontimer(fun, t=0)`

Paramètres

- **fun** – a function with no arguments
- **t** – a number ≥ 0

Install a timer that calls *fun* after *t* milliseconds.

```
>>> running = True
>>> def f():
...     if running:
...         fd(50)
...         lt(60)
...         screen.ontimer(f, 250)
>>> f()    ### makes the turtle march around
>>> running = False
```

Settings and special methods

`turtle.mode(mode=None)`

Paramètres `mode` – one of the strings « standard », « logo » or « world »

Set turtle mode (« standard », « logo » or « world ») and perform reset. If mode is not given, current mode is returned.

Mode « standard » is compatible with old *turtle*. Mode « logo » is compatible with most Logo turtle graphics. Mode « world » uses user-defined « world coordinates ». **Attention** : in this mode angles appear distorted if x/y unit-ratio doesn't equal 1.

Mode	Initial turtle heading	positive angles
« standard »	to the right (east)	counterclockwise
« logo »	upward (north)	clockwise

```
>>> mode("logo")    # resets turtle heading to north
>>> mode()
'logo'
```

`turtle.colormode(cmode=None)`

Paramètres `cmode` – one of the values 1.0 or 255

Return the colormode or set it to 1.0 or 255. Subsequently *r*, *g*, *b* values of color triples have to be in the range 0..*cmode*.

```
>>> screen.colormode(1)
>>> turtle.pencolor(240, 160, 80)
Traceback (most recent call last):
...
TurtleGraphicsError: bad color sequence: (240, 160, 80)
>>> screen.colormode()
1.0
>>> screen.colormode(255)
>>> screen.colormode()
255
>>> turtle.pencolor(240,160,80)
```

`turtle.getcanvas()`

Return the Canvas of this TurtleScreen. Useful for insiders who know what to do with a Tkinter Canvas.

```
>>> cv = screen.getcanvas()
>>> cv
<turtle.ScrolledCanvas instance at 0x...>
```

`turtle.getshapes()`

Return a list of names of all currently available turtle shapes.

```
>>> screen.getshapes()
['arrow', 'blank', 'circle', ..., 'turtle']
```

`turtle.register_shape(name, shape=None)`

`turtle.addshape(name, shape=None)`

There are three different ways to call this function :

- (1) *name* is the name of a gif-file and *shape* is `None` : Install the corresponding image shape.

```
>>> screen.register_shape("turtle.gif")
```

Note : Image shapes *do not* rotate when turning the turtle, so they do not display the heading of the turtle!

- (2) *name* is an arbitrary string and *shape* is a tuple of pairs of coordinates : Install the corresponding polygon shape.

```
>>> screen.register_shape("triangle", ((5,-3), (0,5), (-5,-3)))
```

- (3) *name* is an arbitrary string and *shape* is a (compound) *Shape* object : Install the corresponding compound shape.

Add a turtle shape to TurtleScreen's shapelist. Only thusly registered shapes can be used by issuing the command `shape(shapename)`.

`turtle.turtles()`

Return the list of turtles on the screen.

```
>>> for turtle in screen.turtles():  
...     turtle.color("red")
```

`turtle.window_height()`

Return the height of the turtle window.

```
>>> screen.window_height()  
480
```

`turtle.window_width()`

Return the width of the turtle window.

```
>>> screen.window_width()  
640
```

Methods specific to Screen, not inherited from TurtleScreen

`turtle.bye()`

Shut the turtlegraphics window.

`turtle.exitonclick()`

Bind `bye()` method to mouse clicks on the Screen.

If the value « `using_IDLE` » in the configuration dictionary is **False** (default value), also enter main-loop. Remark : If IDLE with the `-n` switch (no subprocess) is used, this value should be set to **True** in `turtle.cfg`. In this case IDLE's own mainloop is active also for the client script.

`turtle.setup(width=_CFG["width"], height=_CFG["height"], startx=_CFG["leftright"], starty=_CFG["topbottom"])`

Set the size and position of the main window. Default values of arguments are stored in the configuration dictionary and can be changed via a `turtle.cfg` file.

Paramètres

- **width** – if an integer, a size in pixels, if a float, a fraction of the screen ; default is 50% of screen
- **height** – if an integer, the height in pixels, if a float, a fraction of the screen ; default is 75% of screen
- **startx** – if positive, starting position in pixels from the left edge of the screen, if negative from the right edge, if **None**, center window horizontally

- **starty** – if positive, starting position in pixels from the top edge of the screen, if negative from the bottom edge, if `None`, center window vertically

```
>>> screen.setup (width=200, height=200, startx=0, starty=0)
>>>           # sets window to 200x200 pixels, in upper left of screen
>>> screen.setup(width=.75, height=0.5, startx=None, starty=None)
>>>           # sets window to 75% of screen by 50% of screen and centers
```

`turtle.title(titlestring)`

Paramètres `titlestring` – a string that is shown in the titlebar of the turtle graphics window

Set title of turtle window to *titlestring*.

```
>>> screen.title("Welcome to the turtle zoo!")
```

24.5.5 The public classes of the module turtle

`class turtle.RawTurtle(canvas)`

`class turtle.RawPen(canvas)`

Paramètres `canvas` – a `Tkinter.Canvas`, a *ScrolledCanvas* or a *TurtleScreen*

Create a turtle. The turtle has all methods described above as « methods of Turtle/RawTurtle ».

`class turtle.Turtle`

Subclass of `RawTurtle`, has the same interface but draws on a default *Screen* object created automatically when needed for the first time.

`class turtle.TurtleScreen(cv)`

Paramètres `cv` – a `Tkinter.Canvas`

Provides screen oriented methods like `setbg()` etc. that are described above.

`class turtle.Screen`

Subclass of `TurtleScreen`, with *four methods added*.

`class turtle.ScrolledCanvas(master)`

Paramètres `master` – some `Tkinter` widget to contain the `ScrolledCanvas`, i.e. a `Tkinter`-canvas with scrollbars added

Used by class `Screen`, which thus automatically provides a `ScrolledCanvas` as playground for the turtles.

`class turtle.Shape(type_, data)`

Paramètres `type_` – one of the strings « `polygon` », « `image` », « `compound` »

Data structure modeling shapes. The pair (`type_`, `data`) must follow this specification :

<i>type_</i>	<i>data</i>
« <code>polygon</code> »	a polygon-tuple, i.e. a tuple of pairs of coordinates
« <code>image</code> »	an image (in this form only used internally!)
« <code>compound</code> »	<code>None</code> (a compound shape has to be constructed using the <i><code>addcomponent()</code></i> method)

`addcomponent(poly, fill, outline=None)`

Paramètres

- **poly** – a polygon, i.e. a tuple of pairs of numbers
- **fill** – a color the *poly* will be filled with
- **outline** – a color for the poly's outline (if given)

Exemple :

```
>>> poly = ((0,0),(10,-5),(0,10),(-10,-5))
>>> s = Shape("compound")
>>> s.addcomponent(poly, "red", "blue")
>>> # ... add more components and then use register_shape()
```

See *Excursus about the use of compound shapes*.

class `turtle.Vec2D(x, y)`

A two-dimensional vector class, used as a helper class for implementing turtle graphics. May be useful for turtle graphics programs too. Derived from tuple, so a vector is a tuple!

Provides (for *a*, *b* vectors, *k* number) :

- *a* + *b* vector addition
- *a* - *b* vector subtraction
- *a* * *b* inner product
- *k* * *a* and *a* * *k* multiplication with scalar
- `abs(a)` absolute value of *a*
- `a.rotate(angle)` rotation

24.5.6 Help and configuration

How to use help

The public methods of the `Screen` and `Turtle` classes are documented extensively via docstrings. So these can be used as online-help via the Python help facilities :

- When using IDLE, tooltips show the signatures and first lines of the docstrings of typed in function-/method calls.
- Calling `help()` on methods or functions displays the docstrings :

```
>>> help(Screen.bgcolor)
Help on method bgcolor in module turtle:

bgcolor(self, *args) unbound turtle.Screen method
    Set or return backgroundcolor of the TurtleScreen.

    Arguments (if given): a color string or three numbers
    in the range 0..colormode or a 3-tuple of such numbers.

    >>> screen.bgcolor("orange")
    >>> screen.bgcolor()
    "orange"
    >>> screen.bgcolor(0.5,0,0.5)
    >>> screen.bgcolor()
    "#800080"

>>> help(Turtle.penup)
Help on method penup in module turtle:

penup(self) unbound turtle.Turtle method
    Pull the pen up -- no drawing when moving.

    Aliases: penup | pu | up
```

(suite sur la page suivante)

(suite de la page précédente)

No argument

```
>>> turtle.penup()
```

- The docstrings of the functions which are derived from methods have a modified form :

```
>>> help(bgcolor)
Help on function bgcolor in module turtle:

bgcolor(*args)
    Set or return backgroundcolor of the TurtleScreen.

    Arguments (if given): a color string or three numbers
    in the range 0..colormode or a 3-tuple of such numbers.

    Example::

    >>> bgcolor("orange")
    >>> bgcolor()
    "orange"
    >>> bgcolor(0.5,0,0.5)
    >>> bgcolor()
    "#800080"

>>> help(penup)
Help on function penup in module turtle:

penup()
    Pull the pen up -- no drawing when moving.

    Aliases: penup | pu | up

    No argument

    Example:
    >>> penup()
```

These modified docstrings are created automatically together with the function definitions that are derived from the methods at import time.

Translation of docstrings into different languages

There is a utility to create a dictionary the keys of which are the method names and the values of which are the docstrings of the public methods of the classes Screen and Turtle.

```
turtle.write_docstringdict(filename="turtle_docstringdict")
```

Paramètres filename – a string, used as filename

Create and write docstring-dictionary to a Python script with the given filename. This function has to be called explicitly (it is not used by the turtle graphics classes). The docstring dictionary will be written to the Python script *filename.py*. It is intended to serve as a template for translation of the docstrings into different languages.

If you (or your students) want to use *turtle* with online help in your native language, you have to translate the docstrings and save the resulting file as e.g. *turtle_docstringdict_german.py*.

If you have an appropriate entry in your `turtle.cfg` file this dictionary will be read in at import time and will replace the original English docstrings.

At the time of this writing there are docstring dictionaries in German and in Italian. (Requests please to glingsl@aon.at.)

How to configure Screen and Turtles

The built-in default configuration mimics the appearance and behaviour of the old turtle module in order to retain best possible compatibility with it.

If you want to use a different configuration which better reflects the features of this module or which better fits to your needs, e.g. for use in a classroom, you can prepare a configuration file `turtle.cfg` which will be read at import time and modify the configuration according to its settings.

The built in configuration would correspond to the following `turtle.cfg` :

```
width = 0.5
height = 0.75
leftright = None
topbottom = None
canvwidth = 400
canvheight = 300
mode = standard
colormode = 1.0
delay = 10
undobuffersize = 1000
shape = classic
pencolor = black
fillcolor = black
resizemode = noresize
visible = True
language = english
exampleturtle = turtle
examplescreen = screen
title = Python Turtle Graphics
using_IDLE = False
```

Short explanation of selected entries :

- The first four lines correspond to the arguments of the `Screen.setup()` method.
- Line 5 and 6 correspond to the arguments of the method `Screen.screensize()`.
- *shape* can be any of the built-in shapes, e.g. : `arrow`, `turtle`, etc. For more info try `help(shape)`.
- If you want to use no fillcolor (i.e. make the turtle transparent), you have to write `fillcolor = ""` (but all nonempty strings must not have quotes in the `cfg`-file).
- If you want to reflect the turtle its state, you have to use `resizemode = auto`.
- If you set e.g. `language = italian` the docstringdict `turtle_docstringdict_italian.py` will be loaded at import time (if present on the import path, e.g. in the same directory as *turtle*).
- The entries *exampleturtle* and *examplescreen* define the names of these objects as they occur in the docstrings. The transformation of method-docstrings to function-docstrings will delete these names from the docstrings.
- *using_IDLE* : Set this to `True` if you regularly work with IDLE and its `-n` switch (« no subprocess »). This will prevent *exitonclick()* to enter the mainloop.

There can be a `turtle.cfg` file in the directory where *turtle* is stored and an additional one in the current working directory. The latter will override the settings of the first one.

The `Demo/turtle` directory contains a `turtle.cfg` file. You can study it as an example and see its effects when running the demos (preferably not from within the demo-viewer).

24.5.7 Demo scripts

There is a set of demo scripts in the `turtledemo` directory located in the `Demo/turtle` directory in the source distribution.

It contains :

- a set of 15 demo scripts demonstrating different features of the new module `turtle`
- a demo viewer `turtleDemo.py` which can be used to view the sourcecode of the scripts and run them at the same time. 14 of the examples can be accessed via the Examples menu ; all of them can also be run standalone.
- The example `turtledemo_two_canvases.py` demonstrates the simultaneous use of two canvases with the turtle module. Therefore it only can be run standalone.
- There is a `turtle.cfg` file in this directory, which also serves as an example for how to write and use such files.

The demoscripts are :

Nom	Description	Features
bytedesign	complex classical turtlegraphics pattern	<code>tracer()</code> , delay, <code>update()</code>
chaos	graphs Verhulst dynamics, shows that computer's computations can generate results sometimes against the common sense expectations	world coordinates
clock	analog clock showing time of your computer	turtles as clock's hands, ontimer
colormixer	experiment with r, g, b	<code>ondrag()</code>
fractalcurves	Hilbert & Koch curves	recursion
lindenmayer	ethnomathematics (indian kolams)	L-System
minimal_hanoi	Towers of Hanoi	Rectangular Turtles as Hanoi discs (shape, shapeseize)
paint	super minimalistic drawing program	<code>onclick()</code>
peace	elementary	turtle : appearance and animation
penrose	aperiodic tiling with kites and darts	<code>stamp()</code>
planet_and_moon	simulation of gravitational system	compound shapes, <code>Vec2D</code>
tree	a (graphical) breadth first tree (using generators)	<code>clone()</code>
wikipedia	a pattern from the wikipedia article on turtle graphics	<code>clone()</code> , <code>undo()</code>
yinyang	another elementary example	<code>circle()</code>

Have fun !

24.6 IDLE

IDLE is Python's Integrated Development and Learning Environment.

IDLE has the following features :

- coded in 100% pure Python, using the `tkinter` GUI toolkit
- cross-platform : works mostly the same on Windows, Unix, and Mac OS X
- Python shell window (interactive interpreter) with colorizing of code input, output, and error messages
- multi-window text editor with multiple undo, Python colorizing, smart indent, call tips, auto completion, and other features
- search within any window, replace within editor windows, and search through multiple files (grep)
- debugger with persistent breakpoints, stepping, and viewing of global and local namespaces

— configuration, browsers, and other dialogs

24.6.1 Menus

IDLE has two main window types, the Shell window and the Editor window. It is possible to have multiple editor windows simultaneously. Output windows, such as used for Edit / Find in Files, are a subtype of edit window. They currently have the same top menu as Editor windows but a different default title and context menu.

IDLE's menus dynamically change based on which window is currently selected. Each menu documented below indicates which window type it is associated with.

File menu (Shell and Editor)

New File Create a new file editing window.

Open... Open an existing file with an Open dialog.

Recent Files Open a list of recent files. Click one to open it.

Open Module... Open an existing module (searches sys.path).

Class Browser Show functions, classes, and methods in the current Editor file in a tree structure. In the shell, open a module first.

Path Browser Show sys.path directories, modules, functions, classes and methods in a tree structure.

Save Save the current window to the associated file, if there is one. Windows that have been changed since being opened or last saved have a * before and after the window title. If there is no associated file, do Save As instead.

Save As... Save the current window with a Save As dialog. The file saved becomes the new associated file for the window.

Save Copy As... Save the current window to different file without changing the associated file.

Print Window Print the current window to the default printer.

Close Close the current window (ask to save if unsaved).

Exit Close all windows and quit IDLE (ask to save unsaved windows).

Edit menu (Shell and Editor)

Undo Undo the last change to the current window. A maximum of 1000 changes may be undone.

Redo Redo the last undone change to the current window.

Cut Copy selection into the system-wide clipboard; then delete the selection.

Copy Copy selection into the system-wide clipboard.

Paste Insert contents of the system-wide clipboard into the current window.

The clipboard functions are also available in context menus.

Select All Select the entire contents of the current window.

Find... Open a search dialog with many options

Find Again Repeat the last search, if there is one.

Find Selection Search for the currently selected string, if there is one.

Find in Files... Open a file search dialog. Put results in a new output window.

Replace... Open a search-and-replace dialog.

Go to Line Move cursor to the line number requested and make that line visible.

Show Completions Open a scrollable list allowing selection of keywords and attributes. See Completions in the Tips sections below.

Expand Word Expand a prefix you have typed to match a full word in the same window; repeat to get a different expansion.

Show call tip After an unclosed parenthesis for a function, open a small window with function parameter hints.

Show surrounding parens Highlight the surrounding parenthesis.

Format menu (Editor window only)

Indent Region Shift selected lines right by the indent width (default 4 spaces).

Dedent Region Shift selected lines left by the indent width (default 4 spaces).

Comment Out Region Insert `##` in front of selected lines.

Uncomment Region Remove leading `#` or `##` from selected lines.

Tabify Region Turn *leading* stretches of spaces into tabs. (Note : We recommend using 4 space blocks to indent Python code.)

Untabify Region Turn *all* tabs into the correct number of spaces.

Toggle Tabs Open a dialog to switch between indenting with spaces and tabs.

New Indent Width Open a dialog to change indent width. The accepted default by the Python community is 4 spaces.

Format Paragraph Reformat the current blank-line-delimited paragraph in comment block or multiline string or selected line in a string. All lines in the paragraph will be formatted to less than N columns, where N defaults to 72.

Strip trailing whitespace Remove any space characters after the last non-space character of a line.

Run menu (Editor window only)

Python Shell Open or wake up the Python Shell window.

Check Module Check the syntax of the module currently open in the Editor window. If the module has not been saved IDLE will either prompt the user to save or autosave, as selected in the General tab of the Idle Settings dialog. If there is a syntax error, the approximate location is indicated in the Editor window.

Run Module Do Check Module (above). If no error, restart the shell to clean the environment, then execute the module. Output is displayed in the Shell window. Note that output requires use of `print` or `write`. When execution is complete, the Shell retains focus and displays a prompt. At this point, one may interactively explore the result of execution. This is similar to executing a file with `python -i file` at a command line.

Shell menu (Shell window only)

View Last Restart Scroll the shell window to the last Shell restart.

Restart Shell Restart the shell to clean the environment.

Interrupt Execution Stop a running program.

Debug menu (Shell window only)

Go to File/Line Look on the current line, with the cursor, and the line above for a filename and line number. If found, open the file if not already open, and show the line. Use this to view source lines referenced in an exception traceback and lines found by Find in Files. Also available in the context menu of the Shell window and Output windows.

Debugger (toggle) When activated, code entered in the Shell or run from an Editor will run under the debugger. In the Editor, breakpoints can be set with the context menu. This feature is still incomplete and somewhat experimental.

Stack Viewer Show the stack traceback of the last exception in a tree widget, with access to locals and globals.

Auto-open Stack Viewer Toggle automatically opening the stack viewer on an unhandled exception.

Options menu (Shell and Editor)

Configure IDLE Open a configuration dialog and change preferences for the following : fonts, indentation, keybindings, text color themes, startup windows and size, additional help sources, and extensions (see below). On OS X, open the configuration dialog by selecting Preferences in the application menu. To use a new built-in color theme (IDLE Dark) with older IDLEs, save it as a new custom theme.

Non-default user settings are saved in a .idlerc directory in the user's home directory. Problems caused by bad user configuration files are solved by editing or deleting one or more of the files in .idlerc.

Code Context (toggle)(Editor Window only) Open a pane at the top of the edit window which shows the block context of the code which has scrolled above the top of the window.

Window menu (Shell and Editor)

Zoom Height Toggles the window between normal size and maximum height. The initial size defaults to 40 lines by 80 chars unless changed on the General tab of the Configure IDLE dialog.

The rest of this menu lists the names of all open windows ; select one to bring it to the foreground (deiconifying it if necessary).

Help menu (Shell and Editor)

About IDLE Display version, copyright, license, credits, and more.

IDLE Help Display a help file for IDLE detailing the menu options, basic editing and navigation, and other tips.

Python Docs Access local Python documentation, if installed, or start a web browser and open docs.python.org showing the latest Python documentation.

Turtle Demo Run the turtledemo module with example python code and turtle drawings.

Additional help sources may be added here with the Configure IDLE dialog under the General tab.

Context Menus

Open a context menu by right-clicking in a window (Control-click on OS X). Context menus have the standard clipboard functions also on the Edit menu.

Cut Copy selection into the system-wide clipboard ; then delete the selection.

Copy Copy selection into the system-wide clipboard.

Paste Insert contents of the system-wide clipboard into the current window.

Editor windows also have breakpoint functions. Lines with a breakpoint set are specially marked. Breakpoints only have an effect when running under the debugger. Breakpoints for a file are saved in the user's .idlerc directory.

Set Breakpoint Set a breakpoint on the current line.

Clear Breakpoint Clear the breakpoint on that line.

Shell and Output windows have the following.

Go to file/line Same as in Debug menu.

24.6.2 Editing and navigation

In this section, “C” refers to the **Control** key on Windows and Unix and the **Command** key on Mac OSX.

- **Backspace** deletes to the left ; **Del** deletes to the right
- **C-Backspace** delete word left ; **C-Del** delete word to the right
- Arrow keys and **Page Up**/**Page Down** to move around
- **C-LeftArrow** and **C-RightArrow** moves by words
- **Home**/**End** go to begin/end of line
- **C-Home**/**C-End** go to begin/end of file
- Some useful Emacs bindings are inherited from Tcl/Tk :
 - **C-a** beginning of line
 - **C-e** end of line
 - **C-k** kill line (but doesn't put it in clipboard)
 - **C-l** center window around the insertion point
 - **C-b** go backward one character without deleting (usually you can also use the cursor key for this)
 - **C-f** go forward one character without deleting (usually you can also use the cursor key for this)
 - **C-p** go up one line (usually you can also use the cursor key for this)
 - **C-d** delete next character

Standard keybindings (like **C-c** to copy and **C-v** to paste) may work. Keybindings are selected in the Configure IDLE dialog.

Automatic indentation

After a block-opening statement, the next line is indented by 4 spaces (in the Python Shell window by one tab). After certain keywords (break, return etc.) the next line is dedented. In leading indentation, **Backspace** deletes up to 4 spaces if they are there. **Tab** inserts spaces (in the Python Shell window one tab), number depends on Indent width. Currently, tabs are restricted to four spaces due to Tcl/Tk limitations.

See also the indent/dedent region commands in the edit menu.

Completions

Completions are supplied for functions, classes, and attributes of classes, both built-in and user-defined. Completions are also provided for filenames.

The `AutoCompleteWindow` (ACW) will open after a predefined delay (default is two seconds) after a “.” or (in a string) an `os.sep` is typed. If after one of those characters (plus zero or more other characters) a tab is typed the ACW will open immediately if a possible continuation is found.

If there is only one possible completion for the characters entered, a **Tab** will supply that completion without opening the ACW.

“Show Completions” will force open a completions window, by default the **C-space** will open a completions window. In an empty string, this will contain the files in the current directory. On a blank line, it will contain the built-in and user-defined functions and classes in the current namespaces, plus any modules imported. If some characters have been entered, the ACW will attempt to be more specific.

If a string of characters is typed, the ACW selection will jump to the entry most closely matching those characters. Entering a **tab** will cause the longest non-ambiguous match to be entered in the Editor window or Shell. Two **tab** in a row will supply the current ACW selection, as will return or a double click. Cursor keys, **Page Up**/**Page Down**, mouse selection, and the scroll wheel all operate on the ACW.

« Hidden » attributes can be accessed by typing the beginning of hidden name after a “.”, e.g. “`__`”. This allows access to modules with `__all__` set, or to class-private attributes.

Completions and the “Expand Word” facility can save a lot of typing!

Completions are currently limited to those in the namespaces. Names in an Editor window which are not via `__main__` and `sys.modules` will not be found. Run the module once with your imports to correct this

situation. Note that IDLE itself places quite a few modules in `sys.modules`, so much can be found by default, e.g. the `re` module.

If you don't like the ACW popping up unbidden, simply make the delay longer or disable the extension.

Calltips

A calltip is shown when one types `(` after the name of an *accessible* function. A name expression may include dots and subscripts. A calltip remains until it is clicked, the cursor is moved out of the argument area, or `)` is typed. When the cursor is in the argument part of a definition, the menu or shortcut display a calltip.

A calltip consists of the function signature and the first line of the docstring. For builtins without an accessible signature, the calltip consists of all lines up the fifth line or the first blank line. These details may change.

The set of *accessible* functions depends on what modules have been imported into the user process, including those imported by Idle itself, and what definitions have been run, all since the last restart.

For example, restart the Shell and enter `itertools.count()`. A calltip appears because Idle imports `itertools` into the user process for its own use. (This could change.) Enter `turtle.write()` and nothing appears. Idle does not import `turtle`. The menu or shortcut do nothing either. Enter `import turtle` and then `turtle.write()` will work.

In an editor, import statements have no effect until one runs the file. One might want to run a file after writing the import statements at the top, or immediately run an existing file before editing.

Python Shell window

- **C-c** interrupts executing command
- **C-d** sends end-of-file; closes window if typed at a `>>>` prompt
- **Alt-/** (Expand word) is also useful to reduce typing
- Command history
 - **Alt-p** retrieves previous command matching what you have typed. On OS X use **C-p**.
 - **Alt-n** retrieves next. On OS X use **C-n**.
 - **Return** while on any previous command retrieves that command

Text colors

Idle defaults to black on white text, but colors text with special meanings. For the shell, these are shell output, shell error, user output, and user error. For Python code, at the shell prompt or in an editor, these are keywords, builtin class and function names, names following `class` and `def`, strings, and comments. For any text window, these are the cursor (when present), found text (when possible), and selected text.

Text coloring is done in the background, so uncolored text is occasionally visible. To change the color scheme, use the Configure IDLE dialog Highlighting tab. The marking of debugger breakpoint lines in the editor and text in popups and dialogs is not user-configurable.

24.6.3 Startup and code execution

Upon startup with the `-s` option, IDLE will execute the file referenced by the environment variables `IDLESTARTUP` or `PYTHONSTARTUP`. IDLE first checks for `IDLESTARTUP`; if `IDLESTARTUP` is present the file referenced is run. If `IDLESTARTUP` is not present, IDLE checks for `PYTHONSTARTUP`. Files referenced by these environment variables are convenient places to store functions that are used frequently from the IDLE shell, or for executing import statements to import common modules.

In addition, Tk also loads a startup file if it is present. Note that the Tk file is loaded unconditionally. This additional file is `.Idle.py` and is looked for in the user's home directory. Statements in this file will be executed in the Tk namespace, so this file is not useful for importing functions to be used from IDLE's Python shell.

Command line usage

```
idle.py [-c command] [-d] [-e] [-h] [-i] [-r file] [-s] [-t title] [-] [arg] ...

-c command  run command in the shell window
-d          enable debugger and open shell window
-e          open editor window
-h          print help message with legal combinations and exit
-i          open shell window
-r file     run file in shell window
-s          run $IDLESTARTUP or $PYTHONSTARTUP first, in shell window
-t title    set title of shell window
-          run stdin in shell (- must be last option before args)
```

If there are arguments :

- If `-`, `-c`, or `r` is used, all arguments are placed in `sys.argv[1:...]` and `sys.argv[0]` is set to `'`, `'-c'`, or `'-r'`. No editor window is opened, even if that is the default set in the Options dialog.
- Otherwise, arguments are files opened for editing and `sys.argv` reflects the arguments passed to IDLE itself.

IDLE-console differences

As much as possible, the result of executing Python code with IDLE is the same as executing the same code in a console window. However, the different interface and operation occasionally affect visible results. For instance, `sys.modules` starts with more entries.

IDLE also replaces `sys.stdin`, `sys.stdout`, and `sys.stderr` with objects that get input from and send output to the Shell window. When this window has the focus, it controls the keyboard and screen. This is normally transparent, but functions that directly access the keyboard and screen will not work. If `sys` is reset with `reload(sys)`, IDLE's changes are lost and things like `input`, `raw_input`, and `print` will not work correctly.

With IDLE's Shell, one enters, edits, and recalls complete statements. Some consoles only work with a single physical line at a time. IDLE uses `exec` to run each statement. As a result, `'__builtins__'` is always defined for each statement.

Running without a subprocess

By default, IDLE executes user code in a separate subprocess via a socket, which uses the internal loopback interface. This connection is not externally visible and no data is sent to or received from the Internet. If firewall software complains anyway, you can ignore it.

If the attempt to make the socket connection fails, Idle will notify you. Such failures are sometimes transient, but if persistent, the problem may be either a firewall blocking the connection or misconfiguration of a particular system. Until the problem is fixed, one can run Idle with the `-n` command line switch.

If IDLE is started with the `-n` command line switch it will run in a single process and will not create the subprocess which runs the RPC Python execution server. This can be useful if Python cannot create the subprocess or the RPC socket interface on your platform. However, in this mode user code is not isolated from IDLE itself. Also, the environment is not restarted when Run/Run Module (F5) is selected. If your code has been modified, you must `reload()` the affected modules and re-import any specific items (e.g. from `foo import baz`) if the changes are to take effect. For these reasons, it is preferable to run IDLE with the default subprocess if at all possible.

Obsolète depuis la version 3.4.

24.6.4 Help and preferences

Additional help sources

IDLE includes a help menu entry called « Python Docs » that will open the extensive sources of help, including tutorials, available at docs.python.org. Selected URLs can be added or removed from the help menu at any time using the Configure IDLE dialog. See the IDLE help option in the help menu of IDLE for more information.

Setting preferences

The font preferences, highlighting, keys, and general preferences can be changed via Configure IDLE on the Option menu. Keys can be user defined ; IDLE ships with four built-in key sets. In addition, a user can create a custom key set in the Configure IDLE dialog under the keys tab.

Extensions

IDLE contains an extension facility. Preferences for extensions can be changed with Configure Extensions. See the beginning of `config-extensions.def` in the `idlelib` directory for further information. The default extensions are currently :

- `FormatParagraph`
- `AutoExpand`
- `ZoomHeight`
- `ScriptBinding`
- `CallTips`
- `ParenMatch`
- `AutoComplete`
- `CodeContext`
- `RstripExtension`

24.7 Autres paquets d'interface graphique utilisateur

Des boîtes à outils multiplateformes (Windows, Mac OS X ou Unix et assimilé) majeures sont disponibles pour Python :

Voir aussi :

PyGTK is a set of bindings for the **GTK** widget set. It provides an object oriented interface that is slightly higher level than the C one. It comes with many more widgets than Tkinter provides, and has good Python-specific reference documentation. There are also bindings to **GNOME**. An online [tutorial](#) is available.

PyQt PyQt is a **sip**-wrapped binding to the Qt toolkit. Qt is an extensive C++ GUI application development framework that is available for Unix, Windows and Mac OS X. **sip** is a tool for generating bindings for C++ libraries as Python classes, and is specifically designed for Python. The *PyQt3* bindings have a book, [GUI Programming with Python : QT Edition](#) by Boudewijn Rempt. The *PyQt4* bindings also have a book, [Rapid GUI Programming with Python and Qt](#), by Mark Summerfield.

wxPython wxPython is a cross-platform GUI toolkit for Python that is built around the popular **wxWidgets** (formerly **wxWindows**) C++ toolkit. It provides a native look and feel for applications on Windows, Mac OS X, and Unix systems by using each platform's native widgets where ever possible, (GTK+ on Unix-like systems). In addition to an extensive set of widgets, wxPython provides classes for online documentation and context sensitive help, printing, HTML viewing, low-level device context drawing, drag and drop, system clipboard access, an XML-based resource format and more, including an ever growing library of user-contributed modules. wxPython has a book, [wxPython in Action](#), by Noel Rappin and Robin Dunn.

PyGTK, *PyQt*, et *wxPython* fournissent tous un aspect et une expérience moderne ainsi que plus de composants graphiques que Tkinter. De plus, il y a de nombreuses autres boîtes à outils pour Python, que ce soit multiplateformes ou spécifiques à une plateforme. Consultez la page sur la [programmation d'interface graphique](#) du Wiki Python pour une liste bien plus complète, ainsi que des liens vers des documents où les différentes boîtes à outils graphiques sont comparées.

Les modules décrits dans ce chapitre vous aident à écrire des logiciels. Par exemple, le module *pydoc* prend un module et génère de la documentation basée sur son contenu. Les modules *doctest* et *unittest* contiennent des cadres applicatifs pour écrire des tests unitaires qui permettent de valider automatiquement le code en vérifiant que chaque résultat attendu est produit. Le programme **2to3** peut traduire du code Python 2.x en Python 3.x.

La liste des modules documentés dans ce chapitre est :

25.1 pydoc — Générateur de documentation et système d'aide en ligne

Nouveau dans la version 2.1.

Code source : [Lib/pydoc.py](#)

Le module *pydoc* génère automatiquement de la documentation à partir de modules Python. La documentation peut se présenter sous forme de pages de texte dans la console, rendue dans un navigateur web, ou sauvegardée dans des fichiers HTML.

Pour les modules, classes, fonctions et méthodes, la documentation affichée est tirée de la *docstring* (c.à.d de l'attribut `__doc__`) de l'objet et ce, de manière récursive pour les membres qui peuvent être documentés. S'il n'y a pas de *docstring*, *pydoc* essaie d'obtenir une description à partir du bloc de commentaires juste au-dessus de la définition de la classe, fonction ou méthode du fichier source, ou en haut du module (voir *inspect.getcomments()*).

La fonction intégrée *help()* appelle le système d'aide en ligne dans l'interpréteur Python qui utilise *pydoc* pour générer sa documentation sous forme textuelle dans la console. Cette même documentation peut aussi être consultée à l'extérieur de l'interpréteur Python en lançant **pydoc** dans le terminal du système d'exploitation. Par exemple en lançant :

```
pydoc sys
```

dans un terminal, cela affiche la documentation du module `sys` dans un style similaire à la commande Unix `man`. On peut passer comme argument à `pydoc` le nom d'une fonction, d'un module, d'un paquet, ou une référence pointant vers une classe, une méthode, ou une fonction dans un module ou dans un paquet. Si l'argument passé à `pydoc` est un chemin (c.à.d qu'il contient des séparateurs de chemin tels que la barre oblique / dans Unix), et fait référence à un fichier source Python existant, alors la documentation est générée pour ce fichier.

Note : Afin de trouver des objets et leur documentation, `pydoc` importe le ou les modules à documenter. Par conséquent tout code au niveau du module sera exécuté à cette occasion. Utiliser `if __name__ == '__main__':` évite d'exécuter du code lorsqu'un fichier est appelé directement et non pas importé.

Lorsque l'on affiche une sortie sur la console, `pydoc` essaye de créer une pagination pour faciliter la lecture. Si la variable d'environnement `PAGER` est configurée, `pydoc` utilise sa valeur comme programme de pagination.

Ajouter une option `-w` avant l'argument entraîne l'enregistrement de la documentation HTML générée dans un fichier du répertoire courant au lieu de l'afficher dans la console.

Ajouter une option `-w` avant l'argument cherche les lignes de résumé de tous les modules disponibles pour le mot clé donné comme argument, ceci à la manière de la commande Unix `man`. Les lignes de résumé d'un module sont les premières lignes de sa *docstring*.

You can also use `pydoc` to start an HTTP server on the local machine that will serve documentation to visiting Web browsers. `pydoc -p 1234` will start a HTTP server on port 1234, allowing you to browse the documentation at `http://localhost:1234/` in your preferred Web browser. `pydoc -g` will start the server and additionally bring up a small *Tkinter*-based graphical interface to help you search for documentation pages.

Quand `pydoc` génère de la documentation, il utilise l'environnement et le chemin courant pour localiser les modules. Ainsi, en invoquant les documents `pydoc spam` en précisant la version du module, vous obtenez le même résultat qu'en lançant l'interpréteur Python et en tapant la commande `import spam`.

Module docs for core modules are assumed to reside in <https://docs.python.org/library/>. This can be overridden by setting the `PYTHONDOS` environment variable to a different URL or to a local directory containing the Library Reference Manual pages.

25.2 doctest — Test interactive Python examples

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

- To check that a module's docstrings are up-to-date by verifying that all interactive examples still work as documented.
- To perform regression testing by verifying that interactive examples from a test file or a test object work as expected.
- To write tutorial documentation for a package, liberally illustrated with input-output examples. Depending on whether the examples or the expository text are emphasized, this has the flavor of « *literate testing* » or « *executable documentation* ».

Here's a complete but small example module :

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

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

>>> factorial(5)
```

(suite sur la page suivante)

(suite de la page précédente)

```

120
"""

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

    If the result is small enough to fit in an int, return an int.
    Else return a long.

    >>> [factorial(n) for n in range(6)]
    [1, 1, 2, 6, 24, 120]
    >>> [factorial(long(n)) for n in range(6)]
    [1, 1, 2, 6, 24, 120]
    >>> factorial(30)
    2652528598121910586363084800000000L
    >>> factorial(30L)
    2652528598121910586363084800000000L
    >>> factorial(-1)
    Traceback (most recent call last):
    ...
    ValueError: n must be >= 0

    Factorials of floats are OK, but the float must be an exact integer:
    >>> factorial(30.1)
    Traceback (most recent call last):
    ...
    ValueError: n must be exact integer
    >>> factorial(30.0)
    2652528598121910586363084800000000L

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

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

```

(suite sur la page suivante)

(suite de la page précédente)

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

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

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

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

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

And so on, eventually ending with :

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

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

25.2.1 Simple Usage : Checking Examples in Docstrings

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


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

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

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

```
python M.py
```

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

Run it with the `-v` switch instead :

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

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

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

Since Python 2.6, there is also a command line shortcut for running `testmod()`. You can instruct the Python interpreter to run the doctest module directly from the standard library and pass the module name(s) on the command line :

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

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

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

25.2.2 Simple Usage : Checking Examples in a Text File

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

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

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

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

Using ``factorial``
-----

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

(suite sur la page suivante)

(suite de la page précédente)

```
>>> from example import factorial

Now use it:

>>> factorial(6)
120
```

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

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

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

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

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

Since Python 2.6, there is also a command line shortcut for running `testfile()`. You can instruct the Python interpreter to run the doctest module directly from the standard library and pass the file name(s) on the command line :

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

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

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

25.2.3 How It Works

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

Which Docstrings Are Examined ?

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

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

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

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

Modifié dans la version 2.4 : A « private name » concept is deprecated and no longer documented.

How are Docstring Examples Recognized ?

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

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

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

The fine print :

- Expected output cannot contain an all-whitespace line, since such a line is taken to signal the end of expected output. If expected output does contain a blank line, put `<BLANKLINE>` in your doctest example each place a blank line is expected.

Nouveau dans la version 2.4 : `<BLANKLINE>` was added; there was no way to use expected output containing empty lines in previous versions.

- All hard tab characters are expanded to spaces, using 8-column tab stops. Tabs in output generated by the tested code are not modified. Because any hard tabs in the sample output *are* expanded, this means that if the code output includes hard tabs, the only way the doctest can pass is if the `NORMALIZE_WHITESPACE` option or *directive* is in effect. Alternatively, the test can be rewritten to capture the output and compare it to an expected value as part of the test. This handling of tabs in the source was arrived at through trial and error, and has proven to be the least error prone way of handling them. It is possible to use a different algorithm for handling tabs by writing a custom `DocTestParser` class.

Modifié dans la version 2.4 : Expanding tabs to spaces is new; previous versions tried to preserve hard tabs, with confusing results.

- Output to stdout is captured, but not output to stderr (exception tracebacks are captured via a different means).
- If you continue a line via backslashing in an interactive session, or for any other reason use a backslash, you should use a raw docstring, which will preserve your backslashes exactly as you type them :

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

(suite sur la page suivante)

(suite de la page précédente)

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

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

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

— The starting column doesn't matter :

```
>>> assert "Easy!"
>>> import math
>>> math.floor(1.9)
1.0
```

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

What's the Execution Context ?

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

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

What About Exceptions ?

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

Simple example :

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

Modifié dans la version 2.4 : Previous versions were unable to handle multi-line exception details.

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

Option Flags

A number of option flags control various aspects of doctest's behavior. Symbolic names for the flags are supplied as module constants, which can be bitwise ORed together and passed to various functions. The names can also be used in *doctest directives*.

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

`doctest.DONT_ACCEPT_TRUE_FOR_1`

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

`doctest.DONT_ACCEPT_BLANKLINE`

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

`doctest.NORMALIZE_WHITESPACE`

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

`doctest.ELLIPSIS`

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

`doctest.IGNORE_EXCEPTION_DETAIL`

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

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

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

(suite sur la page suivante)

(suite de la page précédente)

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

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

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

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

Modifié dans la version 2.7 : *IGNORE_EXCEPTION_DETAIL* now also ignores any information relating to the module containing the exception under test

doctest.SKIP

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

The SKIP flag can also be used for temporarily « commenting out » examples.

Nouveau dans la version 2.5.

doctest.COMPARISON_FLAGS

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

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

doctest.REPORT_UDIFF

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

doctest.REPORT_CDIFF

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

doctest.REPORT_NDIFF

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

doctest.REPORT_ONLY_FIRST_FAILURE

When specified, display the first failing example in each doctest, but suppress output for all remaining examples. This will prevent doctest from reporting correct examples that break because of earlier failures; but it might also hide incorrect examples that fail independently of the first failure. When *REPORT_ONLY_FIRST_FAILURE* is specified, the remaining examples are still run, and still count towards the total number of failures reported; only the output is suppressed.

doctest.REPORTING_FLAGS

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

Nouveau dans la version 2.4 : The constants `DONT_ACCEPT_BLANKLINE`, `NORMALIZE_WHITESPACE`, `ELLIPSIS`, `IGNORE_EXCEPTION_DETAIL`, `REPORT_UDIFF`, `REPORT_CDIFF`, `REPORT_NDIFF`, `REPORT_ONLY_FIRST_FAILURE`, `COMPARISON_FLAGS` and `REPORTING_FLAGS` were added.

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

`doctest.register_optionflag(name)`

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

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

Nouveau dans la version 2.4.

Directives

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

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

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

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

For example, this test passes :

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

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

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

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

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

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

```
>>> print range(20)
...
```

(suite sur la page suivante)

(suite de la page précédente)

```
[0,      1, ...,   18,   19]
```

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

```
>>> print range(5) + range(10,20) + range(30,40) + range(50,60)
...
[0, ..., 4, 10, ..., 19, 30, ..., 39, 50, ..., 59]
```

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

Nouveau dans la version 2.4 : Support for doctest directives was added.

Avertissements

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

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

is vulnerable! One workaround is to do

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

instead. Another is to do

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

There are others, but you get the idea.

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

25.2.4 Basic API

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

`doctest.testfile(filename[, module_relative[, name[, package[, globs[, verbose[, report[, option-flags[, extraglobs[, raise_on_error[, parser[, encoding]]]]]]]]])`

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

Optional argument `extraglobs` gives a dict merged into the globals used to execute examples. This works like `dict.update()` : if `globs` and `extraglobs` have a common key, the associated value in `extraglobs` appears in the combined dict. By default, or if `None`, no extra globals are used. This is an advanced feature that allows parameterization of doctests. For example, a doctest can be written for a base class, using a generic name for the class, then reused to test any number of subclasses by passing an `extraglobs` dict mapping the generic name to the subclass to be tested.

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

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

Optional argument *optionflags* or's together option flags. See section [Option Flags](#).

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

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

Optional argument *encoding* specifies an encoding that should be used to convert the file to unicode. Nouveau dans la version 2.4.

Modifié dans la version 2.5 : The parameter *encoding* was added.

```
doctest.testmod([m][, name][, globs][, verbose][, report][, optionflags][, extraglobs][, raise_on_error][,
                exclude_empty])
```

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

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

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

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

Return (`failure_count`, `test_count`).

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

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

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

Modifié dans la version 2.3 : The parameter *optionflags* was added.

Modifié dans la version 2.4 : The parameters *extraglobs*, *raise_on_error* and *exclude_empty* were added.

Modifié dans la version 2.5 : The optional argument *isprivate*, deprecated in 2.4, was removed.

```
doctest.run_docstring_examples(f, globs[, verbose][, name][, compileflags][, optionflags])
```

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

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

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

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

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

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

25.2.5 unittest API

As your collection of doctest'ed modules grows, you'll want a way to run all their doctests systematically. Prior to Python 2.4, `doctest` had a barely documented `Tester` class that supplied a rudimentary way to combine doctests from multiple modules. `Tester` was feeble, and in practice most serious Python testing frameworks build on the `unittest` module, which supplies many flexible ways to combine tests from multiple sources. So, in Python 2.4, `doctest`'s `Tester` class is deprecated, and `doctest` provides two functions that can be used to create `unittest` test suites from modules and text files containing doctests. To integrate with `unittest` test discovery, include a `load_tests()` function in your test module :

```
import unittest
import doctest
import my_module_with_doctests

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

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

`doctest.DocFileSuite(*paths, [module_relative][, package][, setUp][, tearDown][, globs][, optionflags][, parser][, encoding])`

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

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

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

Options may be provided as keyword arguments :

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

Optional argument `encoding` specifies an encoding that should be used to convert the file to unicode. Nouveau dans la version 2.4.

Modifié dans la version 2.5 : The global `__file__` was added to the globals provided to doctests loaded from a text file using `DocFileSuite()`.

Modifié dans la version 2.5 : The parameter `encoding` was added.

Note : Unlike `testmod()` and `DocTestFinder`, this function raises a `ValueError` if `module` contains

no docstrings. You can prevent this error by passing a *DocTestFinder* instance as the *test_finder* argument with its *exclude_empty* keyword argument set to *False* :

```
>>> finder = doctest.DocTestFinder(exclude_empty=False)
>>> suite = doctest.DocTestSuite(test_finder=finder)
```

doctest.DocTestSuite([module][, globs][, extraglobs][, test_finder][, setUp][, tearDown][, checker])

Convert doctest tests for a module to a *unittest.TestSuite*.

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

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

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

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

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

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

Nouveau dans la version 2.3.

Modifié dans la version 2.4 : The parameters *globs*, *extraglobs*, *test_finder*, *setUp*, *tearDown*, and *optionflags* were added ; this function now uses the same search technique as *testmod()*.

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

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

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

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

doctest.set_unittest_reportflags(flags)

Set the *doctest* reporting flags to use.

Argument *flags* or's together option flags. See section *Option Flags*. Only « reporting flags » can be used.

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

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

Nouveau dans la version 2.4.

25.2.6 Advanced API

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

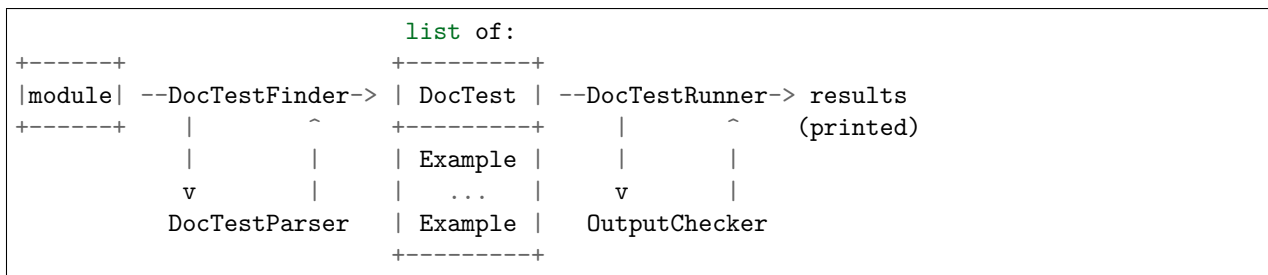
The advanced API revolves around two container classes, which are used to store the interactive examples extracted from doctest cases :

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

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

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

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



DocTest Objects

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

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

Nouveau dans la version 2.4.

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

examples

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

globs

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

name

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

filename

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

lineno

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

docstring

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

Example Objects

class `doctest.Example(source, want[, exc_msg][, lineno][, indent][, options])`

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

Nouveau dans la version 2.4.

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

source

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

want

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

exc_msg

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

lineno

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

indent

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

options

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

DocTestFinder objects

class `doctest.DocTestFinder([verbose][, parser][, recurse][, exclude_empty])`

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

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

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

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

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

Nouveau dans la version 2.4.

DocTestFinder defines the following method :

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

DocTestParser objects

class doctest.DocTestParser

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

Nouveau dans la version 2.4.

DocTestParser defines the following methods :

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

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

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

get_examples(*string*[, *name*])

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

parse(*string*[, *name*])

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

DocTestRunner objects

class doctest.DocTestRunner(*[checker]*[, *verbose*][, *optionflags*])

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

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

The test runner's display output can be controlled in two ways. First, an output function can be passed to *TestRunner.run()*; this function will be called with strings that should be displayed.

It defaults to `sys.stdout.write`. If capturing the output is not sufficient, then the display output can be also customized by subclassing `DocTestRunner`, and overriding the methods `report_start()`, `report_success()`, `report_unexpected_exception()`, and `report_failure()`.

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

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

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

Nouveau dans la version 2.4.

`DocTestParser` defines the following methods :

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

run(*test*[, *compileflags*][, *out*][, *clear_globs*])

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

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

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

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

summarize([*verbose*])

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

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

Modifié dans la version 2.6 : Use a named tuple.

OutputChecker objects

`class doctest.OutputChecker`

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

Nouveau dans la version 2.4.

OutputChecker defines the following methods:

check_output(want, got, optionflags)

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

output_difference(example, got, optionflags)

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

25.2.7 Debugging

Doctest provides several mechanisms for debugging doctest examples:

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

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

Then an interactive Python session may look like this:

```
>>> import a, doctest
>>> doctest.testmod(a)
--Return--
> <doctest a[1]>(3)g()->None
-> import pdb; pdb.set_trace()
(Pdb) list
1      def g(x):
2          print x+3
3  ->      import pdb; pdb.set_trace()
```

(suite sur la page suivante)

(suite de la page précédente)

```
[EOF]
(Pdb) print x
6
(Pdb) step
--Return--
> <doctest a[0]>(2)f()->None
-> g(x*2)
(Pdb) list
1      def f(x):
2  ->    g(x*2)
[EOF]
(Pdb) print x
3
(Pdb) step
--Return--
> <doctest a[2]>(1)?()->None
-> f(3)
(Pdb) cont
(0, 3)
>>>
```

Modifié dans la version 2.4 : The ability to use `pdb.set_trace()` usefully inside doctests was added. Functions that convert doctests to Python code, and possibly run the synthesized code under the debugger :

`doctest.script_from_examples(s)`

Convert text with examples to a script.

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

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

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

displays :

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

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

Nouveau dans la version 2.4.

`doctest.testsource(module, name)`

Convert the doctest for an object to a script.

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

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

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

Nouveau dans la version 2.3.

`doctest.debug(module, name[, pm])`

Debug the doctests for an object.

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

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

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

Nouveau dans la version 2.3.

Modifié dans la version 2.4 : The *pm* argument was added.

`doctest.debug_src(src[, pm][, globs])`

Debug the doctests in a string.

This is like function [debug\(\)](#) above, except that a string containing doctest examples is specified directly, via the *src* argument.

Optional argument *pm* has the same meaning as in function [debug\(\)](#) above.

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

Nouveau dans la version 2.4.

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

`class doctest.DebugRunner([checker][, verbose][, optionflags])`

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

For information about the constructor parameters and methods, see the documentation for [DocTestRunner](#) in section [Advanced API](#).

There are two exceptions that may be raised by [DebugRunner](#) instances :

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

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

[DocTestFailure](#) defines the following attributes :

`DocTestFailure.test`

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

`DocTestFailure.example`

The *Example* that failed.

`DocTestFailure.got`

The example's actual output.

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

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

UnexpectedException defines the following attributes :

`UnexpectedException.test`

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

`UnexpectedException.example`

The *Example* that failed.

`UnexpectedException.exc_info`

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

25.2.8 Soapbox

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

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

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

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

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

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

- Write text files containing test cases as interactive examples, and test the files using *testfile()* or *DocFileSuite()*. This is recommended, although is easiest to do for new projects, designed from the start to use doctest.

- Define functions named `_regtest_topic` that consist of single docstrings, containing test cases for the named topics. These functions can be included in the same file as the module, or separated out into a separate test file.
- Define a `__test__` dictionary mapping from regression test topics to docstrings containing test cases.

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

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

Notes

25.3 unittest — *Framework de tests unitaires*

Nouveau dans la version 2.1.

(Si vous êtes déjà familier des concepts de base concernant les tests, vous pouvez souhaiter passer à *la liste des méthodes*.)

The Python unit testing framework, sometimes referred to as « PyUnit, » is a Python language version of JUnit, by Kent Beck and Erich Gamma. JUnit is, in turn, a Java version of Kent's Smalltalk testing framework. Each is the de facto standard unit testing framework for its respective language.

`unittest` supports test automation, sharing of setup and shutdown code for tests, aggregation of tests into collections, and independence of the tests from the reporting framework. The `unittest` module provides classes that make it easy to support these qualities for a set of tests.

To achieve this, `unittest` supports some important concepts :

aménagement de test (*fixture*) Un *aménagement de test* (**fixture**) désigne la préparation nécessaire au déroulement d'un ou plusieurs tests, et toutes les actions de nettoyage associées. Cela peut concerner, par exemple, la création de bases de données temporaires ou mandataires, de répertoires, ou le démarrage d'un processus serveur.

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

suite de tests Une *suite de tests* est une collection de scénarios de test, de suites de tests ou les deux. Cela sert à regrouper les tests qui devraient être exécutés ensemble.

lanceur de tests Un *lanceur de tests* est un composant qui orchestre l'exécution des tests et fournit le résultat pour l'utilisateur. Le lanceur peut utiliser une interface graphique, une interface textuelle, ou renvoie une valeur spéciale pour indiquer les résultats de l'exécution des tests.

The test case and test fixture concepts are supported through the `TestCase` and `FunctionTestCase` classes ; the former should be used when creating new tests, and the latter can be used when integrating existing

test code with a *unittest*-driven framework. When building test fixtures using *TestCase*, the *setUp()* and *tearDown()* methods can be overridden to provide initialization and cleanup for the fixture. With *FunctionTestCase*, existing functions can be passed to the constructor for these purposes. When the test is run, the fixture initialization is run first; if it succeeds, the cleanup method is run after the test has been executed, regardless of the outcome of the test. Each instance of the *TestCase* will only be used to run a single test method, so a new fixture is created for each test.

Test suites are implemented by the *TestSuite* class. This class allows individual tests and test suites to be aggregated; when the suite is executed, all tests added directly to the suite and in « child » test suites are run.

A test runner is an object that provides a single method, *run()*, which accepts a *TestCase* or *TestSuite* object as a parameter, and returns a result object. The class *TestResult* is provided for use as the result object. *unittest* provides the *TextTestRunner* as an example test runner which reports test results on the standard error stream by default. Alternate runners can be implemented for other environments (such as graphical environments) without any need to derive from a specific class.

Voir aussi :

Module *doctest* Un autre module de test adoptant une approche très différente.

unittest2 : A backport of new unittest features for Python 2.4-2.6 Many new features were added to unittest in Python 2.7, including test discovery. unittest2 allows you to use these features with earlier versions of Python.

Simple Smalltalk Testing : With Patterns Le papier originel de Kent Beck sur les *frameworks* de test utilisant le modèle sur lequel s'appuie *unittest*.

Nose and pytest Des *frameworks* tierces de tests unitaires avec une syntaxe allégée pour l'écriture des tests. Par exemple, `assert func(10) == 42`.

The Python Testing Tools Taxonomy Une liste étendue des outils de test pour Python comprenant des *frameworks* de tests fonctionnels et des bibliothèques d'objets simulés (*mocks*).

Testing in Python Mailing List un groupe de discussion dédié aux tests, et outils de test, en Python.

25.3.1 Exemple basique

Le module *unittest* fournit un riche ensemble d'outils pour construire et lancer des tests. Cette section montre qu'une petite partie des outils suffit pour satisfaire les besoins de la plupart des utilisateurs.

Voici un court script pour tester trois méthodes de *string* :

```
import unittest

class TestStringMethods(unittest.TestCase):

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

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

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

(suite sur la page suivante)

(suite de la page précédente)

```
s.split(2)

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

Un scénario de test est créé comme classe-fille de `unittest.TestCase`. Les trois tests individuels sont définis par des méthodes dont les noms commencent par les lettres `test`. Cette convention de nommage signale au lanceur de tests quelles méthodes sont des tests.

Le cœur de chaque test est un appel à `assertEqual()` pour vérifier un résultat attendu ; `assertTrue()` ou `assertFalse()` pour vérifier une condition ; ou `assertRaises()` pour vérifier qu'une exception particulière est levée. Ces méthodes sont utilisées à la place du mot-clé `assert` pour que le lanceur de tests puisse récupérer les résultats de tous les tests et produire un rapport.

Les méthodes `setUp()` et `tearDown()` vous autorisent à définir des instructions qui seront exécutées avant et après chaque méthode test. Elles sont davantage détaillées dans la section *Organizing test code*.

Le bloc final montre une manière simple de lancer les tests. `unittest.main()` fournit une interface en ligne de commande pour le script de test. Lorsqu'il est lancé en ligne de commande, le script ci-dessus produit une sortie qui ressemble à ceci :

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

OK
```

Instead of `unittest.main()`, there are other ways to run the tests with a finer level of control, less terse output, and no requirement to be run from the command line. For example, the last two lines may be replaced with :

```
suite = unittest.TestLoader().loadTestsFromTestCase(TestStringMethods)
unittest.TextTestRunner(verbosity=2).run(suite)
```

Running the revised script from the interpreter or another script produces the following output :

```
test_isupper (__main__.TestStringMethods) ... ok
test_split (__main__.TestStringMethods) ... ok
test_upper (__main__.TestStringMethods) ... ok

-----
Ran 3 tests in 0.001s

OK
```

Les exemples ci-dessus montrent les fonctionnalités d'`unittest` les plus communément utilisées et qui sont suffisantes pour couvrir les besoins courants en matière de test. Le reste de la documentation explore l'ensemble complet des fonctionnalités depuis les premiers principes.

25.3.2 Command-Line Interface

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


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

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

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

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

For a list of all the command-line options :

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

Modifié dans la version 2.7 : In earlier versions it was only possible to run individual test methods and not modules or classes.

Command-line options

`unittest` supports these command-line options :

-b, --buffer

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

-c, --catch

Control-C during the test run waits for the current test to end and then reports all the results so far. A second **Control-C** raises the normal *KeyboardInterrupt* exception. See *Signal Handling* for the functions that provide this functionality.

-f, --failfast

Stop the test run on the first error or failure.

Nouveau dans la version 2.7 : The command-line options `-b`, `-c` and `-f` were added.

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

25.3.3 Test Discovery

Nouveau dans la version 2.7.

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

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

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

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

-v, --verbose

Verbose output

-s, --start-directory directory

Directory to start discovery (. default)

-p, --pattern pattern
Pattern to match test files (`test*.py` default)

-t, --top-level-directory directory
Top level directory of project (defaults to start directory)

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

25.3.4 Organizing test code

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

An instance of a *TestCase*-derived class is an object that can completely run a single test method, together with optional set-up and tidy-up code.

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

The simplest *TestCase* subclass will simply override the `runTest()` method in order to perform specific testing code :

```
import unittest

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

Note that in order to test something, we use one of the `assert*()` methods provided by the *TestCase* base class. If the test fails, an exception will be raised, and *unittest* will identify the test case as a *failure*. Any other exceptions will be treated as *errors*. This helps you identify where the problem is : *failures* are caused by incorrect results - a 5 where you expected a 6. *Errors* are caused by incorrect code - e.g., a *TypeError* caused by an incorrect function call.

The way to run a test case will be described later. For now, note that to construct an instance of such a test case, we call its constructor without arguments :

```
testCase = DefaultWidgetSizeTestCase()
```

Now, such test cases can be numerous, and their set-up can be repetitive. In the above case, constructing a `Widget` in each of 100 `Widget` test case subclasses would mean unsightly duplication.

Luckily, we can factor out such set-up code by implementing a method called `setUp()`, which the testing framework will automatically call for us when we run the test :

```
import unittest

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

class DefaultWidgetSizeTestCase(SimpleWidgetTestCase):
    def runTest(self):
        self.assertEqual(self.widget.size(), (50,50),
                          'incorrect default size')

class WidgetResizeTestCase(SimpleWidgetTestCase):
    def runTest(self):
        self.widget.resize(100,150)
        self.assertEqual(self.widget.size(), (100,150),
                          'wrong size after resize')
```

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

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

```
import unittest

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

    def tearDown(self):
        self.widget.dispose()
        self.widget = None
```

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

Such a working environment for the testing code is called a *fixture*.

Often, many small test cases will use the same fixture. In this case, we would end up subclassing `SimpleWidgetTestCase` into many small one-method classes such as `DefaultWidgetSizeTestCase`. This is time-consuming and discouraging, so in the same vein as JUnit, `unittest` provides a simpler mechanism :

```
import unittest

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

(suite sur la page suivante)

(suite de la page précédente)

```

def tearDown(self):
    self.widget.dispose()
    self.widget = None

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

def test_resize(self):
    self.widget.resize(100,150)
    self.assertEqual(self.widget.size(), (100,150),
                     'wrong size after resize')

```

Here we have not provided a `runTest()` method, but have instead provided two different test methods. Class instances will now each run one of the `test_*`() methods, with `self.widget` created and destroyed separately for each instance. When creating an instance we must specify the test method it is to run. We do this by passing the method name in the constructor :

```

defaultSizeTestCase = WidgetTestCase('test_default_size')
resizeTestCase = WidgetTestCase('test_resize')

```

Test case instances are grouped together according to the features they test. *unittest* provides a mechanism for this : the *test suite*, represented by *unittest*'s *TestSuite* class :

```

widgetTestSuite = unittest.TestSuite()
widgetTestSuite.addTest(WidgetTestCase('test_default_size'))
widgetTestSuite.addTest(WidgetTestCase('test_resize'))

```

For the ease of running tests, as we will see later, it is a good idea to provide in each test module a callable object that returns a pre-built test suite :

```

def suite():
    suite = unittest.TestSuite()
    suite.addTest(WidgetTestCase('test_default_size'))
    suite.addTest(WidgetTestCase('test_resize'))
    return suite

```

or even :

```

def suite():
    tests = ['test_default_size', 'test_resize']

    return unittest.TestSuite(map(WidgetTestCase, tests))

```

Since it is a common pattern to create a *TestCase* subclass with many similarly named test functions, *unittest* provides a *TestLoader* class that can be used to automate the process of creating a test suite and populating it with individual tests. For example,

```

suite = unittest.TestLoader().loadTestsFromTestCase(WidgetTestCase)

```

will create a test suite that will run `WidgetTestCase.test_default_size()` and `WidgetTestCase.test_resize`. *TestLoader* uses the 'test' method name prefix to identify test methods automatically.

Note that the order in which the various test cases will be run is determined by sorting the test function names with respect to the built-in ordering for strings.

Often it is desirable to group suites of test cases together, so as to run tests for the whole system at once. This is easy, since `TestSuite` instances can be added to a `TestSuite` just as `TestCase` instances can be added to a `TestSuite`:

```
suite1 = module1.TheTestSuite()
suite2 = module2.TheTestSuite()
alltests = unittest.TestSuite([suite1, suite2])
```

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

- The test module can be run standalone from the command line.
- The test code can more easily be separated from shipped code.
- There is less temptation to change test code to fit the code it tests without a good reason.
- Test code should be modified much less frequently than the code it tests.
- Tested code can be refactored more easily.
- Tests for modules written in C must be in separate modules anyway, so why not be consistent?
- If the testing strategy changes, there is no need to change the source code.

25.3.5 Re-using old test code

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

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

Given the following test function:

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

one can create an equivalent test case instance as follows:

```
testcase = unittest.FunctionTestCase(testSomething)
```

If there are additional set-up and tear-down methods that should be called as part of the test case's operation, they can also be provided like so:

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

To make migrating existing test suites easier, `unittest` supports tests raising `AssertionError` to indicate test failure. However, it is recommended that you use the explicit `TestCase.fail*()` and `TestCase.assert*()` methods instead, as future versions of `unittest` may treat `AssertionError` differently.

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

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

25.3.6 Skipping tests and expected failures

Nouveau dans la version 2.7.

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

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

Basic skipping looks like this :

```
class MyTestCase(unittest.TestCase):

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

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

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

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

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

Ran 3 tests in 0.005s

OK (skipped=3)

Classes can be skipped just like methods :

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

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

Expected failures use the `expectedFailure()` decorator.

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

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

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

The following decorators implement test skipping and expected failures :

`unittest.skip(reason)`

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

`unittest.skipIf(condition, reason)`

Skip the decorated test if *condition* is true.

`unittest.skipUnless(condition, reason)`

Skip the decorated test unless *condition* is true.

`unittest.expectedFailure()`

Mark the test as an expected failure. If the test fails when run, the test is not counted as a failure.

`exception unittest.SkipTest(reason)`

This exception is raised to skip a test.

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

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

25.3.7 Classes and functions

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

Test cases

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

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

Each instance of `TestCase` will run a single test method : the method named *methodName*. If you remember, we had an earlier example that went something like this :

```
def suite():
    suite = unittest.TestSuite()
    suite.addTest(WidgetTestCase('test_default_size'))
    suite.addTest(WidgetTestCase('test_resize'))
    return suite
```

Here, we create two instances of `WidgetTestCase`, each of which runs a single test.

methodName defaults to `runTest()`.

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

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

setUp()

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

tearDown()

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

setUpClass()

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

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

See *Class and Module Fixtures* for more details.

Nouveau dans la version 2.7.

tearDownClass()

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

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

See *Class and Module Fixtures* for more details.

Nouveau dans la version 2.7.

run(result=None)

Run the test, collecting the result into the test result object passed as *result*. If *result* is omitted or *None*, a temporary result object is created (by calling the *defaultTestResult()* method) and used. The result object is not returned to *run()*'s caller.

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

skipTest(reason)

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

Nouveau dans la version 2.7.

debug()

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

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

Méthode	Checks that	New in
<code>assertEqual(a, b)</code>	<code>a == b</code>	
<code>assertNotEqual(a, b)</code>	<code>a != b</code>	
<code>assertTrue(x)</code>	<code>bool(x) is True</code>	
<code>assertFalse(x)</code>	<code>bool(x) is False</code>	
<code>assertIs(a, b)</code>	<code>a is b</code>	2.7
<code>assertIsNot(a, b)</code>	<code>a is not b</code>	2.7
<code>assertIsNone(x)</code>	<code>x is None</code>	2.7
<code>assertIsNotNone(x)</code>	<code>x is not None</code>	2.7
<code>assertIn(a, b)</code>	<code>a in b</code>	2.7
<code>assertNotIn(a, b)</code>	<code>a not in b</code>	2.7
<code>assertIsInstance(a, b)</code>	<code>isinstance(a, b)</code>	2.7
<code>assertNotIsInstance(a, b)</code>	<code>not isinstance(a, b)</code>	2.7

All the assert methods (except `assertRaises()`, `assertRaisesRegex()`) accept a `msg` argument that, if specified, is used as the error message on failure (see also `longMessage`).

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

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

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

Modifié dans la version 2.7 : Added the automatic calling of type-specific equality function.

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

Nouveau dans la version 2.7.

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

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

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

Nouveau dans la version 2.7.

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

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

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

Nouveau dans la version 2.7.

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

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

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

Nouveau dans la version 2.7.

It is also possible to check that exceptions and warnings are raised using the following methods :

Méthode	Checks that	New in
<code>assertRaises(exc, fun, *args, **kwargs)</code>	<code>fun(*args, **kwargs)</code> raises <i>exc</i>	
<code>assertRaisesRegexp(exc, r, fun, *args, **kwargs)</code>	<code>fun(*args, **kwargs)</code> raises <i>exc</i> and the message matches regex <i>r</i>	2.7

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

assertRaises(*exception*)

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

If only the *exception* argument is given, returns a context manager so that the code under test can be written inline rather than as a function :

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

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

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

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

Modifié dans la version 2.7 : Added the ability to use `assertRaises()` as a context manager.

assertRaisesRegexp(*exception*, *regexp*, *callable*, **args*, ***kwargs*)

assertRaisesRegexp(*exception*, *regexp*)

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

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

ou :

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

Nouveau dans la version 2.7.

There are also other methods used to perform more specific checks, such as :

Méthode	Checks that	New in
<code>assertAlmostEqual(a, b)</code>	<code>round(a-b, 7) == 0</code>	
<code>assertNotAlmostEqual(a, b)</code>	<code>round(a-b, 7) != 0</code>	
<code>assertGreater(a, b)</code>	<code>a > b</code>	2.7
<code>assertGreaterEqual(a, b)</code>	<code>a >= b</code>	2.7
<code>assertLess(a, b)</code>	<code>a < b</code>	2.7
<code>assertLessEqual(a, b)</code>	<code>a <= b</code>	2.7
<code>assertRegexpMatches(s, r)</code>	<code>r.search(s)</code>	2.7
<code>assertNotRegexpMatches(s, r)</code>	<code>not r.search(s)</code>	2.7
<code>assertItemsEqual(a, b)</code>	<code>sorted(a) == sorted(b)</code> and works with unhashable objs	2.7
<code>assertDictContainsSubset(a, b)</code>	all the key/value pairs in <i>a</i> exist in <i>b</i>	2.7

assertAlmostEqual(*first*, *second*, *places*=7, *msg*=None, *delta*=None)

assertNotAlmostEqual(*first*, *second*, *places*=7, *msg*=None, *delta*=None)

Test that *first* and *second* are approximately (or not approximately) equal by computing the difference, rounding to the given number of decimal *places* (default 7), and comparing to zero. Note that these methods round the values to the given number of *decimal places* (i.e. like the `round()` function) and not *significant digits*.

If *delta* is supplied instead of *places* then the difference between *first* and *second* must be less or equal to (or greater than) *delta*.

Supplying both *delta* and *places* raises a `TypeError`.

Modifié dans la version 2.7 : `assertAlmostEqual()` automatically considers almost equal objects that compare equal. `assertNotAlmostEqual()` automatically fails if the objects compare equal.

Added the *delta* keyword argument.

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

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

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

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

Test that *first* is respectively `>`, `>=`, `<` or `<=` than *second* depending on the method name. If not, the test will fail :

```
>>> self.assertGreaterEqual(3, 4)
AssertionError: "3" unexpectedly not greater than or equal to "4"
```

Nouveau dans la version 2.7.

assertRegexpMatches(*text*, *regexp*, *msg*=None)

Test that a *regexp* search matches *text*. In case of failure, the error message will include the pattern and the *text* (or the pattern and the part of *text* that unexpectedly matched). *regexp* may be a regular expression object or a string containing a regular expression suitable for use by `re.search()`.

Nouveau dans la version 2.7.

assertNotRegexpMatches(*text*, *regexp*, *msg*=None)

Verifies that a *regexp* search does not match *text*. Fails with an error message including the pattern and the part of *text* that matches. *regexp* may be a regular expression object or a string containing a regular expression suitable for use by `re.search()`.

Nouveau dans la version 2.7.

assertItemsEqual(*actual*, *expected*, *msg*=None)

Test that sequence *expected* contains the same elements as *actual*, regardless of their order. When they don't, an error message listing the differences between the sequences will be generated.

Duplicate elements are *not* ignored when comparing *actual* and *expected*. It verifies if each element has the same count in both sequences. It is the equivalent of `assertEqual(sorted(expected), sorted(actual))` but it works with sequences of unhashable objects as well.

In Python 3, this method is named `assertCountEqual`.

Nouveau dans la version 2.7.

`assertDictContainsSubset(expected, actual, msg=None)`

Tests whether the key/value pairs in dictionary *actual* are a superset of those in *expected*. If not, an error message listing the missing keys and mismatched values is generated.

Nouveau dans la version 2.7.

Obsolète depuis la version 3.2.

The `assertEqual()` method dispatches the equality check for objects of the same type to different type-specific methods. These methods are already implemented for most of the built-in types, but it's also possible to register new methods using `addTypeEqualityFunc()` :

`addTypeEqualityFunc(typeobj, function)`

Registers a type-specific method called by `assertEqual()` to check if two objects of exactly the same *typeobj* (not subclasses) compare equal. *function* must take two positional arguments and a third `msg=None` keyword argument just as `assertEqual()` does. It must raise `self.failureException(msg)` when inequality between the first two parameters is detected – possibly providing useful information and explaining the inequalities in details in the error message.

Nouveau dans la version 2.7.

The list of type-specific methods automatically used by `assertEqual()` are summarized in the following table. Note that it's usually not necessary to invoke these methods directly.

Méthode	Used to compare	New in
<code>assertMultiLineEqual(a, b)</code>	chaînes	2.7
<code>assertSequenceEqual(a, b)</code>	séquences	2.7
<code>assertListEqual(a, b)</code>	lists	2.7
<code>assertTupleEqual(a, b)</code>	tuples	2.7
<code>assertSetEqual(a, b)</code>	sets or frozensets	2.7
<code>assertDictEqual(a, b)</code>	dicts	2.7

`assertMultiLineEqual(first, second, msg=None)`

Test that the multiline string *first* is equal to the string *second*. When not equal a diff of the two strings highlighting the differences will be included in the error message. This method is used by default when comparing Unicode strings with `assertEqual()`.

Nouveau dans la version 2.7.

`assertSequenceEqual(seq1, seq2, msg=None, seq_type=None)`

Tests that two sequences are equal. If a *seq_type* is supplied, both *seq1* and *seq2* must be instances of *seq_type* or a failure will be raised. If the sequences are different an error message is constructed that shows the difference between the two.

This method is not called directly by `assertEqual()`, but it's used to implement `assertListEqual()` and `assertTupleEqual()`.

Nouveau dans la version 2.7.

`assertListEqual(list1, list2, msg=None)`

`assertTupleEqual(tuple1, tuple2, msg=None)`

Tests that two lists or tuples are equal. If not, an error message is constructed that shows only the differences between the two. An error is also raised if either of the parameters are of the wrong type. These methods are used by default when comparing lists or tuples with `assertEqual()`.

Nouveau dans la version 2.7.

`assertSetEqual(set1, set2, msg=None)`

Tests that two sets are equal. If not, an error message is constructed that lists the differences between the sets. This method is used by default when comparing sets or frozensets with `assertEqual()`.

Fails if either of *set1* or *set2* does not have a `set.difference()` method.

Nouveau dans la version 2.7.

assertDictEqual(*expected*, *actual*, *msg=None*)

Test that two dictionaries are equal. If not, an error message is constructed that shows the differences in the dictionaries. This method will be used by default to compare dictionaries in calls to `assertEqual()`.

Nouveau dans la version 2.7.

Finally the `TestCase` provides the following methods and attributes :

fail(*msg=None*)

Signals a test failure unconditionally, with *msg* or `None` for the error message.

failureException

This class attribute gives the exception raised by the test method. If a test framework needs to use a specialized exception, possibly to carry additional information, it must subclass this exception in order to « play fair » with the framework. The initial value of this attribute is `AssertionError`.

longMessage

If set to `True` then any explicit failure message you pass in to the *assert methods* will be appended to the end of the normal failure message. The normal messages contain useful information about the objects involved, for example the message from `assertEqual` shows you the repr of the two unequal objects. Setting this attribute to `True` allows you to have a custom error message in addition to the normal one.

This attribute defaults to `False`, meaning that a custom message passed to an assert method will silence the normal message.

The class setting can be overridden in individual tests by assigning an instance attribute to `True` or `False` before calling the assert methods.

Nouveau dans la version 2.7.

maxDiff

This attribute controls the maximum length of diffs output by assert methods that report diffs on failure. It defaults to 80*8 characters. Assert methods affected by this attribute are `assertSequenceEqual()` (including all the sequence comparison methods that delegate to it), `assertDictEqual()` and `assertMultiLineEqual()`.

Setting `maxDiff` to `None` means that there is no maximum length of diffs.

Nouveau dans la version 2.7.

Testing frameworks can use the following methods to collect information on the test :

countTestCases()

Return the number of tests represented by this test object. For `TestCase` instances, this will always be 1.

defaultTestResult()

Return an instance of the test result class that should be used for this test case class (if no other result instance is provided to the `run()` method).

For `TestCase` instances, this will always be an instance of `TestResult`; subclasses of `TestCase` should override this as necessary.

id()

Return a string identifying the specific test case. This is usually the full name of the test method, including the module and class name.

shortDescription()

Returns a description of the test, or `None` if no description has been provided. The default implementation of this method returns the first line of the test method's docstring, if available, or `None`.

addCleanup(*function*, **args*, ***kwargs*)

Add a function to be called after `tearDown()` to cleanup resources used during the test. Functions will be called in reverse order to the order they are added (LIFO). They are called with any arguments and keyword arguments passed into `addCleanup()` when they are added.

If `setUp()` fails, meaning that `tearDown()` is not called, then any cleanup functions added will still be called.

Nouveau dans la version 2.7.

`doCleanups()`

This method is called unconditionally after `tearDown()`, or after `setUp()` if `setUp()` raises an exception.

It is responsible for calling all the cleanup functions added by `addCleanup()`. If you need cleanup functions to be called *prior* to `tearDown()` then you can call `doCleanups()` yourself.

`doCleanups()` pops methods off the stack of cleanup functions one at a time, so it can be called at any time.

Nouveau dans la version 2.7.

class `unittest.FunctionTestCase`(*testFunc*, *setUp=None*, *tearDown=None*, *description=None*)

This class implements the portion of the `TestCase` interface which allows the test runner to drive the test, but does not provide the methods which test code can use to check and report errors. This is used to create test cases using legacy test code, allowing it to be integrated into a `unittest`-based test framework.

Deprecated aliases

For historical reasons, some of the `TestCase` methods had one or more aliases that are now deprecated. The following table lists the correct names along with their deprecated aliases :

Nom de méthode	Deprecated alias(es)
<code>assertEqual()</code>	<code>failUnlessEqual</code> , <code>assertEquals</code>
<code>assertNotEqual()</code>	<code>failIfEqual</code>
<code>assertTrue()</code>	<code>failUnless</code> , <code>assert__</code>
<code>assertFalse()</code>	<code>failIf</code>
<code>assertRaises()</code>	<code>failUnlessRaises</code>
<code>assertAlmostEqual()</code>	<code>failUnlessAlmostEqual</code>
<code>assertNotAlmostEqual()</code>	<code>failIfAlmostEqual</code>

Obsolète depuis la version 2.7 : the aliases listed in the second column

Grouping tests

class `unittest.TestSuite`(*tests=()*)

This class represents an aggregation of individual test cases and test suites. The class presents the interface needed by the test runner to allow it to be run as any other test case. Running a `TestSuite` instance is the same as iterating over the suite, running each test individually.

If *tests* is given, it must be an iterable of individual test cases or other test suites that will be used to build the suite initially. Additional methods are provided to add test cases and suites to the collection later on.

`TestSuite` objects behave much like `TestCase` objects, except they do not actually implement a test. Instead, they are used to aggregate tests into groups of tests that should be run together. Some additional methods are available to add tests to `TestSuite` instances :

`addTest(test)`

Add a `TestCase` or `TestSuite` to the suite.

`addTests(tests)`

Add all the tests from an iterable of `TestCase` and `TestSuite` instances to this test suite.

This is equivalent to iterating over *tests*, calling `addTest()` for each element.

`TestSuite` shares the following methods with `TestCase` :

run(result)

Run the tests associated with this suite, collecting the result into the test result object passed as *result*. Note that unlike *TestCase.run()*, *TestSuite.run()* requires the result object to be passed in.

debug()

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

countTestCases()

Return the number of tests represented by this test object, including all individual tests and sub-suites.

__iter__()

Tests grouped by a *TestSuite* are always accessed by iteration. Subclasses can lazily provide tests by overriding *__iter__()*. Note that this method maybe called several times on a single suite (for example when counting tests or comparing for equality) so the tests returned must be the same for repeated iterations.

Modifié dans la version 2.7 : In earlier versions the *TestSuite* accessed tests directly rather than through iteration, so overriding *__iter__()* wasn't sufficient for providing tests.

In the typical usage of a *TestSuite* object, the *run()* method is invoked by a *TestRunner* rather than by the end-user test harness.

Loading and running tests

class unittest.TestLoader

The *TestLoader* class is used to create test suites from classes and modules. Normally, there is no need to create an instance of this class; the *unittest* module provides an instance that can be shared as *unittest.defaultTestLoader*. Using a subclass or instance, however, allows customization of some configurable properties.

TestLoader objects have the following methods :

loadTestsFromTestCase(testCaseClass)

Return a suite of all test cases contained in the *TestCase*-derived *testCaseClass*.

loadTestsFromModule(module)

Return a suite of all test cases contained in the given module. This method searches *module* for classes derived from *TestCase* and creates an instance of the class for each test method defined for the class.

Note : While using a hierarchy of *TestCase*-derived classes can be convenient in sharing fixtures and helper functions, defining test methods on base classes that are not intended to be instantiated directly does not play well with this method. Doing so, however, can be useful when the fixtures are different and defined in subclasses.

If a module provides a *load_tests* function it will be called to load the tests. This allows modules to customize test loading. This is the *load_tests protocol*.

Modifié dans la version 2.7 : Support for *load_tests* added.

loadTestsFromName(name, module=None)

Return a suite of all test cases given a string specifier.

The specifier *name* is a « dotted name » that may resolve either to a module, a test case class, a test method within a test case class, a *TestSuite* instance, or a callable object which returns a *TestCase* or *TestSuite* instance. These checks are applied in the order listed here; that is, a method on a possible test case class will be picked up as « a test method within a test case class », rather than « a callable object ».

For example, if you have a module *SampleTests* containing a *TestCase*-derived class *SampleTestCase* with three test methods (*test_one()*, *test_two()*, and *test_three()*), the

specifier `'SampleTests.SampleTestCase'` would cause this method to return a suite which will run all three test methods. Using the specifier `'SampleTests.SampleTestCase.test_two'` would cause it to return a test suite which will run only the `test_two()` test method. The specifier can refer to modules and packages which have not been imported; they will be imported as a side-effect.

The method optionally resolves *name* relative to the given *module*.

loadTestsFromNames(*names*, *module=None*)

Similar to `loadTestsFromName()`, but takes a sequence of names rather than a single name. The return value is a test suite which supports all the tests defined for each name.

getTestCaseNames(*testCaseClass*)

Return a sorted sequence of method names found within *testCaseClass*; this should be a subclass of `TestCase`.

discover(*start_dir*, *pattern='test*.py'*, *top_level_dir=None*)

Find all the test modules by recursing into subdirectories from the specified start directory, and return a `TestSuite` object containing them. Only test files that match *pattern* will be loaded. (Using shell style pattern matching.) Only module names that are importable (i.e. are valid Python identifiers) will be loaded.

All test modules must be importable from the top level of the project. If the start directory is not the top level directory then the top level directory must be specified separately.

If importing a module fails, for example due to a syntax error, then this will be recorded as a single error and discovery will continue.

If a test package name (directory with `__init__.py`) matches the pattern then the package will be checked for a `load_tests` function. If this exists then it will be called with *loader*, *tests*, *pattern*. If `load_tests` exists then discovery does *not* recurse into the package, `load_tests` is responsible for loading all tests in the package.

The pattern is deliberately not stored as a loader attribute so that packages can continue discovery themselves. *top_level_dir* is stored so `load_tests` does not need to pass this argument in to `loader.discover()`.

start_dir can be a dotted module name as well as a directory.

Nouveau dans la version 2.7.

The following attributes of a `TestLoader` can be configured either by subclassing or assignment on an instance :

testMethodPrefix

String giving the prefix of method names which will be interpreted as test methods. The default value is `'test'`.

This affects `getTestCaseNames()` and all the `loadTestsFrom*()` methods.

sortTestMethodsUsing

Function to be used to compare method names when sorting them in `getTestCaseNames()` and all the `loadTestsFrom*()` methods. The default value is the built-in `cmp()` function; the attribute can also be set to `None` to disable the sort.

suiteClass

Callable object that constructs a test suite from a list of tests. No methods on the resulting object are needed. The default value is the `TestSuite` class.

This affects all the `loadTestsFrom*()` methods.

class unittest.TestResult

This class is used to compile information about which tests have succeeded and which have failed.

A `TestResult` object stores the results of a set of tests. The `TestCase` and `TestSuite` classes ensure that results are properly recorded; test authors do not need to worry about recording the outcome of tests.

Testing frameworks built on top of `unittest` may want access to the `TestResult` object generated by running a set of tests for reporting purposes; a `TestResult` instance is returned by the `TestRunner.run()` method for this purpose.

TestResult instances have the following attributes that will be of interest when inspecting the results of running a set of tests :

errors

A list containing 2-tuples of *TestCase* instances and strings holding formatted tracebacks. Each tuple represents a test which raised an unexpected exception.

Modifié dans la version 2.2 : Contains formatted tracebacks instead of *sys.exc_info()* results.

failures

A list containing 2-tuples of *TestCase* instances and strings holding formatted tracebacks. Each tuple represents a test where a failure was explicitly signalled using the *TestCase.assert*()* methods.

Modifié dans la version 2.2 : Contains formatted tracebacks instead of *sys.exc_info()* results.

skipped

A list containing 2-tuples of *TestCase* instances and strings holding the reason for skipping the test.

Nouveau dans la version 2.7.

expectedFailures

A list containing 2-tuples of *TestCase* instances and strings holding formatted tracebacks. Each tuple represents an expected failure of the test case.

unexpectedSuccesses

A list containing *TestCase* instances that were marked as expected failures, but succeeded.

shouldStop

Set to *True* when the execution of tests should stop by *stop()*.

testsRun

The total number of tests run so far.

buffer

If set to *true*, *sys.stdout* and *sys.stderr* will be buffered in between *startTest()* and *stopTest()* being called. Collected output will only be echoed onto the real *sys.stdout* and *sys.stderr* if the test fails or errors. Any output is also attached to the failure / error message.

Nouveau dans la version 2.7.

failfast

If set to *true* *stop()* will be called on the first failure or error, halting the test run.

Nouveau dans la version 2.7.

wasSuccessful()

Return *True* if all tests run so far have passed, otherwise returns *False*.

stop()

This method can be called to signal that the set of tests being run should be aborted by setting the *shouldStop* attribute to *True*. *TestRunner* objects should respect this flag and return without running any additional tests.

For example, this feature is used by the *TextTestRunner* class to stop the test framework when the user signals an interrupt from the keyboard. Interactive tools which provide *TestRunner* implementations can use this in a similar manner.

The following methods of the *TestResult* class are used to maintain the internal data structures, and may be extended in subclasses to support additional reporting requirements. This is particularly useful in building tools which support interactive reporting while tests are being run.

startTest(test)

Called when the test case *test* is about to be run.

stopTest(test)

Called after the test case *test* has been executed, regardless of the outcome.

startTestRun()

Called once before any tests are executed.

Nouveau dans la version 2.7.

stopTestRun()

Called once after all tests are executed.

Nouveau dans la version 2.7.

addError(test, err)

Called when the test case *test* raises an unexpected exception. *err* is a tuple of the form returned by `sys.exc_info()`: (type, value, traceback).

The default implementation appends a tuple (test, formatted_err) to the instance's *errors* attribute, where *formatted_err* is a formatted traceback derived from *err*.

addFailure(test, err)

Called when the test case *test* signals a failure. *err* is a tuple of the form returned by `sys.exc_info()`: (type, value, traceback).

The default implementation appends a tuple (test, formatted_err) to the instance's *failures* attribute, where *formatted_err* is a formatted traceback derived from *err*.

addSuccess(test)

Called when the test case *test* succeeds.

The default implementation does nothing.

addSkip(test, reason)

Called when the test case *test* is skipped. *reason* is the reason the test gave for skipping.

The default implementation appends a tuple (test, reason) to the instance's *skipped* attribute.

addExpectedFailure(test, err)

Called when the test case *test* fails, but was marked with the `expectedFailure()` decorator.

The default implementation appends a tuple (test, formatted_err) to the instance's *expectedFailures* attribute, where *formatted_err* is a formatted traceback derived from *err*.

addUnexpectedSuccess(test)

Called when the test case *test* was marked with the `expectedFailure()` decorator, but succeeded.

The default implementation appends the test to the instance's *unexpectedSuccesses* attribute.

class unittest.TextTestResult(stream, descriptions, verbosity)

A concrete implementation of *TestResult* used by the *TextTestRunner*.

Nouveau dans la version 2.7 : This class was previously named `_TextTestResult`. The old name still exists as an alias but is deprecated.

unittest.defaultTestLoader

Instance of the *TestLoader* class intended to be shared. If no customization of the *TestLoader* is needed, this instance can be used instead of repeatedly creating new instances.

class unittest.TextTestRunner(stream=sys.stderr, descriptions=True, verbosity=1, failfast=False, buffer=False, resultclass=None)

A basic test runner implementation which prints results on standard error. It has a few configurable parameters, but is essentially very simple. Graphical applications which run test suites should provide alternate implementations.

_makeResult()

This method returns the instance of *TestResult* used by `run()`. It is not intended to be called directly, but can be overridden in subclasses to provide a custom *TestResult*.

`_makeResult()` instantiates the class or callable passed in the *TextTestRunner* constructor as the *resultclass* argument. It defaults to *TextTestResult* if no *resultclass* is provided. The result class is instantiated with the following arguments :

stream, descriptions, verbosity

unittest.main([module[, defaultTest[, argv[, testRunner[, testLoader[, exit[, verbosity[, failfast[, catchbreak[, buffer]]]]]]]]]])

A command-line program that loads a set of tests from *module* and runs them; this is primarily for

making test modules conveniently executable. The simplest use for this function is to include the following line at the end of a test script :

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

You can run tests with more detailed information by passing in the verbosity argument :

```
if __name__ == '__main__':
    unittest.main(verbosity=2)
```

The *defaultTest* argument is the name of the test to run if no test names are specified via *argv*. If not specified or *None* and no test names are provided via *argv*, all tests found in *module* are run.

The *argv* argument can be a list of options passed to the program, with the first element being the program name. If not specified or *None*, the values of *sys.argv* are used.

The *testRunner* argument can either be a test runner class or an already created instance of it. By default *main* calls *sys.exit()* with an exit code indicating success or failure of the tests run.

The *testLoader* argument has to be a *TestLoader* instance, and defaults to *defaultTestLoader*.

main supports being used from the interactive interpreter by passing in the argument *exit=False*. This displays the result on standard output without calling *sys.exit()* :

```
>>> from unittest import main
>>> main(module='test_module', exit=False)
```

The *failfast*, *catchbreak* and *buffer* parameters have the same effect as the same-name *command-line options*.

Calling *main* actually returns an instance of the *TestProgram* class. This stores the result of the tests run as the *result* attribute.

Modifié dans la version 2.7 : The *exit*, *verbosity*, *failfast*, *catchbreak* and *buffer* parameters were added.

load_tests Protocol

Nouveau dans la version 2.7.

Modules or packages can customize how tests are loaded from them during normal test runs or test discovery by implementing a function called *load_tests*.

If a test module defines *load_tests* it will be called by *TestLoader.loadTestsFromModule()* with the following arguments :

```
load_tests(loader, standard_tests, None)
```

It should return a *TestSuite*.

loader is the instance of *TestLoader* doing the loading. *standard_tests* are the tests that would be loaded by default from the module. It is common for test modules to only want to add or remove tests from the standard set of tests. The third argument is used when loading packages as part of test discovery.

A typical *load_tests* function that loads tests from a specific set of *TestCase* classes may look like :

```
test_cases = (TestCase1, TestCase2, TestCase3)

def load_tests(loader, tests, pattern):
    suite = TestSuite()
    for test_class in test_cases:
        tests = loader.loadTestsFromTestCase(test_class)
```

(suite sur la page suivante)

(suite de la page précédente)

```
suite.addTests(tests)
return suite
```

If discovery is started, either from the command line or by calling `TestLoader.discover()`, with a pattern that matches a package name then the package `__init__.py` will be checked for `load_tests`.

Note : The default pattern is `'test*.py'`. This matches all Python files that start with `'test'` but *won't* match any test directories.

A pattern like `'test*'` will match test packages as well as modules.

If the package `__init__.py` defines `load_tests` then it will be called and discovery not continued into the package. `load_tests` is called with the following arguments :

```
load_tests(loader, standard_tests, pattern)
```

This should return a `TestSuite` representing all the tests from the package. (`standard_tests` will only contain tests collected from `__init__.py`.)

Because the pattern is passed into `load_tests` the package is free to continue (and potentially modify) test discovery. A “do nothing” `load_tests` function for a test package would look like :

```
def load_tests(loader, standard_tests, pattern):
    # top level directory cached on loader instance
    this_dir = os.path.dirname(__file__)
    package_tests = loader.discover(start_dir=this_dir, pattern=pattern)
    standard_tests.addTests(package_tests)
    return standard_tests
```

25.3.8 Class and Module Fixtures

Class and module level fixtures are implemented in `TestSuite`. When the test suite encounters a test from a new class then `tearDownClass()` from the previous class (if there is one) is called, followed by `setUpClass()` from the new class.

Similarly if a test is from a different module from the previous test then `tearDownModule` from the previous module is run, followed by `setUpModule` from the new module.

After all the tests have run the final `tearDownClass` and `tearDownModule` are run.

Note that shared fixtures do not play well with [potential] features like test parallelization and they break test isolation. They should be used with care.

The default ordering of tests created by the unittest test loaders is to group all tests from the same modules and classes together. This will lead to `setUpClass` / `setUpModule` (etc) being called exactly once per class and module. If you randomize the order, so that tests from different modules and classes are adjacent to each other, then these shared fixture functions may be called multiple times in a single test run.

Shared fixtures are not intended to work with suites with non-standard ordering. A `BaseTestSuite` still exists for frameworks that don't want to support shared fixtures.

If there are any exceptions raised during one of the shared fixture functions the test is reported as an error. Because there is no corresponding test instance an `_ErrorHolder` object (that has the same interface as a `TestCase`) is created to represent the error. If you are just using the standard unittest test runner then this detail doesn't matter, but if you are a framework author it may be relevant.

setUpClass and tearDownClass

These must be implemented as class methods :

```
import unittest

class Test(unittest.TestCase):
    @classmethod
    def setUpClass(cls):
        cls._connection = createExpensiveConnectionObject()

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

If you want the `setUpClass` and `tearDownClass` on base classes called then you must call up to them yourself. The implementations in `TestCase` are empty.

If an exception is raised during a `setUpClass` then the tests in the class are not run and the `tearDownClass` is not run. Skipped classes will not have `setUpClass` or `tearDownClass` run. If the exception is a `SkipTest` exception then the class will be reported as having been skipped instead of as an error.

setUpModule and tearDownModule

These should be implemented as functions :

```
def setUpModule():
    createConnection()

def tearDownModule():
    closeConnection()
```

If an exception is raised in a `setUpModule` then none of the tests in the module will be run and the `tearDownModule` will not be run. If the exception is a `SkipTest` exception then the module will be reported as having been skipped instead of as an error.

25.3.9 Signal Handling

The `-c/--catch` command-line option to `unittest`, along with the `catchbreak` parameter to `unittest.main()`, provide more friendly handling of control-C during a test run. With catch break behavior enabled control-C will allow the currently running test to complete, and the test run will then end and report all the results so far. A second control-c will raise a `KeyboardInterrupt` in the usual way.

The control-c handling signal handler attempts to remain compatible with code or tests that install their own `signal.SIGINT` handler. If the `unittest` handler is called but *isn't* the installed `signal.SIGINT` handler, i.e. it has been replaced by the system under test and delegated to, then it calls the default handler. This will normally be the expected behavior by code that replaces an installed handler and delegates to it. For individual tests that need `unittest` control-c handling disabled the `removeHandler()` decorator can be used.

There are a few utility functions for framework authors to enable control-c handling functionality within test frameworks.

`unittest.installHandler()`

Install the control-c handler. When a `signal.SIGINT` is received (usually in response to the user pressing control-c) all registered results have `stop()` called.

Nouveau dans la version 2.7.

`unittest.registerResult(result)`

Register a `TestResult` object for control-c handling. Registering a result stores a weak reference to it, so it doesn't prevent the result from being garbage collected.

Registering a `TestResult` object has no side-effects if control-c handling is not enabled, so test frameworks can unconditionally register all results they create independently of whether or not handling is enabled.

Nouveau dans la version 2.7.

`unittest.removeResult(result)`

Remove a registered result. Once a result has been removed then `stop()` will no longer be called on that result object in response to a control-c.

Nouveau dans la version 2.7.

`unittest.removeHandler(function=None)`

When called without arguments this function removes the control-c handler if it has been installed. This function can also be used as a test decorator to temporarily remove the handler while the test is being executed :

```
@unittest.removeHandler
def test_signal_handling(self):
    ...
```

Nouveau dans la version 2.7.

25.4 *2to3* — Traduction automatique de code en Python 2 vers Python 3

2to3 est un programme Python qui lit du code source en Python 2.x et applique une suite de correcteurs pour le transformer en code Python 3.x valide. La bibliothèque standard contient un ensemble riche de correcteurs qui gèreront quasiment tout le code. La bibliothèque *lib2to3* utilisée par *2to3* est cependant une bibliothèque flexible et générique, il est donc possible d'écrire vos propres correcteurs pour *2to3*. *lib2to3* pourrait aussi être adaptée à des applications personnalisées dans lesquelles le code Python doit être édité automatiquement.

25.4.1 Utilisation de *2to3*

2to3 sera généralement installé avec l'interpréteur Python en tant que script. Il est également situé dans le dossier `Tools/scripts` à racine de Python.

Les arguments de base de *2to3* sont une liste de fichiers et de répertoires à transformer. Les répertoires sont parcourus récursivement pour trouver les sources Python.

Voici un exemple de fichier source Python 2.x, `example.py` :

```
def greet(name):
    print "Hello, {0}!".format(name)
print "What's your name?"
name = raw_input()
greet(name)
```

Il peut être converti en code Python 3.x par *2to3* en ligne de commande :

```
$ 2to3 example.py
```

A diff against the original source file is printed. 2to3 can also write the needed modifications right back to the source file. (A backup of the original file is made unless `-n` is also given.) Writing the changes back is enabled with the `-w` flag :

```
$ 2to3 -w example.py
```

Après transformation, `example.py` ressemble à :

```
def greet(name):
    print("Hello, {0}!".format(name))
print("What's your name?")
name = input()
greet(name)
```

Les commentaires et les retraits sont préservés tout au long du processus de traduction.

By default, 2to3 runs a set of *predefined fixers*. The `-l` flag lists all available fixers. An explicit set of fixers to run can be given with `-f`. Likewise the `-x` explicitly disables a fixer. The following example runs only the imports and has_key fixers :

```
$ 2to3 -f imports -f has_key example.py
```

Cette commande exécute tous les correcteurs, sauf le correcteurs `apply` :

```
$ 2to3 -x apply example.py
```

Certains correcteurs sont *explicités*, ce qui signifie qu'ils ne sont pas exécutés par défaut et doivent être énumérés sur la ligne de commande à exécuter. Ici, en plus des correcteurs par défaut, le correcteur `idioms` est exécuté :

```
$ 2to3 -f all -f idioms example.py
```

Notez que passer `all` active tous les correcteurs par défaut.

Parfois, 2to3 trouvera un endroit dans votre code source qui doit être changé, mais qu'il ne peut pas résoudre automatiquement. Dans ce cas, 2to3 affiche un avertissement sous la comparaison d'un fichier. Vous devez traiter l'avertissement afin d'avoir un code conforme à Python 3.x.

2to3 peut également réusiner les *doctests*. Pour activer ce mode, utilisez `-d`. Notez que *seul* les *doctests* seront réusins. Cela ne nécessite pas que le module soit du Python valide. Par exemple, des *doctests* tels que des exemples dans un document *reST* peuvent également être réusins avec cette option.

L'option `-v` augmente la quantité de messages générés par le processus de traduction.

Since some print statements can be parsed as function calls or statements, 2to3 cannot always read files containing the print function. When 2to3 detects the presence of the `from __future__ import print_function` compiler directive, it modifies its internal grammar to interpret *print()* as a function. This change can also be enabled manually with the `-p` flag. Use `-p` to run fixers on code that already has had its print statements converted.

The `-o` or `--output-dir` option allows specification of an alternate directory for processed output files to be written to. The `-n` flag is required when using this as backup files do not make sense when not overwriting the input files.

Nouveau dans la version 2.7.3 : The `-o` option was added.

The `-W` or `--write-unchanged-files` flag tells 2to3 to always write output files even if no changes were required to the file. This is most useful with `-o` so that an entire Python source tree is copied with translation from one directory to another. This option implies the `-w` flag as it would not make sense otherwise.

Nouveau dans la version 2.7.3 : L'option `-W` a été ajoutée.

The `--add-suffix` option specifies a string to append to all output filenames. The `-n` flag is required when specifying this as backups are not necessary when writing to different filenames. Example :

```
$ 2to3 -n -W --add-suffix=3 example.py
```

Écrit un fichier converti nommé `example.py3`.

Nouveau dans la version 2.7.3 : The `--add-suffix` option was added.

Pour traduire un projet entier d'une arborescence de répertoires à une autre, utilisez :

```
$ 2to3 --output-dir=python3-version/mycode -W -n python2-version/mycode
```

25.4.2 Correcteurs

Chaque étape de la transformation du code est encapsulée dans un correcteur. La commande `2to3 -l` les énumère. Comme *documenté ci-dessus*, chacun peut être activé ou désactivé individuellement. Ils sont décrits plus en détails ici.

apply

Supprime l'usage d'*apply()*. Par exemple, `apply(function, *args, **kwargs)` est converti en `function(*args, **kwargs)`.

asserts

Remplace les noms de méthodes obsolètes du module *unittest* par les bons.

De	À
<code>failUnlessEqual(a, b)</code>	<code>assertEqual(a, b)</code>
<code>assertEquals(a, b)</code>	<code>assertEqual(a, b)</code>
<code>failIfEqual(a, b)</code>	<code>assertNotEqual(a, b)</code>
<code>assertNotEquals(a, b)</code>	<code>assertNotEqual(a, b)</code>
<code>failUnless(a)</code>	<code>assertTrue(a)</code>
<code>assert_(a)</code>	<code>assertTrue(a)</code>
<code>failIf(a)</code>	<code>assertFalse(a)</code>
<code>failUnlessRaises(exc, cal)</code>	<code>assertRaises(exc, cal)</code>
<code>failUnlessAlmostEqual(a, b)</code>	<code>assertAlmostEqual(a, b)</code>
<code>assertAlmostEquals(a, b)</code>	<code>assertAlmostEqual(a, b)</code>
<code>failIfAlmostEqual(a, b)</code>	<code>assertNotAlmostEqual(a, b)</code>
<code>assertNotAlmostEquals(a, b)</code>	<code>assertNotAlmostEqual(a, b)</code>

basestring

Convertit une *basestring* en *str*.

buffer

Convertit un *buffer* en *memoryview*. Ce correcteur est optionnel car l'API *memoryview* est similaire mais pas exactement pareil que celle de *buffer*.

dict

Fixe les méthodes d'itération sur les dictionnaires. *dict.iteritems()* est converti en *dict.items()*, *dict.iterkeys()* en *dict.keys()* et *dict.itervalues()* en *dict.values()*. Similarly, *dict.viewitems()*, *dict.viewkeys()* et *dict.viewvalues()* sont convertis respectivement en *dict.items()*, *dict.keys()* et *dict.values()*. Il encapsule également les usages existants de *dict.items()*, *dict.keys()* et *dict.values()* dans un appel à *list*.

except

Convertit `except X, T` en `except X as T`.

exec

Converts the `exec` statement to the `exec()` function.

execfile

Supprime l'usage de `execfile()`. L'argument de `execfile()` est encapsulé dans des appels à `open()`, `compile()` et `exec()`.

exitfunc

Change l'affectation de `sys.exitfunc` pour utiliser le module `atexit`.

filter

Encapsule l'usage de `filter()` dans un appel à `list`.

funcattrs

Fixe les attributs de fonction ayant été renommés. Par exemple, `my_function.func_closure` est converti en `my_function.__closure__`.

future

Supprime les instructions `from __future__ import new_feature`.

getcwdu

Renomme `os.getcwdu()` en `os.getcwd()`.

has_key

Change `dict.has_key(key)` en `key in dict`.

idioms

Ce correcteur optionnel effectue plusieurs transformations rendant le code Python plus idiomatique. Les comparaisons de types telles que `type(x) is SomeClass` et `type(x) == SomeClass` sont converties en `isinstance(x, SomeClass)`. `while 1` devient `while True`. Ce correcteur essaye aussi d'utiliser `sorted()` aux endroits appropriés. Par exemple, ce bloc

```
L = list(some_iterable)
L.sort()
```

est transformé en :

```
L = sorted(some_iterable)
```

import

Détecte les imports voisins et les convertis en imports relatifs.

imports

Gère les renommages de modules dans la bibliothèque standard.

imports2

Gères d'autres renommages de modules dans la bibliothèque standard. Il est distinct de `imports` seulement en raison de limitations techniques.

input

Convertit `input(prompt)` en `eval(input(prompt))`.

intern

Convertit `intern()` en `sys.intern()`.

isinstance

Fixes duplicate types in the second argument of `isinstance()`. For example, `isinstance(x, (int, int))` is converted to `isinstance(x, (int))`.

itertools_imports

Supprime les imports de `itertools.ifilter()`, `itertools.izip()` et `itertools.imap()`. Les imports de `itertools.ifilterfalse()` sont aussi changés en `itertools.filterfalse()`.

itertools

Change l'usage de *itertools.ifilter()*, *itertools.izip()* et *itertools.imap()* en leurs équivalents intégrés. *itertools.ifilterfalse()* est changé en *itertools.filterfalse()*.

long

Renomme *long* en *int*.

map

Encapsule *map()* dans un appel à *list*. Change aussi *map(None, x)* en *list(x)*. L'usage de *from future_builtins import map* désactive ce correcteur.

metaclass

Convertit l'ancienne syntaxe de métaclasse (*__metaclass__ = Meta* dans le corps de la classe) à la nouvelle (*class X(metaclasses=Meta)*).

methodattrs

Fixe les anciens noms d'attributs de méthodes. Par exemple, *meth.im_func* est converti en *meth.__func__*.

ne

Convertit l'ancienne syntaxe d'inégalité, *<>*, en *!=*.

next

Converts the use of iterator's *next()* methods to the *next()* function. It also renames *next()* methods to *__next__()*.

nonzero

Renomme *__nonzero__()* en *__bool__()*.

numliterals

Convertit les nombres écrits littéralement en octal dans leur nouvelle syntaxe.

paren

Ajoute des parenthèses supplémentaires lorsqu'elles sont nécessaires dans les listes en compréhension. Par exemple, *[x for x in 1, 2]* devient *[x for x in (1, 2)]*.

print

Converts the *print* statement to the *print()* function.

raise

Converts *raise E, V* to *raise E(V)*, and *raise E, V, T* to *raise E(V).with_traceback(T)*. If *E* is a tuple, the translation will be incorrect because substituting tuples for exceptions has been removed in Python 3.

raw_input

Convertit *raw_input()* en *input()*.

reduce

Gère le déplacement de *reduce()* à *functools.reduce()*.

renames

Change *sys.maxint* en *sys.maxsize*.

repr

Remplace les accents graves utilisés comme *repr* par des appels à *repr()*.

set_literal

Remplace l'usage du constructeur de *set* par les ensembles littéraux. Ce correcteur est optionnel.

standarderror

Renomme *StandardError* en *Exception*.

sys_exc

Change les *sys.exc_value*, *sys.exc_type*, *sys.exc_traceback* dépréciés en *sys.exc_info()*.

throw

Fixe le changement de l'API dans la méthode `throw()` du générateur.

tuple_params

Supprime la décompression implicite des paramètres d'un tuple. Ce correcteur ajoute des variables temporaires.

types

Fixe le code cassé par la suppression de certains membres du module *types*.

unicode

Renomme *unicode* en *str*.

urllib

Gère le renommage des paquets *urllib* et *urllib2* en *urllib*.

ws_comma

Supprime l'espace excédentaire des éléments séparés par des virgules. Ce correcteur est optionnel.

xrange

Renomme la fonction *xrange()* en *range()* et encapsule les appels à la fonction *range()* avec des appels à *list*.

xreadlines

Change `for x in file.xreadlines()` en `for x in file`.

zip

Encapsule l'usage de *zip()* dans un appel à *list*. Ceci est désactivé lorsque `from future_builtins import zip` apparaît.

25.4.3 lib2to3 — la bibliothèque de 2to3

Note : L'API de *lib2to3* devrait être considérée instable et peut changer drastiquement dans le futur.

25.5 test — Regression tests package for Python

Note : The *test* package is meant for internal use by Python only. It is documented for the benefit of the core developers of Python. Any use of this package outside of Python's standard library is discouraged as code mentioned here can change or be removed without notice between releases of Python.

The *test* package contains all regression tests for Python as well as the modules *test.support* and *test.regrtest*. *test.support* is used to enhance your tests while *test.regrtest* drives the testing suite.

Each module in the *test* package whose name starts with *test_* is a testing suite for a specific module or feature. All new tests should be written using the *unittest* or *doctest* module. Some older tests are written using a « traditional » testing style that compares output printed to *sys.stdout*; this style of test is considered deprecated.

Voir aussi :

Module *unittest* Writing PyUnit regression tests.

Module *doctest* Tests embedded in documentation strings.

25.5.1 Writing Unit Tests for the test package

It is preferred that tests that use the `unittest` module follow a few guidelines. One is to name the test module by starting it with `test_` and end it with the name of the module being tested. The test methods in the test module should start with `test_` and end with a description of what the method is testing. This is needed so that the methods are recognized by the test driver as test methods. Also, no documentation string for the method should be included. A comment (such as `# Tests function returns only True or False`) should be used to provide documentation for test methods. This is done because documentation strings get printed out if they exist and thus what test is being run is not stated.

A basic boilerplate is often used :

```
import unittest
from test import support

class MyTestCase1(unittest.TestCase):

    # Only use setUp() and tearDown() if necessary

    def setUp(self):
        ... code to execute in preparation for tests ...

    def tearDown(self):
        ... code to execute to clean up after tests ...

    def test_feature_one(self):
        # Test feature one.
        ... testing code ...

    def test_feature_two(self):
        # Test feature two.
        ... testing code ...

    ... more test methods ...

class MyTestCase2(unittest.TestCase):
    ... same structure as MyTestCase1 ...

... more test classes ...

def test_main():
    support.run_unittest(MyTestCase1,
                        MyTestCase2,
                        ... list other tests ...
                        )

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

This boilerplate code allows the testing suite to be run by `test.regrtest` as well as on its own as a script.

The goal for regression testing is to try to break code. This leads to a few guidelines to be followed :

- The testing suite should exercise all classes, functions, and constants. This includes not just the external API that is to be presented to the outside world but also « private » code.
- Whitebox testing (examining the code being tested when the tests are being written) is preferred. Blackbox testing (testing only the published user interface) is not complete enough to make sure all

- boundary and edge cases are tested.
- Make sure all possible values are tested including invalid ones. This makes sure that not only all valid values are acceptable but also that improper values are handled correctly.
- Exhaust as many code paths as possible. Test where branching occurs and thus tailor input to make sure as many different paths through the code are taken.
- Add an explicit test for any bugs discovered for the tested code. This will make sure that the error does not crop up again if the code is changed in the future.
- Make sure to clean up after your tests (such as close and remove all temporary files).
- If a test is dependent on a specific condition of the operating system then verify the condition already exists before attempting the test.
- Import as few modules as possible and do it as soon as possible. This minimizes external dependencies of tests and also minimizes possible anomalous behavior from side-effects of importing a module.
- Try to maximize code reuse. On occasion, tests will vary by something as small as what type of input is used. Minimize code duplication by subclassing a basic test class with a class that specifies the input :

```
class TestFuncAcceptsSequences(unittest.TestCase):

    func = mySuperWhammyFunction

    def test_func(self):
        self.func(self.arg)

class AcceptLists(TestFuncAcceptsSequences):
    arg = [1, 2, 3]

class AcceptStrings(TestFuncAcceptsSequences):
    arg = 'abc'

class AcceptTuples(TestFuncAcceptsSequences):
    arg = (1, 2, 3)
```

Voir aussi :

Test Driven Development A book by Kent Beck on writing tests before code.

25.5.2 Running tests using the command-line interface

The `test.regrtest` module can be run as a script to drive Python's regression test suite, thanks to the `-m` option : `python -m test.regrtest`. Running the script by itself automatically starts running all regression tests in the `test` package. It does this by finding all modules in the package whose name starts with `test_`, importing them, and executing the function `test_main()` if present. The names of tests to execute may also be passed to the script. Specifying a single regression test (`python -m test.regrtest test_spam`) will minimize output and only print whether the test passed or failed and thus minimize output.

Running `test.regrtest` directly allows what resources are available for tests to use to be set. You do this by using the `-u` command-line option. Specifying `all` as the value for the `-u` option enables all possible resources : `python -m test.regrtest -uall`. If all but one resource is desired (a more common case), a comma-separated list of resources that are not desired may be listed after `all`. The command `python -m test.regrtest -uall,-audio,-largefile` will run `test.regrtest` with all resources except the `audio` and `largefile` resources. For a list of all resources and more command-line options, run `python -m test.regrtest -h`.

Some other ways to execute the regression tests depend on what platform the tests are being executed on. On Unix, you can run `make test` at the top-level directory where Python was built. On Windows, executing `rt.bat` from your PCBuild directory will run all regression tests.

Modifié dans la version 2.7.14 : The `test` package can be run as a script : `python -m test`. This works the same as running the `test.regrtest` module.

25.6 test.support — Utility functions for tests

Note : The `test.test_support` module has been renamed to `test.support` in Python 3.x and 2.7.14. The name `test.test_support` has been retained as an alias in 2.7.

The `test.support` module provides support for Python's regression tests.

This module defines the following exceptions :

exception test.support.TestFailed

Exception to be raised when a test fails. This is deprecated in favor of `unittest`-based tests and `unittest.TestCase`'s assertion methods.

exception test.support.ResourceDenied

Subclass of `unittest.SkipTest`. Raised when a resource (such as a network connection) is not available. Raised by the `requires()` function.

The `test.support` module defines the following constants :

test.support.verbose

`True` when verbose output is enabled. Should be checked when more detailed information is desired about a running test. `verbose` is set by `test.regrtest`.

test.support.have_unicode

`True` when Unicode support is available.

test.support.is_jython

`True` if the running interpreter is Jython.

test.support.TESTFN

Set to a name that is safe to use as the name of a temporary file. Any temporary file that is created should be closed and unlinked (removed).

The `test.support` module defines the following functions :

test.support.forget(*module_name*)

Remove the module named *module_name* from `sys.modules` and delete any byte-compiled files of the module.

test.support.is_resource_enabled(*resource*)

Return `True` if *resource* is enabled and available. The list of available resources is only set when `test.regrtest` is executing the tests.

test.support.requires(*resource*[, *msg*])

Raise `ResourceDenied` if *resource* is not available. *msg* is the argument to `ResourceDenied` if it is raised. Always returns `True` if called by a function whose `__name__` is `'__main__'`. Used when tests are executed by `test.regrtest`.

test.support.findfile(*filename*)

Return the path to the file named *filename*. If no match is found *filename* is returned. This does not equal a failure since it could be the path to the file.

test.support.run_unittest(classes*)**

Execute `unittest.TestCase` subclasses passed to the function. The function scans the classes for methods starting with the prefix `test_` and executes the tests individually.

It is also legal to pass strings as parameters; these should be keys in `sys.modules`. Each associated module will be scanned by `unittest.TestLoader.loadTestsFromModule()`. This is usually seen in the following `test_main()` function :

```
def test_main():
    support.run_unittest(__name__)
```

This will run all tests defined in the named module.

`test.support.check_warnings(*filters, quiet=True)`

A convenience wrapper for `warnings.catch_warnings()` that makes it easier to test that a warning was correctly raised. It is approximately equivalent to calling `warnings.catch_warnings(record=True)` with `warnings.simplefilter()` set to `always` and with the option to automatically validate the results that are recorded.

`check_warnings` accepts 2-tuples of the form ("message regexp", `WarningCategory`) as positional arguments. If one or more *filters* are provided, or if the optional keyword argument *quiet* is `False`, it checks to make sure the warnings are as expected : each specified filter must match at least one of the warnings raised by the enclosed code or the test fails, and if any warnings are raised that do not match any of the specified filters the test fails. To disable the first of these checks, set *quiet* to `True`.

If no arguments are specified, it defaults to :

```
check_warnings(("", Warning), quiet=True)
```

In this case all warnings are caught and no errors are raised.

On entry to the context manager, a `WarningRecorder` instance is returned. The underlying warnings list from `catch_warnings()` is available via the recorder object's `warnings` attribute. As a convenience, the attributes of the object representing the most recent warning can also be accessed directly through the recorder object (see example below). If no warning has been raised, then any of the attributes that would otherwise be expected on an object representing a warning will return `None`.

The recorder object also has a `reset()` method, which clears the warnings list.

The context manager is designed to be used like this :

```
with check_warnings(("assertion is always true", SyntaxWarning),
                    ("", UserWarning)):
    exec('assert(False, "Hey!")')
    warnings.warn(UserWarning("Hide me!"))
```

In this case if either warning was not raised, or some other warning was raised, `check_warnings()` would raise an error.

When a test needs to look more deeply into the warnings, rather than just checking whether or not they occurred, code like this can be used :

```
with check_warnings(quiet=True) as w:
    warnings.warn("foo")
    assert str(w.args[0]) == "foo"
    warnings.warn("bar")
    assert str(w.args[0]) == "bar"
    assert str(w.warnings[0].args[0]) == "foo"
    assert str(w.warnings[1].args[0]) == "bar"
    w.reset()
    assert len(w.warnings) == 0
```

Here all warnings will be caught, and the test code tests the captured warnings directly.

Nouveau dans la version 2.6.

Modifié dans la version 2.7 : New optional arguments *filters* and *quiet*.

`test.support.check_py3k_warnings(*filters, quiet=False)`

Similar to `check_warnings()`, but for Python 3 compatibility warnings. If `sys.py3kwarning == 1`, it checks if the warning is effectively raised. If `sys.py3kwarning == 0`, it checks that no warning is raised. It accepts 2-tuples of the form `("message regexp", WarningCategory)` as positional arguments. When the optional keyword argument `quiet` is `True`, it does not fail if a filter catches nothing. Without arguments, it defaults to :

```
check_py3k_warnings(("", DeprecationWarning), quiet=False)
```

Nouveau dans la version 2.7.

`test.support.captured_stdout()`

This is a context manager that runs the `with` statement body using a `StringIO.StringIO` object as `sys.stdout`. That object can be retrieved using the `as` clause of the `with` statement.

Example use :

```
with captured_stdout() as s:
    print "hello"
assert s.getvalue() == "hello\n"
```

Nouveau dans la version 2.6.

`test.support.import_module(name, deprecated=False)`

This function imports and returns the named module. Unlike a normal import, this function raises `unittest.SkipTest` if the module cannot be imported.

Module and package deprecation messages are suppressed during this import if `deprecated` is `True`.

Nouveau dans la version 2.7.

`test.support.import_fresh_module(name, fresh=(), blocked=(), deprecated=False)`

This function imports and returns a fresh copy of the named Python module by removing the named module from `sys.modules` before doing the import. Note that unlike `reload()`, the original module is not affected by this operation.

`fresh` is an iterable of additional module names that are also removed from the `sys.modules` cache before doing the import.

`blocked` is an iterable of module names that are replaced with 0 in the module cache during the import to ensure that attempts to import them raise `ImportError`.

The named module and any modules named in the `fresh` and `blocked` parameters are saved before starting the import and then reinserted into `sys.modules` when the fresh import is complete.

Module and package deprecation messages are suppressed during this import if `deprecated` is `True`.

This function will raise `unittest.SkipTest` if the named module cannot be imported.

Example use :

```
# Get copies of the warnings module for testing without
# affecting the version being used by the rest of the test suite
# One copy uses the C implementation, the other is forced to use
# the pure Python fallback implementation
py_warnings = import_fresh_module('warnings', blocked=['_warnings'])
c_warnings = import_fresh_module('warnings', fresh=['_warnings'])
```

Nouveau dans la version 2.7.

The `test.support` module defines the following classes :

`class test.support.TransientResource(exc[, **kwargs])`

Instances are a context manager that raises `ResourceDenied` if the specified exception type is raised.

Any keyword arguments are treated as attribute/value pairs to be compared against any exception

raised within the `with` statement. Only if all pairs match properly against attributes on the exception is *ResourceDenied* raised.

Nouveau dans la version 2.6.

class `test.support.EnvironmentVarGuard`

Class used to temporarily set or unset environment variables. Instances can be used as a context manager and have a complete dictionary interface for querying/modifying the underlying `os.environ`. After exit from the context manager all changes to environment variables done through this instance will be rolled back.

Nouveau dans la version 2.6.

Modifié dans la version 2.7 : Added dictionary interface.

`EnvironmentVarGuard.set(envvar, value)`

Temporarily set the environment variable `envvar` to the value of `value`.

`EnvironmentVarGuard.unset(envvar)`

Temporarily unset the environment variable `envvar`.

class `test.support.WarningsRecorder`

Class used to record warnings for unit tests. See documentation of *check_warnings()* above for more details.

Nouveau dans la version 2.6.

Ces bibliothèques sont là pour vous aider lors du développement en Python : Le débogueur vous permet d'avancer pas à pas dans le code, d'analyser la pile d'appel, de placer des points d'arrêts, ... Les outils d'instrumentation exécutent du code et vous donnent un rapport détaillé du temps d'exécution, vous permettant d'identifier les goulots d'étranglement dans vos programmes.

26.1 bdb — Framework de débogage

Code source : [Lib/bdb.py](#)

The `bdb` module handles basic debugger functions, like setting breakpoints or managing execution via the debugger.

L'exception suivante est définie :

```
exception bdb.BdbQuit
    Exception raised by the Bdb class for quitting the debugger.
```

Le module `bdb` définit deux classes :

```
class bdb.Breakpoint(self, file, line, temporary=0, cond=None, funcname=None)
    This class implements temporary breakpoints, ignore counts, disabling and (re-)enabling, and conditionals.

    Breakpoints are indexed by number through a list called bdbynumber and by (file, line) pairs through bplist. The former points to a single instance of class Breakpoint. The latter points to a list of such instances since there may be more than one breakpoint per line.

    When creating a breakpoint, its associated filename should be in canonical form. If a funcname is defined, a breakpoint hit will be counted when the first line of that function is executed. A conditional breakpoint always counts a hit.

    Breakpoint instances have the following methods :

    deleteMe()
        Delete the breakpoint from the list associated to a file/line. If it is the last breakpoint in that position, it also deletes the entry for the file/line.
```

enable()

Active le point d'arrêt.

disable()

Désactive le point d'arrêt.

pprint([out])

Print all the information about the breakpoint :

- Le numéro du point d'arrêt.
- S'il est temporaire ou non.
- Its file,line position.
- The condition that causes a break.
- If it must be ignored the next N times.
- The breakpoint hit count.

class bdb.Bdb(skip=None)

The *Bdb* class acts as a generic Python debugger base class.

This class takes care of the details of the trace facility ; a derived class should implement user interaction.

The standard debugger class (*pdb.Pdb*) is an example.

The *skip* argument, if given, must be an iterable of glob-style module name patterns. The debugger will not step into frames that originate in a module that matches one of these patterns. Whether a frame is considered to originate in a certain module is determined by the `__name__` in the frame globals.

Nouveau dans la version 2.7 : L'argument *skip*.

The following methods of *Bdb* normally don't need to be overridden.

canonic(filename)

Auxiliary method for getting a filename in a canonical form, that is, as a case-normalized (on case-insensitive filesystems) absolute path, stripped of surrounding angle brackets.

reset()

Set the `botframe`, `stopframe`, `returnframe` and `quitting` attributes with values ready to start debugging.

trace_dispatch(frame, event, arg)

This function is installed as the trace function of debugged frames. Its return value is the new trace function (in most cases, that is, itself).

The default implementation decides how to dispatch a frame, depending on the type of event (passed as a string) that is about to be executed. *event* can be one of the following :

- "line" : A new line of code is going to be executed.
- "call" : A function is about to be called, or another code block entered.
- "return" : A function or other code block is about to return.
- "exception" : Une exception est survenue.
- "c_call" : Une fonction C est sur le point d'être appelée.
- "c_return" : Une fonction C s'est terminée.
- "c_exception" : A C function has raised an exception.

For the Python events, specialized functions (see below) are called. For the C events, no action is taken.

Le paramètre *arg* dépend de l'événement précédent.

See the documentation for *sys.settrace()* for more information on the trace function. For more information on code and frame objects, refer to types.

dispatch_line(frame)

If the debugger should stop on the current line, invoke the *user_line()* method (which should be overridden in subclasses). Raise a *BdbQuit* exception if the `Bdb.quitting` flag is set (which can be set from *user_line()*). Return a reference to the *trace_dispatch()* method for further tracing in that scope.

dispatch_call(frame, arg)

If the debugger should stop on this function call, invoke the *user_call()* method (which should be overridden in subclasses). Raise a *BdbQuit* exception if the `Bdb.quitting` flag is set (which

can be set from `user_call()`). Return a reference to the `trace_dispatch()` method for further tracing in that scope.

dispatch_return(*frame*, *arg*)

If the debugger should stop on this function return, invoke the `user_return()` method (which should be overridden in subclasses). Raise a `BdbQuit` exception if the `Bdb.quitting` flag is set (which can be set from `user_return()`). Return a reference to the `trace_dispatch()` method for further tracing in that scope.

dispatch_exception(*frame*, *arg*)

If the debugger should stop at this exception, invokes the `user_exception()` method (which should be overridden in subclasses). Raise a `BdbQuit` exception if the `Bdb.quitting` flag is set (which can be set from `user_exception()`). Return a reference to the `trace_dispatch()` method for further tracing in that scope.

Normally derived classes don't override the following methods, but they may if they want to redefine the definition of stopping and breakpoints.

stop_here(*frame*)

This method checks if the *frame* is somewhere below `botframe` in the call stack. `botframe` is the frame in which debugging started.

break_here(*frame*)

This method checks if there is a breakpoint in the filename and line belonging to *frame* or, at least, in the current function. If the breakpoint is a temporary one, this method deletes it.

break_anywhere(*frame*)

This method checks if there is a breakpoint in the filename of the current frame.

Derived classes should override these methods to gain control over debugger operation.

user_call(*frame*, *argument_list*)

This method is called from `dispatch_call()` when there is the possibility that a break might be necessary anywhere inside the called function.

user_line(*frame*)

This method is called from `dispatch_line()` when either `stop_here()` or `break_here()` yields True.

user_return(*frame*, *return_value*)

This method is called from `dispatch_return()` when `stop_here()` yields True.

user_exception(*frame*, *exc_info*)

This method is called from `dispatch_exception()` when `stop_here()` yields True.

do_clear(*arg*)

Handle how a breakpoint must be removed when it is a temporary one.

This method must be implemented by derived classes.

Derived classes and clients can call the following methods to affect the stepping state.

set_step()

Arrête après une ligne de code.

set_next(*frame*)

Stop on the next line in or below the given frame.

set_return(*frame*)

Stop when returning from the given frame.

set_until(*frame*)

Stop when the line with the line no greater than the current one is reached or when returning from current frame.

set_trace([*frame*])

Start debugging from *frame*. If *frame* is not specified, debugging starts from caller's frame.

set_continue()

Stop only at breakpoints or when finished. If there are no breakpoints, set the system trace function to None.

set_quit()

Set the `quitting` attribute to `True`. This raises `BdbQuit` in the next call to one of the `dispatch_*`() methods.

Derived classes and clients can call the following methods to manipulate breakpoints. These methods return a string containing an error message if something went wrong, or `None` if all is well.

set_break(filename, lineno, temporary=0, cond=None, funcname=None)

Set a new breakpoint. If the `lineno` line doesn't exist for the `filename` passed as argument, return an error message. The `filename` should be in canonical form, as described in the `canonic()` method.

clear_break(filename, lineno)

Delete the breakpoints in `filename` and `lineno`. If none were set, an error message is returned.

clear_bpbynumber(arg)

Delete the breakpoint which has the index `arg` in the `Breakpoint.bpbynumber`. If `arg` is not numeric or out of range, return an error message.

clear_all_file_breaks(filename)

Delete all breakpoints in `filename`. If none were set, an error message is returned.

clear_all_breaks()

Supprime tous les points d'arrêt définis.

get_break(filename, lineno)

Check if there is a breakpoint for `lineno` of `filename`.

get_breaks(filename, lineno)

Return all breakpoints for `lineno` in `filename`, or an empty list if none are set.

get_file_breaks(filename)

Return all breakpoints in `filename`, or an empty list if none are set.

get_all_breaks()

Donne tous les points d'arrêt définis.

Derived classes and clients can call the following methods to get a data structure representing a stack trace.

get_stack(f, t)

Get a list of records for a frame and all higher (calling) and lower frames, and the size of the higher part.

format_stack_entry(frame_lineno[, lprefix=' : '])

Return a string with information about a stack entry, identified by a `(frame, lineno)` tuple :

- The canonical form of the filename which contains the frame.
- Le nom de la fonction, ou "`<lambda>`".
- Les arguments donnés.
- Le résultat.
- La ligne de code (si elle existe).

The following two methods can be called by clients to use a debugger to debug a `statement`, given as a string.

run(cmd[, globals[, locals]])

Debug a statement executed via the `exec` statement. `globals` defaults to `__main__.__dict__`, `locals` defaults to `globals`.

runeval(expr[, globals[, locals]])

Debug an expression executed via the `eval()` function. `globals` and `locals` have the same meaning as in `run()`.

runctx(cmd, globals, locals)

For backwards compatibility. Calls the `run()` method.

runcall(func, *args, **kws)

Debug a single function call, and return its result.

Finally, the module defines the following functions :

`bdb.checkfuncname(b, frame)`

Check whether we should break here, depending on the way the breakpoint *b* was set.

If it was set via line number, it checks if `b.line` is the same as the one in the frame also passed as argument. If the breakpoint was set via function name, we have to check we are in the right frame (the right function) and if we are in its first executable line.

`bdb.effective(file, line, frame)`

Determine if there is an effective (active) breakpoint at this line of code. Return a tuple of the breakpoint and a boolean that indicates if it is ok to delete a temporary breakpoint. Return `(None, None)` if there is no matching breakpoint.

`bdb.set_trace()`

Start debugging with a *Bdb* instance from caller's frame.

26.2 pdb — Le débogueur Python

Code source : [Lib/pdb.py](#)

Le module *pdb* définit un débogueur de code source interactif pour les programmes Python. Il supporte le paramétrage (conditionnel) de points d'arrêt et l'exécution du code source ligne par ligne, l'inspection des *frames* de la pile, la liste du code source, et l'évaluation arbitraire de code Python dans le contexte de n'importe quelle *frame* de la pile. Il supporte aussi le débogage post-mortem et peut être contrôlé depuis un programme.

The debugger is extensible — it is actually defined as the class *Pdb*. This is currently undocumented but easily understood by reading the source. The extension interface uses the modules *bdb* and *cmd*.

L'invite du débogueur est `(Pdb)`. L'usage typique pour exécuter un programme sous le contrôle du débogueur est :

```
>>> import pdb
>>> import mymodule
>>> pdb.run('mymodule.test()')
> <string>(0)?()
(Pdb) continue
> <string>(1)?()
(Pdb) continue
NameError: 'spam'
> <string>(1)?()
(Pdb)
```

Le fichier *pdb.py* peut aussi être invoqué comme un script pour déboguer d'autres scripts. Par exemple :

```
python -m pdb myscript.py
```

When invoked as a script, *pdb* will automatically enter post-mortem debugging if the program being debugged exits abnormally. After post-mortem debugging (or after normal exit of the program), *pdb* will restart the program. Automatic restarting preserves *pdb*'s state (such as breakpoints) and in most cases is more useful than quitting the debugger upon program's exit.

Nouveau dans la version 2.4 : Restarting post-mortem behavior added.

L'usage typique pour forcer le débogueur depuis un programme s'exécutant est d'insérer :

```
import pdb; pdb.set_trace()
```

at the location you want to break into the debugger. You can then step through the code following this statement, and continue running without the debugger using the `c` command.

L'usage typique pour inspecter un programme planté :

```
>>> import pdb
>>> import mymodule
>>> mymodule.test()
Traceback (most recent call last):
  File "<stdin>", line 1, in <module>
  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)
```

Le module définit les fonctions suivantes; chacune entre dans le débogueur d'une manière légèrement différente :

`pdb.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.)

`pdb.runeval(expression[, globals[, locals]])`

Evaluate the *expression* (given as a string) under debugger control. When `runeval()` returns, it returns the value of the expression. Otherwise this function is similar to `run()`.

`pdb.runcall(function[, argument, ...])`

Appelle la *function* (une fonction ou une méthode, pas une chaîne de caractères) avec les arguments donnés. Quand `runcall()` revient, il retourne ce que l'appel de fonction a renvoyé. L'invite de débogage apparaît dès que la fonction est entrée.

`pdb.set_trace()`

Entre le débogueur dans la *frame* de la pile d'appel. Ceci est utile pour coder en dur un point d'arrêt dans un programme, même si le code n'est pas autrement débogué (par exemple, quand une assertion échoue).

`pdb.post_mortem([traceback])`

Entre le débogage post-mortem de l'objet *traceback* donné. Si aucun *traceback* n'est donné, il utilise celui de l'exception en cours de traitement (une exception doit être gérée si la valeur par défaut doit être utilisée).

`pdb.pm()`

Entre le débogage post-mortem de la trace trouvée dans `sys.last_traceback`.

Les fonctions `run*` et `set_trace()` sont des alias pour instancier la classe `Pdb` et appeler la méthode du même nom. Si vous souhaitez accéder à d'autres fonctionnalités, vous devez le faire vous-même :

`class pdb.Pdb(completekey='tab', stdin=None, stdout=None, skip=None)`

Le classe du débogueur est la classe `Pdb`.

Les arguments `completekey`, `stdin` et `stdout` sont transmis à la classe sous-jacente `cmd.Cmd`; voir la description ici.

L'argument `skip`, s'il est donné, doit être un itérable des noms de modules de style *glob*. Le débogueur n'entrera pas dans les *frames* qui proviennent d'un module qui correspond à l'un de ces motifs.¹

Exemple d'appel pour activer le traçage avec `skip` :

```
import pdb; pdb.Pdb(skip=['django.*']).set_trace()
```

Nouveau dans la version 2.7 : L'argument `skip`.

```
run(statement[, globals[, locals]])
runeval(expression[, globals[, locals]])
runcall(function[, argument, ...])
set_trace()
```

Voir la documentation pour les fonctions expliquées ci-dessus.

26.3 Commande du débogueur

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.

Les commandes que le débogueur ne reconnaît pas sont supposées être des instructions Python et sont exécutées dans le contexte du programme en cours de débogage. Les instructions Python peuvent également être préfixées avec un point d'exclamation (`!`). C'est une façon puissante d'inspecter le programme en cours de débogage; il est même possible de changer une variable ou d'appeler une fonction. Lorsqu'une exception se produit dans une telle instruction, le nom de l'exception est affiché mais l'état du débogueur n'est pas modifié.

Multiple commands may be entered on a single line, separated by `;;`. (A single `;` is not used as it is the separator for multiple commands in a line that is passed to the Python parser.) No intelligence is applied to separating the commands; the input is split at the first `;;` pair, even if it is in the middle of a quoted string.

The debugger supports aliases. Aliases can have parameters which allows one a certain level of adaptability to the context under examination.

If a file `.pdbrc` exists in the user's home directory or in the current directory, it is read in and executed as if it had been typed at the debugger prompt. This is particularly useful for aliases. If both files exist, the one in the home directory is read first and aliases defined there can be overridden by the local file.

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) Affiche une trace de pile, avec la *frame* le plus récent en bas. Une flèche indique le *frame* courant, qui détermine le contexte de la plupart des commandes.

d(own) Move the current frame one level down in the stack trace (to a newer frame).

1. La question de savoir si une *frame* est considérée comme provenant d'un certain module est déterminée par le `__name__` dans les globales de la *frame*.

u(p) Move the current frame one level up in the stack trace (to an older frame).

b(reak) `[[filename:]lineno | function[, condition]]` With a *lineno* argument, set a break there in the current file. With a *function* argument, set a break at the first executable statement within that function. The line number may be prefixed with a filename and a colon, to specify a breakpoint in another file (probably one that hasn't been loaded yet). The file is searched on `sys.path`. Note that each breakpoint is assigned a number to which all the other breakpoint commands refer.

Si un second argument est présent, c'est une expression qui doit évaluer à *True* avant que le point d'arrêt ne soit honoré.

Sans argument, liste tous les arrêts, incluant pour chaque point d'arrêt, le nombre de fois qu'un point d'arrêt a été atteint, le nombre de ignore, et la condition associée le cas échéant.

tbreak `[[filename:]lineno | function[, condition]]` Temporary breakpoint, which is removed automatically when it is first hit. The arguments are the same as break.

cl(ear) `[filename:lineno | bnumber [bnumber ...]]` Avec un argument *filename:lineno*, efface tous les points d'arrêt sur cette ligne. Avec une liste de numéros de points d'arrêt séparés par un espace, efface ces points d'arrêt. Sans argument, efface tous les points d'arrêt (mais demande d'abord confirmation).

disable `[bnumber [bnumber ...]]` Disables the breakpoints given as a space separated list of breakpoint numbers. Disabling a breakpoint means it cannot cause the program to stop execution, but unlike clearing a breakpoint, it remains in the list of breakpoints and can be (re-)enabled.

enable `[bnumber [bnumber ...]]` Enables the breakpoints specified.

ignore *bnumber* `[count]` Sets the ignore count for the given breakpoint number. If count is omitted, the ignore count is set to 0. A breakpoint becomes active when the ignore count is zero. When non-zero, the count is decremented each time the breakpoint is reached and the breakpoint is not disabled and any associated condition evaluates to true.

condition *bnumber* `[condition]` Condition is an expression which must evaluate to true before the breakpoint is honored. If condition is absent, any existing condition is removed; i.e., the breakpoint is made unconditional.

commands `[bnumber]` Specify a list of commands for breakpoint number *bnumber*. The commands themselves appear on the following lines. Type a line containing just "end" to terminate the commands. An example :

```
(Pdb) commands 1
(com) print some_variable
(com) end
(Pdb)
```

To remove all commands from a breakpoint, type commands and follow it immediately with end; that is, give no commands.

Sans argument *bnumber*, les commandes se réfèrent au dernier point d'arrêt défini.

You can use breakpoint commands to start your program up again. Simply use the continue command, or step, or any other command that resumes execution.

Specifying any command resuming execution (currently continue, step, next, return, jump, quit and their abbreviations) terminates the command list (as if that command was immediately followed by end). This is because any time you resume execution (even with a simple next or step), you may encounter another breakpoint—which could have its own command list, leading to ambiguities about which list to execute.

Si vous utilisez la commande "silence" dans la liste des commandes, le message habituel concernant l'arrêt à un point d'arrêt n'est pas affiché. Ceci peut être souhaitable pour les points d'arrêt qui doivent afficher un message spécifique et ensuite continuer. Si aucune des autres commandes n'affiche quoi que ce soit, vous ne voyez aucun signe indiquant que le point de rupture a été atteint.

Nouveau dans la version 2.5.

- s(step)** Exécute la ligne en cours, s'arrête à la première occasion possible (soit dans une fonction qui est appelée, soit sur la ligne suivante de la fonction courante).
- 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.)
- unt(il)** Continue execution until the line with the line number greater than the current one is reached or when returning from current frame.
Nouveau dans la version 2.6.
- r(eturn)** Continue l'exécution jusqu'au retour de la fonction courante.
- c(ont(inue))** Continue l'exécution, seulement s'arrête quand un point d'arrêt est rencontré.
- j(ump) lineno** Définit la prochaine ligne qui sera exécutée. Uniquement disponible dans la *frame* inférieur. Cela vous permet de revenir en arrière et d'exécuter à nouveau le code, ou de passer en avant pour sauter le code que vous ne voulez pas exécuter.
It should be noted that not all jumps are allowed — for instance it is not possible to jump into the middle of a **for** loop or out of a **finally** clause.
- 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)** Affiche la liste d'arguments de la fonction courante.
- p expression** Évalue l'*expression* dans le contexte courant et affiche sa valeur.

Note : `print` can also be used, but is not a debugger command — this executes the Python `print` statement.

pp expression Like the `p` command, except the value of the expression is pretty-printed using the *pprint* module.

alias [name [command]] Creates an alias called *name* that executes *command*. The command must *not* be enclosed in quotes. Replaceable parameters can be indicated by `%1`, `%2`, and so on, while `/*` is replaced by all the parameters. If no command is given, the current alias for *name* is shown. If no arguments are given, all aliases are listed.

Aliases may be nested and can contain anything that can be legally typed at the `pdb` prompt. Note that internal `pdb` commands *can* be overridden by aliases. Such a command is then hidden until the alias is removed. Aliasing is recursively applied to the first word of the command line ; all other words in the line are left alone.

Comme un exemple, voici deux alias utiles (spécialement quand il est placé dans le fichier `.pdbrc`) :

```
#Print instance variables (usage "pi classInst")
alias pi for k in %1.__dict__.keys(): print "%1.",k,"=",%1.__dict__[k]
#Print instance variables in self
alias ps pi self
```

unalias name Deletes the specified alias.

[!]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)
```

run [*args* ...] Restart the debugged Python program. If an argument is supplied, it is split with « shlex » and the result is used as the new sys.argv. History, breakpoints, actions and debugger options are preserved. « restart » is an alias for « run ».

Nouveau dans la version 2.6.

q(uit) Quit from the debugger. The program being executed is aborted.

Notes

26.4 The Python Profilers

Source code : `Lib/profile.py` and `Lib/pstats.py`

26.4.1 Introduction to the profilers

`cProfile` and `profile` provide *deterministic profiling* of Python programs. A *profile* is a set of statistics that describes how often and for how long various parts of the program executed. These statistics can be formatted into reports via the `pstats` module.

The Python standard library provides three different implementations of the same profiling interface :

1. `cProfile` is recommended for most users ; it's a C extension with reasonable overhead that makes it suitable for profiling long-running programs. Based on `lsprof`, contributed by Brett Rosen and Ted Czotter.

Nouveau dans la version 2.5.

2. `profile`, a pure Python module whose interface is imitated by `cProfile`, but which adds significant overhead to profiled programs. If you're trying to extend the profiler in some way, the task might be easier with this module. Originally designed and written by Jim Roskind.

Modifié dans la version 2.4 : Now also reports the time spent in calls to built-in functions and methods.

3. `hotshot` was an experimental C module that focused on minimizing the overhead of profiling, at the expense of longer data post-processing times. It is no longer maintained and may be dropped in a future version of Python.

Modifié dans la version 2.5 : The results should be more meaningful than in the past : the timing core contained a critical bug.

The `profile` and `cProfile` modules export the same interface, so they are mostly interchangeable ; `cProfile` has a much lower overhead but is newer and might not be available on all systems. `cProfile` is really a compatibility layer on top of the internal `_lsprof` module. The `hotshot` module is reserved for specialized usage.

Note : The profiler modules are designed to provide an execution profile for a given program, not for benchmarking purposes (for that, there is `timeit` for reasonably accurate results). This particularly applies to benchmarking Python code against C code : the profilers introduce overhead for Python code, but not for C-level functions, and so the C code would seem faster than any Python one.

26.4.2 Instant User's 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 a function that takes a single argument, you can do :

```
import cProfile
import re
cProfile.run('re.compile("foo|bar")')
```

(Use *profile* instead of *cProfile* if the latter is not available on your system.)

The above action would run *re.compile()* and print profile results like the following :

```
197 function calls (192 primitive calls) in 0.002 seconds

Ordered by: standard name
```

ncalls	tottime	percall	cumtime	percall	filename:lineno(function)
1	0.000	0.000	0.001	0.001	<string>:1(<module>)
1	0.000	0.000	0.001	0.001	re.py:212(compile)
1	0.000	0.000	0.001	0.001	re.py:268(_compile)
1	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	sre_compile.py:172(_compile_charset)
1	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	sre_compile.py:201(_optimize_charset)
4	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	sre_compile.py:25(_identityfunction)
3/1	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	sre_compile.py:33(_compile)

The first line indicates that 197 calls were monitored. Of those calls, 192 were *primitive*, meaning 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 cumulative time spent in this and all subfunctions (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 (for example 3/1), it means that the function recursed. The second value is the number of primitive calls and the former is the total number of calls. Note that when the function does not recurse, these two values are the same, and only the single figure is printed.

Instead of printing the output at the end of the profile run, you can save the results to a file by specifying a filename to the **run()** function :

```
import cProfile
import re
cProfile.run('re.compile("foo|bar")', 'restats')
```

The *pstats.Stats* class reads profile results from a file and formats them in various ways.

The file *cProfile* can also be invoked as a script to profile another script. For example :

```
python -m cProfile [-o output_file] [-s sort_order] myscript.py
```

-o writes the profile results to a file instead of to stdout

-s specifies one of the *sort_stats()* sort values to sort the output by. This only applies when **-o** is not supplied.

The *pstats* module's *Stats* class has a variety of methods for manipulating and printing the data saved into a profile results file :

```
import pstats
p = pstats.Stats('restats')
p.strip_dirs().sort_stats(-1).print_stats()
```

The `strip_dirs()` method removed the extraneous path from all the module names. The `sort_stats()` method sorted all the entries according to the standard module/line/name string that is printed. The `print_stats()` 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 (since 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('restats')
```

Invoked as a script, the `pstats` module is a statistics browser for reading and examining profile dumps. It has a simple line-oriented interface (implemented using `cma`) and interactive help.

26.4.3 profile and cProfile Module Reference

Both the `profile` and `cProfile` modules provide the following functions :

`profile.run(command, filename=None, sort=-1)`

This function takes a single argument that can be passed to the `exec()` function, and an optional file name. In all cases this routine executes :

```
exec(command, __main__.__dict__, __main__.__dict__)
```

and gathers profiling statistics from the execution. If no file name is present, then this function automatically creates a `Stats` instance and prints a simple profiling report. If the sort value is specified it is passed to this `Stats` instance to control how the results are sorted.

`profile.runctx(command, globals, locals, filename=None)`

This function is similar to `run()`, with added arguments to supply the globals and locals dictionaries for the `command` string. This routine executes :

```
exec(command, globals, locals)
```

and gathers profiling statistics as in the `run()` function above.

`class profile.Profile(timer=None, timeunit=0.0, subcalls=True, builtins=True)`

This class is normally only used if more precise control over profiling is needed than what the `cProfile.run()` function provides.

A custom timer can be supplied for measuring how long code takes to run via the `timer` argument. This must be a function that returns a single number representing the current time. If the number is an integer, the `timeunit` specifies a multiplier that specifies the duration of each unit of time. For example, if the timer returns times measured in thousands of seconds, the time unit would be `.001`.

Directly using the `Profile` class allows formatting profile results without writing the profile data to a file :

```
import cProfile, pstats, StringIO
pr = cProfile.Profile()
pr.enable()
# ... do something ...
pr.disable()
s = StringIO.StringIO()
sortby = 'cumulative'
ps = pstats.Stats(pr, stream=s).sort_stats(sortby)
ps.print_stats()
print s.getvalue()
```

`enable()`

Start collecting profiling data.

`disable()`

Stop collecting profiling data.

`create_stats()`

Stop collecting profiling data and record the results internally as the current profile.

`print_stats(sort=-1)`

Create a `Stats` object based on the current profile and print the results to stdout.

`dump_stats(filename)`

Write the results of the current profile to `filename`.

`run(cmd)`

Profile the `cmd` via `exec()`.

`runctx(cmd, globals, locals)`

Profile the `cmd` via `exec()` with the specified global and local environment.

`runcall(func, *args, **kwargs)`

Profile `func(*args, **kwargs)`

26.4.4 The Stats Class

Analysis of the profiler data is done using the *Stats* class.

class `pstats.Stats(*filenames or profile, stream=sys.stdout)`

This class constructor creates an instance of a « statistics object » from a *filename* (or list of filenames) or from a *Profile* instance. Output will be printed to the stream specified by *stream*.

The file selected by the above constructor must have been created by the corresponding version of *profile* or *cProfile*. 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, or the same profiler run on a different operating system. 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.

Instead of reading the profile data from a file, a *cProfile.Profile* or *profile.Profile* object can be used as the profile data source.

Stats objects have the following methods :

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 (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(*filenames)

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()* or *cProfile.run()*. Statistics for identically named (re : file, line, name) functions are automatically accumulated into single function statistics.

dump_stats(filename)

Save the data loaded into the *Stats* object to a file named *filename*. The file is created if it does not exist, and is overwritten if it already exists. This is equivalent to the method of the same name on the *profile.Profile* and *cProfile.Profile* classes.

Nouveau dans la version 2.3.

sort_stats(*keys)

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 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	Signification
'calls'	call count
'cumulative'	cumulative time
'cumtime'	cumulative time
'file'	file name
'filename'	file name
'module'	file name
'ncalls'	call count
'pcalls'	primitive call count
'line'	line number
'name'	function name
'nfl'	name/file/line
'stdname'	standard name
'time'	internal time
'tottime'	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 (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 backward-compatibility reasons, 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. Note that by default ascending vs descending order is properly selected based on the sort key of choice.

`print_stats(*restrictions)`

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. 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. Each caller is reported on its own line. The format differs slightly depending on the profiler that produced the stats :

- With `profile`, a number is shown in parentheses after each caller to show how many times this specific call was made. For convenience, a second non-parenthesized number repeats the cumulative time spent in the function at the right.
- With `cProfile`, each caller is preceded by three numbers : the number of times this specific call was made, and the total and cumulative times spent in the current function while it was invoked by this specific caller.

`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.

26.4.5 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.

26.4.6 Limitations

One 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 than the 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 (less than one clock tick), but it *can* accumulate and become very significant.

The problem is more important with `profile` than with the lower-overhead `cProfile`. For this reason, `profile` provides a means of calibrating itself for a given platform so that this error can be probabilistically (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.

26.4.7 Calibration

The profiler of the `profile` module subtracts a constant from each event handling time to compensate for the overhead of calling the time function, and socking away the results. By default, the constant is 0. The following procedure can be used to obtain a better constant for a given platform (see *Limitations*).

```
import profile
pr = profile.Profile()
for i in range(5):
    print pr.calibrate(10000)
```

The method executes the number of Python calls given by the argument, directly and again under the profiler, measuring the time for both. It then computes the hidden overhead per profiler event, and returns that as a float. For example, on a 1.8Ghz Intel Core i5 running Mac OS X, and using Python's `time.clock()` as the timer, the magical number is about 4.04e-6.

The object of this exercise is to get a fairly consistent result. If your computer is *very* fast, or your timer function has poor resolution, you might have to pass 100000, or even 1000000, to get consistent results.

When you have a consistent answer, there are three ways you can use it :¹

```
import profile

# 1. Apply computed bias to all Profile instances created hereafter.
profile.Profile.bias = your_computed_bias

# 2. Apply computed bias to a specific Profile instance.
pr = profile.Profile()
pr.bias = your_computed_bias

# 3. Specify computed bias in instance constructor.
pr = profile.Profile(bias=your_computed_bias)
```

If you have a choice, you are better off choosing a smaller constant, and then your results will « less often » show up as negative in profile statistics.

26.4.8 Using a custom timer

If you want to change how current time is determined (for example, to force use of wall-clock time or elapsed process time), pass the timing function you want to the `Profile` class constructor :

```
pr = profile.Profile(your_time_func)
```

The resulting profiler will then call `your_time_func`. Depending on whether you are using `profile.Profile` or `cProfile.Profile`, `your_time_func`'s return value will be interpreted differently :

`profile.Profile` `your_time_func` should return a single number, or a list of numbers whose sum is the current time (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 (see *Calibration*). 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, as it returns a tuple of floating point values). If you want to substitute a better timer in the cleanest fashion, derive a class and hardwire a replacement dispatch method that best handles your timer call, along with the appropriate calibration constant.

1. Prior to Python 2.2, it was necessary to edit the profiler source code to embed the bias as a literal number. You still can, but that method is no longer described, because no longer needed.

`cProfile.Profile` your_time_func should return a single number. If it returns integers, you can also invoke the class constructor with a second argument specifying the real duration of one unit of time. For example, if `your_integer_time_func` returns times measured in thousands of seconds, you would construct the `Profile` instance as follows :

```
pr = cProfile.Profile(your_integer_time_func, 0.001)
```

As the `cProfile.Profile` class cannot be calibrated, custom timer functions should be used with care and should be as fast as possible. For the best results with a custom timer, it might be necessary to hard-code it in the C source of the internal `_lsprof` module.

Notes

26.5 hotshot — High performance logging profiler

Nouveau dans la version 2.2.

This module provides a nicer interface to the `_hotshot` C module. Hotshot is a replacement for the existing `profile` module. As it's written mostly in C, it should result in a much smaller performance impact than the existing `profile` module.

Note : The `hotshot` module focuses on minimizing the overhead while profiling, at the expense of long data post-processing times. For common usage it is recommended to use `cProfile` instead. `hotshot` is not maintained and might be removed from the standard library in the future.

Modifié dans la version 2.5 : The results should be more meaningful than in the past : the timing core contained a critical bug.

Note : The `hotshot` profiler does not yet work well with threads. It is useful to use an unthreaded script to run the profiler over the code you're interested in measuring if at all possible.

```
class hotshot.Profile(logfile[, lineevents[, linetimings]])
```

The profiler object. The argument `logfile` is the name of a log file to use for logged profile data. The argument `lineevents` specifies whether to generate events for every source line, or just on function call/return. It defaults to 0 (only log function call/return). The argument `linetimings` specifies whether to record timing information. It defaults to 1 (store timing information).

26.5.1 Profile Objects

Profile objects have the following methods :

`Profile.addinfo(key, value)`

Add an arbitrary labelled value to the profile output.

`Profile.close()`

Close the logfile and terminate the profiler.

`Profile.fileno()`

Return the file descriptor of the profiler's log file.

`Profile.run(cmd)`

Profile an `exec`-compatible string in the script environment. The globals from the `__main__` module are used as both the globals and locals for the script.

`Profile.runcall(func, *args, **keywords)`

Profile a single call of a callable. Additional positional and keyword arguments may be passed along ;

the result of the call is returned, and exceptions are allowed to propagate cleanly, while ensuring that profiling is disabled on the way out.

`Profile.runctx(cmd, globals, locals)`

Evaluate an `exec`-compatible string in a specific environment. The string is compiled before profiling begins.

`Profile.start()`

Start the profiler.

`Profile.stop()`

Stop the profiler.

26.5.2 Using hotshot data

Nouveau dans la version 2.2.

This module loads hotshot profiling data into the standard `pstats` Stats objects.

`hotshot.stats.load(filename)`

Load hotshot data from *filename*. Returns an instance of the `pstats.Stats` class.

Voir aussi :

Module `profile` The `profile` module's Stats class

26.5.3 Example Usage

Note that this example runs the Python « benchmark » `pystones`. It can take some time to run, and will produce large output files.

```
>>> import hotshot, hotshot.stats, test.pystone
>>> prof = hotshot.Profile("stones.prof")
>>> benchtime, stones = prof.runcall(test.pystone.pystones)
>>> prof.close()
>>> stats = hotshot.stats.load("stones.prof")
>>> stats.strip_dirs()
>>> stats.sort_stats('time', 'calls')
>>> stats.print_stats(20)
      850004 function calls in 10.090 CPU seconds

Ordered by: internal time, call count

ncalls  tottime  percall  cumtime  percall filename:lineno(function)
      1    3.295    3.295    10.090    10.090 pystone.py:79(Proc0)
150000    1.315    0.000     1.315     0.000 pystone.py:203(Proc7)
 50000    1.313    0.000     1.463     0.000 pystone.py:229(Func2)
.
.
.
```

26.6 timeit — Measure execution time of small code snippets

Nouveau dans la version 2.3.

Code source : [Lib/timeit.py](#)

This module provides a simple way to time small bits of Python code. It has both a *Command-Line Interface* as well as a *callable* one. It avoids a number of common traps for measuring execution times. See also Tim Peters' introduction to the « Algorithms » chapter in the *Python Cookbook*, published by O'Reilly.

26.6.1 Basic Examples

The following example shows how the *Command-Line Interface* can be used to compare three different expressions :

```
$ python -m timeit '"-".join(str(n) for n in range(100))'
10000 loops, best of 3: 40.3 usec per loop
$ python -m timeit '"-".join([str(n) for n in range(100)])'
10000 loops, best of 3: 33.4 usec per loop
$ python -m timeit '"-".join(map(str, range(100)))'
10000 loops, best of 3: 25.2 usec per loop
```

This can be achieved from the *Python Interface* with :

```
>>> import timeit
>>> timeit.timeit('"-".join(str(n) for n in range(100))', number=10000)
0.8187260627746582
>>> timeit.timeit('"-".join([str(n) for n in range(100)])', number=10000)
0.7288308143615723
>>> timeit.timeit('"-".join(map(str, range(100)))', number=10000)
0.5858950614929199
```

Note however that *timeit* will automatically determine the number of repetitions only when the command-line interface is used. In the *Examples* section you can find more advanced examples.

26.6.2 Python Interface

The module defines three convenience functions and a public class :

timeit.timeit(*stmt*='pass', *setup*='pass', *timer*=<default timer>, *number*=1000000)

Create a *Timer* instance with the given statement, *setup* code and *timer* function and run its *timeit()* method with *number* executions.

Nouveau dans la version 2.6.

timeit.repeat(*stmt*='pass', *setup*='pass', *timer*=<default timer>, *repeat*=3, *number*=1000000)

Create a *Timer* instance with the given statement, *setup* code and *timer* function and run its *repeat()* method with the given *repeat* count and *number* executions.

Nouveau dans la version 2.6.

timeit.default_timer()

Define a default timer, in a platform-specific manner. On Windows, *time.clock()* has microsecond granularity, but *time.time()*'s granularity is 1/60th of a second. On Unix, *time.clock()* has 1/100th of a second granularity, and *time.time()* is much more precise. On either platform, *default_timer()* measures wall clock time, not the CPU time. This means that other processes running on the same computer may interfere with the timing.

class timeit.Timer(*stmt*='pass', *setup*='pass', *timer*=<timer function>)

Class for timing execution speed of small code snippets.

The constructor takes a statement to be timed, an additional statement used for setup, and a timer function. Both statements default to 'pass' ; the timer function is platform-dependent (see the module doc string). *stmt* and *setup* may also contain multiple statements separated by ; or newlines, as long as they don't contain multi-line string literals.

To measure the execution time of the first statement, use the `timeit()` method. The `repeat()` method is a convenience to call `timeit()` multiple times and return a list of results.

Modifié dans la version 2.6 : The `stmt` and `setup` parameters can now also take objects that are callable without arguments. This will embed calls to them in a timer function that will then be executed by `timeit()`. Note that the timing overhead is a little larger in this case because of the extra function calls.

timeit(*number=1000000*)

Time *number* executions of the main statement. This executes the setup statement once, and then returns the time it takes to execute the main statement a number of times, measured in seconds as a float. The argument is the number of times through the loop, defaulting to one million. The main statement, the setup statement and the timer function to be used are passed to the constructor.

Note : By default, `timeit()` temporarily turns off *garbage collection* during the timing. The advantage of this approach is that it makes independent timings more comparable. This disadvantage is that GC may be an important component of the performance of the function being measured. If so, GC can be re-enabled as the first statement in the `setup` string. For example :

```
timeit.Timer('for i in xrange(10): oct(i)', 'gc.enable()').timeit()
```

repeat(*repeat=3, number=1000000*)

Call `timeit()` a few times.

This is a convenience function that calls the `timeit()` repeatedly, returning a list of results. The first argument specifies how many times to call `timeit()`. The second argument specifies the *number* argument for `timeit()`.

Note : It's tempting to calculate mean and standard deviation from the result vector and report these. However, this is not very useful. In a typical case, the lowest value gives a lower bound for how fast your machine can run the given code snippet; higher values in the result vector are typically not caused by variability in Python's speed, but by other processes interfering with your timing accuracy. So the `min()` of the result is probably the only number you should be interested in. After that, you should look at the entire vector and apply common sense rather than statistics.

print_exc(*file=None*)

Helper to print a traceback from the timed code.

Typical use :

```
t = Timer(...)          # outside the try/except
try:
    t.timeit(...)        # or t.repeat(...)
except:
    t.print_exc()
```

The advantage over the standard traceback is that source lines in the compiled template will be displayed. The optional *file* argument directs where the traceback is sent; it defaults to `sys.stderr`.

26.6.3 Command-Line Interface

When called as a program from the command line, the following form is used :

```
python -m timeit [-n N] [-r N] [-s S] [-t] [-c] [-h] [statement ...]
```

Where the following options are understood :

`-n N, --number=N`
how many times to execute “statement”

`-r N, --repeat=N`
how many times to repeat the timer (default 3)

`-s S, --setup=S`
statement to be executed once initially (default `pass`)

`-t, --time`
use `time.time()` (default on all platforms but Windows)

`-c, --clock`
use `time.clock()` (default on Windows)

`-v, --verbose`
print raw timing results; repeat for more digits precision

`-h, --help`
print a short usage message and exit

A multi-line statement may be given by specifying each line as a separate statement argument; indented lines are possible by enclosing an argument in quotes and using leading spaces. Multiple `-s` options are treated similarly.

If `-n` is not given, a suitable number of loops is calculated by trying successive powers of 10 until the total time is at least 0.2 seconds.

`default_timer()` measurements can be affected by other programs running on the same machine, so the best thing to do when accurate timing is necessary is to repeat the timing a few times and use the best time. The `-r` option is good for this; the default of 3 repetitions is probably enough in most cases. On Unix, you can use `time.clock()` to measure CPU time.

Note : There is a certain baseline overhead associated with executing a `pass` statement. The code here doesn’t try to hide it, but you should be aware of it. The baseline overhead can be measured by invoking the program without arguments, and it might differ between Python versions. Also, to fairly compare older Python versions to Python 2.3, you may want to use Python’s `-O` option (see Optimizations) for the older versions to avoid timing `SET_LINENO` instructions.

26.6.4 Examples

It is possible to provide a setup statement that is executed only once at the beginning :

```
$ python -m timeit -s 'text = "sample string"; char = "g"' 'char in text'
1000000 loops, best of 3: 0.0877 usec per loop
$ python -m timeit -s 'text = "sample string"; char = "g"' 'text.find(char)'
1000000 loops, best of 3: 0.342 usec per loop
```

```
>>> import timeit
>>> timeit.timeit('char in text', setup='text = "sample string"; char = "g"')
0.41440500499993504
>>> timeit.timeit('text.find(char)', setup='text = "sample string"; char = "g"')
1.7246671520006203
```

The same can be done using the `Timer` class and its methods :


```
>>> import timeit
>>> t = timeit.Timer('char in text', setup='text = "sample string"; char = "g"')
>>> t.timeit()
0.3955516149999312
>>> t.repeat()
[0.40193588800002544, 0.3960157959998014, 0.39594301399984033]
```

The following examples show how to time expressions that contain multiple lines. Here we compare the cost of using `hasattr()` vs. `try/except` to test for missing and present object attributes :

```
$ python -m timeit 'try: ' ' str.__nonzero__' 'except AttributeError: ' ' pass'
100000 loops, best of 3: 15.7 usec per loop
$ python -m timeit 'if hasattr(str, "__nonzero__"): pass'
100000 loops, best of 3: 4.26 usec per loop

$ python -m timeit 'try: ' ' int.__nonzero__' 'except AttributeError: ' ' pass'
1000000 loops, best of 3: 1.43 usec per loop
$ python -m timeit 'if hasattr(int, "__nonzero__"): pass'
100000 loops, best of 3: 2.23 usec per loop
```

```
>>> import timeit
>>> # attribute is missing
>>> s = """\
... try:
...     str.__nonzero__
... except AttributeError:
...     pass
... """
>>> timeit.timeit(stmt=s, number=100000)
0.9138244460009446
>>> s = "if hasattr(str, '__bool__'): pass"
>>> timeit.timeit(stmt=s, number=100000)
0.5829014980008651
>>>
>>> # attribute is present
>>> s = """\
... try:
...     int.__nonzero__
... except AttributeError:
...     pass
... """
>>> timeit.timeit(stmt=s, number=100000)
0.04215312199994514
>>> s = "if hasattr(int, '__bool__'): pass"
>>> timeit.timeit(stmt=s, number=100000)
0.08588060699912603
```

To give the `timeit` module access to functions you define, you can pass a `setup` parameter which contains an import statement :

```
def test():
    """Stupid test function"""
    L = []
```

(suite sur la page suivante)

(suite de la page précédente)

```
for i in range(100):
    L.append(i)

if __name__ == '__main__':
    import timeit
    print(timeit.timeit("test()", setup="from __main__ import test"))
```

26.7 trace — Trace or track Python statement execution

Code source : [Lib/abc.py](#)

The *trace* module allows you to trace program execution, generate annotated statement coverage listings, print caller/callee relationships and list functions executed during a program run. It can be used in another program or from the command line.

26.7.1 Utilisation en ligne de commande.

The *trace* module can be invoked from the command line. It can be as simple as

```
python -m trace --count -C . somefile.py ...
```

The above will execute `somefile.py` and generate annotated listings of all Python modules imported during the execution into the current directory.

--help

Display usage and exit.

--version

Display the version of the module and exit.

Main options

At least one of the following options must be specified when invoking *trace*. The *--listfuncs* option is mutually exclusive with the *--trace* and *--count* options. When *--listfuncs* is provided, neither *--count* nor *--trace* are accepted, and vice versa.

-c, --count

Produce a set of annotated listing files upon program completion that shows how many times each statement was executed. See also *--coverdir*, *--file* and *--no-report* below.

-t, --trace

Display lines as they are executed.

-l, --listfuncs

Display the functions executed by running the program.

-r, --report

Produce an annotated list from an earlier program run that used the *--count* and *--file* option. This does not execute any code.

-T, --trackcalls

Display the calling relationships exposed by running the program.

Modifiers

- f, --file=<file>**
Name of a file to accumulate counts over several tracing runs. Should be used with the `--count` option.
- C, --coverdir=<dir>**
Directory where the report files go. The coverage report for `package.module` is written to file `dir/package/module.cover`.
- m, --missing**
When generating annotated listings, mark lines which were not executed with `>>>>>`.
- s, --summary**
When using `--count` or `--report`, write a brief summary to stdout for each file processed.
- R, --no-report**
Do not generate annotated listings. This is useful if you intend to make several runs with `--count`, and then produce a single set of annotated listings at the end.
- g, --timing**
Prefix each line with the time since the program started. Only used while tracing.

Filters

These options may be repeated multiple times.

- ignore-module=<mod>**
Ignore each of the given module names and its submodules (if it is a package). The argument can be a list of names separated by a comma.
- ignore-dir=<dir>**
Ignore all modules and packages in the named directory and subdirectories. The argument can be a list of directories separated by `os.pathsep`.

26.7.2 Programmatic Interface

```
class trace.Trace([count=1[, trace=1[, countfuncs=0[, countcallers=0[, ignoremods=()[, ignore-
                    dirs=()[, infile=None[, outfile=None[, timing=False]]]]]]]])
```

Create an object to trace execution of a single statement or expression. All parameters are optional. `count` enables counting of line numbers. `trace` enables line execution tracing. `countfuncs` enables listing of the functions called during the run. `countcallers` enables call relationship tracking. `ignoremods` is a list of modules or packages to ignore. `ignoredirs` is a list of directories whose modules or packages should be ignored. `infile` is the name of the file from which to read stored count information. `outfile` is the name of the file in which to write updated count information. `timing` enables a timestamp relative to when tracing was started to be displayed.

run(cmd)

Execute the command and gather statistics from the execution with the current tracing parameters. `cmd` must be a string or code object, suitable for passing into `exec()`.

runctx(cmd, globals=None, locals=None)

Execute the command and gather statistics from the execution with the current tracing parameters, in the defined global and local environments. If not defined, `globals` and `locals` default to empty dictionaries.

runfunc(func, *args, **kws)

Call `func` with the given arguments under control of the `Trace` object with the current tracing parameters.

results()

Return a `CoverageResults` object that contains the cumulative results of all previous

calls to `run`, `runctx` and `runfunc` for the given *Trace* instance. Does not reset the accumulated trace results.

class `trace.CoverageResults`

A container for coverage results, created by *Trace.results()*. Should not be created directly by the user.

`update(other)`

Merge in data from another *CoverageResults* object.

`write_results([show_missing=True[, summary=False[, coverdir=None]])`

Write coverage results. Set *show_missing* to show lines that had no hits. Set *summary* to include in the output the coverage summary per module. *coverdir* specifies the directory into which the coverage result files will be output. If *None*, the results for each source file are placed in its directory.

A simple example demonstrating the use of the programmatic interface :

```
import sys
import trace

# create a Trace object, telling it what to ignore, and whether to
# do tracing or line-counting or both.
tracer = trace.Trace(
    ignoredirs=[sys.prefix, sys.exec_prefix],
    trace=0,
    count=1)

# run the new command using the given tracer
tracer.run('main()')

# make a report, placing output in the current directory
r = tracer.results()
r.write_results(show_missing=True, coverdir=".")
```

Paquets et distribution de paquets logiciels

These libraries help you with publishing and installing Python software. While these modules are designed to work in conjunction with the [Python Package Index](#), they can also be used with a local index server, or without any index server at all.

27.1 `distutils` — Création et installation des modules Python

Le package `distutils` fournit le support pour la création et l'installation de modules supplémentaires dans une installation Python. Les nouveaux modules peuvent être soit en Python pur à 100%, soit des modules d'extension écrits en C, soit des collections de paquets Python qui incluent des modules codés en C et en Python.

La plupart des utilisateurs de Python ne voudront *pas* utiliser ce module directement, mais plutôt les outils cross-version maintenus par la *Python Packaging Authority*. En particulier, `setuptools` est une alternative améliorée à `distutils` qui fournit :

- support pour la déclaration des dépendances de projets
- mécanismes supplémentaires pour configurer quels fichiers inclure dans les distributions source (y compris les extensions pour l'intégration avec les systèmes de contrôle de version)
- la possibilité de déclarer les « points d'entrée » du projet, qui peuvent être utilisés comme base pour les systèmes d'extensions
- la possibilité de générer automatiquement des exécutables en ligne de commande Windows au moment de l'installation plutôt que de devoir les pré-construire
- comportement cohérent entre toutes les versions Python supportées

Le programme d'installation recommandé `pip` exécute tous les scripts `setup.py` avec `setuptools`, même si le script lui-même n'importe que `distutils`. Pour plus d'informations, reportez-vous au [Python Packaging User Guide](#).

À destination des auteurs et utilisateurs d'outils d'empaquetage cherchant une compréhension plus approfondie des détails du système actuel de création de paquets et de leur distribution, la documentation utilisateur historique de `distutils` la référence de son API restent disponibles :

- `install-index`
- `distutils-index`

27.2 ensurepip — Bootstrapping the pip installer

Nouveau dans la version 2.7.9.

The *ensurepip* package provides support for bootstrapping the `pip` installer into an existing Python installation or virtual environment. This bootstrapping approach reflects the fact that `pip` is an independent project with its own release cycle, and the latest available stable version is bundled with maintenance and feature releases of the CPython reference interpreter.

In most cases, end users of Python shouldn't need to invoke this module directly (as `pip` should be bootstrapped by default), but it may be needed if installing `pip` was skipped when installing Python (or when creating a virtual environment) or after explicitly uninstalling `pip`.

Note : This module *does not* access the internet. All of the components needed to bootstrap `pip` are included as internal parts of the package.

Voir aussi :

installing-index The end user guide for installing Python packages

PEP 453 : Explicit bootstrapping of pip in Python installations The original rationale and specification for this module.

PEP 477 : Backport ensurepip (PEP 453) to Python 2.7 The rationale and specification for backporting PEP 453 to Python 2.7.

27.2.1 Command line interface

The command line interface is invoked using the interpreter's `-m` switch.

The simplest possible invocation is :

```
python -m ensurepip
```

This invocation will install `pip` if it is not already installed, but otherwise does nothing. To ensure the installed version of `pip` is at least as recent as the one bundled with `ensurepip`, pass the `--upgrade` option :

```
python -m ensurepip --upgrade
```

By default, `pip` is installed into the current virtual environment (if one is active) or into the system site packages (if there is no active virtual environment). The installation location can be controlled through two additional command line options :

- `--root <dir>` : Installs `pip` relative to the given root directory rather than the root of the currently active virtual environment (if any) or the default root for the current Python installation.
- `--user` : Installs `pip` into the user site packages directory rather than globally for the current Python installation (this option is not permitted inside an active virtual environment).

By default, the scripts `pip`, `pipX`, and `pipX.Y` will be installed (where `X.Y` stands for the version of Python used to invoke `ensurepip`). The scripts installed can be controlled through two additional command line options :

- `--altinstall` : if an alternate installation is requested, the `pip` and `pipX` script will *not* be installed.
- `--no-default-pip` : if a non-default installation is request, the `pip` script will *not* be installed.

Modifié dans la version 2.7.15 : The exit status is non-zero if the command fails.

27.2.2 Module API

ensurepip exposes two functions for programmatic use :

`ensurepip.version()`

Returns a string specifying the bundled version of `pip` that will be installed when bootstrapping an environment.

`ensurepip.bootstrap(root=None, upgrade=False, user=False, altinstall=False, default_pip=True, verbosity=0)`

Bootstraps `pip` into the current or designated environment.

root specifies an alternative root directory to install relative to. If *root* is `None`, then installation uses the default install location for the current environment.

upgrade indicates whether or not to upgrade an existing installation of an earlier version of `pip` to the bundled version.

user indicates whether to use the user scheme rather than installing globally.

By default, the scripts `pip`, `pipX`, and `pipX.Y` will be installed (where `X.Y` stands for the current version of Python).

If *altinstall* is set, then `pip` and `pipX` will *not* be installed.

If *default_pip* is set to `False`, then `pip` will *not* be installed.

Setting both *altinstall* and *default_pip* will trigger `ValueError`.

verbosity controls the level of output to `sys.stdout` from the bootstrapping operation.

Note : The bootstrapping process has side effects on both `sys.path` and `os.environ`. Invoking the command line interface in a subprocess instead allows these side effects to be avoided.

Note : The bootstrapping process may install additional modules required by `pip`, but other software should not assume those dependencies will always be present by default (as the dependencies may be removed in a future version of `pip`).

Environnement d'exécution Python

Les modules décrits dans ce chapitre fournissent une large collection de services relatifs à l'interpréteur Python et son interaction avec son environnement. En voici un survol :

28.1 sys — Paramètres et fonctions propres à des systèmes

Ce module fournit un accès à certaines variables utilisées et maintenues par l'interpréteur, et à des fonctions interagissant fortement avec ce dernier. Ce module est toujours disponible.

sys.argv

La liste des arguments de la ligne de commande passés à un script Python. `argv[0]` est le nom du script (chemin complet, ou non, en fonction du système d'exploitation). Si la commande a été exécutée avec l'option `-c` de l'interpréteur, `argv[0]` vaut la chaîne `'-c'`. Si aucun nom de script n'a été donné à l'interpréteur Python, `argv[0]` sera une chaîne vide.

Pour boucler sur l'entrée standard, ou la liste des fichiers donnés sur la ligne de commande, utilisez le module *fileinput*.

sys.byteorder

Un indicateur de l'ordre natif des octets. Vaudra `'big'` sur les plateformes gros-boutistes (octet le plus significatif en premier), et `'little'` sur les plateformes petit-boutiste (octet le moins significatif en premier).

Nouveau dans la version 2.0.

sys.builtin_module_names

Un *tuple* de chaînes de caractères donnant les noms de tous les modules compilés dans l'interpréteur Python. (Cette information n'est pas disponible autrement — `modules.keys()` liste seulement les modules importés.)

sys.call_tracing(func, args)

Appelle `func(*args)`, avec le traçage activé. L'état du traçage est sauvegardé et restauré après l'appel. Ceci est destiné à être appelé depuis un débogueur à partir d'un point de contrôle, pour déboguer récursivement un autre code.

sys.copyright

Une chaîne contenant le copyright relatif à l'interpréteur Python.

sys._clear_type_cache()

Vide le cache interne de types. Le cache de types est utilisé pour accélérer les recherches d'attributs et de méthodes. N'utilisez cette fonction *que* pour libérer des références inutiles durant le débogage de fuite de référence.

Cette fonction ne devrait être utilisée que pour un usage interne et spécialisé.

Nouveau dans la version 2.6.

sys._current_frames()

Renvoie un dictionnaire faisant correspondre chaque identifiant de fil d'exécution à la *stack frame* actuellement active pour ces fils d'exécution au moment où la fonction est appelée. Notez que les fonctions du module *traceback* peuvent construire une *call stack* à partir d'une telle *frame*.

N'ayant pas besoin de la coopération des fils d'exécution bloqués, cette fonction est très utile pour déboguer un *deadlock*. Aussi, les *call stack* de ces fils d'exécution ne changeront pas tant qu'ils seront bloqués. La *frame* renvoyée pour un fil d'exécution non bloqué peut ne plus être liée à l'activité courante du fil d'exécution au moment où le code appelant examine la *frame*.

Cette fonction ne devrait être utilisée que pour un usage interne et spécialisé.

Nouveau dans la version 2.5.

sys.dllhandle

Nombre entier spécifiant le descripteur de la DLL Python. Disponibilité : Windows.

sys.displayhook(value)

If *value* is not *None*, this function prints it to *sys.stdout*, and saves it in *__builtin__*.

sys.displayhook est appelé avec le résultat de l'évaluation d'une *expression* entrée dans une session Python interactive. L'affichage de ces valeurs peut être personnalisé en assignant une autre fonction d'un argument à *sys.displayhook*.

sys.dont_write_bytecode

If this is true, Python won't try to write *.pyc* or *.pyo* files on the import of source modules. This value is initially set to *True* or *False* depending on the *-B* command line option and the *PYTHONDONTWRITEBYTECODE* environment variable, but you can set it yourself to control bytecode file generation.

Nouveau dans la version 2.6.

sys.excepthook(type, value, traceback)

Cette fonction affiche la *traceback* et l'exception donnée sur *sys.stderr*.

Lorsqu'une exception est levée et n'est pas attrapée, l'interpréteur appelle *sys.excepthook* avec trois arguments, la classe de l'exception, l'instance de l'exception, et un objet *traceback*. Dans une session interactive, cela se produit juste avant que le que l'invite soit rendue. Dans un programme Python, cela se produit juste avant que le programme quitte. La gestion de ces exceptions peut être personnalisé en affectant une autre fonction de trois arguments à *sys.excepthook*.

sys.__displayhook__**sys.__excepthook__**

Ces objets contiennent les valeurs originales de *displayhook* et *excepthook* au début du programme. Elles sont sauvegardées de façon à ce que *displayhook* et *excepthook* puisse être restaurées au cas où elles seraient remplacées par des objets cassés.

sys.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 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.

If `exc_clear()` is called, this function will return three `None` values until either another exception is raised in the current thread or the execution stack returns to a frame where another exception is being handled.

Avertissement : 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 `exc_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 `exc_info()` in a function that does not itself handle an exception.

Note : Beginning with Python 2.2, such cycles are automatically reclaimed when garbage collection is enabled and they become unreachable, but it remains more efficient to avoid creating cycles.

`sys.exc_clear()`

This function clears all information relating to the current or last exception that occurred in the current thread. After calling this function, `exc_info()` will return three `None` values until another exception is raised in the current thread or the execution stack returns to a frame where another exception is being handled.

This function is only needed in only a few obscure situations. These include logging and error handling systems that report information on the last or current exception. This function can also be used to try to free resources and trigger object finalization, though no guarantee is made as to what objects will be freed, if any.

Nouveau dans la version 2.3.

`sys.exc_type`

`sys.exc_value`

`sys.exc_traceback`

Obsolète depuis la version 1.5 : Use `exc_info()` instead.

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, `exc_type` is set to `None` and the other two are undefined.

`sys.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 `pyconfig.h` header file) are installed in the directory `exec_prefix/lib/pythonX.Y/config`, and shared library modules are installed in `exec_prefix/lib/pythonX.Y/lib-dynload`, where `X.Y` is the version number of Python, for example 2.7.

`sys.executable`

Une chaîne donnant le chemin absolu vers l'interpréteur Python, un fichier binaire exécutable, sur les systèmes sur lesquels ça a du sens. Si Python n'est pas capable de récupérer le chemin réel de son exécutable, `sys.executable` sera une chaîne vide ou `None`.

`sys.exit([arg])`

Quitte Python. C'est implémenté en levant l'exception `SystemExit`, afin que toutes les actions de

nettoyage spécifiées par des clauses *finally* des instructions `try` soient correctement exécutées. Il est aussi possible d'intercepter la tentative de sortie à un niveau au dessus.

The optional argument *arg* can be an integer giving the exit status (defaulting to zero), or another type of object. If it is an integer, zero is considered « successful termination » and any nonzero value is considered « abnormal termination » by shells and the like. Most systems require it to be in the range 0–127, and produce undefined results otherwise. Some systems have a convention for assigning specific meanings to specific exit codes, but these are generally underdeveloped ; Unix programs generally use 2 for command line syntax errors and 1 for all other kind of errors. If another type of object is passed, `None` is equivalent to passing zero, and any other object is printed to *stderr* and results in an exit code of 1. In particular, `sys.exit("some error message")` is a quick way to exit a program when an error occurs.

Puisque la fonction `exit()` ne fait « que » lever une exception, elle ne fera quitter le processus que si elle est appelée depuis le fil d'exécution principal, et que l'exception n'est pas interceptée.

`sys.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. Only one function may be installed in this way ; to allow multiple functions which will be called at termination, use the *atexit* module.

Note : The exit function is not called when the program is killed by a signal, when a Python fatal internal error is detected, or when `os._exit()` is called.

Obsolète depuis la version 2.4 : Use *atexit* instead.

`sys.flags`

The struct sequence *flags* exposes the status of command line flags. The attributes are read only.

attribut	option
<code>debug</code>	<code>-d</code>
<code>py3k_warning</code>	<code>-3</code>
<code>division_warning</code>	<code>-Q</code>
<code>division_new</code>	<code>-Qnew</code>
<i>inspect</i>	<code>-i</code>
<code>interactive</code>	<code>-i</code>
<code>optimize</code>	<code>-O</code> or <code>-OO</code>
<i>dont_write_bytecode</i>	<code>-B</code>
<code>no_user_site</code>	<code>-s</code>
<code>no_site</code>	<code>-S</code>
<code>ignore_environment</code>	<code>-E</code>
<code>tabcheck</code>	<code>-t</code> or <code>-tt</code>
<code>verbose</code>	<code>-v</code>
<i>unicode</i>	<code>-U</code>
<code>bytes_warning</code>	<code>-b</code>
<code>hash_randomization</code>	<code>-R</code>

Nouveau dans la version 2.6.

Nouveau dans la version 2.7.3 : L'attribut `hash_randomization`.

`sys.float_info`

A structseq holding information about the float type. It contains low level information about the precision and internal representation. The values correspond to the various floating-point constants defined in the standard header file `float.h` for the “C” programming language ; see section 5.2.4.2.2 of the 1999 ISO/IEC C standard [C99], “Characteristics of floating types”, for details.

attribut	macro <i>float.h</i>	explication
<code>epsilon</code>	<code>DBL_EPSILON</code>	différence entre 1 et la plus petite valeur plus grande que 1 représentable en <i>float</i>
<code>dig</code>	<code>DBL_DIG</code>	nombre maximum de décimales pouvant être représentées fidèlement dans un <i>float</i> (voir ci-dessous)
<code>mant_dig</code>	<code>DBL_MANT_DIG</code>	précision : nombre de <i>base-radix</i> chiffres dans la mantisse du <i>float</i>
<i>max</i>	<code>DBL_MAX</code>	plus grand <i>float</i> fini représentable
<code>max_exp</code>	<code>DBL_MAX_EXP</code>	plus grand nombre entier <i>e</i> tel que <code>radix**(e-1)</code> soit représentable sous forme de <i>float</i> finit
<code>max_10_exp</code>	<code>DBL_MAX_10_EXP</code>	plus grand nombre entier <i>e</i> tel que <code>10**e</code> est dans l'intervalle des nombre flottants finis
<i>min</i>	<code>DBL_MIN</code>	plus petit nombre à virgule flottante positif normalisé
<code>min_exp</code>	<code>DBL_MIN_EXP</code>	plus petit entier <i>e</i> tel que <code>radix**(e-1)</code> est un <i>float</i> normalisé
<code>min_10_exp</code>	<code>DBL_MIN_10_EXP</code>	plus petit nombre entier <i>e</i> tel que <code>10**e</code> est un nombre à virgule flottante normalisé
<code>radix</code>	<code>FLT_RADIX</code>	base de la représentation de l'exposant
<code>rounds</code>	<code>FLT_ROUNDS</code>	constante, nombre entier représentant le mode d'arrondi utilisé pour les opérations arithmétiques. Elle reflète la valeur de la macro système <code>FLT_ROUNDS</code> au moment du démarrage de l'interpréteur. Voir section 5.2.4.4.2.2 de la norme C99 pour une explication des valeurs possibles et de leurs significations.

L'attribut `sys.float_info.dig` nécessite plus d'explications : Si `s` est une chaîne représentant un nombre décimal avec au plus `sys.float_info.dig` chiffres significatifs, alors, convertir `s` en un nombre à virgule flottante puis à nouveau en chaîne redonnera la même valeur :

```
>>> import sys
>>> sys.float_info.dig
15
>>> s = '3.14159265358979'      # decimal string with 15 significant digits
>>> format(float(s), '.15g')    # convert to float and back -> same value
'3.14159265358979'
```

Cependant, pour les chaînes avec plus de `sys.float_info.dig` chiffres significatifs, ce n'est pas toujours vrai :

```
>>> s = '9876543211234567'     # 16 significant digits is too many!
>>> format(float(s), '.16g')    # conversion changes value
'9876543211234568'
```

Nouveau dans la version 2.6.

`sys.float_repr_style`

A string indicating how the `repr()` function behaves for floats. If the string has value `'short'` then for a finite float `x`, `repr(x)` aims to produce a short string with the property that `float(repr(x)) == x`. This is the usual behaviour in Python 2.7 and later. Otherwise, `float_repr_style` has value `'legacy'` and `repr(x)` behaves in the same way as it did in versions of Python prior to 2.7.

Nouveau dans la version 2.7.

`sys.getcheckinterval()`

Renvoie le *check interval* de l'interpréteur, voir `setcheckinterval()`.

Nouveau dans la version 2.3.

`sys.getdefaultencoding()`

Renvoie le nom du codage par défaut actuellement utilisé par l'implémentation *Unicode* pour coder les chaînes.

Nouveau dans la version 2.0.

`sys.getdlopenflags()`

Return the current value of the flags that are used for `dlopen()` calls. The flag constants are defined in the *dl* and *DLFCN* modules. Availability : Unix.

Nouveau dans la version 2.2.

`sys.getfilesystemencoding()`

Return the name of the encoding used to convert Unicode filenames into system file names, or `None` if the system default encoding is used. The result value depends on the operating system :

- Sur Mac OS X, l'encodage est `'utf-8'`.
- On Unix, the encoding is the user's preference according to the result of `nl_langinfo(CODESET)`, or `None` if the `nl_langinfo(CODESET)` failed.
- On Windows NT+, file names are Unicode natively, so no conversion is performed. `getfilesystemencoding()` still returns `'mbcs'`, as this is the encoding that applications should use when they explicitly want to convert Unicode strings to byte strings that are equivalent when used as file names.
- On Windows 9x, the encoding is `'mbcs'`.

Nouveau dans la version 2.3.

`sys.getrefcount(object)`

Donne le nombre de référence de l'objet *object*. Le nombre renvoyé est généralement d'une référence de plus qu'attendu, puisqu'il compte la référence (temporaire) de l'argument à `getrefcount()`.

`sys.getrecursionlimit()`

Donne la limite actuelle de la limite de récursion, la profondeur maximum de la pile de l'interpréteur. Cette limite empêche Python de planter lors d'une récursion infinie à cause d'un débordement de la pile. Elle peut être modifiée par `setrecursionlimit()`.

`sys.getsizeof(object[, default])`

Donne la taille d'un objet en octets. L'objet peut être de n'importe quel type. Le résultat sera correct pour tous les objets natifs, mais le résultat peut ne pas être toujours vrai pour les extensions, la valeur étant dépendante de l'implémentation.

S'il est fourni, *default* sera renvoyé si l'objet ne fournit aucun moyen de récupérer sa taille. Sinon, une exception *TypeError* sera levée.

`getsizeof()` appelle la méthode `__sizeof__` de l'objet, et s'il est géré par lui, ajoute le surcoût du ramasse-miettes.

Nouveau dans la version 2.6.

`sys._getframe([depth])`

Renvoie une *frame* de la pile d'appels. Si le nombre entier optionnel *depth* est donné, la *frame* donnée sera de *depth* appels depuis le haut de la pile. Si c'est plus profond que la hauteur de la pile, une exception *ValueError* est levée. La profondeur par défaut est zéro, donnant ainsi la *frame* du dessus de la pile.

Cette fonction ne devrait être utilisée que pour une utilisation interne et spécifique. Il n'est pas garanti qu'elle existe dans toutes les implémentations de Python.

`sys.getprofile()`

Renvoie la fonction de profilage tel que défini par `setprofile()`.

Nouveau dans la version 2.6.

`sys.gettrace()`

Renvoie la fonction de traçage tel que définie par `settrace()`.

La fonction `gettrace()` ne sert que pour implémenter des débogueurs, des *profilers*, outils d'analyse de couverture, etc.... Son comportement dépend de l'implémentation et non du langage, elle n'est donc pas forcément disponible dans toutes les implémentations de Python.

Nouveau dans la version 2.6.

`sys.getwindowsversion()`

Return a named tuple describing the Windows version currently running. The named elements are *major*, *minor*, *build*, *platform*, *service_pack*, *service_pack_minor*, *service_pack_major*, *suite_mask*, and *product_type*. *service_pack* contains a string while all other values are integers. The components can also be accessed by name, so `sys.getwindowsversion()[0]` is equivalent to `sys.getwindowsversion().major`. For compatibility with prior versions, only the first 5 elements are retrievable by indexing.

platform may be one of the following values :

Constante	Plateforme
0 (VER_PLATFORM_WIN32s)	Win32s on Windows 3.1
1 (VER_PLATFORM_WIN32_WINDOWS)	Windows 95/98/ME
2 (VER_PLATFORM_WIN32_NT)	Windows NT/2000/XP/x64
3 (VER_PLATFORM_WIN32_CE)	Windows CE

product_type peut être une des valeurs suivantes :

Constante	Signification
1 (VER_NT_WORKSTATION)	Le système une station de travail.
2 (VER_NT_DOMAIN_CONTROLLER)	Le système est un contrôleur de domaine.
3 (VER_NT_SERVER)	Le système est un serveur, mais pas un contrôleur de domaine.

Cette fonction enveloppe la fonction Win32 `GetVersionEx()`. Voir la documentation de Microsoft sur `OSVERSIONINFOEX()` pour plus d'informations sur ces champs.

Disponibilité : Windows.

Nouveau dans la version 2.3.

Modifié dans la version 2.7 : Changé en un *tuple* nommé, et ajout de *service_pack_minor*, *service_pack_major*, *suite_mask*, et *product_type*.

`sys.hexversion`

Le numéro de version codé sous forme d'un seul nombre entier. Ce numéro augmente avec chaque version, y compris pour les versions hors production. Par exemple, pour vérifier que l'interpréteur Python est au moins la version 1.5, utilisez :

```
if sys.hexversion >= 0x010502F0:
    # use some advanced feature
    ...
else:
    # use an alternative implementation or warn the user
    ...
```

This is called `hexversion` since it only really looks meaningful when viewed as the result of passing it to the built-in `hex()` function. The `version_info` value may be used for a more human-friendly encoding of the same information.

The `hexversion` is a 32-bit number with the following layout :

Bits (ordre grossier)	Signification
1-8	PY_MAJOR_VERSION (the 2 in 2.1.0a3)
9-16	PY_MINOR_VERSION (the 1 in 2.1.0a3)
17-24	PY_MICRO_VERSION (the 0 in 2.1.0a3)
25-28	PY_RELEASE_LEVEL (0xA for alpha, 0xB for beta, 0xC for release candidate and 0xF for final)
29-32	PY_RELEASE_SERIAL (the 3 in 2.1.0a3, zero for final releases)

Thus 2.1.0a3 is hexversion 0x020100a3.

Nouveau dans la version 1.5.2.

`sys.long_info`

A struct sequence that holds information about Python's internal representation of integers. The attributes are read only.

Attribut	Explication
<code>bits_per_digit</code>	number of bits held in each digit. Python integers are stored internally in base <code>2**long_info.bits_per_digit</code>
<code>sizeof_digit</code>	taille en octets du type C utilisé pour représenter un chiffre

Nouveau dans la version 2.7.

`sys.last_type`

`sys.last_value`

`sys.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 chapter [pdb — Le débogueur Python](#) for more information.)

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

`sys.maxint`

The largest positive integer supported by Python's regular integer type. This is at least `2**31-1`. The largest negative integer is `-maxint-1` — the asymmetry results from the use of 2's complement binary arithmetic.

`sys.maxsize`

The largest positive integer supported by the platform's `Py_ssize_t` type, and thus the maximum size lists, strings, dicts, and many other containers can have.

`sys.maxunicode`

An integer giving the largest supported code point for a Unicode character. The value of this depends on the configuration option that specifies whether Unicode characters are stored as UCS-2 or UCS-4.

`sys.meta_path`

A list of *finder* objects that have their `find_module()` methods called to see if one of the objects can find the module to be imported. The `find_module()` method is called at least with the absolute name of the module being imported. If the module to be imported is contained in package then the parent package's `__path__` attribute is passed in as a second argument. The method returns `None` if the module cannot be found, else returns a *loader*.

`sys.meta_path` is searched before any implicit default finders or `sys.path`.

See [PEP 302](#) for the original specification.

sys.modules

This is a dictionary that maps module names to modules which have already been loaded. This can be manipulated to force reloading of modules and other tricks. Note that removing a module from this dictionary is *not* the same as calling `reload()` on the corresponding module object.

sys.path

Une liste de chaînes de caractères spécifiant les chemins de recherche des modules, initialisée à partir de la variable d'environnement `PYTHONPATH` et d'une valeur par défaut dépendante de l'installation.

Puisqu'il est initialisé au démarrage du programme, le premier élément de cette liste, `path[0]`, est le dossier contenant le script qui a été utilisé pour invoquer l'interpréteur Python. Si le dossier du script n'est pas disponible (typiquement, si l'interpréteur est invoqué interactivement ou si le script est lu à partir d'une entrée standard), `path[0]` sera une chaîne vide, qui indiquera à Python de chercher des modules dans le dossier actuel. Notez que le dossier du script est inséré *avant* les dossiers de `PYTHONPATH`.

A program is free to modify this list for its own purposes.

Modifié dans la version 2.3 : Unicode strings are no longer ignored.

Voir aussi :

Le module *site* décrit comment utiliser les fichiers *.pth* pour étendre *sys.path*.

sys.path_hooks

Une liste d'appelables d'un argument, *path*, pour essayer de créer un *finder* pour ce chemin. Si un *finder* peut être créé, il doit être renvoyé par l'appelable, sinon une *ImportError* doit être levée.

Précisé à l'origine dans la **PEP 302**.

sys.path_importer_cache

A dictionary acting as a cache for *finder* objects. The keys are paths that have been passed to *sys.path_hooks* and the values are the finders that are found. If a path is a valid file system path but no explicit finder is found on *sys.path_hooks* then `None` is stored to represent the implicit default finder should be used. If the path is not an existing path then *imp.NullImporter* is set.

Précisé à l'origine dans la **PEP 302**.

sys.platform

Cette chaîne contient un identificateur de plateforme qui peut être typiquement utilisé pour ajouter des composants spécifiques à *sys.path*.

For most Unix systems, this is the lowercased OS name as returned by `uname -s` with the first part of the version as returned by `uname -r` appended, e.g. 'sunos5', *at the time when Python was built*. Unless you want to test for a specific system version, it is therefore recommended to use the following idiom :

```
if sys.platform.startswith('freebsd'):
    # FreeBSD-specific code here...
elif sys.platform.startswith('linux'):
    # Linux-specific code here...
```

Modifié dans la version 2.7.3 : Since lots of code check for `sys.platform == 'linux2'`, and there is no essential change between Linux 2.x and 3.x, `sys.platform` is always set to 'linux2', even on Linux 3.x. In Python 3.3 and later, the value will always be set to 'linux', so it is recommended to always use the `startswith` idiom presented above.

Pour les autres systèmes, les valeurs sont :

Système	<i>platform</i> value
Linux (2.x and 3.x)	'linux2'
Windows	'win32'
Windows/Cygwin	'cygwin'
Mac OS X	'darwin'
OS/2	'os2'
OS/2 EMX	'os2emx'
RiscOS	'riscos'
AtheOS	'atheos'

Voir aussi :

os.name a une granularité plus grossière. *os.uname()* donne des informations sur la version dépendantes du système.

Le module *platform* fournit des vérifications détaillées pour l'identité du système.

sys.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 *prefix*/lib/python*X.Y* while the platform independent header files (all except `pyconfig.h`) are stored in *prefix*/include/python*X.Y*, where *X.Y* is the version number of Python, for example 2.7.

sys.ps1**sys.ps2**

Chaînes spécifiant l'invite primaire et secondaire de l'interpréteur. Celles-ci ne sont définies que si l'interpréteur est en mode interactif. Dans ce cas, leurs valeurs initiales sont `'>>>'` et `'...'`. Si un objet qui n'est pas une chaîne est assigné à l'une ou l'autre variable, sa méthode *str()* sera appelée à chaque fois que l'interpréteur se prépare à lire une nouvelle commande interactive, c'est donc utilisable pour implémenter une invite dynamique.

sys.py3kwarning

Bool containing the status of the Python 3 warning flag. It's `True` when Python is started with the `-3` option. (This should be considered read-only; setting it to a different value doesn't have an effect on Python 3 warnings.)

Nouveau dans la version 2.6.

sys.setcheckinterval(interval)

Défini l'« intervalle de vérification » de l'interpréteur. Ce nombre entier détermine la fréquence à laquelle l'interpréteur effectue des tâches périodiques tels que la commutation de fil d'exécution et la gestion de signaux. La valeur par défaut est 100, ce qui signifie que le contrôle est effectué toutes les 100 instructions virtuelles Python. L'augmenter peut améliorer les performances des programmes utilisant des fils d'exécution. Le paramétrer à une valeur inférieure ou égale à zéro permet d'effectuer ces tâches à chaque instruction virtuelle, maximisant ainsi la réactivité mais aussi son surcoût.

sys.setdefaultencoding(name)

Set the current default string encoding used by the Unicode implementation. If *name* does not match any available encoding, *LookupError* is raised. This function is only intended to be used by the *site* module implementation and, where needed, by *sitecustomize*. Once used by the *site* module, it is removed from the *sys* module's namespace.

Nouveau dans la version 2.0.

sys.setdlopenflags(n)

Set the flags used by the interpreter for `dlopen()` calls, such as when the interpreter loads extension modules. Among other things, this will enable a lazy resolving of symbols when importing a module, if called as `sys.setdlopenflags(0)`. To share symbols across extension modules, call as

`sys.setdlopenflags(dl.RTLD_NOW | dl.RTLD_GLOBAL)`. Symbolic names for the flag modules can be either found in the `dl` module, or in the `DLFCN` module. If `DLFCN` is not available, it can be generated from `/usr/include/dlfcn.h` using the `h2py` script. Availability : Unix.

Nouveau dans la version 2.2.

`sys.setprofile(profilefunc)`

Set the system's profile function, which allows you to implement a Python source code profiler in Python. See chapter *The Python Profilers* for more information on the Python profiler. The system's profile function is called similarly to the system's trace function (see `settrace()`), but it is called with different events, for example it isn't called for each executed line of code (only on call and return, but the return event is reported even when an exception has been set). The function is thread-specific, but there is no way for the profiler to know about context switches between threads, so it does not make sense to use this in the presence of multiple threads. Also, its return value is not used, so it can simply return `None`.

Profile functions should have three arguments : *frame*, *event*, and *arg*. *frame* is the current stack frame. *event* is a string : 'call', 'return', 'c_call', 'c_return', or 'c_exception'. *arg* depends on the event type.

Les événements ont la signification suivante :

'call' A function is called (or some other code block entered). The profile function is called ; *arg* is `None`.

'return' A function (or other code block) is about to return. The profile function is called ; *arg* is the value that will be returned, or `None` if the event is caused by an exception being raised.

'c_call' Une fonction C est sur le point d'être appelée. C'est soit une fonction d'extension ou une fonction native. *arg* représente la fonction C.

'c_return' Une fonction C a renvoyé une valeur. *arg* représente la fonction C.

'c_exception' Une fonction C a levé une exception. *arg* représente la fonction C.

`sys.setrecursionlimit(limit)`

Définit la profondeur maximale de la pile de l'interpréteur Python à *limit*. Cette limite empêche une récursion infinie de provoquer un débordement de la pile C et ainsi un crash de Python.

The highest possible limit is platform-dependent. A user may need to set the limit higher when she has a program that requires deep recursion and a platform that supports a higher limit. This should be done with care, because a too-high limit can lead to a crash.

`sys.settrace(tracefunc)`

Définit la fonction de traçage du système, qui vous permet d'implémenter un débogueur de code source Python en Python. Cette fonction est locale au fil d'exécution courant. Pour qu'un débogueur puisse gérer plusieurs fils d'exécution, il doit enregistrer sa fonction en appelant `settrace()` pour chaque fil d'exécution qu'il souhaite surveiller.

Trace functions should have three arguments : *frame*, *event*, and *arg*. *frame* is the current stack frame. *event* is a string : 'call', 'line', 'return' or 'exception'. *arg* depends on the event type.

La fonction de traçage est appelée (avec *event* à 'call') à chaque fois que l'interpréteur entre dans un nouveau *scope*. Elle doit renvoyer une référence à une fonction de traçage locale à utiliser pour ce *scope*, ou `None` si le *Scope* ne doit pas être tracé.

La fonction de traçage doit renvoyer une référence à elle-même (ou à une autre fonction de traçage pour un traçage ultérieur dans cette portée), ou `None` pour désactiver le traçage dans cette portée.

Les événements ont la signification suivante :

'call' Une fonction est appelée (un un bloc de code). La fonction de traçage globale est appelée, *arg* est `None`, la valeur renvoyée donne la fonction de traçage locale.

'line' L'interpréteur est sur le point d'exécuter une nouvelle ligne de code ou de ré-exécuter la condition d'une boucle. La fonction de traçage locale est appelée, *arg* vaut `None`, et la valeur de retour donne la nouvelle fonction de traçage locale. Voir `Objects/lnotab_notes.txt` pour une explication détaillée de ce mécanisme.

'return' La fonction (ou un autre type de bloc) est sur le point de se terminer. La fonction de traçage locale est appelée, *arg* est la valeur qui sera renvoyée, ou **None** si l'événement est causé par la levée d'une exception. La valeur renvoyée par la fonction de traçage est ignorée.

'exception' Une exception est survenue. La fonction de traçage locale est appelée, *arg* est le *tuple* (exception, valeur, traceback), la valeur renvoyée spécifie la nouvelle fonction de traçage locale.

Remarquez que, comme une exception se propage au travers de toute chaîne d'appelants, un événement **'exception'** est généré à chaque niveau.

Pour plus d'informations sur les objets code et objets représentant une *frame* de la pile, consultez `types`. La fonction `settrace()` est destinée uniquement à l'implémentation de débogueurs, de profileurs, d'outils d'analyse de couverture et d'autres outils similaires. Son comportement fait partie de l'implémentation, plutôt que de la définition du langage, et peut donc ne pas être disponible dans toutes les implémentations de Python.

`sys.settsdump(on_flag)`

Active dumping of VM measurements using the Pentium timestamp counter, if *on_flag* is true. Deactivate these dumps if *on_flag* is off. The function is available only if Python was compiled with `--with-tsc`. To understand the output of this dump, read `Python/ceval.c` in the Python sources.

Nouveau dans la version 2.4.

CPython implementation detail : This function is intimately bound to CPython implementation details and thus not likely to be implemented elsewhere.

`sys.stdin`

`sys.stdout`

`sys.stderr`

File objects corresponding to the interpreter's standard input, output and error streams. `stdin` is used for all interpreter input except for scripts but including calls to `input()` and `raw_input()`. `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 `stderr`. `stdout` and `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 `os.popen()`, `os.system()` or the `exec*()` family of functions in the `os` module.)

`sys.__stdin__`

`sys.__stdout__`

`sys.__stderr__`

Ces objets contiennent les valeurs d'origine de `stdin`, `stderr` et `stdout` tel que présentes au début du programme. Ils sont utilisés pendant la finalisation, et peuvent être utiles pour écrire dans le vrai flux standard, peu importe si l'objet `sys.std*` a été redirigé.

Ils peuvent également être utilisés pour restaurer les entrées / sorties d'origine, au cas où ils auraient été écrasés par des objets cassés, cependant la bonne façon de faire serait de sauvegarder explicitement les flux avant de les remplacer et ainsi pouvoir les restaurer.

`sys.subversion`

A triple (repo, branch, version) representing the Subversion information of the Python interpreter. *repo* is the name of the repository, 'CPython'. *branch* is a string of one of the forms 'trunk', 'branches/name' or 'tags/name'. *version* is the output of `svnversion`, if the interpreter was built from a Subversion checkout ; it contains the revision number (range) and possibly a trailing "M" if there were local modifications. If the tree was exported (or `svnversion` was not available), it is the revision of `Include/patchlevel.h` if the branch is a tag. Otherwise, it is **None**.

Nouveau dans la version 2.5.

Note : Python is now `developed` using Mercurial. In recent Python 2.7 bugfix releases, `subversion`

therefore contains placeholder information. It is removed in Python 3.3.

`sys.tracebacklimit`

Lorsque cette variable contient un nombre entier, elle détermine la profondeur maximum de la pile d'appels affichée lorsqu'une exception non gérée se produit. La valeur par défaut est 1000, lorsque cette valeur est égale ou inférieure à 0, la pile d'appels n'est pas affichée, seul le type et la valeur de l'exception sont les sont.

`sys.version`

Une chaîne contenant le numéro de version de l'interpréteur Python, ainsi que d'autres informations comme le numéro de compilation et le compilateur utilisé. Cette chaîne est affichée lorsque l'interpréteur est démarré en mode interactif. N'essayez pas d'en extraire des informations de version, utilisez plutôt `version_info` et les fonctions fournies par le module `platform`.

`sys.api_version`

La version de l'API C pour cet interpréteur. Les développeurs peuvent trouver cette information utile en déboguant des conflits de versions entre Python et des modules d'extension.

Nouveau dans la version 2.3.

`sys.version_info`

Un *tuple* contenant les cinq composants du numéro de version : *major*, *minor*, *micro*, *releaselevel* et *serial*. Toutes les valeurs sauf *releaselevel* sont des nombres entiers. *releaselevel* peut valoir 'alpha', 'beta', 'candidate', ou 'final'. La valeur de `version_info` pour Python 2.0 est (2, 0, 0, 'final', 0). Ces attributs sont aussi accessibles par leur nom, ainsi `sys.version_info[0]` est équivalent à `sys.version_info.major`, et ainsi de suite.

Nouveau dans la version 2.0.

Modifié dans la version 2.7 : Added named component attributes

`sys.warnoptions`

C'est une spécificité de l'implémentation de la gestion des avertissements. Ne modifiez pas cette valeur. Reportez-vous au module `warnings` pour plus d'informations sur le gestionnaire d'avertissements.

`sys.winver`

Le numéro de version utilisé pour construire les clefs de registre sous Windows. Elle est stockée en tant que *string resource* 1000 dans la DLL Python. Cette valeur équivaut typiquement aux trois premiers caractères de `version`. Elle est fournie par le module `sys` à titre d'information, et la modifier n'a aucun effet sur les clés de registre utilisées par Python. Disponibilité : Windows.

Citations

28.2 sysconfig — Provide access to Python's configuration information

Nouveau dans la version 2.7.

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

The `sysconfig` module provides access to Python's configuration information like the list of installation paths and the configuration variables relevant for the current platform.

28.2.1 Configuration variables

A Python distribution contains a `Makefile` and a `pyconfig.h` header file that are necessary to build both the Python binary itself and third-party C extensions compiled using `distutils`.

`sysconfig` puts all variables found in these files in a dictionary that can be accessed using `get_config_vars()` or `get_config_var()`.

Notice that on Windows, it's a much smaller set.

`sysconfig.get_config_vars(*args)`

With no arguments, return a dictionary of all configuration variables relevant for the current platform.

With arguments, return a list of values that result from looking up each argument in the configuration variable dictionary.

For each argument, if the value is not found, return `None`.

`sysconfig.get_config_var(name)`

Return the value of a single variable *name*. Equivalent to `get_config_vars().get(name)`.

If *name* is not found, return `None`.

Example of usage :

```
>>> import sysconfig
>>> sysconfig.get_config_var('Py_ENABLE_SHARED')
0
>>> sysconfig.get_config_var('LIBDIR')
'/usr/local/lib'
>>> sysconfig.get_config_vars('AR', 'CXX')
['ar', 'g++']
```

28.2.2 Installation paths

Python uses an installation scheme that differs depending on the platform and on the installation options. These schemes are stored in `sysconfig` under unique identifiers based on the value returned by `os.name`.

Every new component that is installed using `distutils` or a Distutils-based system will follow the same scheme to copy its file in the right places.

Python currently supports seven schemes :

- `posix_prefix` : scheme for Posix platforms like Linux or Mac OS X. This is the default scheme used when Python or a component is installed.
- `posix_home` : scheme for Posix platforms used when a *home* option is used upon installation. This scheme is used when a component is installed through Distutils with a specific home prefix.
- `posix_user` : scheme for Posix platforms used when a component is installed through Distutils and the *user* option is used. This scheme defines paths located under the user home directory.
- `nt` : scheme for NT platforms like Windows.
- `nt_user` : scheme for NT platforms, when the *user* option is used.
- `os2` : scheme for OS/2 platforms.
- `os2_home` : scheme for OS/2 platforms, when the *user* option is used.

Each scheme is itself composed of a series of paths and each path has a unique identifier. Python currently uses eight paths :

- `stdlib` : directory containing the standard Python library files that are not platform-specific.
- `platstdlib` : directory containing the standard Python library files that are platform-specific.
- `platlib` : directory for site-specific, platform-specific files.
- `purelib` : directory for site-specific, non-platform-specific files.
- `include` : directory for non-platform-specific header files.
- `platinclude` : directory for platform-specific header files.
- `scripts` : directory for script files.
- `data` : directory for data files.

`sysconfig` provides some functions to determine these paths.

`sysconfig.get_scheme_names()`

Return a tuple containing all schemes currently supported in `sysconfig`.

`sysconfig.get_path_names()`

Return a tuple containing all path names currently supported in *sysconfig*.

`sysconfig.get_path(name[, scheme[, vars[, expand]]])`

Return an installation path corresponding to the path *name*, from the install scheme named *scheme*.

name has to be a value from the list returned by *get_path_names()*.

sysconfig stores installation paths corresponding to each path name, for each platform, with variables to be expanded. For instance the *stdlib* path for the *nt* scheme is : `{base}/Lib`.

get_path() will use the variables returned by *get_config_vars()* to expand the path. All variables have default values for each platform so one may call this function and get the default value.

If *scheme* is provided, it must be a value from the list returned by *get_scheme_names()*. Otherwise, the default scheme for the current platform is used.

If *vars* is provided, it must be a dictionary of variables that will update the dictionary return by *get_config_vars()*.

If *expand* is set to `False`, the path will not be expanded using the variables.

If *name* is not found, return `None`.

`sysconfig.get_paths([scheme[, vars[, expand]]])`

Return a dictionary containing all installation paths corresponding to an installation scheme. See *get_path()* for more information.

If *scheme* is not provided, will use the default scheme for the current platform.

If *vars* is provided, it must be a dictionary of variables that will update the dictionary used to expand the paths.

If *expand* is set to `false`, the paths will not be expanded.

If *scheme* is not an existing scheme, *get_paths()* will raise a *KeyError*.

28.2.3 Other functions

`sysconfig.get_python_version()`

Return the MAJOR.MINOR Python version number as a string. Similar to `sys.version[:3]`.

`sysconfig.get_platform()`

Return a string that identifies the current platform.

This is used mainly to distinguish platform-specific build directories and platform-specific built distributions. Typically includes the OS name and version and the architecture (as supplied by *os.uname()*), although the exact information included depends on the OS ; e.g. for IRIX the architecture isn't particularly important (IRIX only runs on SGI hardware), but for Linux the kernel version isn't particularly important.

Examples of returned values :

- linux-i586
- linux-alpha (?)
- solaris-2.6-sun4u
- irix-5.3
- irix64-6.2

Windows will return one of :

- win-amd64 (64bit Windows on AMD64, aka x86_64, Intel64, and EM64T)
- win-ia64 (64bit Windows on Itanium)
- win32 (all others - specifically, `sys.platform` is returned)

Mac OS X can return :

- macosx-10.6-ppc
- macosx-10.4-ppc64
- macosx-10.3-i386
- macosx-10.4-fat

For other non-POSIX platforms, currently just returns *sys.platform*.

`sysconfig.is_python_build()`

Return True if the current Python installation was built from source.

`sysconfig.parse_config_h(fp[, vars])`

Parse a `config.h`-style file.

`fp` is a file-like object pointing to the `config.h`-like file.

A dictionary containing name/value pairs is returned. If an optional dictionary is passed in as the second argument, it is used instead of a new dictionary, and updated with the values read in the file.

`sysconfig.get_config_h_filename()`

Return the path of `pyconfig.h`.

`sysconfig.get_makefile_filename()`

Return the path of Makefile.

28.3 `__builtin__` — Objets natifs

Ce module fournit un accès direct aux identifiants “natifs” de Python ; par exemple, `__builtin__.open` est le nom complet pour la fonction native `open()`. Voir *Fonctions natives* et *Constantes natives* pour plus de documentation.

Ce module n’est normalement pas accédé explicitement par la plupart des applications, mais peut être utile dans des modules qui exposent des objets de même nom qu’une valeur native, mais pour qui le natif de même nom est aussi nécessaire. Par exemple, dans un module qui voudrait implémenter une fonction `open()` autour de la fonction native `open()`, ce module peut être utilisé directement :

```
import __builtin__

def open(path):
    f = __builtin__.open(path, 'r')
    return UpperCaser(f)

class UpperCaser:
    '''Wrapper around a file that converts output to upper-case.'''

    def __init__(self, f):
        self._f = f

    def read(self, count=-1):
        return self._f.read(count).upper()

    # ...
```

CPython implementation detail : Most modules have the name `__builtins__` (note the 's') made available as part of their globals. The value of `__builtins__` is normally either this module or the value of this module’s `__dict__` attribute. Since this is an implementation detail, it may not be used by alternate implementations of Python.

28.4 `future_builtins` — Python 3 builtins

Nouveau dans la version 2.6.

This module provides functions that exist in 2.x, but have different behavior in Python 3, so they cannot be put into the 2.x builtins namespace.

Instead, if you want to write code compatible with Python 3 builtins, import them from this module, like this :

```
from future_builtins import map, filter

... code using Python 3-style map and filter ...
```

The *2to3* tool that ports Python 2 code to Python 3 will recognize this usage and leave the new builtins alone.

Note : The Python 3 *print()* function is already in the builtins, but cannot be accessed from Python 2 code unless you use the appropriate future statement :

```
from __future__ import print_function
```

Available builtins are :

`future_builtins.ascii(object)`

Returns the same as *repr()*. In Python 3, *repr()* will return printable Unicode characters unescaped, while *ascii()* will always backslash-escape them. Using *future_builtins.ascii()* instead of *repr()* in 2.6 code makes it clear that you need a pure ASCII return value.

`future_builtins.filter(function, iterable)`

Works like *itertools.ifilter()*.

`future_builtins.hex(object)`

Works like the built-in *hex()*, but instead of *__hex__()* it will use the *__index__()* method on its argument to get an integer that is then converted to hexadecimal.

`future_builtins.map(function, iterable, ...)`

Works like *itertools.imap()*.

Note : In Python 3, *map()* does not accept *None* for the function argument.

`future_builtins.oct(object)`

Works like the built-in *oct()*, but instead of *__oct__()* it will use the *__index__()* method on its argument to get an integer that is then converted to octal.

`future_builtins.zip(*iterables)`

Works like *itertools.izip()*.

28.5 __main__ — Point d'entrée des scripts

This module represents the (otherwise anonymous) scope in which the interpreter's main program executes — commands read either from standard input, from a script file, or from an interactive prompt. It is this environment in which the idiomatic « conditional script » stanza causes a script to run :

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

28.6 warnings — Warning control

Nouveau dans la version 2.1.

Code source : [Lib/warnings.py](#)

Warning messages are typically issued in situations where it is useful to alert the user of some condition in a program, where that condition (normally) doesn't warrant raising an exception and terminating the program. For example, one might want to issue a warning when a program uses an obsolete module.

Python programmers issue warnings by calling the `warn()` function defined in this module. (C programmers use `PyErr_WarnEx()` ; see exceptionhandling for details).

Warning messages are normally written to `sys.stderr`, but their disposition can be changed flexibly, from ignoring all warnings to turning them into exceptions. The disposition of warnings can vary based on the warning category (see below), the text of the warning message, and the source location where it is issued. Repetitions of a particular warning for the same source location are typically suppressed.

There are two stages in warning control : first, each time a warning is issued, a determination is made whether a message should be issued or not ; next, if a message is to be issued, it is formatted and printed using a user-settable hook.

The determination whether to issue a warning message is controlled by the warning filter, which is a sequence of matching rules and actions. Rules can be added to the filter by calling `filterwarnings()` and reset to its default state by calling `resetwarnings()`.

The printing of warning messages is done by calling `showwarning()`, which may be overridden ; the default implementation of this function formats the message by calling `formatwarning()`, which is also available for use by custom implementations.

Voir aussi :

`logging.captureWarnings()` allows you to handle all warnings with the standard logging infrastructure.

28.6.1 Warning Categories

There are a number of built-in exceptions that represent warning categories. This categorization is useful to be able to filter out groups of warnings. The following warnings category classes are currently defined :

Class	Description
<i>Warning</i>	This is the base class of all warning category classes. It is a subclass of <i>Exception</i> .
<i>UserWarning</i>	The default category for <code>warn()</code> .
<i>DeprecationWarning</i>	Base category for warnings about deprecated features (ignored by default).
<i>SyntaxWarning</i>	Base category for warnings about dubious syntactic features.
<i>RuntimeWarning</i>	Base category for warnings about dubious runtime features.
<i>FutureWarning</i>	Base category for warnings about constructs that will change semantically in the future.
<i>PendingDeprecationWarning</i>	Base category for warnings about features that will be deprecated in the future (ignored by default).
<i>ImportWarning</i>	Base category for warnings triggered during the process of importing a module (ignored by default).
<i>UnicodeWarning</i>	Base category for warnings related to Unicode.

While these are technically built-in exceptions, they are documented here, because conceptually they belong to the warnings mechanism.

User code can define additional warning categories by subclassing one of the standard warning categories. A warning category must always be a subclass of the *Warning* class.

Modifié dans la version 2.7 : *DeprecationWarning* is ignored by default.

28.6.2 The Warnings Filter

The warnings filter controls whether warnings are ignored, displayed, or turned into errors (raising an exception).

Conceptually, the warnings filter maintains an ordered list of filter specifications; any specific warning is matched against each filter specification in the list in turn until a match is found; the match determines the disposition of the match. Each entry is a tuple of the form (*action*, *message*, *category*, *module*, *lineno*), where :

- *action* is one of the following strings :

Valeur	Disposition
"error"	turn matching warnings into exceptions
"ignore"	never print matching warnings
"always"	always print matching warnings
"default"	print the first occurrence of matching warnings for each location where the warning is issued
"module"	print the first occurrence of matching warnings for each module where the warning is issued
"once"	print only the first occurrence of matching warnings, regardless of location

- *message* is a string containing a regular expression that the start of the warning message must match. The expression is compiled to always be case-insensitive.
- *category* is a class (a subclass of *Warning*) of which the warning category must be a subclass in order to match.
- *module* is a string containing a regular expression that the module name must match. The expression is compiled to be case-sensitive.
- *lineno* is an integer that the line number where the warning occurred must match, or 0 to match all line numbers.

Since the *Warning* class is derived from the built-in *Exception* class, to turn a warning into an error we simply raise `category(message)`.

The warnings filter is initialized by `-W` options passed to the Python interpreter command line. The interpreter saves the arguments for all `-W` options without interpretation in `sys.warnoptions`; the *warnings* module parses these when it is first imported (invalid options are ignored, after printing a message to `sys.stderr`).

Default Warning Filters

By default, Python installs several warning filters, which can be overridden by the command-line options passed to `-W` and calls to *filterwarnings()*.

- *DeprecationWarning* and *PendingDeprecationWarning*, and *ImportWarning* are ignored.
- *BytesWarning* is ignored unless the `-b` option is given once or twice; in this case this warning is either printed (`-b`) or turned into an exception (`-bb`).

28.6.3 Temporarily Suppressing Warnings

If you are using code that you know will raise a warning, such as a deprecated function, but do not want to see the warning, then it is possible to suppress the warning using the *catch_warnings* context manager :

```
import warnings

def fxn():
    warnings.warn("deprecated", DeprecationWarning)
```

(suite sur la page suivante)

(suite de la page précédente)

```
with warnings.catch_warnings():
    warnings.simplefilter("ignore")
    fxn()
```

While within the context manager all warnings will simply be ignored. This allows you to use known-deprecated code without having to see the warning while not suppressing the warning for other code that might not be aware of its use of deprecated code. Note : this can only be guaranteed in a single-threaded application. If two or more threads use the `catch_warnings` context manager at the same time, the behavior is undefined.

28.6.4 Testing Warnings

To test warnings raised by code, use the `catch_warnings` context manager. With it you can temporarily mutate the warnings filter to facilitate your testing. For instance, do the following to capture all raised warnings to check :

```
import warnings

def fxn():
    warnings.warn("deprecated", DeprecationWarning)

with warnings.catch_warnings(record=True) as w:
    # Cause all warnings to always be triggered.
    warnings.simplefilter("always")
    # Trigger a warning.
    fxn()
    # Verify some things
    assert len(w) == 1
    assert isinstance(w[-1].category, DeprecationWarning)
    assert "deprecated" in str(w[-1].message)
```

One can also cause all warnings to be exceptions by using `error` instead of `always`. One thing to be aware of is that if a warning has already been raised because of a `once/default` rule, then no matter what filters are set the warning will not be seen again unless the warnings registry related to the warning has been cleared.

Once the context manager exits, the warnings filter is restored to its state when the context was entered. This prevents tests from changing the warnings filter in unexpected ways between tests and leading to indeterminate test results. The `showwarning()` function in the module is also restored to its original value. Note : this can only be guaranteed in a single-threaded application. If two or more threads use the `catch_warnings` context manager at the same time, the behavior is undefined.

When testing multiple operations that raise the same kind of warning, it is important to test them in a manner that confirms each operation is raising a new warning (e.g. set warnings to be raised as exceptions and check the operations raise exceptions, check that the length of the warning list continues to increase after each operation, or else delete the previous entries from the warnings list before each new operation).

28.6.5 Updating Code For New Versions of Python

Warnings that are only of interest to the developer are ignored by default. As such you should make sure to test your code with typically ignored warnings made visible. You can do this from the command-line by passing `-Wd` to the interpreter (this is shorthand for `-W default`). This enables default handling for all warnings, including those that are ignored by default. To change what action is taken for encountered

warnings you simply change what argument is passed to `-W`, e.g. `-W error`. See the `-W` flag for more details on what is possible.

To programmatically do the same as `-Wd`, use :

```
warnings.simplefilter('default')
```

Make sure to execute this code as soon as possible. This prevents the registering of what warnings have been raised from unexpectedly influencing how future warnings are treated.

Having certain warnings ignored by default is done to prevent a user from seeing warnings that are only of interest to the developer. As you do not necessarily have control over what interpreter a user uses to run their code, it is possible that a new version of Python will be released between your release cycles. The new interpreter release could trigger new warnings in your code that were not there in an older interpreter, e.g. `DeprecationWarning` for a module that you are using. While you as a developer want to be notified that your code is using a deprecated module, to a user this information is essentially noise and provides no benefit to them.

28.6.6 Available Functions

`warnings.warn(message[, category[, stacklevel]])`

Issue a warning, or maybe ignore it or raise an exception. The *category* argument, if given, must be a warning category class (see above); it defaults to `UserWarning`. Alternatively *message* can be a `Warning` instance, in which case *category* will be ignored and `message.__class__` will be used. In this case the message text will be `str(message)`. This function raises an exception if the particular warning issued is changed into an error by the warnings filter see above. The *stacklevel* argument can be used by wrapper functions written in Python, like this :

```
def deprecation(message):
    warnings.warn(message, DeprecationWarning, stacklevel=2)
```

This makes the warning refer to `deprecation()`'s caller, rather than to the source of `deprecation()` itself (since the latter would defeat the purpose of the warning message).

`warnings.warn_explicit(message, category, filename, lineno[, module[, registry[, module_globals]]])`

This is a low-level interface to the functionality of `warn()`, passing in explicitly the message, category, filename and line number, and optionally the module name and the registry (which should be the `__warningregistry__` dictionary of the module). The module name defaults to the filename with `.py` stripped; if no registry is passed, the warning is never suppressed. *message* must be a string and *category* a subclass of `Warning` or *message* may be a `Warning` instance, in which case *category* will be ignored.

module_globals, if supplied, should be the global namespace in use by the code for which the warning is issued. (This argument is used to support displaying source for modules found in zipfiles or other non-filesystem import sources).

Modifié dans la version 2.5 : Added the *module_globals* parameter.

`warnings.warnpy3k(message[, category[, stacklevel]])`

Issue a warning related to Python 3.x deprecation. Warnings are only shown when Python is started with the `-3` option. Like `warn()` *message* must be a string and *category* a subclass of `Warning`. `warnpy3k()` is using `DeprecationWarning` as default warning class.

Nouveau dans la version 2.6.

`warnings.showwarning(message, category, filename, lineno[, file[, line]])`

Write a warning to a file. The default implementation calls `formatwarning(message, category, filename, lineno, line)` and writes the resulting string to *file*, which defaults to `sys.stderr`. You

may replace this function with an alternative implementation by assigning to `warnings.showwarning`. *line* is a line of source code to be included in the warning message; if *line* is not supplied, `showwarning()` will try to read the line specified by *filename* and *lineno*.

Modifié dans la version 2.7 : The *line* argument is required to be supported.

`warnings.formatwarning(message, category, filename, lineno[, line])`

Format a warning the standard way. This returns a string which may contain embedded newlines and ends in a newline. *line* is a line of source code to be included in the warning message; if *line* is not supplied, `formatwarning()` will try to read the line specified by *filename* and *lineno*.

Modifié dans la version 2.6 : Added the *line* argument.

`warnings.filterwarnings(action[, message[, category[, module[, lineno[, append]]]])`

Insert an entry into the list of *warnings filter specifications*. The entry is inserted at the front by default; if *append* is true, it is inserted at the end. This checks the types of the arguments, compiles the *message* and *module* regular expressions, and inserts them as a tuple in the list of warnings filters. Entries closer to the front of the list override entries later in the list, if both match a particular warning. Omitted arguments default to a value that matches everything.

`warnings.simplefilter(action[, category[, lineno[, append]]])`

Insert a simple entry into the list of *warnings filter specifications*. The meaning of the function parameters is as for `filterwarnings()`, but regular expressions are not needed as the filter inserted always matches any message in any module as long as the category and line number match.

`warnings.resetwarnings()`

Reset the warnings filter. This discards the effect of all previous calls to `filterwarnings()`, including that of the `-W` command line options and calls to `simplefilter()`.

28.6.7 Available Context Managers

`class warnings.catch_warnings(*, record=False, module=None)`

A context manager that copies and, upon exit, restores the warnings filter and the `showwarning()` function. If the *record* argument is `False` (the default) the context manager returns `None` on entry. If *record* is `True`, a list is returned that is progressively populated with objects as seen by a custom `showwarning()` function (which also suppresses output to `sys.stdout`). Each object in the list has attributes with the same names as the arguments to `showwarning()`.

The *module* argument takes a module that will be used instead of the module returned when you import `warnings` whose filter will be protected. This argument exists primarily for testing the `warnings` module itself.

Note : The `catch_warnings` manager works by replacing and then later restoring the module's `showwarning()` function and internal list of filter specifications. This means the context manager is modifying global state and therefore is not thread-safe.

Note : In Python 3, the arguments to the constructor for `catch_warnings` are keyword-only arguments.

Nouveau dans la version 2.6.

28.7 contextlib — Utilities for with-statement contexts

Nouveau dans la version 2.5.

Code source : [Lib/contextlib.py](#)

This module provides utilities for common tasks involving the `with` statement. For more information see also *Le type gestionnaire de contexte* and `context-managers`.

Functions provided :

`contextlib.contextmanager(func)`

This function is a *decorator* that can be used to define a factory function for `with` statement context managers, without needing to create a class or separate `__enter__()` and `__exit__()` methods.

While many objects natively support use in `with` statements, sometimes a resource needs to be managed that isn't a context manager in its own right, and doesn't implement a `close()` method for use with `contextlib.closing`

An abstract example would be the following to ensure correct resource management :

```
from contextlib import contextmanager

@contextmanager
def managed_resource(*args, **kwargs):
    # Code to acquire resource, e.g.:
    resource = acquire_resource(*args, **kwargs)
    try:
        yield resource
    finally:
        # Code to release resource, e.g.:
        release_resource(resource)

>>> with managed_resource(timeout=3600) as resource:
...     # Resource is released at the end of this block,
...     # even if code in the block raises an exception
```

The function being decorated must return a *generator*-iterator when called. This iterator must yield exactly one value, which will be bound to the targets in the `with` statement's `as` clause, if any.

At the point where the generator yields, the block nested in the `with` statement is executed. The generator is then resumed after the block is exited. If an unhandled exception occurs in the block, it is reraised inside the generator at the point where the `yield` occurred. Thus, you can use a `try...except...finally` statement to trap the error (if any), or ensure that some cleanup takes place. If an exception is trapped merely in order to log it or to perform some action (rather than to suppress it entirely), the generator must reraise that exception. Otherwise the generator context manager will indicate to the `with` statement that the exception has been handled, and execution will resume with the statement immediately following the `with` statement.

`contextlib.nested(mgr1[, mgr2[, ...]])`

Combine multiple context managers into a single nested context manager.

This function has been deprecated in favour of the multiple manager form of the `with` statement.

The one advantage of this function over the multiple manager form of the `with` statement is that argument unpacking allows it to be used with a variable number of context managers as follows :

```
from contextlib import nested

with nested(*managers):
    do_something()
```

Note that if the `__exit__()` method of one of the nested context managers indicates an exception should be suppressed, no exception information will be passed to any remaining outer context managers. Similarly, if the `__exit__()` method of one of the nested managers raises an exception, any previous

exception state will be lost; the new exception will be passed to the `__exit__()` methods of any remaining outer context managers. In general, `__exit__()` methods should avoid raising exceptions, and in particular they should not re-raise a passed-in exception.

This function has two major quirks that have led to it being deprecated. Firstly, as the context managers are all constructed before the function is invoked, the `__new__()` and `__init__()` methods of the inner context managers are not actually covered by the scope of the outer context managers. That means, for example, that using `nested()` to open two files is a programming error as the first file will not be closed promptly if an exception is thrown when opening the second file.

Secondly, if the `__enter__()` method of one of the inner context managers raises an exception that is caught and suppressed by the `__exit__()` method of one of the outer context managers, this construct will raise `RuntimeError` rather than skipping the body of the `with` statement.

Developers that need to support nesting of a variable number of context managers can either use the `warnings` module to suppress the `DeprecationWarning` raised by this function or else use this function as a model for an application specific implementation.

Obsolète depuis la version 2.7 : The with-statement now supports this functionality directly (without the confusing error prone quirks).

`contextlib.closing(thing)`

Return a context manager that closes *thing* upon completion of the block. This is basically equivalent to :

```
from contextlib import contextmanager

@contextmanager
def closing(thing):
    try:
        yield thing
    finally:
        thing.close()
```

And lets you write code like this :

```
from contextlib import closing
import urllib

with closing(urllib.urlopen('http://www.python.org')) as page:
    for line in page:
        print line
```

without needing to explicitly close `page`. Even if an error occurs, `page.close()` will be called when the `with` block is exited.

Voir aussi :

PEP 343 - The « with » statement La spécification, les motivations et des exemples de l'instruction `with` en Python.

28.8 abc — Classes de Base Abstraites

Nouveau dans la version 2.6.

Code source : [Lib/abc.py](#)

Le module fournit l'infrastructure pour définir les *classes de bases abstraites* (*Abstract Base Class* ou *ABC* en anglais) en Python, tel qu'indiqué dans la **PEP 3119** ; voir la PEP pour la raison de son ajout à Python.

(Voir également la [PEP 3141](#) et le module `numbers` pour ce qui concerne la hiérarchie de types pour les nombres basés sur les classes de base abstraites). Par la suite nous utiliserons l'abréviation ABC (*Abstract Base Class*) pour désigner une classe de base abstraite.

The `collections` module has some concrete classes that derive from ABCs; these can, of course, be further derived. In addition, the `collections` module has some ABCs that can be used to test whether a class or instance provides a particular interface, for example, if it is hashable or if it is a mapping.

This module provides the following class :

class `abc.ABCMeta`

Métaclasse pour définir des classes de base abstraites (ABC).

Utilisez cette métaclasse pour créer une ABC. Il est possible d'hériter d'une ABC directement, cette classe de base abstraite fonctionne alors comme une classe *mixin*. Vous pouvez également enregistrer une classe concrète sans lien (même une classe native) et des ABC comme « sous-classes virtuelles » – celles-ci et leur descendantes seront considérées comme des sous-classes de la classe de base abstraite par la fonction native `issubclass()`, mais les ABC enregistrées n'apparaîtront pas dans leur ordre de résolution des méthodes (*MRO* pour *Method Resolution Order* en anglais). Les implémentations de méthodes définies par l'ABC ne seront pas appelable (pas même via `super()`).¹

Les classes dont la métaclasse est `ABCMeta` possèdent les méthodes suivantes :

register(*subclass*)

Enregistrer *subclass* en tant que sous-classe virtuelle de cette ABC. Par exemple :

```
from abc import ABCMeta

class MyABC:
    __metaclass__ = ABCMeta

MyABC.register(tuple)

assert issubclass(tuple, MyABC)
assert isinstance((), MyABC)
```

Vous pouvez également redéfinir cette méthode dans une ABC :

__subclasshook__(*subclass*)

(Doit être définie en tant que méthode de classe.)

Vérifie si *subclass* est considérée comme une sous-classe de cette ABC. Cela signifie que vous pouvez personnaliser le comportement de `issubclass` sans nécessiter d'appeler `register()` pour chacune des classes que vous souhaitez considérer comme sous-classe de l'ABC. (Cette méthode de classe est appelée par la méthode `__subclasscheck__()` de la classe de base abstraite).

Cette méthode doit renvoyer `True`, `False` ou `NotImplemented`. Si elle renvoie `True`, *subclass* est considérée comme sous-classe de cette ABC. Si elle renvoie `False`, la *subclass* n'est pas considérée une sous-classe de cette ABC même si elle l'aurait été en temps normal. Si elle renvoie `NotImplemented`, la vérification d'appartenance à la sous-classe continue via le mécanisme habituel.

Pour une illustration de ces concepts, voir cet exemple de définition de ABC :

```
class Foo(object):
    def __getitem__(self, index):
        ...
    def __len__(self):
        ...
```

(suite sur la page suivante)

1. Les développeurs C++ noteront que le concept Python de classe de base virtuelle (*virtual base class*) n'est pas le même que celui de C++.

(suite de la page précédente)

```

def get_iterator(self):
    return iter(self)

class MyIterable:
    __metaclass__ = ABCMeta

    @abstractmethod
    def __iter__(self):
        while False:
            yield None

    def get_iterator(self):
        return self.__iter__()

    @classmethod
    def __subclasshook__(cls, C):
        if cls is MyIterable:
            if any("__iter__" in B.__dict__ for B in C.__mro__):
                return True
            return NotImplemented

MyIterable.register(Foo)

```

L'ABC `MyIterable` définit la méthode d'itération `__iter__()` comme méthode abstraite. L'implémentation qui lui est donnée ici peut être appelée depuis les sous-classes. La méthode `get_iterator()` fait également partie de la classe de base abstraite `MyIterable`, mais elle n'a pas à être redéfinie dans les classes dérivées non-abstraites.

La méthode de classe `__subclasshook__()` définie ici dit que toute classe qui possède la méthode `__iter__()` dans son `__dict__` (ou dans une de ses classes de base, accédée via la liste `__mro__`) est considérée également comme un `MyIterable`.

Enfin, la dernière ligne fait de `Foo` une sous-classe virtuelle de `MyIterable`, même si cette classe ne définit pas de méthode `__iter__()` (elle utilise l'ancien protocole d'itération qui se définit en termes de `__len__()` et `__getitem__()`). À noter que cela ne rendra pas le `get_iterator` de `MyIterable` disponible comme une méthode de `Foo`, `get_iterator` est donc implémenté séparément.

It also provides the following decorators :

`abc.abstractmethod(function)`

Un décorateur marquant les méthodes comme abstraites.

Using this decorator requires that the class's metaclass is `ABCMeta` or is derived from it. A class that has a metaclass derived from `ABCMeta` cannot be instantiated unless all of its abstract methods and properties are overridden. The abstract methods can be called using any of the normal “super” call mechanisms.

Python ne gère pas l'ajout dynamique de méthodes abstraites à une classe, il n'est pas non plus possible de modifier l'état d'abstraction d'une méthode ou d'une classe une fois celle-ci créée. `abstractmethod()` n'affecte que les sous-classes dérivées utilisant l'héritage classique. Les « sous-classes virtuelles » enregistrées avec la méthode `register()` de l'ABC ne sont pas affectées.

Utilisation :

```

class C:
    __metaclass__ = ABCMeta
    @abstractmethod
    def my_abstract_method(self, ...):

```

(suite sur la page suivante)

(suite de la page précédente)

...

Note : Contrairement aux méthodes abstraites Java, ces méthodes abstraites peuvent être implémentées. Cette implémentation peut être appelée via le mécanisme `super()` depuis la classe qui la redéfinit. C’est typiquement utile pour y appeler `super` et ainsi coopérer correctement dans un environnement utilisant de l’héritage multiple.

abc.`abstractproperty`(`[fget[, fset[, fdel[, doc]]]]`)

Sous-classe de `property()`, qui indique une propriété abstraite.

Using this function requires that the class’s metaclass is `ABCMeta` or is derived from it. A class that has a metaclass derived from `ABCMeta` cannot be instantiated unless all of its abstract methods and properties are overridden. The abstract properties can be called using any of the normal “super” call mechanisms.

Utilisation :

```
class C:
    __metaclass__ = ABCMeta
    @abstractproperty
    def my_abstract_property(self):
        ...
```

This defines a read-only property ; you can also define a read-write abstract property using the “long” form of property declaration :

```
class C:
    __metaclass__ = ABCMeta
    def getx(self): ...
    def setx(self, value): ...
    x = abstractproperty(getx, setx)
```

Notes

28.9 atexit — Gestionnaire de fin de programme

Nouveau dans la version 2.0.

Source code : `Lib/atexit.py`

The `atexit` module defines a single function to register cleanup functions. Functions thus registered are automatically executed upon normal interpreter termination. `atexit` runs these functions in the *reverse* order in which they were registered ; if you register A, B, and C, at interpreter termination time they will be run in the order C, B, A.

Note : Les fonctions inscrites via ce module ne sont pas appelées quand le programme est tué par un signal non géré par Python, quand une erreur fatale interne de Python est détectée, ou quand `os._exit()` est appelé.

This is an alternate interface to the functionality provided by the `sys.exitfunc()` variable.

Note : This module is unlikely to work correctly when used with other code that sets `sys.exitfunc`. In particular, other core Python modules are free to use `atexit` without the programmer’s knowledge. Authors who use `sys.exitfunc` should convert their code to use `atexit` instead. The simplest way to convert code

that sets `sys.exitfunc` is to import `atexit` and register the function that had been bound to `sys.exitfunc`.

```
atexit.register(func[, *args[, **kwargs]])
```

Inscrit *func* comme une fonction à exécuter au moment de l'arrêt de l'interpréteur. Tout argument optionnel qui doit être passé à *func* doit être passé comme argument à `register()`. Il est possible d'inscrire les mêmes fonctions et arguments plus d'une fois.

At normal program termination (for instance, if `sys.exit()` is called or the main module's execution completes), all functions registered are called in last in, first out order. The assumption is that lower level modules will normally be imported before higher level modules and thus must be cleaned up later.

Si une exception est levée durant l'exécution du gestionnaire de fin de programme, une trace d'appels est affichée (à moins que `SystemExit` ait été levée) et les informations de l'exception sont sauvegardées. Une fois que tous les gestionnaires de fin de programme ont eu une chance de s'exécuter, la dernière exception à avoir été levée l'est de nouveau.

Modifié dans la version 2.6 : This function now returns *func*, which makes it possible to use it as a decorator.

Voir aussi :

Module `readline` Un exemple utile de l'usage de `atexit` pour lire et écrire des fichiers d'historique `readline`.

28.9.1 Exemple avec atexit

Le simple exemple suivant démontre comment un module peut initialiser un compteur depuis un fichier quand il est importé, et sauver la valeur mise à jour du compteur automatiquement quand le programme se termine, sans avoir besoin que l'application fasse un appel explicite dans ce module au moment de l'arrêt de l'interpréteur.

```
try:
    _count = int(open("counter").read())
except IOError:
    _count = 0

def incrcounter(n):
    global _count
    _count = _count + n

def savecounter():
    open("counter", "w").write("%d" % _count)

import atexit
atexit.register(savecounter)
```

Les arguments positionnels et par mot-clé peuvent aussi être passés à `register()` afin d'être repassés à la fonction inscrite lors de son appel :

```
def goodbye(name, adjective):
    print 'Goodbye, %s, it was %s to meet you.' % (name, adjective)

import atexit
atexit.register(goodbye, 'Donny', 'nice')

# or:
atexit.register(goodbye, adjective='nice', name='Donny')
```

Utilisation en tant que *décorateur* :

```
import atexit

@atexit.register
def goodbye():
    print "You are now leaving the Python sector."
```

Ceci fonctionne uniquement avec des fonctions qui peuvent être appelées sans argument.

28.10 traceback — Print or retrieve a stack traceback

This module provides a standard interface to extract, 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, such as 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` (deprecated) and `sys.last_traceback` and returned as the third item from `sys.exc_info()`.

Le module définit les fonctions suivantes :

`traceback.print_tb(tb[, limit[, file]])`

Print up to *limit* stack trace entries from the traceback object *tb*. If *limit* is omitted or `None`, all entries are printed. If *file* is omitted or `None`, the output goes to `sys.stderr`; otherwise it should be an open file or file-like object to receive the output.

`traceback.print_exception(etype, value, tb[, limit[, file]])`

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

`traceback.print_exc([limit[, file]])`

This is a shorthand for `print_exception(sys.exc_type, sys.exc_value, sys.exc_traceback, limit, file)`. (In fact, it uses `sys.exc_info()` to retrieve the same information in a thread-safe way instead of using the deprecated variables.)

`traceback.format_exc([limit])`

This is like `print_exc(limit)` but returns a string instead of printing to a file.
Nouveau dans la version 2.4.

`traceback.print_last([limit[, file]])`

This is a shorthand for `print_exception(sys.last_type, sys.last_value, sys.last_traceback, limit, file)`. In general it will work only after an exception has reached an interactive prompt (see `sys.last_type`).

`traceback.print_stack([f[, limit[, file]]])`

This function prints a stack trace from its invocation point. The optional *f* argument can be used to specify an alternate stack frame to start. The optional *limit* and *file* arguments have the same meaning as for `print_exception()`.

`traceback.extract_tb(tb[, limit])`

Return a list of up to *limit* « pre-processed » stack trace entries extracted from the traceback object *tb*. 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 4-tuple (*filename*, *line number*, *function name**,

text) representing the information that is usually printed for a stack trace. The *text* is a string with leading and trailing whitespace stripped; if the source is not available it is `None`.

`traceback.extract_stack([f[, limit]])`

Extract the raw traceback from the current stack frame. The return value has the same format as for `extract_tb()`. The optional *f* and *limit* arguments have the same meaning as for `print_stack()`.

`traceback.format_list(extracted_list)`

Given a list of tuples as returned by `extract_tb()` or `extract_stack()`, return a list of strings ready for printing. Each string in the resulting list corresponds to the item with the same index in the argument list. Each string ends in a newline; the strings may contain internal newlines as well, for those items whose source text line is not `None`.

`traceback.format_exception(etype, value)`

Format the exception part of a traceback. The arguments are the exception type, *etype* and *value* such as given by `sys.last_type` and `sys.last_value`. The return value is a list of strings, each ending in a newline. Normally, the list contains a single string; however, for `SyntaxError` exceptions, it contains several lines that (when printed) display detailed information about where the syntax error occurred. The message indicating which exception occurred is the always last string in the list.

`traceback.format_exception(etype, value, tb[, limit])`

Format a stack trace and the exception information. The arguments have the same meaning as the corresponding arguments to `print_exception()`. The return value is a list of strings, each ending in a newline and some containing internal newlines. When these lines are concatenated and printed, exactly the same text is printed as does `print_exception()`.

`traceback.format_tb(tb[, limit])`

A shorthand for `format_list(extract_tb(tb, limit))`.

`traceback.format_stack([f[, limit]])`

A shorthand for `format_list(extract_stack(f, limit))`.

`traceback.tb_lineno(tb)`

This function returns the current line number set in the traceback object. This function was necessary because in versions of Python prior to 2.3 when the `-O` flag was passed to Python the `tb.tb_lineno` was not updated correctly. This function has no use in versions past 2.3.

28.10.1 Traceback Examples

This simple example implements a basic read-eval-print loop, similar to (but less useful than) the standard Python interactive interpreter loop. For a more complete implementation of the interpreter loop, refer to the `code` module.

```
import sys, traceback

def run_user_code(envdir):
    source = raw_input(">>> ")
    try:
        exec source in envdir
    except:
        print "Exception in user code:"
        print '-'*60
        traceback.print_exc(file=sys.stdout)
        print '-'*60

envdir = {}
```

(suite sur la page suivante)

(suite de la page précédente)

```
while 1:
    run_user_code(envdir)
```

The following example demonstrates the different ways to print and format the exception and traceback :

```
import sys, traceback

def lumberjack():
    bright_side_of_death()

def bright_side_of_death():
    return tuple()[0]

try:
    lumberjack()
except IndexError:
    exc_type, exc_value, exc_traceback = sys.exc_info()
    print "*** print_tb:"
    traceback.print_tb(exc_traceback, limit=1, file=sys.stdout)
    print "*** print_exception:"
    traceback.print_exception(exc_type, exc_value, exc_traceback,
                              limit=2, file=sys.stdout)

    print "*** print_exc:"
    traceback.print_exc()
    print "*** format_exc, first and last line:"
    formatted_lines = traceback.format_exc().splitlines()
    print formatted_lines[0]
    print formatted_lines[-1]
    print "*** format_exception:"
    print repr(traceback.format_exception(exc_type, exc_value,
                                          exc_traceback))

    print "*** extract_tb:"
    print repr(traceback.extract_tb(exc_traceback))
    print "*** format_tb:"
    print repr(traceback.format_tb(exc_traceback))
    print "*** tb_lineno:", exc_traceback.tb_lineno
```

The output for the example would look similar to this :

```
*** print_tb:
  File "<doctest...>", line 10, in <module>
    lumberjack()
*** print_exception:
Traceback (most recent call last):
  File "<doctest...>", line 10, in <module>
    lumberjack()
  File "<doctest...>", line 4, in lumberjack
    bright_side_of_death()
IndexError: tuple index out of range
*** print_exc:
Traceback (most recent call last):
  File "<doctest...>", line 10, in <module>
```

(suite sur la page suivante)

(suite de la page précédente)

```

    lumberjack()
File "<doctest...>", line 4, in lumberjack
    bright_side_of_death()
IndexError: tuple index out of range
*** format_exc, first and last line:
Traceback (most recent call last):
IndexError: tuple index out of range
*** format_exception:
['Traceback (most recent call last):\n',
 '  File "<doctest...>", line 10, in <module>\n    lumberjack()\n',
 '  File "<doctest...>", line 4, in lumberjack\n    bright_side_of_death()\n',
 '  File "<doctest...>", line 7, in bright_side_of_death\n    return tuple()[0]\n',
 'IndexError: tuple index out of range\n']
*** extract_tb:
[(('<doctest...>', 10, '<module>', 'lumberjack()'),
  ('<doctest...>', 4, 'lumberjack', 'bright_side_of_death()'),
  ('<doctest...>', 7, 'bright_side_of_death', 'return tuple()[0]')]
*** format_tb:
['  File "<doctest...>", line 10, in <module>\n    lumberjack()\n',
 '  File "<doctest...>", line 4, in lumberjack\n    bright_side_of_death()\n',
 '  File "<doctest...>", line 7, in bright_side_of_death\n    return tuple()[0]\n']
*** tb_lineno: 10

```

The following example shows the different ways to print and format the stack :

```

>>> import traceback
>>> def another_function():
...     lumberstack()
...
>>> def lumberstack():
...     traceback.print_stack()
...     print repr(traceback.extract_stack())
...     print repr(traceback.format_stack())
...
>>> another_function()
File "<doctest>", line 10, in <module>
    another_function()
File "<doctest>", line 3, in another_function
    lumberstack()
File "<doctest>", line 6, in lumberstack
    traceback.print_stack()
[(('<doctest>', 10, '<module>', 'another_function()'),
  ('<doctest>', 3, 'another_function', 'lumberstack()'),
  ('<doctest>', 7, 'lumberstack', 'print repr(traceback.extract_stack())')]
['  File "<doctest>", line 10, in <module>\n    another_function()\n',
 '  File "<doctest>", line 3, in another_function\n    lumberstack()\n',
 '  File "<doctest>", line 8, in lumberstack\n    print repr(traceback.format_stack())\n'
↪']

```

This last example demonstrates the final few formatting functions :

```
>>> import traceback
```

(suite sur la page suivante)

(suite de la page précédente)

```
>>> traceback.format_list([('spam.py', 3, '<module>', 'spam.eggs()'),
...                        ('eggs.py', 42, 'eggs', 'return "bacon"')])
['  File "spam.py", line 3, in <module>\n    spam.eggs()\n',
 '  File "eggs.py", line 42, in eggs\n    return "bacon"\n']
>>> an_error = IndexError('tuple index out of range')
>>> traceback.format_exception_only(type(an_error), an_error)
['IndexError: tuple index out of range\n']
```

28.11 `__future__` — Définitions des futurs

Source code : `Lib/_future_.py`

`__future__` is a real module, and serves three purposes :

- To avoid confusing existing tools that analyze import statements and expect to find the modules they're importing.
- To ensure that future statements run under releases prior to 2.1 at least yield runtime exceptions (the import of `__future__` will fail, because there was no module of that name prior to 2.1).
- To document when incompatible changes were introduced, and when they will be — or were — made mandatory. This is a form of executable documentation, and can be inspected programmatically via importing `__future__` and examining its contents.

Each statement in `__future__.py` is of the form :

```
FeatureName = _Feature(OptionalRelease, MandatoryRelease,
                        CompilerFlag)
```

where, normally, *OptionalRelease* is less than *MandatoryRelease*, and both are 5-tuples of the same form as `sys.version_info` :

```
(PY_MAJOR_VERSION, # the 2 in 2.1.0a3; an int
 PY_MINOR_VERSION, # the 1; an int
 PY_MICRO_VERSION, # the 0; an int
 PY_RELEASE_LEVEL, # "alpha", "beta", "candidate" or "final"; string
 PY_RELEASE_SERIAL # the 3; an int
)
```

OptionalRelease records the first release in which the feature was accepted.

In the case of a *MandatoryRelease* that has not yet occurred, *MandatoryRelease* predicts the release in which the feature will become part of the language.

Else *MandatoryRelease* records when the feature became part of the language; in releases at or after that, modules no longer need a future statement to use the feature in question, but may continue to use such imports.

MandatoryRelease may also be `None`, meaning that a planned feature got dropped.

Instances of class `_Feature` have two corresponding methods, `getOptionalRelease()` and `getMandatoryRelease()`.

CompilerFlag is the (bitfield) flag that should be passed in the fourth argument to the built-in function `compile()` to enable the feature in dynamically compiled code. This flag is stored in the `compiler_flag` attribute on `_Feature` instances.

Aucune fonctionnalité ne sera jamais supprimée de `__future__`. Depuis son introduction dans Python 2.1, les fonctionnalités suivantes ont trouvé leur places dans le langage utilisant ce mécanisme :

fonctionnalité	optionnel dans	obligatoire dans	effet
nested_scopes	2.1.0b1	2.2	PEP 227 : <i>Statically Nested Scopes</i>
générateurs	2.2.0a1	2.3	PEP 255 : <i>Générateurs simples</i>
division	2.2.0a2	3.0	PEP 328 : <i>Changer l'opérateur de division</i>
absolute_import	2.5.0a1	3.0	PEP 328 : <i>Imports : Multi-Line and Absolute/Relative</i>
with_statement	2.5.0a1	2.6	PEP 343 : <i>L'instruction « with »</i>
print_function	2.6.0a2	3.0	PEP 3105 : <i>Make print a function</i>
unicode_literals	2.6.0a2	3.0	PEP 3112 : <i>Obtets littéraux en Python 3000</i>

Voir aussi :

future Comment le compilateur gère les imports du futur.

28.12 gc — Garbage Collector interface

This module provides an interface to the optional garbage collector. It provides the ability to disable the collector, tune the collection frequency, and set debugging options. It also provides access to unreachable objects that the collector found but cannot free. Since the collector supplements the reference counting already used in Python, you can disable the collector if you are sure your program does not create reference cycles. Automatic collection can be disabled by calling `gc.disable()`. To debug a leaking program call `gc.set_debug(gc.DEBUG_LEAK)`. Notice that this includes `gc.DEBUG_SAVEALL`, causing garbage-collected objects to be saved in `gc.garbage` for inspection.

The `gc` module provides the following functions :

gc.enable()

Enable automatic garbage collection.

gc.disable()

Disable automatic garbage collection.

gc.isenabled()

Returns true if automatic collection is enabled.

gc.collect([*generation*])

With no arguments, run a full collection. The optional argument *generation* may be an integer specifying which generation to collect (from 0 to 2). A *ValueError* is raised if the generation number is invalid. The number of unreachable objects found is returned.

Modifié dans la version 2.5 : The optional *generation* argument was added.

Modifié dans la version 2.6 : The free lists maintained for a number of built-in types are cleared whenever a full collection or collection of the highest generation (2) is run. Not all items in some free lists may be freed due to the particular implementation, in particular *int* and *float*.

gc.set_debug(flags)

Set the garbage collection debugging flags. Debugging information will be written to `sys.stderr`. See below for a list of debugging flags which can be combined using bit operations to control debugging.

`gc.get_debug()`

Return the debugging flags currently set.

`gc.get_objects()`

Returns a list of all objects tracked by the collector, excluding the list returned.

Nouveau dans la version 2.2.

`gc.set_threshold(threshold0[, threshold1[, threshold2]])`

Set the garbage collection thresholds (the collection frequency). Setting *threshold0* to zero disables collection.

The GC classifies objects into three generations depending on how many collection sweeps they have survived. New objects are placed in the youngest generation (generation 0). If an object survives a collection it is moved into the next older generation. Since generation 2 is the oldest generation, objects in that generation remain there after a collection. In order to decide when to run, the collector keeps track of the number object allocations and deallocations since the last collection. When the number of allocations minus the number of deallocations exceeds *threshold0*, collection starts. Initially only generation 0 is examined. If generation 0 has been examined more than *threshold1* times since generation 1 has been examined, then generation 1 is examined as well. Similarly, *threshold2* controls the number of collections of generation 1 before collecting generation 2.

`gc.get_count()`

Return the current collection counts as a tuple of (*count0*, *count1*, *count2*).

Nouveau dans la version 2.5.

`gc.get_threshold()`

Return the current collection thresholds as a tuple of (*threshold0*, *threshold1*, *threshold2*).

`gc.get_referrers(*objs)`

Return the list of objects that directly refer to any of *objs*. This function will only locate those containers which support garbage collection; extension types which do refer to other objects but do not support garbage collection will not be found.

Note that objects which have already been dereferenced, but which live in cycles and have not yet been collected by the garbage collector can be listed among the resulting referrers. To get only currently live objects, call `collect()` before calling `get_referrers()`.

Care must be taken when using objects returned by `get_referrers()` because some of them could still be under construction and hence in a temporarily invalid state. Avoid using `get_referrers()` for any purpose other than debugging.

Nouveau dans la version 2.2.

`gc.get_referents(*objs)`

Return a list of objects directly referred to by any of the arguments. The referents returned are those objects visited by the arguments' C-level `tp_traverse` methods (if any), and may not be all objects actually directly reachable. `tp_traverse` methods are supported only by objects that support garbage collection, and are only required to visit objects that may be involved in a cycle. So, for example, if an integer is directly reachable from an argument, that integer object may or may not appear in the result list.

Nouveau dans la version 2.3.

`gc.is_tracked(obj)`

Returns `True` if the object is currently tracked by the garbage collector, `False` otherwise. As a general rule, instances of atomic types aren't tracked and instances of non-atomic types (containers, user-defined objects...) are. However, some type-specific optimizations can be present in order to suppress the garbage collector footprint of simple instances (e.g. dicts containing only atomic keys and values) :

```
>>> gc.is_tracked(0)
False
```

(suite sur la page suivante)

(suite de la page précédente)

```

>>> gc.is_tracked("a")
False
>>> gc.is_tracked([])
True
>>> gc.is_tracked({})
False
>>> gc.is_tracked({"a": 1})
False
>>> gc.is_tracked({"a": []})
True

```

Nouveau dans la version 2.7.

The following variable is provided for read-only access (you can mutate its value but should not rebind it) :

`gc.garbage`

A list of objects which the collector found to be unreachable but could not be freed (uncollectable objects). By default, this list contains only objects with `__del__()` methods.¹ Objects that have `__del__()` methods and are part of a reference cycle cause the entire reference cycle to be uncollectable, including objects not necessarily in the cycle but reachable only from it. Python doesn't collect such cycles automatically because, in general, it isn't possible for Python to guess a safe order in which to run the `__del__()` methods. If you know a safe order, you can force the issue by examining the *garbage* list, and explicitly breaking cycles due to your objects within the list. Note that these objects are kept alive even so by virtue of being in the *garbage* list, so they should be removed from *garbage* too. For example, after breaking cycles, do `del gc.garbage[:]` to empty the list. It's generally better to avoid the issue by not creating cycles containing objects with `__del__()` methods, and *garbage* can be examined in that case to verify that no such cycles are being created.

If `DEBUG_SAVEALL` is set, then all unreachable objects will be added to this list rather than freed.

The following constants are provided for use with `set_debug()` :

`gc.DEBUG_STATS`

Print statistics during collection. This information can be useful when tuning the collection frequency.

`gc.DEBUG_COLLECTABLE`

Print information on collectable objects found.

`gc.DEBUG_UNCOLLECTABLE`

Print information of uncollectable objects found (objects which are not reachable but cannot be freed by the collector). These objects will be added to the *garbage* list.

`gc.DEBUG_INSTANCES`

When `DEBUG_COLLECTABLE` or `DEBUG_UNCOLLECTABLE` is set, print information about instance objects found.

`gc.DEBUG_OBJECTS`

When `DEBUG_COLLECTABLE` or `DEBUG_UNCOLLECTABLE` is set, print information about objects other than instance objects found.

`gc.DEBUG_SAVEALL`

When set, all unreachable objects found will be appended to *garbage* rather than being freed. This can be useful for debugging a leaking program.

`gc.DEBUG_LEAK`

The debugging flags necessary for the collector to print information about a leaking program (equal to `DEBUG_COLLECTABLE | DEBUG_UNCOLLECTABLE | DEBUG_INSTANCES | DEBUG_OBJECTS | DEBUG_SAVEALL`).

1. Prior to Python 2.2, the list contained all instance objects in unreachable cycles, not only those with `__del__()` methods.

Notes

28.13 inspect — Inspect live objects

Nouveau dans la version 2.1.

Code source : [Lib/inspect.py](#)

The *inspect* module provides several useful functions to help get information about live objects such as modules, classes, methods, functions, tracebacks, frame objects, and code objects. For example, it can help you examine the contents of a class, retrieve the source code of a method, extract and format the argument list for a function, or get all the information you need to display a detailed traceback.

There are four main kinds of services provided by this module : type checking, getting source code, inspecting classes and functions, and examining the interpreter stack.

28.13.1 Types and members

The *getmembers()* function retrieves the members of an object such as a class or module. The sixteen functions whose names begin with « *is* » are mainly provided as convenient choices for the second argument to *getmembers()*. They also help you determine when you can expect to find the following special attributes :

Type	Attribut	Description
module	<code>__doc__</code>	documentation string
	<code>__file__</code>	filename (missing for built-in modules)
classe	<code>__doc__</code>	documentation string
	<code>__module__</code>	name of module in which this class was defined
méthode	<code>__doc__</code>	documentation string
	<code>__name__</code>	name with which this method was defined
	<code>im_class</code>	class object that asked for this method
fonction	<code>im_func</code> or <code>__func__</code>	function object containing implementation of method
	<code>im_self</code> or <code>__self__</code>	instance to which this method is bound, or <code>None</code>
	<code>__doc__</code>	documentation string
	<code>__name__</code>	name with which this function was defined
	<code>func_code</code>	code object containing compiled function <i>bytecode</i>
générateur	<code>func_defaults</code>	tuple of any default values for arguments
	<code>func_doc</code>	(same as <code>__doc__</code>)
	<code>func_globals</code>	global namespace in which this function was defined
	<code>func_name</code>	(same as <code>__name__</code>)
	<code>__iter__</code>	defined to support iteration over container
	<code>close</code>	raises new <code>GeneratorExit</code> exception inside the generator to terminate the iteration
	<code>gi_code</code>	code object
	<code>gi_frame</code>	frame object or possibly <code>None</code> once the generator has been exhausted
	<code>gi_running</code>	set to 1 when generator is executing, 0 otherwise
	<code>next</code>	return the next item from the container
traceback	<code>send</code>	resumes the generator and « sends » a value that becomes the result of the current iteration
	<code>throw</code>	used to raise an exception inside the generator
	<code>tb_frame</code>	frame object at this level
	<code>tb_lasti</code>	index of last attempted instruction in bytecode
frame	<code>tb_lineno</code>	current line number in Python source code
	<code>tb_next</code>	next inner traceback object (called by this level)
	<code>f_back</code>	next outer frame object (this frame's caller)

Tableau 1 – suite de la page précédente

Type	Attribut	Description
	f_builtins	builtins namespace seen by this frame
	f_code	code object being executed in this frame
	f_exc_traceback	traceback if raised in this frame, or None
	f_exc_type	exception type if raised in this frame, or None
	f_exc_value	exception value if raised in this frame, or None
	f_globals	global namespace seen by this frame
	f_lasti	index of last attempted instruction in bytecode
	f_lineno	current line number in Python source code
	f_locals	local namespace seen by this frame
	f_restricted	0 or 1 if frame is in restricted execution mode
	f_trace	tracing function for this frame, or None
code	co_argcount	number of arguments (not including * or ** args)
	co_code	string of raw compiled bytecode
	co_consts	tuple of constants used in the bytecode
	co_filename	name of file in which this code object was created
	co_firstlineno	number of first line in Python source code
	co_flags	bitmap : 1=optimized 2=newlocals 4=*arg 8=**arg
	co_lnotab	encoded mapping of line numbers to bytecode indices
	co_name	name with which this code object was defined
	co_names	tuple of names of local variables
	co_nlocals	number of local variables
	co_stacksize	virtual machine stack space required
	co_varnames	tuple of names of arguments and local variables
builtin	__doc__	documentation string
	__name__	original name of this function or method
	__self__	instance to which a method is bound, or None

Note :

- (1) Modifié dans la version 2.2 : `im_class` used to refer to the class that defined the method.

`inspect.getmembers(object[, predicate])`

Return all the members of an object in a list of (name, value) pairs sorted by name. If the optional *predicate* argument is supplied, only members for which the predicate returns a true value are included.

Note : `getmembers()` does not return metaclass attributes when the argument is a class (this behavior is inherited from the `dir()` function).

`inspect.getmoduleinfo(path)`

Return a tuple of values that describe how Python will interpret the file identified by *path* if it is a module, or `None` if it would not be identified as a module. The return tuple is (`name`, `suffix`, `mode`, `module_type`), where *name* is the name of the module without the name of any enclosing package, *suffix* is the trailing part of the file name (which may not be a dot-delimited extension), *mode* is the `open()` mode that would be used ('`r`' or '`rb`'), and *module_type* is an integer giving the type of the module. *module_type* will have a value which can be compared to the constants defined in the `imp` module; see the documentation for that module for more information on module types.

Modifié dans la version 2.6 : Returns a *named tuple* `ModuleInfo(name, suffix, mode, module_type)`.

`inspect.getmodulename(path)`

Return the name of the module named by the file *path*, without including the names of enclosing

packages. This uses the same algorithm as the interpreter uses when searching for modules. If the name cannot be matched according to the interpreter's rules, `None` is returned.

`inspect.ismodule(object)`

Return true if the object is a module.

`inspect.isclass(object)`

Return true if the object is a class, whether built-in or created in Python code.

`inspect.ismethod(object)`

Return true if the object is a bound or unbound method written in Python.

`inspect.isfunction(object)`

Return true if the object is a Python function, which includes functions created by a *lambda* expression.

`inspect.isgeneratorfunction(object)`

Return true if the object is a Python generator function.

Nouveau dans la version 2.6.

`inspect.isgenerator(object)`

Return true if the object is a generator.

Nouveau dans la version 2.6.

`inspect.istraceback(object)`

Return true if the object is a traceback.

`inspect.isframe(object)`

Return true if the object is a frame.

`inspect.iscode(object)`

Return true if the object is a code.

`inspect.isbuiltin(object)`

Return true if the object is a built-in function or a bound built-in method.

`inspect.isroutine(object)`

Return true if the object is a user-defined or built-in function or method.

`inspect.isabstract(object)`

Return true if the object is an abstract base class.

Nouveau dans la version 2.6.

`inspect.ismethoddescriptor(object)`

Return true if the object is a method descriptor, but not if *ismethod()*, *isclass()*, *isfunction()* or *isbuiltin()* are true.

This is new as of Python 2.2, and, for example, is true of `int.__add__`. An object passing this test has a `__get__()` method but not a `__set__()` method, but beyond that the set of attributes varies. A `__name__` attribute is usually sensible, and `__doc__` often is.

Methods implemented via descriptors that also pass one of the other tests return false from the *ismethoddescriptor()* test, simply because the other tests promise more – you can, e.g., count on having the `im_func` attribute (etc) when an object passes *ismethod()*.

`inspect.isdatadescriptor(object)`

Return true if the object is a data descriptor.

Data descriptors have both a `__get__` and a `__set__` method. Examples are properties (defined in Python), getsets, and members. The latter two are defined in C and there are more specific tests available for those types, which is robust across Python implementations. Typically, data descriptors will also have `__name__` and `__doc__` attributes (properties, getsets, and members have both of these attributes), but this is not guaranteed.

Nouveau dans la version 2.3.

`inspect.isgetsetdescriptor(object)`

Return true if the object is a getset descriptor.

CPython implementation detail : getsets are attributes defined in extension modules via `PyGetSetDef` structures. For Python implementations without such types, this method will always return `False`.

Nouveau dans la version 2.5.

`inspect.ismemberdescriptor(object)`

Return true if the object is a member descriptor.

CPython implementation detail : Member descriptors are attributes defined in extension modules via `PyMemberDef` structures. For Python implementations without such types, this method will always return `False`.

Nouveau dans la version 2.5.

28.13.2 Retrieving source code

`inspect.getdoc(object)`

Get the documentation string for an object, cleaned up with `cleandoc()`.

`inspect.getcomments(object)`

Return in a single string any lines of comments immediately preceding the object's source code (for a class, function, or method), or at the top of the Python source file (if the object is a module).

`inspect.getfile(object)`

Return the name of the (text or binary) file in which an object was defined. This will fail with a `TypeError` if the object is a built-in module, class, or function.

`inspect.getmodule(object)`

Try to guess which module an object was defined in.

`inspect.getsourcefile(object)`

Return the name of the Python source file in which an object was defined. This will fail with a `TypeError` if the object is a built-in module, class, or function.

`inspect.getsourcelines(object)`

Return a list of source lines and starting line number for an object. The argument may be a module, class, method, function, traceback, frame, or code object. The source code is returned as a list of the lines corresponding to the object and the line number indicates where in the original source file the first line of code was found. An `IOError` is raised if the source code cannot be retrieved.

`inspect.getsource(object)`

Return the text of the source code for an object. The argument may be a module, class, method, function, traceback, frame, or code object. The source code is returned as a single string. An `IOError` is raised if the source code cannot be retrieved.

`inspect.cleandoc(doc)`

Clean up indentation from docstrings that are indented to line up with blocks of code.

All leading whitespace is removed from the first line. Any leading whitespace that can be uniformly removed from the second line onwards is removed. Empty lines at the beginning and end are subsequently removed. Also, all tabs are expanded to spaces.

Nouveau dans la version 2.6.

28.13.3 Classes and functions

`inspect.getclasstree(classes[, unique])`

Arrange the given list of classes into a hierarchy of nested lists. Where a nested list appears, it contains classes derived from the class whose entry immediately precedes the list. Each entry is a 2-tuple

containing a class and a tuple of its base classes. If the *unique* argument is true, exactly one entry appears in the returned structure for each class in the given list. Otherwise, classes using multiple inheritance and their descendants will appear multiple times.

`inspect.getargspec(func)`

Get the names and default values of a Python function's arguments. A tuple of four things is returned : (*args*, *varargs*, *keywords*, *defaults*). *args* is a list of the argument names (it may contain nested lists). *varargs* and *keywords* are the names of the * and ** arguments or None. *defaults* is a tuple of default argument values or None if there are no default arguments ; if this tuple has *n* elements, they correspond to the last *n* elements listed in *args*.

Modifié dans la version 2.6 : Returns a *named tuple* `ArgSpec(args, varargs, keywords, defaults)`.

`inspect.getargvalues(frame)`

Get information about arguments passed into a particular frame. A tuple of four things is returned : (*args*, *varargs*, *keywords*, *locals*). *args* is a list of the argument names (it may contain nested lists). *varargs* and *keywords* are the names of the * and ** arguments or None. *locals* is the locals dictionary of the given frame.

Modifié dans la version 2.6 : Returns a *named tuple* `ArgInfo(args, varargs, keywords, locals)`.

`inspect.formatargspec(args[, varargs, varkw, defaults, formatarg, formatvarargs, formatvarkw, formatvalue, join])`

Format a pretty argument spec from the four values returned by `getargspec()`. The format* arguments are the corresponding optional formatting functions that are called to turn names and values into strings.

`inspect.formatargvalues(args[, varargs, varkw, locals, formatarg, formatvarargs, formatvarkw, formatvalue, join])`

Format a pretty argument spec from the four values returned by `getargvalues()`. The format* arguments are the corresponding optional formatting functions that are called to turn names and values into strings.

`inspect.getmro(cls)`

Return a tuple of class *cls*'s base classes, including *cls*, in method resolution order. No class appears more than once in this tuple. Note that the method resolution order depends on *cls*'s type. Unless a very peculiar user-defined metatype is in use, *cls* will be the first element of the tuple.

`inspect.getcallargs(func[, *args][, **kwargs])`

Bind the *args* and *kws* to the argument names of the Python function or method *func*, as if it was called with them. For bound methods, bind also the first argument (typically named *self*) to the associated instance. A dict is returned, mapping the argument names (including the names of the * and ** arguments, if any) to their values from *args* and *kws*. In case of invoking *func* incorrectly, i.e. whenever `func(*args, **kwargs)` would raise an exception because of incompatible signature, an exception of the same type and the same or similar message is raised. For example :

```
>>> from inspect import getcallargs
>>> def f(a, b=1, *pos, **named):
...     pass
>>> getcallargs(f, 1, 2, 3)
{'a': 1, 'named': {}, 'b': 2, 'pos': (3,)}
>>> getcallargs(f, a=2, x=4)
{'a': 2, 'named': {'x': 4}, 'b': 1, 'pos': ()}
>>> getcallargs(f)
Traceback (most recent call last):
...
TypeError: f() takes at least 1 argument (0 given)
```

Nouveau dans la version 2.7.

28.13.4 The interpreter stack

When the following functions return « frame records, » each record is a tuple of six items : the frame object, the filename, the line number of the current line, the function name, a list of lines of context from the source code, and the index of the current line within that list.

Note : Keeping references to frame objects, as found in the first element of the frame records these functions return, can cause your program to create reference cycles. Once a reference cycle has been created, the lifespan of all objects which can be accessed from the objects which form the cycle can become much longer even if Python's optional cycle detector is enabled. If such cycles must be created, it is important to ensure they are explicitly broken to avoid the delayed destruction of objects and increased memory consumption which occurs.

Though the cycle detector will catch these, destruction of the frames (and local variables) can be made deterministic by removing the cycle in a **finally** clause. This is also important if the cycle detector was disabled when Python was compiled or using `gc.disable()`. For example :

```
def handle_stackframe_without_leak():
    frame = inspect.currentframe()
    try:
        # do something with the frame
    finally:
        del frame
```

The optional *context* argument supported by most of these functions specifies the number of lines of context to return, which are centered around the current line.

`inspect.getframeinfo(frame[, context])`

Get information about a frame or traceback object. A 5-tuple is returned, the last five elements of the frame's frame record.

Modifié dans la version 2.6 : Returns a *named tuple* `Traceback(filename, lineno, function, code_context, index)`.

`inspect.getouterframes(frame[, context])`

Get a list of frame records for a frame and all outer frames. These frames represent the calls that lead to the creation of *frame*. The first entry in the returned list represents *frame*; the last entry represents the outermost call on *frame*'s stack.

`inspect.getinnerframes(traceback[, context])`

Get a list of frame records for a traceback's frame and all inner frames. These frames represent calls made as a consequence of *frame*. The first entry in the list represents *traceback*; the last entry represents where the exception was raised.

`inspect.currentframe()`

Return the frame object for the caller's stack frame.

CPython implementation detail : This function relies on Python stack frame support in the interpreter, which isn't guaranteed to exist in all implementations of Python. If running in an implementation without Python stack frame support this function returns `None`.

`inspect.stack([context])`

Return a list of frame records for the caller's stack. The first entry in the returned list represents the caller; the last entry represents the outermost call on the stack.

```
inspect.trace([context])
```

Return a list of frame records for the stack between the current frame and the frame in which an exception currently being handled was raised in. The first entry in the list represents the caller; the last entry represents where the exception was raised.

28.14 site — Site-specific configuration hook

Code source : [Lib/site.py](#)

This module is automatically imported during initialization. The automatic import can be suppressed using the interpreter's `-S` option.

Importing this module will append site-specific paths to the module search path and add a few builtins.

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 and then `lib/site-packages` (on Windows) or `lib/pythonX.Y/site-packages` and then `lib/site-python` (on Unix and Macintosh). For each of the distinct head-tail combinations, it sees if it refers to an existing directory, and if so, adds it to `sys.path` and also inspects the newly added path for configuration files.

A path configuration file is a file whose name has the form `name.pth` and exists in one of the four directories mentioned above; its contents are additional items (one per line) to be added to `sys.path`. Non-existing items are never added to `sys.path`, and 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. Lines starting with `import` (followed by space or tab) are executed.

Modifié dans la version 2.6 : A space or tab is now required after the import keyword.

For example, suppose `sys.prefix` and `sys.exec_prefix` are set to `/usr/local`. The Python X.Y library is then installed in `/usr/local/lib/pythonX.Y`. Suppose this has a subdirectory `/usr/local/lib/pythonX.Y/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 version-specific directories are added to `sys.path`, in this order :

```
/usr/local/lib/pythonX.Y/site-packages/bar
/usr/local/lib/pythonX.Y/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. It is typically created by a system administrator in the

site-packages directory. If this import fails with an `ImportError` exception, it is silently ignored. If Python is started without output streams available, as with `pythonw.exe` on Windows (which is used by default to start IDLE), attempted output from `sitecustomize` is ignored. Any exception other than `ImportError` causes a silent and perhaps mysterious failure of the process.

After this, an attempt is made to import a module named `usercustomize`, which can perform arbitrary user-specific customizations, if `ENABLE_USER_SITE` is true. This file is intended to be created in the user site-packages directory (see below), which is part of `sys.path` unless disabled by `-s`. An `ImportError` will be 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` and `usercustomize` is still attempted.

`site.PREFIXES`

A list of prefixes for site-packages directories.

Nouveau dans la version 2.6.

`site.ENABLE_USER_SITE`

Flag showing the status of the user site-packages directory. `True` means that it is enabled and was added to `sys.path`. `False` means that it was disabled by user request (with `-s` or `PYTHONNOUSERSITE`). `None` means it was disabled for security reasons (mismatch between user or group id and effective id) or by an administrator.

Nouveau dans la version 2.6.

`site.USER_SITE`

Path to the user site-packages for the running Python. Can be `None` if `getusersitepackages()` hasn't been called yet. Default value is `~/.local/lib/pythonX.Y/site-packages` for UNIX and non-framework Mac OS X builds, `~/Library/Python/X.Y/lib/python/site-packages` for Mac framework builds, and `%APPDATA%\Python\PythonXY\site-packages` on Windows. This directory is a site directory, which means that `.pth` files in it will be processed.

Nouveau dans la version 2.6.

`site.USER_BASE`

Path to the base directory for the user site-packages. Can be `None` if `getuserbase()` hasn't been called yet. Default value is `~/.local` for UNIX and Mac OS X non-framework builds, `~/Library/Python/X.Y` for Mac framework builds, and `%APPDATA%\Python` for Windows. This value is used by Distutils to compute the installation directories for scripts, data files, Python modules, etc. for the user installation scheme. See also `PYTHONUSERBASE`.

Nouveau dans la version 2.6.

`site.addsitedir(sitedir, known_paths=None)`

Add a directory to `sys.path` and process its `.pth` files. Typically used in `sitecustomize` or `usercustomize` (see above).

`site.getsitepackages()`

Return a list containing all global site-packages directories (and possibly site-python).

Nouveau dans la version 2.7.

`site.getuserbase()`

Return the path of the user base directory, `USER_BASE`. If it is not initialized yet, this function will also set it, respecting `PYTHONUSERBASE`.

Nouveau dans la version 2.7.

`site.getusersitepackages()`

Return the path of the user-specific site-packages directory, `USER_SITE`. If it is not initialized yet, this function will also set it, respecting `PYTHONNOUSERSITE` and `USER_BASE`.

Nouveau dans la version 2.7.

The `site` module also provides a way to get the user directories from the command line :

```
$ python -m site --user-site
/home/user/.local/lib/python2.7/site-packages
```

If it is called without arguments, it will print the contents of `sys.path` on the standard output, followed by the value of `USER_BASE` and whether the directory exists, then the same thing for `USER_SITE`, and finally the value of `ENABLE_USER_SITE`.

--user-base

Print the path to the user base directory.

--user-site

Print the path to the user site-packages directory.

If both options are given, user base and user site will be printed (always in this order), separated by `os.pathsep`.

If any option is given, the script will exit with one of these values : 0 if the user site-packages directory is enabled, 1 if it was disabled by the user, 2 if it is disabled for security reasons or by an administrator, and a value greater than 2 if there is an error.

Voir aussi :

PEP 370 – Répertoire site-packages propre à l'utilisateur.

28.15 user — User-specific configuration hook

Obsolète depuis la version 2.6 : The `user` module has been removed in Python 3.

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, executes it (using `execfile()`) in its own (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

verbose = bool(getattr(user, "spam_verbose", 0))
```

(The three-argument form of `getattr()` is used in case the user has not defined `spam_verbose` in their `.pythonrc.py` file.)

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 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.

Voir aussi :

Module `site` Site-wide customization mechanism.

28.16 `fpectl` — Floating point exception control

Note : The `fpectl` module is not built by default, and its usage is discouraged and may be dangerous except in the hands of experts. See also the section *Limitations and other considerations* on limitations for more details.

Most computers carry out floating point operations in conformance with the so-called IEEE-754 standard. On any real computer, some floating point operations produce results that cannot be expressed as a normal floating point value. For example, try

```
>>> import math
>>> math.exp(1000)
inf
>>> math.exp(1000) / math.exp(1000)
nan
```

(The example above will work on many platforms. DEC Alpha may be one exception.) « Inf » is a special, non-numeric value in IEEE-754 that stands for « infinity », and « nan » means « not a number. » Note that, other than the non-numeric results, nothing special happened when you asked Python to carry out those calculations. That is in fact the default behaviour prescribed in the IEEE-754 standard, and if it works for you, stop reading now.

In some circumstances, it would be better to raise an exception and stop processing at the point where the faulty operation was attempted. The `fpectl` module is for use in that situation. It provides control over floating point units from several hardware manufacturers, allowing the user to turn on the generation of SIGFPE whenever any of the IEEE-754 exceptions Division by Zero, Overflow, or Invalid Operation occurs. In tandem with a pair of wrapper macros that are inserted into the C code comprising your python system, SIGFPE is trapped and converted into the Python `FloatingPointError` exception.

The `fpectl` module defines the following functions and may raise the given exception :

`fpectl.turnon_sigfpe()`

Turn on the generation of SIGFPE, and set up an appropriate signal handler.

`fpectl.turnoff_sigfpe()`

Reset default handling of floating point exceptions.

exception `fpectl.FloatingPointError`

After `turnon_sigfpe()` has been executed, a floating point operation that raises one of the IEEE-754 exceptions Division by Zero, Overflow, or Invalid operation will in turn raise this standard Python exception.

28.16.1 Example

The following example demonstrates how to start up and test operation of the *fpectl* module.

```
>>> import fpectl
>>> import fpetest
>>> fpectl.turnon_sigfpe()
>>> fpetest.test()
overflow          PASS
FloatingPointError: Overflow

div by 0          PASS
FloatingPointError: Division by zero
[ more output from test elided ]
>>> import math
>>> math.exp(1000)
Traceback (most recent call last):
  File "<stdin>", line 1, in <module>
FloatingPointError: in math_1
```

28.16.2 Limitations and other considerations

Setting up a given processor to trap IEEE-754 floating point errors currently requires custom code on a per-architecture basis. You may have to modify *fpectl* to control your particular hardware.

Conversion of an IEEE-754 exception to a Python exception requires that the wrapper macros `PyFPE_START_PROTECT` and `PyFPE_END_PROTECT` be inserted into your code in an appropriate fashion. Python itself has been modified to support the *fpectl* module, but many other codes of interest to numerical analysts have not.

The *fpectl* module is not thread-safe.

Voir aussi :

Some files in the source distribution may be interesting in learning more about how this module operates. The include file [Include/pyfpe.h](#) discusses the implementation of this module at some length. [Modules/fpetestmodule.c](#) gives several examples of use. Many additional examples can be found in [Objects/floatobject.c](#).

Interpréteurs Python personnalisés

Les modules décrits dans ce chapitre permettent d'écrire des interfaces similaires à l'interpréteur interactif de Python. Si vous voulez un interpréteur Python qui gère quelques fonctionnalités supplémentaires, vous devriez regarder le module `code`. (Le module `codeop` est un module de plus bas niveau permettant de compiler des morceaux, pas forcément complets, de Python.)

La liste complète des modules décrits dans ce chapitre est :

29.1 `code` — Interpreter base classes

The `code` module provides facilities to implement read-eval-print loops in Python. Two classes and convenience functions are included which can be used to build applications which provide an interactive interpreter prompt.

```
class code.InteractiveInterpreter([locals])
```

This class deals with parsing and interpreter state (the user's namespace); it does not deal with input buffering or prompting or input file naming (the filename is always passed in explicitly). The optional *locals* argument specifies the dictionary in which code will be executed; it defaults to a newly created dictionary with key `'__name__'` set to `'__console__'` and key `'__doc__'` set to `None`.

```
class code.InteractiveConsole([locals[, filename]])
```

Closely emulate the behavior of the interactive Python interpreter. This class builds on *InteractiveInterpreter* and adds prompting using the familiar `sys.ps1` and `sys.ps2`, and input buffering.

```
code.interact([banner[, readfunc[, local]])
```

Convenience function to run a read-eval-print loop. This creates a new instance of *InteractiveConsole* and sets *readfunc* to be used as the *InteractiveConsole.raw_input()* method, if provided. If *local* is provided, it is passed to the *InteractiveConsole* constructor for use as the default namespace for the interpreter loop. The *interact()* method of the instance is then run with *banner* passed as the banner to use, if provided. The console object is discarded after use.

```
code.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.

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'.

Returns a code object (the same as `compile(source, filename, symbol)`) if the command is complete and valid; `None` if the command is incomplete; raises `SyntaxError` if the command is complete and contains a syntax error, or raises `OverflowError` or `ValueError` if the command contains an invalid literal.

29.1.1 Interactive Interpreter Objects

`InteractiveInterpreter.runsource(source[, filename[, symbol]])`

Compile and run some source in the interpreter. Arguments are the same as for `compile_command()`; the default for *filename* is '<input>', and for *symbol* is 'single'. One several things can happen :

- The input is incorrect; `compile_command()` raised an exception (`SyntaxError` or `OverflowError`). A syntax traceback will be printed by calling the `showsyntaxerror()` method. `runsource()` returns `False`.
- The input is incomplete, and more input is required; `compile_command()` returned `None`. `runsource()` returns `True`.
- The input is complete; `compile_command()` returned a code object. The code is executed by calling the `runcode()` (which also handles run-time exceptions, except for `SystemExit`). `runsource()` returns `False`.

The return value can be used to decide whether to use `sys.ps1` or `sys.ps2` to prompt the next line.

`InteractiveInterpreter.runcode(code)`

Execute a code object. When an exception occurs, `showtraceback()` is called to display a traceback. All exceptions are caught except `SystemExit`, which is allowed to propagate.

A note about `KeyboardInterrupt` : this exception may occur elsewhere in this code, and may not always be caught. The caller should be prepared to deal with it.

`InteractiveInterpreter.showsyntaxerror([filename])`

Display the syntax error that just occurred. This does not display a stack trace because there isn't one for syntax errors. If *filename* is given, it is stuffed into the exception instead of the default filename provided by Python's parser, because it always uses '<string>' when reading from a string. The output is written by the `write()` method.

`InteractiveInterpreter.showtraceback()`

Display the exception that just occurred. We remove the first stack item because it is within the interpreter object implementation. The output is written by the `write()` method.

`InteractiveInterpreter.write(data)`

Write a string to the standard error stream (`sys.stderr`). Derived classes should override this to provide the appropriate output handling as needed.

29.1.2 Interactive Console Objects

The `InteractiveConsole` class is a subclass of `InteractiveInterpreter`, and so offers all the methods of the interpreter objects as well as the following additions.

`InteractiveConsole.interact([banner])`

Closely emulate the interactive Python console. The optional banner argument specify the banner to print before the first interaction; by default it prints a banner similar to the one printed by the standard Python interpreter, followed by the class name of the console object in parentheses (so as not to confuse this with the real interpreter – since it's so close!).

`InteractiveConsole.push(line)`

Push a line of source text to the interpreter. The line should not have a trailing newline; it may have internal newlines. The line is appended to a buffer and the interpreter's `runsource()` method is called with the concatenated contents of the buffer as source. If this indicates that the command was executed or invalid, the buffer is reset; otherwise, the command is incomplete, and the buffer is left as it was after the line was appended. The return value is `True` if more input is required, `False` if the line was dealt with in some way (this is the same as `runsource()`).

`InteractiveConsole.resetbuffer()`

Remove any unhandled source text from the input buffer.

`InteractiveConsole.raw_input([prompt])`

Write a prompt and read a line. The returned line does not include the trailing newline. When the user enters the EOF key sequence, `EOFError` is raised. The base implementation uses the built-in function `raw_input()`; a subclass may replace this with a different implementation.

29.2 codeop — Compile Python code

The `codeop` module provides utilities upon which the Python read-eval-print loop can be emulated, as is done in the `code` module. As a result, you probably don't want to use the module directly; if you want to include such a loop in your program you probably want to use the `code` module instead.

There are two parts to this job :

1. Being able to tell if a line of input completes a Python statement : in short, telling whether to print “>>>” or “...” next.
2. Remembering which future statements the user has entered, so subsequent input can be compiled with these in effect.

The `codeop` module provides a way of doing each of these things, and a way of doing them both.

To do just the former :

`codeop.compile_command(source[, filename[, symbol]])`

Tries to compile *source*, which should be a string of Python code and return a code object if *source* is valid Python code. In that case, the filename attribute of the code object will be *filename*, which defaults to '<input>'. Returns `None` if *source* is *not* valid Python code, but is a prefix of valid Python code.

If there is a problem with *source*, an exception will be raised. `SyntaxError` is raised if there is invalid Python syntax, and `OverflowError` or `ValueError` if there is an invalid literal.

The *symbol* argument determines whether *source* is compiled as a statement ('single', the default) or as an *expression* ('eval'). Any other value will cause `ValueError` to be raised.

Note : It is possible (but not likely) that the parser stops parsing with a successful outcome before reaching the end of the source; in this case, trailing symbols may be ignored instead of causing an error. For example, a backslash followed by two newlines may be followed by arbitrary garbage. This will be fixed once the API for the parser is better.

`class codeop.Compile`

Instances of this class have `__call__()` methods identical in signature to the built-in function `compile()`, but with the difference that if the instance compiles program text containing a `__future__` statement, the instance “remembers” and compiles all subsequent program texts with the statement in force.

`class codeop.CommandCompiler`

Instances of this class have `__call__()` methods identical in signature to `compile_command()`; the

difference is that if the instance compiles program text containing a `__future__` statement, the instance “remembers” and compiles all subsequent program texts with the statement in force.

A note on version compatibility : the `Compile` and `CommandCompiler` are new in Python 2.2. If you want to enable the future-tracking features of 2.2 but also retain compatibility with 2.1 and earlier versions of Python you can either write

```
try:
    from codeop import CommandCompiler
    compile_command = CommandCompiler()
    del CommandCompiler
except ImportError:
    from codeop import compile_command
```

which is a low-impact change, but introduces possibly unwanted global state into your program, or you can write :

```
try:
    from codeop import CommandCompiler
except ImportError:
    def CommandCompiler():
        from codeop import compile_command
        return compile_command
```

and then call `CommandCompiler` every time you need a fresh compiler object.

Restricted Execution

Avertissement : In Python 2.3 these modules have been disabled due to various known and not readily fixable security holes. The modules are still documented here to help in reading old code that uses the *rexec* and *Bastion* modules.

Restricted execution is the basic framework in Python that allows for the segregation of trusted and untrusted code. The framework 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 a built-in *open()* function in its environment, with the same calling interface. The semantics would be identical too, with *IOErrors* 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 :

30.1 `rexec` — Restricted execution framework

Obsolète depuis la version 2.6 : The `rexec` module has been removed in Python 3.

Modifié dans la version 2.3 : Disabled module.

Avertissement : The documentation has been left in place to help in reading old code that uses the module.

This module contains the `RExec` class, which supports `r_eval()`, `r_execfile()`, `r_exec()`, and `r_import()` methods, which are restricted versions of the standard Python functions `eval()`, `execfile()` and the `exec` and `import` statements. 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.

Avertissement : While the `rexec` module is designed to perform as described below, it does have a few known vulnerabilities which could be exploited by carefully written code. Thus it should not be relied upon in situations requiring « production ready » security. In such situations, execution via sub-processes or very careful « cleansing » of both code and data to be processed may be necessary. Alternatively, help in patching known `rexec` vulnerabilities would be welcomed.

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 processor time.

```
class rexec.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, which can be useful when changing the mechanics of `import` within the restricted environment.)

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.

It is important to be aware that code running in a restricted environment can still call the `sys.exit()` function. To disallow restricted code from exiting the interpreter, always protect calls that cause restricted code to run with a `try/except` statement that catches the `SystemExit` exception. Removing the `sys.exit()` function from the restricted environment is not sufficient — the restricted code could still use `raise SystemExit`. Removing `SystemExit` is not a reasonable option; some library code makes use of this and would break were it not available.

Voir aussi :

Grail Home Page Grail is a Web browser written entirely in Python. It uses the `rexec` module as a foundation for supporting Python applets, and can be used as an example usage of this module.

30.1.1 RExec Objects

`RExec` instances support the following methods :

`RExec.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.

`RExec.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.

`RExec.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 streams `sys.stdin`, `sys.stderr`, and `sys.stdout`.

`RExec.s_eval(code)`

`code` must be a string containing a Python expression, which will be evaluated in the restricted environment.

`RExec.s_exec(code)`

`code` must be a string containing one or more lines of Python code, which will be executed in the restricted environment.

`RExec.s_execfile(filename)`

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.

`RExec.r_import(modulename[, globals[, locals[, fromlist]]])`

Import the module `modulename`, raising an `ImportError` exception if the module is considered unsafe.

`RExec.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()`.

`RExec.r_reload(module)`

Reload the module object `module`, re-parsing and re-initializing it.

`RExec.r_unload(module)`

Unload the module object `module` (remove it from the restricted environment's `sys.modules` dictionary).

And their equivalents with access to restricted standard I/O streams :

`RExec.s_import(modulename[, globals[, locals[, fromlist]]])`

Import the module `modulename`, raising an `ImportError` exception if the module is considered unsafe.

`RExec.s_reload(module)`

Reload the module object *module*, re-parsing and re-initializing it.

`RExec.s_unload(module)`

Unload the module object *module*.

30.1.2 Defining restricted environments

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.

`RExec.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.)

`RExec.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', 'select', 'sha', '_sre', 'strop', 'struct', 'time'). A similar remark about overriding this variable applies — use the value from the base class as a starting point.

`RExec.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.

`RExec.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').

`RExec.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.ok_file_types`

Contains the file types from which modules are allowed to be loaded. Each file type is an integer constant defined in the `imp` module. The meaningful values are `PY_SOURCE`, `PY_COMPILED`, and `C_EXTENSION`. The value for `RExec` is (`C_EXTENSION`, `PY_SOURCE`). Adding `PY_COMPILED` in subclasses is not recommended; an attacker could exit the restricted execution mode by putting a forged byte-compiled file (`.pyc`) anywhere in your file system, for example by writing it to `/tmp` or uploading it to the `/incoming` directory of your public FTP server.

30.1.3 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.

30.2 Bastion — Restricting access to objects

Obsolète depuis la version 2.6 : The *Bastion* module has been removed in Python 3.

Modifié dans la version 2.3 : Disabled module.

Note : The documentation has been left in place to help in reading old code that uses the module.

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.Bastion(*object*[, *filter*[, *name*[, *class*]]])

Protect the object *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, should be a subclass of *BastionClass*; see the code in `bastion.py` for the details. Overriding the default *BastionClass* will rarely be required.

class Bastion.BastionClass(*getfunc*, *name*)

Class which actually implements bastion objects. This is the default class used by *Bastion()*. The *getfunc* parameter is a function which returns the value of an attribute which should be exposed to the restricted execution environment when called with the name of the attribute as the only parameter. *name* is used to construct the *repr()* of the *BastionClass* instance.

Voir aussi :

Grail Home Page Grail, an Internet browser written in Python, uses these modules to support Python applets. More information on the use of Python's restricted execution mode in Grail is available on the Web site.

Importer des modules

Les modules décrits dans ce chapitre fournissent de nouveaux moyens d'importer d'autres modules Python, et des *hooks* pour personnaliser le processus d'importation.

La liste complète des modules décrits dans ce chapitre est :

31.1 `imp` — Access the `import` internals

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

`imp.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.)

`imp.get_suffixes()`

Return a list of 3-element tuples, 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`, described below.

`imp.find_module(name[, path])`

Try to find the module *name*. If *path* is omitted or `None`, the list of directory names given by `sys.path` is searched, but first a few special places are searched : the function 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 Windows, it looks in the registry which may point to a specific file).

Otherwise, *path* must be 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 search is successful, the return value is a 3-element tuple `(file, pathname, description)` :

file is an open file object positioned at the beginning, *pathname* is the pathname of the file found, and *description* is a 3-element tuple as 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`, *pathname* is the empty string, and the *description* tuple contains empty strings for its suffix and mode; the module type is indicated as given in parentheses above. If the search is unsuccessful, `ImportError` is raised. Other exceptions indicate problems with the arguments or environment.

If the module is a package, *file* is `None`, *pathname* is the package path and the last item in the *description* tuple is `PKG_DIRECTORY`.

This function does not handle hierarchical module names (names containing dots). In order to find *P.M*, that is, 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.

`imp.load_module(name, file, pathname, 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 *pathname* is the corresponding file name; these can be `None` and `''`, respectively, when the module is a package or not being loaded from a file. The *description* argument is a tuple, as would be returned by `get_suffixes()`, 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.

`imp.new_module(name)`

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

`imp.lock_held()`

Return `True` if the import lock is currently held, else `False`. On platforms without threads, always return `False`.

On platforms with threads, a thread executing an import holds an internal lock until the import is complete. This lock blocks other threads from doing an import until the original import completes, which in turn prevents other threads from seeing incomplete module objects constructed by the original thread while in the process of completing its import (and the imports, if any, triggered by that).

`imp.acquire_lock()`

Acquire the interpreter's import lock for the current thread. This lock should be used by import hooks to ensure thread-safety when importing modules.

Once a thread has acquired the import lock, the same thread may acquire it again without blocking; the thread must release it once for each time it has acquired it.

On platforms without threads, this function does nothing.

Nouveau dans la version 2.3.

`imp.release_lock()`

Release the interpreter's import lock. On platforms without threads, this function does nothing.

Nouveau dans la version 2.3.

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

`imp.PY_SOURCE`

The module was found as a source file.

`imp.PY_COMPILED`

The module was found as a compiled code object file.

`imp.C_EXTENSION`

The module was found as dynamically loadable shared library.

`imp.PKG_DIRECTORY`

The module was found as a package directory.

`imp.C_BUILTIN`

The module was found as a built-in module.

`imp.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 :

`imp.SEARCH_ERROR`

Unused.

`imp.init_builtin(name)`

Initialize the built-in module called *name* and return its module object along with storing it in `sys.modules`. If the module was already initialized, it will be initialized *again*. Re-initialization involves the copying of the built-in module's `__dict__` from the cached module over the module's entry in `sys.modules`. If there is no built-in module called *name*, `None` is returned.

`imp.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.)

`imp.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*.

`imp.is_frozen(name)`

Return `True` if there is a frozen module (see `init_frozen()`) called *name*, or `False` if there is no such module.

`imp.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.

`imp.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*. Re-initialization involves copying the `__dict__` attribute of the cached instance of the module over the value used in the module cached in `sys.modules`. 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 `initname()` in the shared library is called. The optional *file* argument is ignored. (Note : using shared libraries is highly system dependent, and not all systems support it.)

CPython implementation detail : The import internals identify extension modules by filename, so doing `foo = load_dynamic("foo", "mod.so")` and `bar = load_dynamic("bar", "mod.so")` will result in both `foo` and `bar` referring to the same module, regardless of whether or not `mod.so` exports an `initbar` function. On systems which support them, symlinks can be used to import multiple modules from the same shared library, as each reference to the module will use a different file name.

`imp.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` or `.pyo`) exists, it will be used instead of parsing the given source file.

`class imp.NullImporter(path_string)`

The *NullImporter* type is a **PEP 302** import hook that handles non-directory path strings by failing to find any modules. Calling this type with an existing directory or empty string raises *ImportError*. Otherwise, a *NullImporter* instance is returned.

Python adds instances of this type to `sys.path_importer_cache` for any path entries that are not directories and are not handled by any other path hooks on `sys.path_hooks`. Instances have only one method :

`find_module(fullname[, path])`

This method always returns `None`, indicating that the requested module could not be found.

Nouveau dans la version 2.5.

31.1.1 Exemples

The following function emulates what was the standard import statement up to Python 1.4 (no hierarchical module names). (This *implementation* wouldn't work in that version, since *find_module()* has been extended and *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 module `knee`. The `knee` module can be found in `Demo/imputil/` in the Python source distribution.

31.2 importlib — Convenience wrappers for `__import__()`

Nouveau dans la version 2.7.

This module is a minor subset of what is available in the more full-featured package of the same name from

Python 3.1 that provides a complete implementation of `import`. What is here has been provided to help ease in transitioning from 2.7 to 3.1.

`importlib.import_module(name, package=None)`

Import a module. The *name* argument specifies what module to import in absolute or relative terms (e.g. either `pkg.mod` or `..mod`). If the name is specified in relative terms, then the *package* argument must be specified to the package which is to act as the anchor for resolving the package name (e.g. `import_module('..mod', 'pkg.subpkg')` will import `pkg.mod`). The specified module will be inserted into `sys.modules` and returned.

31.3 `importlib` — Import utilities

Obsolète depuis la version 2.6 : The `importlib` module has been removed in Python 3.

This module provides a very handy and useful mechanism for custom `import` hooks. Compared to the older `ihooks` module, `importlib` takes a dramatically simpler and more straight-forward approach to custom `import` functions.

`class importlib.ImportManager([fs_imp])`

Manage the import process.

`install([namespace])`

Install this ImportManager into the specified namespace.

`uninstall()`

Restore the previous import mechanism.

`add_suffix(suffix, importFunc)`

Undocumented.

`class importlib.Importer`

Base class for replacing standard import functions.

`import_top(name)`

Import a top-level module.

`get_code(parent, modname, fqname)`

Find and retrieve the code for the given module.

parent specifies a parent module to define a context for importing. It may be `None`, indicating no particular context for the search.

modname specifies a single module (not dotted) within the parent.

fqname specifies the fully-qualified module name. This is a (potentially) dotted name from the « root » of the module namespace down to the *modname*.

If there is no parent, then *modname*==*fqname*.

This method should return `None`, or a 3-tuple.

— If the module was not found, then `None` should be returned.

— The first item of the 2- or 3-tuple should be the integer 0 or 1, specifying whether the module that was found is a package or not.

— The second item is the code object for the module (it will be executed within the new module's namespace). This item can also be a fully-loaded module object (e.g. loaded from a shared lib).

— The third item is a dictionary of name/value pairs that will be inserted into new module before the code object is executed. This is provided in case the module's code expects certain values (such as where the module was found). When the second item is a module object, then these names/values will be inserted *after* the module has been loaded/initialized.

`class importlib.BuiltinImporter`

Emulate the import mechanism for built-in and frozen modules. This is a sub-class of the `Importer` class.

```
get_code(parent, modname, fname)
    Undocumented.
```

```
imputil.py_suffix_importer(filename, finfo, fname)
    Undocumented.
```

```
class imputil.DynLoadSuffixImporter([desc])
    Undocumented.
    import_file(filename, finfo, fname)
        Undocumented.
```

31.3.1 Exemples

This is a re-implementation of hierarchical module import.

This code is intended to be read, not executed. However, it does work – all you need to do to enable it is « import knee ».

(The name is a pun on the clunkier predecessor of this module, « ni ».)

```
import sys, imp, __builtin__

# Replacement for __import__()
def import_hook(name, globals=None, locals=None, fromlist=None):
    parent = determine_parent(globals)
    q, tail = find_head_package(parent, name)
    m = load_tail(q, tail)
    if not fromlist:
        return q
    if hasattr(m, "__path__"):
        ensure_fromlist(m, fromlist)
    return m

def determine_parent(globals):
    if not globals or not globals.has_key("__name__"):
        return None
    pname = globals['__name__']
    if globals.has_key("__path__"):
        parent = sys.modules[pname]
        assert globals is parent.__dict__
        return parent
    if '.' in pname:
        i = pname.rfind('.')
        pname = pname[:i]
        parent = sys.modules[pname]
        assert parent.__name__ == pname
        return parent
    return None

def find_head_package(parent, name):
    if '.' in name:
        i = name.find('.')
        head = name[:i]
        tail = name[i+1:]
    else:
```

(suite sur la page suivante)

(suite de la page précédente)

```

        head = name
        tail = ""
    if parent:
        qname = "%s.%s" % (parent.__name__, head)
    else:
        qname = head
    q = import_module(head, qname, parent)
    if q: return q, tail
    if parent:
        qname = head
        parent = None
        q = import_module(head, qname, parent)
        if q: return q, tail
    raise ImportError("No module named " + qname)

def load_tail(q, tail):
    m = q
    while tail:
        i = tail.find('.')
        if i < 0: i = len(tail)
        head, tail = tail[:i], tail[i+1:]
        mname = "%s.%s" % (m.__name__, head)
        m = import_module(head, mname, m)
        if not m:
            raise ImportError("No module named " + mname)
    return m

def ensure_fromlist(m, fromlist, recursive=0):
    for sub in fromlist:
        if sub == "*":
            if not recursive:
                try:
                    all = m.__all__
                except AttributeError:
                    pass
            else:
                ensure_fromlist(m, all, 1)
            continue
        if sub != "*" and not hasattr(m, sub):
            subname = "%s.%s" % (m.__name__, sub)
            submod = import_module(sub, subname, m)
            if not submod:
                raise ImportError("No module named " + subname)

def import_module(partname, fqname, parent):
    try:
        return sys.modules[fqname]
    except KeyError:
        pass
    try:
        fp, pathname, stuff = imp.find_module(partname,
                                                parent and parent.__path__)

```

(suite sur la page suivante)

(suite de la page précédente)

```

except ImportError:
    return None
try:
    m = imp.load_module(fqname, fp, pathname, stuff)
finally:
    if fp: fp.close()
if parent:
    setattr(parent, partname, m)
return m

# Replacement for reload()
def reload_hook(module):
    name = module.__name__
    if '.' not in name:
        return import_module(name, name, None)
    i = name.rfind('.')
    pname = name[:i]
    parent = sys.modules[pname]
    return import_module(name[i+1:], name, parent)

# Save the original hooks
original_import = __builtin__.__import__
original_reload = __builtin__.reload

# Now install our hooks
__builtin__.__import__ = import_hook
__builtin__.reload = reload_hook

```

Also see the `importers` module (which can be found in `Demo/imputil/` in the Python source distribution) for additional examples.

31.4 zipimport — Import modules from Zip archives

Nouveau dans la version 2.3.

This module adds the ability to import Python modules (`*.py`, `*.py[co]`) and packages from ZIP-format archives. It is usually not needed to use the `zipimport` module explicitly; it is automatically used by the built-in `import` mechanism for `sys.path` items that are paths to ZIP archives.

Typically, `sys.path` is a list of directory names as strings. This module also allows an item of `sys.path` to be a string naming a ZIP file archive. The ZIP archive can contain a subdirectory structure to support package imports, and a path within the archive can be specified to only import from a subdirectory. For example, the path `example.zip/lib/` would only import from the `lib/` subdirectory within the archive.

Any files may be present in the ZIP archive, but only files `.py` and `.py[co]` are available for import. ZIP import of dynamic modules (`.pyd`, `.so`) is disallowed. Note that if an archive only contains `.py` files, Python will not attempt to modify the archive by adding the corresponding `.pyc` or `.pyo` file, meaning that if a ZIP archive doesn't contain `.pyc` files, importing may be rather slow.

Using the built-in `reload()` function will fail if called on a module loaded from a ZIP archive; it is unlikely that `reload()` would be needed, since this would imply that the ZIP has been altered during runtime.

ZIP archives with an archive comment are currently not supported.

Voir aussi :

PKZIP Application Note Documentation on the ZIP file format by Phil Katz, the creator of the format and algorithms used.

PEP 273 - Import Modules from Zip Archives Written by James C. Ahlstrom, who also provided an implementation. Python 2.3 follows the specification in PEP 273, but uses an implementation written by Just van Rossum that uses the import hooks described in PEP 302.

PEP 302 - New Import Hooks The PEP to add the import hooks that help this module work.

This module defines an exception :

exception `zipimport.ZipImportError`

Exception raised by `zipimporter` objects. It's a subclass of `ImportError`, so it can be caught as `ImportError`, too.

31.4.1 `zipimporter` Objects

`zipimporter` is the class for importing ZIP files.

class `zipimport.zipimporter(archivepath)`

Create a new `zipimporter` instance. *archivepath* must be a path to a ZIP file, or to a specific path within a ZIP file. For example, an *archivepath* of `foo/bar.zip/lib` will look for modules in the `lib` directory inside the ZIP file `foo/bar.zip` (provided that it exists).

`ZipImportError` is raised if *archivepath* doesn't point to a valid ZIP archive.

`find_module(fullname[, path])`

Search for a module specified by *fullname*. *fullname* must be the fully qualified (dotted) module name. It returns the `zipimporter` instance itself if the module was found, or `None` if it wasn't. The optional *path* argument is ignored—it's there for compatibility with the importer protocol.

`get_code(fullname)`

Return the code object for the specified module. Raise `ZipImportError` if the module couldn't be found.

`get_data(pathname)`

Return the data associated with *pathname*. Raise `IOError` if the file wasn't found.

`get_filename(fullname)`

Return the value `__file__` would be set to if the specified module was imported. Raise `ZipImportError` if the module couldn't be found.

Nouveau dans la version 2.7.

`get_source(fullname)`

Return the source code for the specified module. Raise `ZipImportError` if the module couldn't be found, return `None` if the archive does contain the module, but has no source for it.

`is_package(fullname)`

Return `True` if the module specified by *fullname* is a package. Raise `ZipImportError` if the module couldn't be found.

`load_module(fullname)`

Load the module specified by *fullname*. *fullname* must be the fully qualified (dotted) module name. It returns the imported module, or raises `ZipImportError` if it wasn't found.

`archive`

The file name of the importer's associated ZIP file, without a possible subpath.

`prefix`

The subpath within the ZIP file where modules are searched. This is the empty string for `zipimporter` objects which point to the root of the ZIP file.

The *archive* and *prefix* attributes, when combined with a slash, equal the original *archivepath* argument given to the `zipimporter` constructor.

31.4.2 Examples

Here is an example that imports a module from a ZIP archive - note that the `zipimport` module is not explicitly used.

```
$ unzip -l example.zip
Archive:  example.zip
  Length      Date    Time    Name
-----
      8467   11-26-02  22:30   jwzthreading.py
-----
      8467
              1 file
$ ./python
Python 2.3 (#1, Aug 1 2003, 19:54:32)
>>> import sys
>>> sys.path.insert(0, 'example.zip')  # Add .zip file to front of path
>>> import jwzthreading
>>> jwzthreading.__file__
'example.zip/jwzthreading.py'
```

31.5 pkgutil — Package extension utility

Nouveau dans la version 2.3.

Code source : [Lib/pkgutil.py](#)

This module provides utilities for the import system, in particular package support.

`pkgutil.extend_path(path, name)`

Extend the search path for the modules which comprise a package. Intended use is to place the following code in a package's `__init__.py` :

```
from pkgutil import extend_path
__path__ = extend_path(__path__, __name__)
```

This will add to the package's `__path__` all subdirectories of directories on `sys.path` named after the package. This is useful if one wants to distribute different parts of a single logical package as multiple directories.

It also looks for `*.pkg` files beginning where `*` matches the `name` argument. This feature is similar to `*.pth` files (see the `site` module for more information), except that it doesn't special-case lines starting with `import`. A `*.pkg` file is trusted at face value : apart from checking for duplicates, all entries found in a `*.pkg` file are added to the path, regardless of whether they exist on the filesystem. (This is a feature.)

If the input path is not a list (as is the case for frozen packages) it is returned unchanged. The input path is not modified ; an extended copy is returned. Items are only appended to the copy at the end.

It is assumed that `sys.path` is a sequence. Items of `sys.path` that are not (Unicode or 8-bit) strings referring to existing directories are ignored. Unicode items on `sys.path` that cause errors when used as filenames may cause this function to raise an exception (in line with `os.path.isdir()` behavior).

`class pkgutil.ImpImporter(dirname=None)`

PEP 302 Importer that wraps Python's « classic » import algorithm.

If `dirname` is a string, a **PEP 302** importer is created that searches that directory. If `dirname` is `None`, a **PEP 302** importer is created that searches the current `sys.path`, plus any modules that are frozen or built-in.

Note that `ImpImporter` does not currently support being used by placement on `sys.meta_path`.

`class pkgutil.ImpLoader(fullname, file, filename, etc)`

PEP 302 Loader that wraps Python's « classic » import algorithm.

`pkgutil.find_loader(fullname)`

Find a **PEP 302** « loader » object for *fullname*.

If *fullname* contains dots, path must be the containing package's `__path__`. Returns `None` if the module cannot be found or imported. This function uses `iter_importers()`, and is thus subject to the same limitations regarding platform-specific special import locations such as the Windows registry.

`pkgutil.get_importer(path_item)`

Retrieve a **PEP 302** importer for the given *path_item*.

The returned importer is cached in `sys.path_importer_cache` if it was newly created by a path hook.

If there is no importer, a wrapper around the basic import machinery is returned. This wrapper is never inserted into the importer cache (`None` is inserted instead).

The cache (or part of it) can be cleared manually if a rescan of `sys.path_hooks` is necessary.

`pkgutil.get_loader(module_or_name)`

Get a **PEP 302** « loader » object for *module_or_name*.

If the module or package is accessible via the normal import mechanism, a wrapper around the relevant part of that machinery is returned. Returns `None` if the module cannot be found or imported. If the named module is not already imported, its containing package (if any) is imported, in order to establish the package `__path__`.

This function uses `iter_importers()`, and is thus subject to the same limitations regarding platform-specific special import locations such as the Windows registry.

`pkgutil.iter_importers(fullname="")`

Yield **PEP 302** importers for the given module name.

If *fullname* contains a `“.”`, the importers will be for the package containing *fullname*, otherwise they will be importers for `sys.meta_path`, `sys.path`, and Python's « classic » import machinery, in that order. If the named module is in a package, that package is imported as a side effect of invoking this function.

Non-**PEP 302** mechanisms (e.g. the Windows registry) used by the standard import machinery to find files in alternative locations are partially supported, but are searched *after* `sys.path`. Normally, these locations are searched *before* `sys.path`, preventing `sys.path` entries from shadowing them.

For this to cause a visible difference in behaviour, there must be a module or package name that is accessible via both `sys.path` and one of the non-**PEP 302** file system mechanisms. In this case, the emulation will find the former version, while the builtin import mechanism will find the latter.

Items of the following types can be affected by this discrepancy : `imp.C_EXTENSION`, `imp.PY_SOURCE`, `imp.PY_COMPILED`, `imp.PKG_DIRECTORY`.

`pkgutil.iter_modules(path=None, prefix="")`

Yields (`module_loader`, `name`, `ispkg`) for all submodules on *path*, or, if *path* is `None`, all top-level modules on `sys.path`.

path should be either `None` or a list of paths to look for modules in.

prefix is a string to output on the front of every module name on output.

`pkgutil.walk_packages(path=None, prefix="", onerror=None)`

Yields (`module_loader`, `name`, `ispkg`) for all modules recursively on *path*, or, if *path* is `None`, all accessible modules.

path should be either `None` or a list of paths to look for modules in.

prefix is a string to output on the front of every module name on output.

Note that this function must import all *packages* (not all modules!) on the given *path*, in order to access the `__path__` attribute to find submodules.

onerror is a function which gets called with one argument (the name of the package which was being imported) if any exception occurs while trying to import a package. If no *onerror* function is supplied, *ImportErrors* are caught and ignored, while all other exceptions are propagated, terminating the search.

Exemples :

```
# list all modules python can access
walk_packages()

# list all submodules of ctypes
walk_packages(ctypes.__path__, ctypes.__name__ + '.')
```

`pkgutil.get_data(package, resource)`

Get a resource from a package.

This is a wrapper for the [PEP 302](#) loader *get_data()* API. The *package* argument should be the name of a package, in standard module format (`foo.bar`). The *resource* argument should be in the form of a relative filename, using `/` as the path separator. The parent directory name `..` is not allowed, and nor is a rooted name (starting with a `/`).

The function returns a binary string that is the contents of the specified resource.

For packages located in the filesystem, which have already been imported, this is the rough equivalent of :

```
d = os.path.dirname(sys.modules[package].__file__)
data = open(os.path.join(d, resource), 'rb').read()
```

If the package cannot be located or loaded, or it uses a [PEP 302](#) loader which does not support *get_data()*, then `None` is returned.

Nouveau dans la version 2.6.

31.6 modulefinder — Identifie les modules utilisés par un script

Nouveau dans la version 2.3.

Code source : [Lib/modulefinder.py](#)

Ce module fournit une classe *ModuleFinder* qui peut être utilisée pour déterminer la liste des modules importés par un script. `modulefinder.py` peut aussi être utilisé en tant que script, en passant le nom du fichier Python en argument, ce qui affichera un rapport sur les modules importés.

`modulefinder.AddPackagePath(pkg_name, path)`

Enregistre que le paquet *pkg_name* peut être trouvé au chemin *path* spécifié.

`modulefinder.ReplacePackage(oldname, newname)`

Allows specifying that the module named *oldname* is in fact the package named *newname*. The most common usage would be to handle how the `_xmlplus` package replaces the `xml` package.

`class modulefinder.ModuleFinder([path=None, debug=0, excludes=[], replace_paths=[]])`

This class provides *run_script()* and *report()* methods to determine the set of modules imported by a script. *path* can be a list of directories to search for modules ; if not specified, `sys.path` is used. *debug* sets the debugging level; higher values make the class print debugging messages about what it's doing. *excludes* is a list of module names to exclude from the analysis. *replace_paths* is a list of (oldpath, newpath) tuples that will be replaced in module paths.

`report()`

Affiche un rapport sur la sortie standard qui liste les modules importés par le script et leurs chemins, ainsi que les modules manquants ou qui n'ont pas été trouvés.

`run_script(pathname)`

Analyse le contenu du fichier *pathname*, qui doit contenir du code Python.

`modules`

Un dictionnaire de correspondance entre nom de modules et modules. Voir *Exemples d'utilisation de la classe ModuleFinder*.

31.6.1 Exemples d'utilisation de la classe ModuleFinder

Le script qui sera analysé (*bacon.py*) :

```
import re, itertools

try:
    import baconhameggs
except ImportError:
    pass

try:
    import guido.python.ham
except ImportError:
    pass
```

Le script qui va afficher le rapport de *bacon.py* :

```
from modulefinder import ModuleFinder

finder = ModuleFinder()
finder.run_script('bacon.py')

print 'Loaded modules:'
for name, mod in finder.modules.iteritems():
    print '%s: ' % name,
    print ','.join(mod.globalnames.keys()[:3])

print '-'*50
print 'Modules not imported:'
print '\n'.join(finder.badmodules.iterkeys())
```

Exemple de sortie (peut varier en fonction de l'architecture) :

```
Loaded modules:
_types:
copy_reg:  _inverted_registry, _slotnames, __all__
sre_compile:  isstring, _sre, _optimize_unicode
_sre:
sre_constants:  REPEAT_ONE, makedict, AT_END_LINE
sys:
re:  __module__, finditer, _expand
itertools:
__main__:  re, itertools, baconhameggs
sre_parse:  __getslice__, _PATTERNENDERS, SRE_FLAG_UNICODE
array:
types:  __module__, IntType, TypeType
-----
```

(suite sur la page suivante)

```
Modules not imported:  
guido.python.ham  
baconhameggs
```

31.7 runpy — Locating and executing Python modules

Nouveau dans la version 2.5.

Code source : [Lib/runpy.py](#)

The *runpy* module is used to locate and run Python modules without importing them first. Its main use is to implement the `-m` command line switch that allows scripts to be located using the Python module namespace rather than the filesystem.

The *runpy* module provides two functions :

runpy.run_module(mod_name, init_globals=None, run_name=None, alter_sys=False)

Execute the code of the specified module and return the resulting module globals dictionary. The module's code is first located using the standard import mechanism (refer to [PEP 302](#) for details) and then executed in a fresh module namespace.

If the supplied module name refers to a package rather than a normal module, then that package is imported and the `__main__` submodule within that package is then executed and the resulting module globals dictionary returned.

The optional dictionary argument *init_globals* may be used to pre-populate the module's globals dictionary before the code is executed. The supplied dictionary will not be modified. If any of the special global variables below are defined in the supplied dictionary, those definitions are overridden by *run_module()*.

The special global variables `__name__`, `__file__`, `__loader__` and `__package__` are set in the globals dictionary before the module code is executed (Note that this is a minimal set of variables - other variables may be set implicitly as an interpreter implementation detail).

`__name__` is set to *run_name* if this optional argument is not *None*, to *mod_name* + `'.__main__'` if the named module is a package and to the *mod_name* argument otherwise.

`__file__` is set to the name provided by the module loader. If the loader does not make filename information available, this variable is set to *None*.

`__loader__` is set to the [PEP 302](#) module loader used to retrieve the code for the module (This loader may be a wrapper around the standard import mechanism).

`__package__` is set to *mod_name* if the named module is a package and to *mod_name.rpartition('.')[0]* otherwise.

If the argument *alter_sys* is supplied and evaluates to *True*, then `sys.argv[0]` is updated with the value of `__file__` and `sys.modules[__name__]` is updated with a temporary module object for the module being executed. Both `sys.argv[0]` and `sys.modules[__name__]` are restored to their original values before the function returns.

Note that this manipulation of *sys* is not thread-safe. Other threads may see the partially initialised module, as well as the altered list of arguments. It is recommended that the *sys* module be left alone when invoking this function from threaded code.

Voir aussi :

The `-m` option offering equivalent functionality from the command line.

Modifié dans la version 2.7 : Added ability to execute packages by looking for a `__main__` submodule

runpy.run_path(file_path, init_globals=None, run_name=None)

Execute the code at the named filesystem location and return the resulting module globals dictionary.

As with a script name supplied to the CPython command line, the supplied path may refer to a Python source file, a compiled bytecode file or a valid `sys.path` entry containing a `__main__` module (e.g. a zipfile containing a top-level `__main__.py` file).

For a simple script, the specified code is simply executed in a fresh module namespace. For a valid `sys.path` entry (typically a zipfile or directory), the entry is first added to the beginning of `sys.path`. The function then looks for and executes a `__main__` module using the updated path. Note that there is no special protection against invoking an existing `__main__` entry located elsewhere on `sys.path` if there is no such module at the specified location.

The optional dictionary argument `init_globals` may be used to pre-populate the module's globals dictionary before the code is executed. The supplied dictionary will not be modified. If any of the special global variables below are defined in the supplied dictionary, those definitions are overridden by `run_path()`.

The special global variables `__name__`, `__file__`, `__loader__` and `__package__` are set in the globals dictionary before the module code is executed (Note that this is a minimal set of variables - other variables may be set implicitly as an interpreter implementation detail).

`__name__` is set to `run_name` if this optional argument is not `None` and to `'<run_path>'` otherwise.

`__file__` is set to the name provided by the module loader. If the loader does not make filename information available, this variable is set to `None`. For a simple script, this will be set to `file_path`.

`__loader__` is set to the **PEP 302** module loader used to retrieve the code for the module (This loader may be a wrapper around the standard import mechanism). For a simple script, this will be set to `None`.

`__package__` is set to `__name__.rpartition('.')[0]`.

A number of alterations are also made to the `sys` module. Firstly, `sys.path` may be altered as described above. `sys.argv[0]` is updated with the value of `file_path` and `sys.modules[__name__]` is updated with a temporary module object for the module being executed. All modifications to items in `sys` are reverted before the function returns.

Note that, unlike `run_module()`, the alterations made to `sys` are not optional in this function as these adjustments are essential to allowing the execution of `sys.path` entries. As the thread-safety limitations still apply, use of this function in threaded code should be either serialised with the import lock or delegated to a separate process.

Voir aussi :

using-on-interface-options for equivalent functionality on the command line (`python path/to/script`).
Nouveau dans la version 2.7.

Voir aussi :

PEP 338 – Exécuter des modules en tant que scripts PEP written and implemented by Nick Coghlan.

PEP 366 – Main module explicit relative imports PEP written and implemented by Nick Coghlan.

using-on-general - CPython command line details

Services du Langage Python

Python fournit quelques modules pour vous aider à travailler avec le langage Python lui-même. Ces modules gèrent entre autres l'analyse lexicale, l'analyse syntaxique, et le désassemblage de *bytecode*.

Ces modules sont :

32.1 parser — Access Python parse trees

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.

Note : From Python 2.5 onward, it's much more convenient to cut in at the Abstract Syntax Tree (AST) generation and compilation stage, using the *ast* module.

The *parser* module exports the names documented here also with « st » replaced by « ast »; this is a legacy from the time when there was no other AST and has nothing to do with the AST found in Python 2.5. This is also the reason for the functions' keyword arguments being called *ast*, not *st*. The « ast » functions have been removed in Python 3.

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 reference-index. 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 ST objects created by this module are the actual output from the internal parser when created by the *expr()* or *suite()* functions, described below. The ST objects created by *sequence2st()* 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 `st2list()` or `st2tuple()` 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 ST 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 ST objects.

The `parser` module defines functions for a few distinct purposes. The most important purposes are to create ST objects and to convert ST 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 ST object.

Voir aussi :

Module `symbol` Useful constants representing internal nodes of the parse tree.

Module `token` Useful constants representing leaf nodes of the parse tree and functions for testing node values.

32.1.1 Creating ST Objects

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

`parser.expr(source)`

The `expr()` function parses the parameter `source` as if it were an input to `compile(source, 'file.py', 'eval')`. If the parse succeeds, an ST object is created to hold the internal parse tree representation, otherwise an appropriate exception is raised.

`parser.suite(source)`

The `suite()` function parses the parameter `source` as if it were an input to `compile(source, 'file.py', 'exec')`. If the parse succeeds, an ST object is created to hold the internal parse tree representation, otherwise an appropriate exception is raised.

`parser.sequence2st(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 ST object is created from the internal representation and returned to the caller. If there is a problem creating the internal representation, or if the tree cannot be

validated, a *ParserError* exception is raised. An ST object created this way should not be assumed to compile correctly; normal exceptions raised by compilation may still be initiated when the ST object is passed to *compilest()*. 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.

`parser.tuple2st(sequence)`

This is the same function as *sequence2st()*. This entry point is maintained for backward compatibility.

32.1.2 Converting ST Objects

ST 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.

`parser.st2list(ast[, line_info])`

This function accepts an ST object from the caller in *ast* and returns a Python list representing the equivalent 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, *st2tuple()* 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.

`parser.st2tuple(ast[, line_info])`

This function accepts an ST object from the caller in *ast* and returns a Python tuple representing the equivalent parse tree. Other than returning a tuple instead of a list, this function is identical to *st2list()*.

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.

`parser.compilest(ast, filename='<syntax-tree>')`

The Python byte compiler can be invoked on an ST 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 ST object.

Compiling an ST 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.

32.1.3 Queries on ST Objects

Two functions are provided which allow an application to determine if an ST was created as an expression or a suite. Neither of these functions can be used to determine if an ST was created from source code via *expr()* or *suite()* or from a parse tree via *sequence2st()*.

`parser.isexpr(ast)`

When *ast* represents an 'eval' form, this function returns true, otherwise it returns false. 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 `compilest()` cannot be queried like this either, and are identical to those created by the built-in `compile()` function.

`parser.issuite(ast)`

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

32.1.4 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.

exception `parser.ParserError`

Exception raised when a failure occurs within the parser module. This is generally produced for validation failures rather than the built-in `SyntaxError` raised 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 `sequence2st()` and an explanatory string. Calls to `sequence2st()` 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 `compilest()`, `expr()`, and `suite()` may raise exceptions which are normally raised 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.

32.1.5 ST Objects

Ordered and equality comparisons are supported between ST objects. Pickling of ST objects (using the `pickle` module) is also supported.

`parser.STType`

The type of the objects returned by `expr()`, `suite()` and `sequence2st()`.

ST objects have the following methods :

`ST.compile([filename])`

Same as `compilest(st, filename)`.

`ST.isexpr()`

Same as `isexpr(st)`.

`ST.issuite()`

Same as `issuite(st)`.

`ST.tolist([line_info])`

Same as `st2list(st, line_info)`.

`ST.totuple([line_info])`

Same as `st2tuple(st, line_info)`.

32.1.6 Example : 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 equivalent to the code

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

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

```
>>> import parser
>>> st = parser.expr('a + 5')
>>> code = st.compile('file.py')
>>> a = 5
>>> eval(code)
10
```

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

```
import parser

def load_suite(source_string):
    st = parser.suite(source_string)
    return st, st.compile()

def load_expression(source_string):
    st = parser.expr(source_string)
    return st, st.compile()
```

32.2 ast — Arbres Syntaxiques Abstraits

Nouveau dans la version 2.5 : The low-level `_ast` module containing only the node classes.

Nouveau dans la version 2.6 : The high-level `ast` module containing all helpers.

Code source : [Lib/ast.py](#)

Le module `ast` permet aux applications Python de traiter la grammaire abstraite de l'arbre syntaxique Python. La grammaire abstraite Python elle-même est susceptible d'être modifiée à chaque nouvelle version de Python ; ce module permet de trouver à quoi la grammaire actuelle ressemble.

Un arbre syntaxique abstrait peut être généré en passant l'option `ast.PyCF_ONLY_AST` à la fonction native `compile()`, ou en utilisant la fonction de facilité `parse()` fournie par le module. Le résultat est un arbre composé d'objets dont les classes héritent toutes de `ast.AST`. Un arbre syntaxique abstrait peut être compilé en code objet Python en utilisant la fonction native `compile()`.

32.2.1 Les classes nœud

class `ast.AST`

C'est la classe de base de toute classe nœud de l'AST. Les classes nœud courantes sont dérivées du fichier `Parser/Python.asdl`, qui est reproduit *ci-dessous*. Ils sont définis dans le module `C_ast` et ré-exportés dans le module `ast`.

Il y a une classe définie pour chacun des symboles présents à gauche dans la grammaire abstraite (par exemple, `ast.stmt` ou `ast.expr`). En plus de cela, il y a une classe définie pour chacun des constructeurs présentés à droite ; ces classes héritent des classes situées à gauche dans l'arbre. Par exemple, la classe

`ast.BinOp` hérite de la classe `ast.expr`. Pour les règles de réécriture avec alternatives (comme *sums*), la partie gauche est abstraite : seules les instances des constructeurs spécifiques aux nœuds sont créés.

`_fields`

Chaque classe concrète possède un attribut `_fields` donnant les noms de tous les nœuds enfants. Chaque instance d'une classe concrète possède un attribut pour chaque nœud enfant, du type défini par la grammaire. Par exemple, les instances `ast.BinOp` possèdent un attribut `left` de type `ast.expr`.

Si ces attributs sont marqués comme optionnels dans la grammaire (en utilisant un point d'interrogation ?), la valeur peut être `None`. Si les attributs peuvent avoir zéro ou plus valeurs (marqués avec un astérisque *), les valeurs sont représentées par des listes Python. Tous les attributs possibles doivent être présents et avoir une valeur valide pour compiler un AST avec `compile()`.

`lineno`

`col_offset`

Les instances des sous-classes `ast.expr` et `ast.stmt` possèdent les attributs `lineno` et `col_offset`. L'attribut `lineno` est le numéro de ligne dans le code source (indexé à partir de 1 tel que la première ligne est la ligne 1) et l'attribut `col_offset` qui représente le décalage UTF-8 en byte du premier jeton qui a généré le nœud. Le décalage UTF-8 est enregistré parce que l'analyseur syntaxique utilise l'UTF-8 en interne.

Le constructeur d'une classe `ast.T` analyse ses arguments comme suit :

- S'il y a des arguments positionnels, il doit y avoir autant de termes dans `T._fields` ; ils sont assignés comme attributs portant ces noms.
 - S'il y a des arguments nommés, ils définissent les attributs de mêmes noms avec les valeurs données.
- Par exemple, pour créer et peupler un nœud `ast.UnaryOp`, on peut utiliser :

```
node = ast.UnaryOp()
node.op = ast.USub()
node.operand = ast.Num()
node.operand.n = 5
node.operand.lineno = 0
node.operand.col_offset = 0
node.lineno = 0
node.col_offset = 0
```

ou, plus compact :

```
node = ast.UnaryOp(ast.USub(), ast.Num(5, lineno=0, col_offset=0),
                  lineno=0, col_offset=0)
```

Nouveau dans la version 2.6 : The constructor as explained above was added. In Python 2.5 nodes had to be created by calling the class constructor without arguments and setting the attributes afterwards.

32.2.2 Grammaire abstraite

The module defines a string constant `__version__` which is the decimal Subversion revision number of the file shown below.

La grammaire abstraite est actuellement définie comme suit :

```
-- ASDL's five builtin types are identifier, int, string, object, bool

module Python version "$Revision$"
{
    mod = Module(stmt* body)
        | Interactive(stmt* body)
        | Expression(expr body)
```

(suite sur la page suivante)

(suite de la page précédente)

```

-- not really an actual node but useful in Jython's typesystem.
| Suite(stmt* body)

stmt = FunctionDef(identifier name, arguments args,
                    stmt* body, expr* decorator_list)
| ClassDef(identifier name, expr* bases, stmt* body, expr* decorator_list)
| Return(expr? value)

| Delete(expr* targets)
| Assign(expr* targets, expr value)
| AugAssign(expr target, operator op, expr value)

-- not sure if bool is allowed, can always use int
| Print(expr? dest, expr* values, bool nl)

-- use 'orelse' because else is a keyword in target languages
| For(expr target, expr iter, stmt* body, stmt* orelse)
| While(expr test, stmt* body, stmt* orelse)
| If(expr test, stmt* body, stmt* orelse)
| With(expr context_expr, expr? optional_vars, stmt* body)

-- 'type' is a bad name
| Raise(expr? type, expr? inst, expr? tback)
| TryExcept(stmt* body, excepthandler* handlers, stmt* orelse)
| TryFinally(stmt* body, stmt* finalbody)
| Assert(expr test, expr? msg)

| Import(alias* names)
| ImportFrom(identifier? module, alias* names, int? level)

-- Doesn't capture requirement that locals must be
-- defined if globals is
-- still supports use as a function!
| Exec(expr body, expr? globals, expr? locals)

| Global(identifier* names)
| Expr(expr value)
| Pass | Break | Continue

-- XXX Jython will be different
-- col_offset is the byte offset in the utf8 string the parser uses
attributes (int lineno, int col_offset)

-- BoolOp() can use left & right?
expr = BoolOp(boolop op, expr* values)
| BinOp(expr left, operator op, expr right)
| UnaryOp(unaryop op, expr operand)
| Lambda(arguments args, expr body)
| IfExp(expr test, expr body, expr orelse)
| Dict(expr* keys, expr* values)
| Set(expr* elts)

```

(suite sur la page suivante)

(suite de la page précédente)

```

    | ListComp(expr elt, comprehension* generators)
    | SetComp(expr elt, comprehension* generators)
    | DictComp(expr key, expr value, comprehension* generators)
    | GeneratorExp(expr elt, comprehension* generators)
-- the grammar constrains where yield expressions can occur
    | Yield(expr? value)
-- need sequences for compare to distinguish between
-- x < 4 < 3 and (x < 4) < 3
    | Compare(expr left, cmpop* ops, expr* comparators)
    | Call(expr func, expr* args, keyword* keywords,
           expr? starargs, expr? kwargs)
    | Repr(expr value)
    | Num(object n) -- a number as a PyObject.
    | Str(string s) -- need to specify raw, unicode, etc?
-- other literals? bools?

-- the following expression can appear in assignment context
    | Attribute(expr value, identifier attr, expr_context ctx)
    | Subscript(expr value, slice slice, expr_context ctx)
    | Name(identifier id, expr_context ctx)
    | List(expr* elts, expr_context ctx)
    | Tuple(expr* elts, expr_context ctx)

    -- col_offset is the byte offset in the utf8 string the parser uses
    attributes (int lineno, int col_offset)

expr_context = Load | Store | Del | AugLoad | AugStore | Param

slice = Ellipsis | Slice(expr? lower, expr? upper, expr? step)
       | ExtSlice(slice* dims)
       | Index(expr value)

boolop = And | Or

operator = Add | Sub | Mult | Div | Mod | Pow | LShift
          | RShift | BitOr | BitXor | BitAnd | FloorDiv

unaryop = Invert | Not | UAdd | USub

cmpop = Eq | NotEq | Lt | LtE | Gt | GtE | Is | IsNot | In | NotIn

comprehension = (expr target, expr iter, expr* ifs)

-- not sure what to call the first argument for raise and except
excepthandler = ExceptHandler(expr? type, expr? name, stmt* body)
               attributes (int lineno, int col_offset)

arguments = (expr* args, identifier? vararg,
             identifier? kwarg, expr* defaults)

-- keyword arguments supplied to call
keyword = (identifier arg, expr value)

```

(suite sur la page suivante)

(suite de la page précédente)

```

-- import name with optional 'as' alias.
alias = (identifiant name, identifiant? asname)
}

```

32.2.3 Outils du module `ast`

Nouveau dans la version 2.6.

Apart from the node classes, `ast` module defines these utility functions and classes for traversing abstract syntax trees :

`ast.parse(source, filename='<unknown>', mode='exec')`

Analyse le code source en un nœud AST. Équivalent à `compile(source, filename, mode, ast.PyCF_ONLY_AST)`.

`ast.literal_eval(node_or_string)`

Safely evaluate an expression node or a Unicode or *Latin-1* encoded string containing a Python literal or container display. The string or node provided may only consist of the following Python literal structures : strings, numbers, tuples, lists, dicts, booleans, and `None`.

Cela peut être utilisé pour évaluer de manière sûre la chaîne de caractères contenant des valeurs Python de sources non fiable sans avoir besoin d'analyser les valeurs elles-mêmes. Cette fonction n'est pas capable d'évaluer des expressions complexes arbitraires, par exemple impliquant des opérateurs ou de l'indexation.

`ast.get_docstring(node, clean=True)`

Return the docstring of the given *node* (which must be a `FunctionDef`, `ClassDef` or `Module` node), or `None` if it has no docstring. If *clean* is true, clean up the docstring's indentation with `inspect.cleandoc()`.

`ast.fix_missing_locations(node)`

Lorsque l'on compile un arbre avec `compile()`, le compilateur attend les attributs `lineno` et `col_offset` pour tous les nœuds qui les supportent. Il est fastidieux de les remplir pour les nœuds générés, cette fonction utilitaire ajoute ces attributs de manière récursive là où ils ne sont pas déjà définis, en les définissant comme les valeurs du nœud parent. Elle fonctionne récursivement en démarrant de *node*.

`ast.increment_lineno(node, n=1)`

Incrémente de *n* le numéro de ligne de chaque nœud dans l'arbre en commençant par le nœud *node*. C'est utile pour « déplacer du code » à un endroit différent dans un fichier.

`ast.copy_location(new_node, old_node)`

Copie le code source (`lineno` et `col_offset`) de l'ancien nœud *old_node* vers le nouveau nœud *new_node* si possible, et renvoie *new_node*.

`ast.iter_fields(node)`

Produit un n-uplet de (`fieldname`, `value`) pour chaque champ de `node._fields` qui est présent dans *node*.

`ast.iter_child_nodes(node)`

Produit tous les nœuds enfants directs de *node*, c'est à dire, tous les champs qui sont des nœuds et tous les éléments des champs qui sont des listes de nœuds.

`ast.walk(node)`

Produit récursivement tous les nœuds enfants dans l'arbre en commençant par *node* (*node* lui-même est inclus), sans ordre spécifique. C'est utile lorsque l'on souhaite modifier les nœuds sur place sans prêter attention au contexte.

class ast.NodeVisitor

Classe de base pour un visiteur de nœud, qui parcourt l'arbre syntaxique abstrait et appelle une fonction de visite pour chacun des nœuds trouvés. Cette fonction peut renvoyer une valeur qui est transmise par la méthode `visit()`.

Cette classe est faite pour être dérivée, en ajoutant des méthodes de visite à la sous-classe.

visit(*node*)

Visite un nœud. L'implémentation par défaut appelle la méthode `self.visit_classname` où *classname* représente le nom de la classe du nœud, ou `generic_visit()` si cette méthode n'existe pas.

generic_visit(*node*)

Le visiteur appelle la méthode `visit()` de tous les enfants du nœud.

Notons que les nœuds enfants qui possèdent une méthode de visite spéciale ne seront pas visités à moins que le visiteur n'appelle la méthode `generic_visit()` ou ne les visite lui-même.

N'utilisez pas `NodeVisitor` si vous souhaitez appliquer des changements sur les nœuds lors du parcours.

Pour cela, un visiteur spécial existe (`NodeTransformer`) qui permet les modifications.

class ast.NodeTransformer

Une sous-classe `NodeVisitor` qui traverse l'arbre syntaxique abstrait et permet les modifications des nœuds.

Le `NodeTransformer` traverse l'AST et utilise la valeur renvoyée par les méthodes du visiteur pour remplacer ou supprimer l'ancien nœud. Si la valeur renvoyée par la méthode du visiteur est `None`, le nœud est supprimé de sa position, sinon il est remplacé par la valeur de retour. La valeur de retour peut être le nœud original et dans ce cas, il n'y a pas de remplacement.

Voici un exemple du *transformer* qui réécrit les occurrences du dictionnaire (`foo`) en `data['foo']` :

```
class RewriteName(NodeTransformer):

    def visit_Name(self, node):
        return copy_location(Subscript(
            value=Name(id='data', ctx=Load()),
            slice=Index(value=Str(s=node.id)),
            ctx=node.ctx
        ), node)
```

Gardez en tête que si un nœud sur lequel vous travaillez a des nœuds enfants, vous devez transformer également ces nœuds enfant vous-même ou appeler d'abord la méthode `generic_visit()` sur le nœud.

Pour les nœuds qui font partie d'une collection d'instructions (cela s'applique à tous les nœuds instruction), le visiteur peut aussi renvoyer la liste des nœuds plutôt qu'un seul nœud.

Utilisation typique du *transformer* :

```
node = YourTransformer().visit(node)
```

ast.dump(*node*, *annotate_fields=True*, *include_attributes=False*)

Renvoie un *dump* formaté de l'arbre dans *node*. C'est principalement utile à des fins de débogage. La chaîne de caractères renvoyée présente les noms et valeurs des champs. Cela rend le code impossible à évaluer, si l'on souhaite évaluer ce code, l'option `annotate_fields` doit être définie comme `False`. Les attributs comme les numéros de ligne et les décalages de colonne ne sont pas récupérés par défaut. Si l'on souhaite les récupérer, l'option `include_attributes` peut être définie comme `True`.

32.3 symtable — Access to the compiler's symbol tables

Code source : [Lib/symtable.py](#)

Symbol tables are generated by the compiler from AST just before bytecode is generated. The symbol table is responsible for calculating the scope of every identifier in the code. *symtable* provides an interface to examine these tables.

32.3.1 Generating Symbol Tables

`symtable.symtable(code, filename, compile_type)`

Return the toplevel *SymbolTable* for the Python source *code*. *filename* is the name of the file containing the code. *compile_type* is like the *mode* argument to *compile()*.

32.3.2 Examining Symbol Tables

`class symtable.SymbolTable`

A namespace table for a block. The constructor is not public.

`get_type()`

Return the type of the symbol table. Possible values are 'class', 'module', and 'function'.

`get_id()`

Return the table's identifier.

`get_name()`

Return the table's name. This is the name of the class if the table is for a class, the name of the function if the table is for a function, or 'top' if the table is global (*get_type()* returns 'module').

`get_lineno()`

Return the number of the first line in the block this table represents.

`is_optimized()`

Return True if the locals in this table can be optimized.

`is_nested()`

Return True if the block is a nested class or function.

`has_children()`

Return True if the block has nested namespaces within it. These can be obtained with *get_children()*.

`has_exec()`

Return True if the block uses `exec`.

`has_import_star()`

Return True if the block uses a starred from-import.

`get_identifiers()`

Return a list of names of symbols in this table.

`lookup(name)`

Lookup *name* in the table and return a *Symbol* instance.

`get_symbols()`

Return a list of *Symbol* instances for names in the table.

`get_children()`

Return a list of the nested symbol tables.

`class symtable.Function`

A namespace for a function or method. This class inherits *SymbolTable*.

`get_parameters()`

Return a tuple containing names of parameters to this function.

`get_locals()`

Return a tuple containing names of locals in this function.

`get_globals()`

Return a tuple containing names of globals in this function.

`get_frees()`
Return a tuple containing names of free variables in this function.

`class symtable.Class`
A namespace of a class. This class inherits *SymbolTable*.

`get_methods()`
Return a tuple containing the names of methods declared in the class.

`class symtable.Symbol`
An entry in a *SymbolTable* corresponding to an identifier in the source. The constructor is not public.

`get_name()`
Return the symbol's name.

`is_referenced()`
Return `True` if the symbol is used in its block.

`is_imported()`
Return `True` if the symbol is created from an import statement.

`is_parameter()`
Return `True` if the symbol is a parameter.

`is_global()`
Return `True` if the symbol is global.

`is_declared_global()`
Return `True` if the symbol is declared global with a global statement.

`is_local()`
Return `True` if the symbol is local to its block.

`is_free()`
Return `True` if the symbol is referenced in its block, but not assigned to.

`is_assigned()`
Return `True` if the symbol is assigned to in its block.

`is_namespace()`
Return `True` if name binding introduces new namespace.
If the name is used as the target of a function or class statement, this will be true.
Par exemple :

```
>>> table = symtable.symtable("def some_func(): pass", "string", "exec")
>>> table.lookup("some_func").is_namespace()
True
```

Note that a single name can be bound to multiple objects. If the result is `True`, the name may also be bound to other objects, like an int or list, that does not introduce a new namespace.

`get_namespaces()`
Return a list of namespaces bound to this name.

`get_namespace()`
Return the namespace bound to this name. If more than one namespace is bound, a *ValueError* is raised.

32.4 symbol — Constantes utilisées dans les Arbres Syntaxiques

Code source : [Lib/symbol.py](#)

Ce module fournit des constantes représentant les valeurs numériques des nœuds internes de l'analyseur. Contrairement à la plupart des constantes en Python, celles-ci utilisent des noms en minuscules. Référez-vous au fichier `Grammar/Grammar` dans la distribution de Python pour les définitions de ces noms dans le

contexte de la grammaire du langage. La valeur numérique correspondant au nom peut changer d'une version de Python à l'autre.

Ce module fournit aussi ces objets :

`symbol.sym_name`

Dictionnaire faisant correspondre les valeurs numériques des constantes définies dans ce module à leurs noms, permettant de générer une représentation plus humaine des arbres syntaxiques.

32.5 token — Constantes utilisées avec les arbres d'analyse Python (*parse trees*)

Code source : [Lib/token.py](#)

Ce module fournit des constantes qui représentent les valeurs numériques des nœuds enfants du *parse tree* (les jetons « terminaux »). Voir le fichier `Grammar/Grammar` dans la distribution Python pour la définitions des noms dans le contexte de la grammaire. Les valeurs numériques correspondant aux noms sont susceptibles de changer entre deux versions de Python.

Le module fournit également une correspondance entre les codes numériques et les noms et certaines fonctions. Les fonctions reflètent les définitions des fichiers d'en-tête C de Python.

`token.tok_name`

Dictionnaire faisant correspondre les valeurs numériques des constantes définies dans ce module à leurs noms, permettant de générer une représentation plus humaine des arbres syntaxiques.

`token.ISTERMINAL(x)`

Renvoie `True` pour les valeurs des jetons terminaux.

`token.ISNONTERMINAL(x)`

Renvoie `True` pour les valeurs des jetons non terminaux.

`token.ISEOF(x)`

Renvoie `True` si `x` est le marqueur indiquant la fin de la source.

Les constantes associées aux jetons sont :

`token.ENDMARKER`

`token.NAME`

`token.NUMBER`

`token.STRING`

`token.NEWLINE`

`token.INDENT`

`token.DEDENT`

`token.LPAR`

`token.RPAR`

`token.LSQB`

`token.RSQB`

`token.COLON`

`token.COMMA`

`token.SEMI`

`token.PLUS`

`token.MINUS`

`token.STAR`

`token.SLASH`

`token.VBAR`

```
token.AMPER
token.LESS
token.GREATER
token.EQUAL
token.DOT
token.PERCENT
token.BACKQUOTE
token.LBRACE
token.RBRACE
token.EEQUAL
token.NOTEQUAL
token.LESSEQUAL
token.GREATEREQUAL
token.TILDE
token.CIRCUMFLEX
token.LEFTSHIFT
token.RIGHTSHIFT
token.DOUBLESTAR
token.PLUSEQUAL
token.MINEQUAL
token.STAREQUAL
token.SLASHEQUAL
token.PERCENTEQUAL
token.AMPEREQUAL
token.VBAREQUAL
token.CIRCUMFLEXEQUAL
token.LEFTSHIFTEQUAL
token.RIGHTSHIFTEQUAL
token.DOUBLESTAREQUAL
token.DOUBLES LASH
token.DOUBLES LASH EQUAL
token.AT
token.OP
token.ERRORTOKEN
token.N_TOKENS
token.NT_OFFSET
```

Voir aussi :

Module *parser* The second example for the *parser* module shows how to use the *symbol* module.

32.6 keyword — Tester si des chaînes sont des mot-clés Python

Code source : [Lib/keyword.py](#)

Ce module permet à un programme Python de déterminer si une chaîne représente un mot-clé.

keyword.iskeyword(*s*)

Renvoie vrai si *s* est un mot-clé Python.

keyword.kwlist

Séquence contenant tous les mots-clés définis par l'interpréteur. Si certains mots-clés sont définis pour être actifs seulement si des instructions `__future__` particulières sont effectives, ils seront tout de même inclus.

32.7 tokenize — Analyseur lexical de Python

Code source : [Lib/tokenize.py](#)

Le module `tokenize` fournit un analyseur lexical pour Python, implémenté en Python. L'analyseur de ce module renvoie les commentaires sous forme de *token*, ce qui le rend intéressant pour implémenter des *pretty-printers*, typiquement pour faire de la coloration syntaxique.

To simplify token stream handling, all operators and delimiters tokens are returned using the generic *token.OP* token type. The exact type can be determined by checking the second field (containing the actual token string matched) of the tuple returned from `tokenize.generate_tokens()` for the character sequence that identifies a specific operator token.

Le point d'entrée principal est un *générateur* :

`tokenize.generate_tokens(readline)`

The `generate_tokens()` generator requires one argument, *readline*, which must be a callable object which provides the same interface as the `readline()` method of built-in file objects (see section *Objets fichiers*). Each call to the function should return one line of input as a string. Alternately, *readline* may be a callable object that signals completion by raising *StopIteration*.

The generator produces 5-tuples with these members : the token type; the token string; a 2-tuple (*srow*, *scol*) of ints specifying the row and column where the token begins in the source; a 2-tuple (*erow*, *ecol*) of ints specifying the row and column where the token ends in the source; and the line on which the token was found. The line passed (the last tuple item) is the *logical* line; continuation lines are included.

Nouveau dans la version 2.2.

An older entry point is retained for backward compatibility :

`tokenize.tokenize(readline[, tokeneater])`

The `tokenize()` function accepts two parameters : one representing the input stream, and one providing an output mechanism for `tokenize()`.

The first parameter, *readline*, must be a callable object which provides the same interface as the `readline()` method of built-in file objects (see section *Objets fichiers*). Each call to the function should return one line of input as a string. Alternately, *readline* may be a callable object that signals completion by raising *StopIteration*.

Modifié dans la version 2.5 : Added *StopIteration* support.

The second parameter, *tokeneater*, must also be a callable object. It is called once for each token, with five arguments, corresponding to the tuples generated by `generate_tokens()`.

All constants from the *token* module are also exported from *tokenize*, as are two additional token type values that might be passed to the *tokeneater* function by `tokenize()` :

`tokenize.COMMENT`

Valeur du jeton utilisée pour indiquer un commentaire.

`tokenize.NL`

Token value used to indicate a non-terminating newline. The NEWLINE token indicates the end of a logical line of Python code; NL tokens are generated when a logical line of code is continued over multiple physical lines.

Une autre fonction est fournie pour inverser le processus de tokenisation. Ceci est utile pour créer des outils permettant de codifier un script, de modifier le flux de jetons et de réécrire le script modifié.

`tokenize.untokenize(iterable)`

Converts tokens back into Python source code. The *iterable* must return sequences with at least two elements, the token type and the token string. Any additional sequence elements are ignored.

Le script reconstruit est renvoyé sous la forme d'une chaîne unique. Le résultat est garanti pour que le jeton corresponde à l'entrée afin que la conversion soit sans perte et que les allers et retours soient assurés. La garantie ne s'applique qu'au type de jeton et à la chaîne de jetons car l'espacement entre les jetons (positions des colonnes) peut changer.

Nouveau dans la version 2.5.

exception tokenize.TokenError

Déclenché lorsque soit une *docstring* soit une expression qui pourrait être divisée sur plusieurs lignes n'est pas complété dans le fichier, par exemple :

```
"""Beginning of
docstring
```

ou :

```
[1,
2,
3
```

Note that unclosed single-quoted strings do not cause an error to be raised. They are tokenized as **ERRORTOKEN**, followed by the tokenization of their contents.

Example of a script re-writer that transforms float literals into Decimal objects :

```
def decistmt(s):
    """Substitute Decimals for floats in a string of statements.

    >>> from decimal import Decimal
    >>> s = 'print +21.3e-5*-.1234/81.7'
    >>> decistmt(s)
    "print +Decimal ('21.3e-5')*-Decimal ('.1234')/Decimal ('81.7')"
    >>> exec(s)
    -3.21716034272e-007
    >>> exec(decistmt(s))
    -3.217160342717258261933904529E-7

    """
    result = []
    g = generate_tokens(StringIO(s).readline)    # tokenize the string
    for toknum, tokval, _, _, _ in g:
        if toknum == NUMBER and '.' in tokval:    # replace NUMBER tokens
            result.extend([
                (NAME, 'Decimal'),
                (OP, '('),
                (STRING, repr(tokval)),
                (OP, ')')
            ])
        else:
            result.append((toknum, tokval))
    return untokenize(result)
```

32.8 tabnanny — Détection d'indentation ambiguë

Code source : [Lib/tabnanny.py](#)

Pour l'instant ce module est destiné à être appelé comme un script. Toutefois, il est possible de l'importer dans un IDE et d'utiliser la fonction `check()` décrite ci-dessous.

Note : L'API fournie par ce module est susceptible de changer dans les versions futures ; ces modifications peuvent ne pas être rétro-compatibles.

`tabnanny.check(file_or_dir)`

If `file_or_dir` is a directory and not a symbolic link, then recursively descend the directory tree named by `file_or_dir`, checking all `.py` files along the way. If `file_or_dir` is an ordinary Python source file, it is checked for whitespace related problems. The diagnostic messages are written to standard output using the print statement.

`tabnanny.verbose`

Option indiquant s'il faut afficher des messages détaillés. Cela est incrémenté par l'option `-v` s'il est appelé comme un script.

`tabnanny.filename_only`

Option indiquant s'il faut afficher uniquement les noms de fichiers contenant des problèmes liés aux espaces blancs. Est défini à `True` par l'option `-q` s'il est appelé comme un script.

exception `tabnanny.NannyNag`

Raised by `process_tokens()` if detecting an ambiguous indent. Captured and handled in `check()`.

`tabnanny.process_tokens(tokens)`

This function is used by `check()` to process tokens generated by the `tokenize` module.

Voir aussi :

Module `tokenize` Analyseur lexical pour le code source Python.

32.9 pycldr — Python class browser support

Code source : [Lib/pycldr.py](#)

The `pycldr` module can be used to determine some limited information about the classes, methods and top-level functions defined in a module. The information provided is sufficient to implement a traditional three-pane class browser. The information is extracted from the source code rather than by importing the module, so this module is safe to use with untrusted code. This restriction makes it impossible to use this module with modules not implemented in Python, including all standard and optional extension modules.

`pycldr.readmodule(module, path=None)`

Read a module and return a dictionary mapping class names to class descriptor objects. The parameter `module` should be the name of a module as a string ; it may be the name of a module within a package. The `path` parameter should be a sequence, and is used to augment the value of `sys.path`, which is used to locate module source code.

`pycldr.readmodule_ex(module, path=None)`

Like `readmodule()`, but the returned dictionary, in addition to mapping class names to class descriptor objects, also maps top-level function names to function descriptor objects. Moreover, if the module being read is a package, the key `'__path__'` in the returned dictionary has as its value a list which contains the package search path.

32.9.1 Objets classes

The `Class` objects used as values in the dictionary returned by `readmodule()` and `readmodule_ex()` provide the following data attributes :

Class.module

The name of the module defining the class described by the class descriptor.

Class.name

The name of the class.

Class.super

A list of `Class` objects which describe the immediate base classes of the class being described. Classes which are named as superclasses but which are not discoverable by `readmodule()` are listed as a string with the class name instead of as `Class` objects.

Class.methods

A dictionary mapping method names to line numbers.

Class.file

Name of the file containing the `class` statement defining the class.

Class.lineno

The line number of the `class` statement within the file named by *file*.

32.9.2 Objets fonctions

The `Function` objects used as values in the dictionary returned by `readmodule_ex()` provide the following attributes :

Function.module

The name of the module defining the function described by the function descriptor.

Function.name

The name of the function.

Function.file

Name of the file containing the `def` statement defining the function.

Function.lineno

The line number of the `def` statement within the file named by *file*.

32.10 py_compile — Compile Python source files

Code source : `Lib/py_compile.py`

The `py_compile` module provides a function to generate a byte-code file from a source file, and another function used when the module source file is invoked as a script.

Though not often needed, this function can be useful when installing modules for shared use, especially if some of the users may not have permission to write the byte-code cache files in the directory containing the source code.

exception `py_compile.PyCompileError`

Exception raised when an error occurs while attempting to compile the file.

`py_compile.compile(file[, cfile[, dfile[, doraise]]])`

Compile a source file to byte-code and write out the byte-code cache file. The source code is loaded from the file named *file*. The byte-code is written to *cfile*, which defaults to *file* + '.c' ('.o' if optimization is

enabled in the current interpreter). If *dfile* is specified, it is used as the name of the source file in error messages instead of *file*. If *doraise* is true, a `PyCompileError` is raised when an error is encountered while compiling *file*. If *doraise* is false (the default), an error string is written to `sys.stderr`, but no exception is raised.

```
py_compile.main([args])
```

Compile several source files. The files named in *args* (or on the command line, if *args* is not specified) are compiled and the resulting bytecode is cached in the normal manner. This function does not search a directory structure to locate source files; it only compiles files named explicitly. If '-' is the only parameter in *args*, the list of files is taken from standard input.

Modifié dans la version 2.7 : Added support for '-'.

When this module is run as a script, the `main()` is used to compile all the files named on the command line. The exit status is nonzero if one of the files could not be compiled.

Modifié dans la version 2.6 : Added the nonzero exit status when module is run as a script.

Voir aussi :

Module `compileall` Utilities to compile all Python source files in a directory tree.

32.11 compileall — Byte-compile Python libraries

Code source : [Lib/compileall.py](#)

This module provides some utility functions to support installing Python libraries. These functions compile Python source files in a directory tree. This module can be used to create the cached byte-code files at library installation time, which makes them available for use even by users who don't have write permission to the library directories.

32.11.1 Command-line use

This module can work as a script (using `python -m compileall`) to compile Python sources.

directory ...

file ...

Positional arguments are files to compile or directories that contain source files, traversed recursively. If no argument is given, behave as if the command line was `-l <directories from sys.path>`.

-l

Do not recurse into subdirectories, only compile source code files directly contained in the named or implied directories.

-f

Force rebuild even if timestamps are up-to-date.

-q

Do not print the list of files compiled, print only error messages.

-d destdir

Directory prepended to the path to each file being compiled. This will appear in compilation time tracebacks, and is also compiled in to the byte-code file, where it will be used in tracebacks and other messages in cases where the source file does not exist at the time the byte-code file is executed.

-x regex

regex is used to search the full path to each file considered for compilation, and if the regex produces a match, the file is skipped.

`-i list`

Read the file `list` and add each line that it contains to the list of files and directories to compile. If `list` is `-`, read lines from `stdin`.

Modifié dans la version 2.7 : Added the `-i` option.

32.11.2 Public functions

`compileall.compile_dir(dir[, maxlevels[, ddir[, force[, rx[, quiet]]]])`

Recursively descend the directory tree named by `dir`, compiling all `.py` files along the way.

The `maxlevels` parameter is used to limit the depth of the recursion; it defaults to 10.

If `ddir` is given, it is prepended to the path to each file being compiled for use in compilation time tracebacks, and is also compiled in to the byte-code file, where it will be used in tracebacks and other messages in cases where the source file does not exist at the time the byte-code file is executed.

If `force` is true, modules are re-compiled even if the timestamps are up to date.

If `rx` is given, its search method is called on the complete path to each file considered for compilation, and if it returns a true value, the file is skipped.

If `quiet` is true, nothing is printed to the standard output unless errors occur.

`compileall.compile_file(fullname[, ddir[, force[, rx[, quiet]]]])`

Compile the file with path `fullname`.

If `ddir` is given, it is prepended to the path to the file being compiled for use in compilation time tracebacks, and is also compiled in to the byte-code file, where it will be used in tracebacks and other messages in cases where the source file does not exist at the time the byte-code file is executed.

If `rx` is given, its search method is passed the full path name to the file being compiled, and if it returns a true value, the file is not compiled and `True` is returned.

If `quiet` is true, nothing is printed to the standard output unless errors occur.

Nouveau dans la version 2.7.

`compileall.compile_path([skip_curdir[, maxlevels[, force]])`

Byte-compile all the `.py` files found along `sys.path`. If `skip_curdir` is true (the default), the current directory is not included in the search. All other parameters are passed to the `compile_dir()` function.

Note that unlike the other compile functions, `maxlevels` defaults to 0.

To force a recompile of all the `.py` files in the `Lib/` subdirectory and all its subdirectories :

```
import compileall

compileall.compile_dir('Lib/', force=True)

# Perform same compilation, excluding files in .svn directories.
import re
compileall.compile_dir('Lib/', rx=re.compile(r'[/\\][.]svn'), force=True)
```

Voir aussi :

Module `py_compile` Byte-compile a single source file.

32.12 dis — Disassembler for Python bytecode

Code source : `Lib/dis.py`

The `dis` module supports the analysis of CPython *bytecode* by disassembling it. The CPython bytecode which this module takes as an input is defined in the file `Include/opcode.h` and used by the compiler and the interpreter.

CPython implementation detail : Bytecode is an implementation detail of the CPython interpreter! No guarantees are made that bytecode will not be added, removed, or changed between versions of Python. Use of this module should not be considered to work across Python VMs or Python releases.

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)
2          0 LOAD_GLOBAL              0 (len)
          3 LOAD_FAST                  0 (alist)
          6 CALL_FUNCTION              1
          9 RETURN_VALUE
```

(The « 2 » is a line number).

The `dis` module defines the following functions and constants :

`dis.dis([bytesource])`

Disassemble the *bytesource* object. *bytesource* can denote either a module, a class, a method, a function, or a code object. For a module, it disassembles all functions. For a class, it disassembles all methods. For a single code sequence, it prints one line per bytecode instruction. If no object is provided, it disassembles the last traceback.

`dis.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.

`dis.disassemble(code[, lasti])`

Disassembles a code object, indicating the last instruction if *lasti* was provided. The output is divided in the following columns :

1. the line number, for the first instruction of each line
2. the current instruction, indicated as `-->`,
3. a labelled instruction, indicated with `>>`,
4. the address of the instruction,
5. the operation code name,
6. operation parameters, and
7. interpretation of the parameters in parentheses.

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

`dis.disco(code[, lasti])`

A synonym for `disassemble()`. It is more convenient to type, and kept for compatibility with earlier Python releases.

`dis.findlinestarts(code)`

This generator function uses the `co_firstlineno` and `co_lnotab` attributes of the code object *code* to find the offsets which are starts of lines in the source code. They are generated as (`offset`, `lineno`) pairs.

`dis.findlabels(code)`
Detect all offsets in the code object *code* which are jump targets, and return a list of these offsets.

`dis.opname`
Sequence of operation names, indexable using the bytecode.

`dis.opmap`
Dictionary mapping operation names to bytecodes.

`dis.cmp_op`
Sequence of all compare operation names.

`dis.hasconst`
Sequence of bytecodes that access a constant.

`dis.hasfree`
Sequence of bytecodes that access a free variable.

`dis.hasname`
Sequence of bytecodes that access an attribute by name.

`dis.hasjrel`
Sequence of bytecodes that have a relative jump target.

`dis.hasjabs`
Sequence of bytecodes that have an absolute jump target.

`dis.haslocal`
Sequence of bytecodes that access a local variable.

`dis.hascompare`
Sequence of bytecodes of Boolean operations.

32.12.1 Python Bytecode Instructions

The Python compiler currently generates the following bytecode instructions.

STOP_CODE()
Indicates end-of-code to the compiler, not used by the interpreter.

NOP()
Do nothing code. Used as a placeholder by the bytecode optimizer.

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.

ROT_FOUR()
Lifts second, third and forth stack item one position up, moves top down to position four.

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_NEGATIVE()
Implements `TOS = -TOS`.

UNARY_NOT()
Implements `TOS = not TOS`.

UNARY_CONVERT()
Implements `TOS = `TOS``.

UNARY_INVERT()
Implements `TOS = ~TOS`.

GET_ITER()
Implements `TOS = iter(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` when from `__future__` import `division` is not in effect.

BINARY_FLOOR_DIVIDE()
Implements `TOS = TOS1 // TOS`.

BINARY_TRUE_DIVIDE()
Implements `TOS = TOS1 / TOS` when from `__future__` import `division` is in effect.

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 & TOS`.

BINARY_XOR()
Implements `TOS = TOS1 ^ TOS`.

BINARY_OR()
Implements `TOS = TOS1 | TOS`.

In-place operations are like binary operations, in that they remove TOS and TOS1, and push the result back on the stack, but the operation is done in-place when TOS1 supports it, and the resulting TOS may be (but does not have to be) the original TOS1.

INPLACE_POWER()

Implements in-place $TOS = TOS1 ** TOS$.

INPLACE_MULTIPLY()

Implements in-place $TOS = TOS1 * TOS$.

INPLACE_DIVIDE()

Implements in-place $TOS = TOS1 / TOS$ when from `__future__` import `division` is not in effect.

INPLACE_FLOOR_DIVIDE()

Implements in-place $TOS = TOS1 // TOS$.

INPLACE_TRUE_DIVIDE()

Implements in-place $TOS = TOS1 / TOS$ when from `__future__` import `division` is in effect.

INPLACE_MODULO()

Implements in-place $TOS = TOS1 \% TOS$.

INPLACE_ADD()

Implements in-place $TOS = TOS1 + TOS$.

INPLACE_SUBTRACT()

Implements in-place $TOS = TOS1 - TOS$.

INPLACE_LSHIFT()

Implements in-place $TOS = TOS1 << TOS$.

INPLACE_RSHIFT()

Implements in-place $TOS = TOS1 >> TOS$.

INPLACE_AND()

Implements in-place $TOS = TOS1 \& TOS$.

INPLACE_XOR()

Implements in-place $TOS = TOS1 \wedge TOS$.

INPLACE_OR()

Implements in-place $TOS = TOS1 | TOS$.

The slice opcodes take up to three parameters.

SLICE+0()

Implements $TOS = TOS[:]$.

SLICE+1()

Implements $TOS = TOS1[TOS:]$.

SLICE+2()

Implements $TOS = TOS1[:TOS]$.

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]`.

Miscellaneous opcodes.

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_TOP](#).

PRINT_ITEM()
Prints TOS to the file-like object bound to `sys.stdout`. There is one such instruction for each item in the `print` statement.

PRINT_ITEM_TO()
Like `PRINT_ITEM`, but prints the item second from TOS to the file-like object at TOS. This is used by the extended 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.

PRINT_NEWLINE_TO()
Like `PRINT_NEWLINE`, but prints the new line on the file-like object on the TOS. This is used by the extended print statement.

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

CONTINUE_LOOP(*target*)
Continues a loop due to a `continue` statement. *target* is the address to jump to (which should be a [FOR_ITER](#) instruction).

LIST_APPEND(*i*)
Calls `list.append(TOS[-i], TOS)`. Used to implement list comprehensions. While the appended value is popped off, the list object remains on the stack so that it is available for further iterations of the loop.

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.

YIELD_VALUE()

Pops TOS and yields it from a *generator*.

IMPORT_STAR()

Loads all symbols not starting with `'_'` directly from the module TOS to the local namespace. The module is popped after loading all names. This opcode implements `from module import *`.

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` clause. 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.

SETUP_WITH(*delta*)

This opcode performs several operations before a `with` block starts. First, it loads `__exit__()` from the context manager and pushes it onto the stack for later use by *WITH_CLEANUP*. Then, `__enter__()` is called, and a finally block pointing to *delta* is pushed. Finally, the result of calling the enter method is pushed onto the stack. The next opcode will either ignore it (*POP_TOP*), or store it in (a) variable(s) (*STORE_FAST*, *STORE_NAME*, or *UNPACK_SEQUENCE*).

WITH_CLEANUP()

Cleans up the stack when a `with` statement block exits. On top of the stack are 1–3 values indicating how/why the finally clause was entered :

- TOP = `None`
- (TOP, SECOND) = (WHY_{RETURN,CONTINUE}), `retval`
- TOP = `WHY_*`; no `retval` below it
- (TOP, SECOND, THIRD) = `exc_info()`

Under them is `EXIT`, the context manager's `__exit__()` bound method.

In the last case, `EXIT(TOP, SECOND, THIRD)` is called, otherwise `EXIT(None, None, None)`.

`EXIT` is removed from the stack, leaving the values above it in the same order. In addition, if the stack represents an exception, *and* the function call returns a “true” value, this information is « zapped », to prevent `END_FINALLY` from re-raising the exception. (But non-local `gotos` should still be resumed.)

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_FAST* 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_SEQUENCE(*count*)

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

DUP_TOPX(*count*)

Duplicate *count* items, keeping them in the same order. Due to implementation limits, *count* should be between 1 and 5 inclusive.

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_SET(*count*)
 Works as **BUILD_TUPLE**, but creates a set.
 Nouveau dans la version 2.7.

BUILD_MAP(*count*)
 Pushes a new dictionary object onto the stack. The dictionary is pre-sized to hold *count* entries.

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]`. TOS and TOS1 are popped and provide the *fromlist* and *level* arguments of `__import__()`. The module object is pushed onto the stack. The current namespace is not affected : for a proper import statement, a subsequent **STORE_FAST** instruction modifies the namespace.

IMPORT_FROM(*namei*)
 Loads the attribute `co_names[namei]` from the module found in TOS. The resulting object is pushed onto the stack, to be subsequently stored by a **STORE_FAST** instruction.

JUMP_FORWARD(*delta*)
 Increments bytecode counter by *delta*.

POP_JUMP_IF_TRUE(*target*)
 If TOS is true, sets the bytecode counter to *target*. TOS is popped.

POP_JUMP_IF_FALSE(*target*)
 If TOS is false, sets the bytecode counter to *target*. TOS is popped.

JUMP_IF_TRUE_OR_POP(*target*)
 If TOS is true, sets the bytecode counter to *target* and leaves TOS on the stack. Otherwise (TOS is false), TOS is popped.

JUMP_IF_FALSE_OR_POP(*target*)
 If TOS is false, sets the bytecode counter to *target* and leaves TOS on the stack. Otherwise (TOS is true), TOS is popped.

JUMP_ABSOLUTE(*target*)

Set bytecode counter to *target*.

FOR_ITER(*delta*)

TOS is an *iterator*. Call its `next()` method. If this yields a new value, push it on the stack (leaving the iterator below it). If the iterator indicates it is exhausted TOS is popped, and the bytecode counter is incremented by *delta*.

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.

STORE_MAP()

Store a key and value pair in a dictionary. Pops the key and value while leaving the dictionary on the stack.

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]`.

LOAD_CLOSURE(*i*)

Pushes a reference to the cell contained in slot *i* of the cell and free variable storage. The name of the variable is `co_cellvars[i]` if *i* is less than the length of `co_cellvars`. Otherwise it is `co_freevars[i - len(co_cellvars)]`.

LOAD_DEREF(*i*)

Loads the cell contained in slot *i* of the cell and free variable storage. Pushes a reference to the object the cell contains on the stack.

STORE_DEREF(*i*)

Stores TOS into the cell contained in slot *i* of the cell and free variable storage.

SET_LINENO(*lineno*)

This opcode is obsolete.

RAISE_VARARGS(*argc*)

Raises an exception. *argc* indicates the number of arguments to the raise statement, ranging from 0 to 3. The handler will find the traceback as TOS2, the parameter as TOS1, and the exception as TOS.

CALL_FUNCTION(*argc*)

Calls a callable object. The low byte of *argc* indicates the number of positional arguments, the high byte the number of keyword arguments. The stack contains keyword arguments on top (if any), then the positional arguments below that (if any), then the callable object to call below that. Each keyword argument is represented with two values on the stack : the argument's name, and its value, with the argument's value above the name on the stack. The positional arguments are pushed in the order that they are passed in to the callable object, with the right-most positional argument on top.

`CALL_FUNCTION` pops all arguments and the callable object off the stack, calls the callable object with those arguments, and pushes the return value returned by the callable object.

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.

MAKE_CLOSURE(*argc*)

Creates a new function object, sets its *func_closure* slot, and pushes it on the stack. TOS is the code associated with the function, TOS1 the tuple containing cells for the closure's free variables. The function also has *argc* default parameters, which are found below the cells.

BUILD_SLICE(*argc*)

Pushes a slice object on the stack. *argc* must be 2 or 3. If it is 2, `slice(TOS1, TOS)` is pushed; if it is 3, `slice(TOS2, TOS1, TOS)` is pushed. See the `slice()` built-in function for more information.

EXTENDED_ARG(*ext*)

Prefixes any opcode which has an argument too big to fit into the default two bytes. *ext* holds two additional bytes which, taken together with the subsequent opcode's argument, comprise a four-byte argument, *ext* being the two most-significant bytes.

CALL_FUNCTION_VAR(*argc*)

Calls a callable object, similarly to `CALL_FUNCTION`. *argc* represents the number of keyword and positional arguments, identically to `CALL_FUNCTION`. The top of the stack contains an iterable object containing additional positional arguments. Below that are keyword arguments (if any), positional arguments (if any) and a callable object, identically to `CALL_FUNCTION`. Before the callable object is called, the iterable object is « unpacked » and its contents are appended to the positional arguments passed in. The iterable object is ignored when computing the value of *argc*.

CALL_FUNCTION_KW(*argc*)

Calls a callable object, similarly to `CALL_FUNCTION`. *argc* represents the number of keyword and positional arguments, identically to `CALL_FUNCTION`. The top of the stack contains a mapping object containing additional keyword arguments. Below that are keyword arguments (if any), positional arguments (if any) and a callable object, identically to `CALL_FUNCTION`. Before the callable is called, the mapping object at the top of the stack is « unpacked » and its contents are appended to the keyword arguments passed in. The mapping object at the top of the stack is ignored when computing the value of *argc*.

CALL_FUNCTION_VAR_KW(*argc*)

Calls a callable object, similarly to `CALL_FUNCTION_VAR` and `CALL_FUNCTION_KW`. *argc* represents the number of keyword and positional arguments, identically to `CALL_FUNCTION`. The top of the stack contains a mapping object, as per `CALL_FUNCTION_KW`. Below that is an iterable object, as per `CALL_FUNCTION_VAR`. Below that are keyword arguments (if any), positional arguments (if any) and a callable object, identically to `CALL_FUNCTION`. Before the callable is called, the mapping object and iterable object are each « unpacked » and their contents passed in as keyword and positional arguments respectively, identically to `CALL_FUNCTION_VAR` and `CALL_FUNCTION_KW`. The mapping object and iterable object are both ignored when computing the value of *argc*.

HAVE_ARGUMENT()

This is not really an opcode. It identifies the dividing line between opcodes which don't take arguments < HAVE_ARGUMENT and those which do >= HAVE_ARGUMENT.

32.13 pickletools — Tools for pickle developers

Nouveau dans la version 2.3.

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

This module contains various constants relating to the intimate details of the `pickle` module, some lengthy comments about the implementation, and a few useful functions for analyzing pickled data. The contents of this module are useful for Python core developers who are working on the `pickle` and `cPickle` implementations; ordinary users of the `pickle` module probably won't find the `pickletools` module relevant.

`pickletools.dis(pickle, out=None, memo=None, indentlevel=4)`

Outputs a symbolic disassembly of the pickle to the file-like object `out`, defaulting to `sys.stdout`. `pickle` can be a string or a file-like object. `memo` can be a Python dictionary that will be used as the pickle's memo; it can be used to perform disassemblies across multiple pickles created by the same pickler. Successive levels, indicated by `MARK` opcodes in the stream, are indented by `indentlevel` spaces.

`pickletools.genops(pickle)`

Provides an *iterator* over all of the opcodes in a pickle, returning a sequence of (`opcode`, `arg`, `pos`) triples. `opcode` is an instance of an `OpcodeInfo` class; `arg` is the decoded value, as a Python object, of the opcode's argument; `pos` is the position at which this opcode is located. `pickle` can be a string or a file-like object.

`pickletools.optimize(picklestring)`

Returns a new equivalent pickle string after eliminating unused `PUT` opcodes. The optimized pickle is shorter, takes less transmission time, requires less storage space, and unpickles more efficiently.

Nouveau dans la version 2.6.

Python compiler package

Obsolète depuis la version 2.6 : The *compiler* package has been removed in Python 3.

The Python compiler package is a tool for analyzing Python source code and generating Python bytecode. The compiler contains libraries to generate an abstract syntax tree from Python source code and to generate Python *bytecode* from the tree.

The *compiler* package is a Python source to bytecode translator written in Python. It uses the built-in parser and standard *parser* module to generate a concrete syntax tree. This tree is used to generate an abstract syntax tree (AST) and then Python bytecode.

The full functionality of the package duplicates the built-in compiler provided with the Python interpreter. It is intended to match its behavior almost exactly. Why implement another compiler that does the same thing? The package is useful for a variety of purposes. It can be modified more easily than the built-in compiler. The AST it generates is useful for analyzing Python source code.

This chapter explains how the various components of the *compiler* package work. It blends reference material with a tutorial.

33.1 The basic interface

The top-level of the package defines four functions. If you import *compiler*, you will get these functions and a collection of modules contained in the package.

`compiler.parse(buf)`

Returns an abstract syntax tree for the Python source code in *buf*. The function raises *SyntaxError* if there is an error in the source code. The return value is a `compiler.ast.Module` instance that contains the tree.

`compiler.parseFile(path)`

Return an abstract syntax tree for the Python source code in the file specified by *path*. It is equivalent to `parse(open(path).read())`.

`compiler.walk(ast, visitor[, verbose])`

Do a pre-order walk over the abstract syntax tree *ast*. Call the appropriate method on the *visitor* instance for each node encountered.

`compiler.compile(source, filename, mode, flags=None, dont_inherit=None)`

Compile the string *source*, a Python module, statement or expression, into a code object that can be executed by the `exec` statement or `eval()`. This function is a replacement for the built-in `compile()` function.

The *filename* will be used for run-time error messages.

The *mode* must be “exec” to compile a module, “single” to compile a single (interactive) statement, or “eval” to compile an expression.

The *flags* and *dont_inherit* arguments affect future-related statements, but are not supported yet.

`compiler.compileFile(source)`

Compiles the file *source* and generates a .pyc file.

The `compiler` package contains the following modules : `ast`, `consts`, `future`, `misc`, `pyassem`, `pycodegen`, `symbols`, `transformer`, and `visitor`.

33.2 Limitations

There are some problems with the error checking of the compiler package. The interpreter detects syntax errors in two distinct phases. One set of errors is detected by the interpreter’s parser, the other set by the compiler. The compiler package relies on the interpreter’s parser, so it get the first phases of error checking for free. It implements the second phase itself, and that implementation is incomplete. For example, the compiler package does not raise an error if a name appears more than once in an argument list : `def f(x, x): ...`

A future version of the compiler should fix these problems.

33.3 Python Abstract Syntax

The `compiler.ast` module defines an abstract syntax for Python. In the abstract syntax tree, each node represents a syntactic construct. The root of the tree is `Module` object.

The abstract syntax offers a higher level interface to parsed Python source code. The `parser` module and the compiler written in C for the Python interpreter use a concrete syntax tree. The concrete syntax is tied closely to the grammar description used for the Python parser. Instead of a single node for a construct, there are often several levels of nested nodes that are introduced by Python’s precedence rules.

The abstract syntax tree is created by the `compiler.transformer` module. The transformer relies on the built-in Python parser to generate a concrete syntax tree. It generates an abstract syntax tree from the concrete tree.

The `transformer` module was created by Greg Stein and Bill Tutt for an experimental Python-to-C compiler. The current version contains a number of modifications and improvements, but the basic form of the abstract syntax and of the transformer are due to Stein and Tutt.

33.3.1 AST Nodes

The `compiler.ast` module is generated from a text file that describes each node type and its elements. Each node type is represented as a class that inherits from the abstract base class `compiler.ast.Node` and defines a set of named attributes for child nodes.

`class compiler.ast.Node`

The `Node` instances are created automatically by the parser generator. The recommended interface for specific `Node` instances is to use the public attributes to access child nodes. A public attribute may be bound to a single node or to a sequence of nodes, depending on the `Node` type. For example, the `bases` attribute of the `Class` node, is bound to a list of base class nodes, and the `doc` attribute is bound to a single node.

Each *Node* instance has a `lineno` attribute which may be `None`. XXX Not sure what the rules are for which nodes will have a useful `lineno`.

All *Node* objects offer the following methods :

getChildren()

Returns a flattened list of the child nodes and objects in the order they occur. Specifically, the order of the nodes is the order in which they appear in the Python grammar. Not all of the children are *Node* instances. The names of functions and classes, for example, are plain strings.

getChildNodes()

Returns a flattened list of the child nodes in the order they occur. This method is like *getChildren()*, except that it only returns those children that are *Node* instances.

Two examples illustrate the general structure of *Node* classes. The `while` statement is defined by the following grammar production :

```
while_stmt:      "while" expression ":" suite
                ["else" ":" suite]
```

The `While` node has three attributes : `test`, `body`, and `else_`. (If the natural name for an attribute is also a Python reserved word, it can't be used as an attribute name. An underscore is appended to the word to make it a legal identifier, hence `else_` instead of `else`.)

The `if` statement is more complicated because it can include several tests.

```
if_stmt: 'if' test ':' suite ('elif' test ':' suite)* ['else' ':' suite]
```

The `If` node only defines two attributes : `tests` and `else_`. The `tests` attribute is a sequence of test expression, consequent body pairs. There is one pair for each `if/elif` clause. The first element of the pair is the test expression. The second elements is a `Stmt` node that contains the code to execute if the test is true.

The *getChildren()* method of `If` returns a flat list of child nodes. If there are three `if/elif` clauses and no `else` clause, then *getChildren()* will return a list of six elements : the first test expression, the first `Stmt`, the second test expression, etc.

The following table lists each of the *Node* subclasses defined in *compiler.ast* and each of the public attributes available on their instances. The values of most of the attributes are themselves *Node* instances or sequences of instances. When the value is something other than an instance, the type is noted in the comment. The attributes are listed in the order in which they are returned by *getChildren()* and *getChildNodes()*.

Node type	Attribut	Valeur
Add	<code>left</code>	left operand
	<code>right</code>	right operand
And	<code>nodes</code>	list of operands
AssAttr		<i>attribute as target of assignment</i>
	<code>expr</code>	expression on the left-hand side of the dot
	<code>attrname</code>	the attribute name, a string
	<code>flags</code>	XXX
AssList	<code>nodes</code>	list of list elements being assigned to
AssName	<code>name</code>	name being assigned to
	<code>flags</code>	XXX
AssTuple	<code>nodes</code>	list of tuple elements being assigned to
Assert	<code>test</code>	the expression to be tested
	<code>fail</code>	the value of the <i>AssertionError</i>
Assign	<code>nodes</code>	a list of assignment targets, one per equal sign
	<code>expr</code>	the value being assigned

Suite sur la page suivante

Tableau 1 – suite de la page précédente

Node type	Attribut	Valeur
AugAssign	node	
	op	
	expr	
Backquote	expr	
Bitand	nodes	
Bitor	nodes	
Bitxor	nodes	
Break		
CallFunc	node	expression for the callee
	args	a list of arguments
	star_args	the extended *-arg value
	dstar_args	the extended **-arg value
Class	name	the name of the class, a string
	bases	a list of base classes
	doc	doc string, a string or None
	<i>code</i>	the body of the class statement
Compare	expr	
	ops	
Const	value	
Continue		
Decorators	nodes	List of function decorator expressions
Dict	items	
Discard	expr	
Div	left	
	right	
<i>Ellipsis</i>		
Expression	node	
Exec	expr	
	<i>locals</i>	
	<i>globals</i>	
FloorDiv	left	
	right	
For	assign	
	list	
	body	
	else_	
From	modname	
	names	
Function	decorators	Decorators or None
	name	name used in def, a string
	argnames	list of argument names, as strings
	defaults	list of default values
	flags	xxx
	doc	doc string, a string or None
	<i>code</i>	the body of the function
GenExpr	<i>code</i>	
GenExprFor	assign	
	<i>iter</i>	
	ifs	

Suite sur la page suivante

Tableau 1 – suite de la page précédente

Node type	Attribut	Valeur
GenExprIf	<i>test</i>	
GenExprInner	expr	
	quals	
Getattr	expr	
	attrname	
Global	names	
If	tests	
	else_	
Import	names	
Invert	expr	
Keyword	name	
	expr	
Lambda	argnames	
	defaults	
	flags	
	<i>code</i>	
LeftShift	left	
	right	
List	nodes	
ListComp	expr	
	quals	
ListCompFor	assign	
	list	
	ifs	
ListCompIf	<i>test</i>	
Mod	left	
	right	
Module	doc	doc string, a string or None
	node	body of the module, a Stmt
Mul	left	
	right	
Name	name	
Not	expr	
Or	nodes	
Pass		
Power	left	
	right	
Print	nodes	
	dest	
Printnl	nodes	
	dest	
Raise	expr1	
	expr2	
	expr3	
Return	value	
RightShift	left	
	right	
Slice	expr	
	flags	

Suite sur la page suivante

Tableau 1 – suite de la page précédente

Node type	Attribut	Valeur
	lower	
	upper	
Sliceobj	nodes	list of statements
Stmt	nodes	
Sub	left	
	right	
Subscript	expr	
	flags	
	subs	
TryExcept	body	
	handlers	
	else_	
TryFinally	body	
	final	
Tuple	nodes	
UnaryAdd	expr	
UnarySub	expr	
While	<i>test</i>	
	body	
	else_	
With	expr	
	<i>vars</i>	
	body	
Yield	value	

33.3.2 Assignment nodes

There is a collection of nodes used to represent assignments. Each assignment statement in the source code becomes a single **Assign** node in the AST. The **nodes** attribute is a list that contains a node for each assignment target. This is necessary because assignment can be chained, e.g. `a = b = 2`. Each *Node* in the list will be one of the following classes : **AssAttr**, **AssList**, **AssName**, or **AssTuple**.

Each target assignment node will describe the kind of object being assigned to : **AssName** for a simple name, e.g. `a = 1`. **AssAttr** for an attribute assigned, e.g. `a.x = 1`. **AssList** and **AssTuple** for list and tuple expansion respectively, e.g. `a, b, c = a_tuple`.

The target assignment nodes also have a **flags** attribute that indicates whether the node is being used for assignment or in a delete statement. The **AssName** is also used to represent a delete statement, e.g. `del x`.

When an expression contains several attribute references, an assignment or delete statement will contain only one **AssAttr** node – for the final attribute reference. The other attribute references will be represented as **Getattr** nodes in the **expr** attribute of the **AssAttr** instance.

33.3.3 Examples

This section shows several simple examples of ASTs for Python source code. The examples demonstrate how to use the **parse()** function, what the repr of an AST looks like, and how to access attributes of an AST node.

The first module defines a single function. Assume it is stored in `doublelib.py`.

```
"""This is an example module.
```

(suite sur la page suivante)

(suite de la page précédente)

```

This is the docstring.
"""

def double(x):
    "Return twice the argument"
    return x * 2

```

In the interactive interpreter session below, I have reformatted the long AST reprs for readability. The AST reprs use unqualified class names. If you want to create an instance from a repr, you must import the class names from the `compiler.ast` module.

```

>>> import compiler
>>> mod = compiler.parseFile("doublelib.py")
>>> mod
Module('This is an example module.\n\nThis is the docstring.\n',
      Stmt([Function(None, 'double', ['x'], [], 0,
                    'Return twice the argument',
                    Stmt([Return(Mul((Name('x'), Const(2))))]))]))
>>> from compiler.ast import *
>>> Module('This is an example module.\n\nThis is the docstring.\n',
...   Stmt([Function(None, 'double', ['x'], [], 0,
...                 'Return twice the argument',
...                 Stmt([Return(Mul((Name('x'), Const(2))))]))]))
Module('This is an example module.\n\nThis is the docstring.\n',
      Stmt([Function(None, 'double', ['x'], [], 0,
                    'Return twice the argument',
                    Stmt([Return(Mul((Name('x'), Const(2))))]))]))
>>> mod.doc
'This is an example module.\n\nThis is the docstring.\n'
>>> for node in mod.node.nodes:
...     print node
...
Function(None, 'double', ['x'], [], 0, 'Return twice the argument',
      Stmt([Return(Mul((Name('x'), Const(2))))]))
>>> func = mod.node.nodes[0]
>>> func.code
Stmt([Return(Mul((Name('x'), Const(2))))])

```

33.4 Using Visitors to Walk ASTs

The visitor pattern is ... The `compiler` package uses a variant on the visitor pattern that takes advantage of Python's introspection features to eliminate the need for much of the visitor's infrastructure.

The classes being visited do not need to be programmed to accept visitors. The visitor need only define visit methods for classes it is specifically interested in; a default visit method can handle the rest.

XXX The magic `visit()` method for visitors.

```
compiler.visitor.walk(tree, visitor[, verbose])
```

```
class compiler.visitor.ASTVisitor
```

The `ASTVisitor` is responsible for walking over the tree in the correct order. A walk begins with a call to `preorder()`. For each node, it checks the `visitor` argument to `preorder()` for a method

named “visitNodeType,” where NodeType is the name of the node’s class, e.g. for a `While` node a `visitWhile()` would be called. If the method exists, it is called with the node as its first argument.

The visitor method for a particular node type can control how child nodes are visited during the walk. The *ASTVisitor* modifies the visitor argument by adding a visit method to the visitor; this method can be used to visit a particular child node. If no visitor is found for a particular node type, the *default()* method is called.

ASTVisitor objects have the following methods :

XXX describe extra arguments

`default(node[, ...])`

`dispatch(node[, ...])`

`preorder(tree, visitor)`

33.5 Bytecode Generation

The code generator is a visitor that emits bytecodes. Each visit method can call the `emit()` method to emit a new bytecode. The basic code generator is specialized for modules, classes, and functions. An assembler converts that emitted instructions to the low-level bytecode format. It handles things like generation of constant lists of code objects and calculation of jump offsets.

Les modules documentés dans ce chapitre fournissent différents services disponibles dans toutes les versions de Python. En voici un aperçu :

34.1 `formatter` — Generic output formatting

This module supports two interface definitions, each with multiple implementations. The *formatter* interface is used by the *HTMLParser* class of the *html* 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.

34.1.1 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 :

`formatter.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 :

`formatter.writer`

The writer instance with which the formatter interacts.

`formatter.end_paragraph(blanklines)`

Close any open paragraphs and insert at least *blanklines* before the next paragraph.

`formatter.add_line_break()`

Add a hard line break if one does not already exist. This does not break the logical paragraph.

`formatter.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.

`formatter.add_flowning_data(data)`

Provide data which should be formatted with collapsed whitespace. Whitespace from preceding and successive calls to `add_flowning_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.

`formatter.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*.

`formatter.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.

`formatter.flush_softspace()`

Send any pending whitespace buffered from a previous call to `add_flowning_data()` to the associated writer object. This should be called before any direct manipulation of the writer object.

`formatter.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.

`formatter.pop_alignment()`

Restore the previous alignment.

`formatter.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.

`formatter.pop_font()`

Restore the previous font.

`formatter.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.

`formatter.pop_margin()`

Restore the previous margin.

`formatter.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.

`formatter.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.

`formatter.set_spacing(spacing)`

Set the spacing style for the writer.

`formatter.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.

34.1.2 Formatter Implementations

Two implementations of formatter objects are provided by this module. Most applications may use one of these classes without modification or subclassing.

`class formatter.NullFormatter([writer])`

A formatter which does nothing. If *writer* is omitted, a *NullWriter* instance is created. No methods of the writer are called by *NullFormatter* instances. Implementations should inherit from this class if implementing a writer interface but don't need to inherit any implementation.

`class formatter.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.

34.1.3 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.

`writer.flush()`

Flush any buffered output or device control events.

`writer.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'.

`writer.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 values specifying which of those font attributes should be used.

`writer.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*.

`writer.new_spacing(spacing)`

Set the spacing style to *spacing*.

`writer.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.

`writer.send_line_break()`

Break the current line.

`writer.send_paragraph(blankline)`

Produce a paragraph separation of at least *blankline* blank lines, or the equivalent. The *blankline* value will be an integer. Note that the implementation will receive a call to `send_line_break()` before this call if a line break is needed; this method should not include ending the last line of the paragraph. It is only responsible for vertical spacing between paragraphs.

`writer.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()`.

`writer.send_flowling_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.

`writer.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.

`writer.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.

34.1.4 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.

`class formatter.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.

class `formatter.AbstractWriter`

A writer which can be used in debugging formatters, but not much else. Each method simply announces itself by printing its name and arguments on standard output.

class `formatter.DumbWriter`(*file=None*, *maxcol=72*)

Simple writer class which writes output on the file object passed in as *file* or, if *file* is `None`, 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.

Services spécifiques à MS Windows

Ce chapitre documente les modules qui ne sont disponibles que sous MS Windows.

35.1 msilib — Read and write Microsoft Installer files

Nouveau dans la version 2.5.

The *msilib* supports the creation of Microsoft Installer (.msi) files. Because these files often contain an embedded « cabinet » file (.cab), it also exposes an API to create CAB files. Support for reading .cab files is currently not implemented; read support for the .msi database is possible.

This package aims to provide complete access to all tables in an .msi file, therefore, it is a fairly low-level API. Two primary applications of this package are the *distutils* command `bdist_msi`, and the creation of Python installer package itself (although that currently uses a different version of *msilib*).

The package contents can be roughly split into four parts : low-level CAB routines, low-level MSI routines, higher-level MSI routines, and standard table structures.

msilib.FCICreate(*cabname*, *files*)

Create a new CAB file named *cabname*. *files* must be a list of tuples, each containing the name of the file on disk, and the name of the file inside the CAB file.

The files are added to the CAB file in the order they appear in the list. All files are added into a single CAB file, using the MSZIP compression algorithm.

Callbacks to Python for the various steps of MSI creation are currently not exposed.

msilib.UuidCreate()

Return the string representation of a new unique identifier. This wraps the Windows API functions `UuidCreate()` and `UuidToString()`.

msilib.OpenDatabase(*path*, *persist*)

Return a new database object by calling `MsiOpenDatabase`. *path* is the file name of the MSI file; *persist* can be one of the constants `MSIDBOPEN_CREATEDIRECT`, `MSIDBOPEN_CREATE`, `MSIDBOPEN_DIRECT`, `MSIDBOPEN_READONLY`, or `MSIDBOPEN_TRANSACT`, and may include the flag `MSIDBOPEN_PATCHFILE`. See the Microsoft documentation for the meaning of these flags; depending on the flags, an existing database is opened, or a new one created.

`msilib.CreateRecord(count)`

Return a new record object by calling `MSICreateRecord()`. *count* is the number of fields of the record.

`msilib.init_database(name, schema, ProductName, ProductCode, ProductVersion, Manufacturer)`

Create and return a new database *name*, initialize it with *schema*, and set the properties *ProductName*, *ProductCode*, *ProductVersion*, and *Manufacturer*.

schema must be a module object containing `tables` and `_Validation_records` attributes; typically, `msilib.schema` should be used.

The database will contain just the schema and the validation records when this function returns.

`msilib.add_data(database, table, records)`

Add all *records* to the table named *table* in *database*.

The *table* argument must be one of the predefined tables in the MSI schema, e.g. `'Feature'`, `'File'`, `'Component'`, `'Dialog'`, `'Control'`, etc.

records should be a list of tuples, each one containing all fields of a record according to the schema of the table. For optional fields, `None` can be passed.

Field values can be int or long numbers, strings, or instances of the Binary class.

`class msilib.Binary(filename)`

Represents entries in the Binary table; inserting such an object using `add_data()` reads the file named *filename* into the table.

`msilib.add_tables(database, module)`

Add all table content from *module* to *database*. *module* must contain an attribute *tables* listing all tables for which content should be added, and one attribute per table that has the actual content.

This is typically used to install the sequence tables.

`msilib.add_stream(database, name, path)`

Add the file *path* into the `_Stream` table of *database*, with the stream name *name*.

`msilib.gen_uuid()`

Return a new UUID, in the format that MSI typically requires (i.e. in curly braces, and with all hexdigits in upper-case).

Voir aussi :

[FCICreateFile](#) [UuidCreate](#) [UuidToString](#)

35.1.1 Database Objects

`Database.OpenView(sql)`

Return a view object, by calling `MSIDatabaseOpenView()`. *sql* is the SQL statement to execute.

`Database.Commit()`

Commit the changes pending in the current transaction, by calling `MSIDatabaseCommit()`.

`Database.GetSummaryInformation(count)`

Return a new summary information object, by calling `MsiGetSummaryInformation()`. *count* is the maximum number of updated values.

Voir aussi :

[MSIDatabaseOpenView](#) [MSIDatabaseCommit](#) [MsiGetSummaryInformation](#)

35.1.2 View Objects

`View.Execute(params)`

Execute the SQL query of the view, through `MSIViewExecute()`. If *params* is not `None`, it is a record describing actual values of the parameter tokens in the query.

`View.GetColumnInfo(kind)`

Return a record describing the columns of the view, through calling `MsiViewGetColumnInfo()`. *kind* can be either `MSICOLINFO_NAMES` or `MSICOLINFO_TYPES`.

`View.Fetch()`

Return a result record of the query, through calling `MsiViewFetch()`.

`View.Modify(kind, data)`

Modify the view, by calling `MsiViewModify()`. *kind* can be one of `MSIMODIFY_SEEK`, `MSIMODIFY_REFRESH`, `MSIMODIFY_INSERT`, `MSIMODIFY_UPDATE`, `MSIMODIFY_ASSIGN`, `MSIMODIFY_REPLACE`, `MSIMODIFY_MERGE`, `MSIMODIFY_DELETE`, `MSIMODIFY_INSERT_TEMPORARY`, `MSIMODIFY_VALIDATE`, `MSIMODIFY_VALIDATE_NEW`, `MSIMODIFY_VALIDATE_FIELD`, or `MSIMODIFY_VALIDATE_DELETE`.

data must be a record describing the new data.

`View.Close()`

Close the view, through `MsiViewClose()`.

Voir aussi :

`MsiViewExecute` `MsiViewGetColumnInfo` `MsiViewFetch` `MsiViewModify` `MsiViewClose`

35.1.3 Summary Information Objects

`SummaryInformation.GetProperty(field)`

Return a property of the summary, through `MsiSummaryInfoGetProperty()`. *field* is the name of the property, and can be one of the constants `PID_CODEPAGE`, `PID_TITLE`, `PID_SUBJECT`, `PID_AUTHOR`, `PID_KEYWORDS`, `PID_COMMENTS`, `PID_TEMPLATE`, `PID_LASTAUTHOR`, `PID_REVNUMBER`, `PID_LASTPRINTED`, `PID_CREATE_DTM`, `PID_LASTSAVE_DTM`, `PID_PAGECOUNT`, `PID_WORDCOUNT`, `PID_CHARCOUNT`, `PID_APPNAME`, or `PID_SECURITY`.

`SummaryInformation.GetPropertyCount()`

Return the number of summary properties, through `MsiSummaryInfoGetPropertyCount()`.

`SummaryInformation.SetProperty(field, value)`

Set a property through `MsiSummaryInfoSetProperty()`. *field* can have the same values as in `GetProperty()`, *value* is the new value of the property. Possible value types are integer and string.

`SummaryInformation.Persist()`

Write the modified properties to the summary information stream, using `MsiSummaryInfoPersist()`.

Voir aussi :

`MsiSummaryInfoGetProperty` `MsiSummaryInfoGetPropertyCount` `MsiSummaryInfoSetProperty` `MsiSummaryInfoPersist`

35.1.4 Record Objects

`Record.GetFieldCount()`

Return the number of fields of the record, through `MsiRecordGetFieldCount()`.

`Record.GetInteger(field)`

Return the value of *field* as an integer where possible. *field* must be an integer.

`Record.GetString(field)`

Return the value of *field* as a string where possible. *field* must be an integer.

`Record.SetString(field, value)`

Set *field* to *value* through `MsiRecordSetString()`. *field* must be an integer; *value* a string.

Record.SetStream(*field*, *value*)

Set *field* to the contents of the file named *value*, through `MsiRecordSetStream()`. *field* must be an integer; *value* a string.

Record.SetInteger(*field*, *value*)

Set *field* to *value* through `MsiRecordSetInteger()`. Both *field* and *value* must be an integer.

Record.ClearData()

Set all fields of the record to 0, through `MsiRecordClearData()`.

Voir aussi :

[MsiRecordGetFieldCount](#) [MsiRecordSetString](#) [MsiRecordSetStream](#) [MsiRecordSetInteger](#) [MsiRecordClear](#)

35.1.5 Errors

All wrappers around MSI functions raise `MSIError`; the string inside the exception will contain more detail.

35.1.6 CAB Objects

class msilib.CAB(*name*)

The class `CAB` represents a CAB file. During MSI construction, files will be added simultaneously to the `Files` table, and to a CAB file. Then, when all files have been added, the CAB file can be written, then added to the MSI file.

name is the name of the CAB file in the MSI file.

append(*full*, *file*, *logical*)

Add the file with the pathname *full* to the CAB file, under the name *logical*. If there is already a file named *logical*, a new file name is created.

Return the index of the file in the CAB file, and the new name of the file inside the CAB file.

commit(*database*)

Generate a CAB file, add it as a stream to the MSI file, put it into the `Media` table, and remove the generated file from the disk.

35.1.7 Directory Objects

class msilib.Directory(*database*, *cab*, *basedir*, *physical*, *logical*, *default*[, *componentflags*])

Create a new directory in the Directory table. There is a current component at each point in time for the directory, which is either explicitly created through `start_component()`, or implicitly when files are added for the first time. Files are added into the current component, and into the cab file. To create a directory, a base directory object needs to be specified (can be `None`), the path to the physical directory, and a logical directory name. *default* specifies the DefaultDir slot in the directory table. *componentflags* specifies the default flags that new components get.

start_component([*component*[, *feature*[, *flags*[, *keyfile*[, *uuid*]]]])

Add an entry to the Component table, and make this component the current component for this directory. If no component name is given, the directory name is used. If no *feature* is given, the current feature is used. If no *flags* are given, the directory's default flags are used. If no *keyfile* is given, the KeyPath is left null in the Component table.

add_file(*file*[, *src*[, *version*[, *language*]])

Add a file to the current component of the directory, starting a new one if there is no current component. By default, the file name in the source and the file table will be identical. If the *src* file is specified, it is interpreted relative to the current directory. Optionally, a *version* and a *language* can be specified for the entry in the File table.

glob(*pattern*[, *exclude*])

Add a list of files to the current component as specified in the glob pattern. Individual files can be excluded in the *exclude* list.

```
remove_pyc()
    Remove .pyc/.pyo files on uninstall.
```

Voir aussi :

[Directory Table](#) [File Table](#) [Component Table](#) [FeatureComponents Table](#)

35.1.8 Features

```
class msilib.Feature(database, id, title, desc, display[, level=1[, parent[, directory[, attributes=0]
    ]]])
```

Add a new record to the **Feature** table, using the values *id*, *parent.id*, *title*, *desc*, *display*, *level*, *directory*, and *attributes*. The resulting feature object can be passed to the **start_component()** method of *Directory*.

```
set_current()
    Make this feature the current feature of msilib. New components are automatically added to the
    default feature, unless a feature is explicitly specified.
```

Voir aussi :

[Feature Table](#)

35.1.9 GUI classes

msilib provides several classes that wrap the GUI tables in an MSI database. However, no standard user interface is provided; use **bdist_msi** to create MSI files with a user-interface for installing Python packages.

```
class msilib.Control(dlg, name)
    Base class of the dialog controls. dlg is the dialog object the control belongs to, and name is the control's
    name.
    event(event, argument[, condition=1[, ordering]])
        Make an entry into the ControlEvents table for this control.
    mapping(event, attribute)
        Make an entry into the EventMapping table for this control.
    condition(action, condition)
        Make an entry into the ControlCondition table for this control.

class msilib.RadioButtonGroup(dlg, name, property)
    Create a radio button control named name. property is the installer property that gets set when a radio
    button is selected.
    add(name, x, y, width, height, text[, value])
        Add a radio button named name to the group, at the coordinates x, y, width, height, and with the
        label text. If value is omitted, it defaults to name.

class msilib.Dialog(db, name, x, y, w, h, attr, title, first, default, cancel)
    Return a new Dialog object. An entry in the Dialog table is made, with the specified coordinates,
    dialog attributes, title, name of the first, default, and cancel controls.
    control(name, type, x, y, width, height, attributes, property, text, control_next, help)
        Return a new Control object. An entry in the Control table is made with the specified parameters.
        This is a generic method; for specific types, specialized methods are provided.
    text(name, x, y, width, height, attributes, text)
        Add and return a Text control.
    bitmap(name, x, y, width, height, text)
        Add and return a Bitmap control.
```

`line(name, x, y, width, height)`
Add and return a `Line` control.

`pushbutton(name, x, y, width, height, attributes, text, next_control)`
Add and return a `PushButton` control.

`radiogroup(name, x, y, width, height, attributes, property, text, next_control)`
Add and return a `RadioButtonGroup` control.

`checkbox(name, x, y, width, height, attributes, property, text, next_control)`
Add and return a `CheckBox` control.

Voir aussi :

[Dialog](#) [Table](#) [Control](#) [Table](#) [Control](#) [Types](#) [Control](#) [Condition](#) [Table](#) [Control](#) [Event](#) [Table](#) [Event](#) [Mapping](#) [Table](#)
[RadioButton](#) [Table](#)

35.1.10 Precomputed tables

`msilib` provides a few subpackages that contain only schema and table definitions. Currently, these definitions are based on MSI version 2.0.

`msilib.schema`

This is the standard MSI schema for MSI 2.0, with the `tables` variable providing a list of table definitions, and `__Validation_records` providing the data for MSI validation.

`msilib.sequence`

This module contains table contents for the standard sequence tables : *AdminExecuteSequence*, *AdminUISequence*, *AdvtExecuteSequence*, *InstallExecuteSequence*, and *InstallUISequence*.

`msilib.text`

This module contains definitions for the `UIText` and `ActionText` tables, for the standard installer actions.

35.2 msvcrt — Useful routines from the MS VC++ runtime

These functions provide access to some useful capabilities on Windows platforms. Some higher-level modules use these functions to build the Windows implementations of their services. For example, the `getpass` module uses this in the implementation of the `getpass()` function.

Further documentation on these functions can be found in the Platform API documentation.

The module implements both the normal and wide char variants of the console I/O api. The normal API deals only with ASCII characters and is of limited use for internationalized applications. The wide char API should be used where ever possible.

35.2.1 File Operations

`msvcrt.locking(fd, mode, nbytes)`

Lock part of a file based on file descriptor `fd` from the C runtime. Raises `IOError` on failure. The locked region of the file extends from the current file position for `nbytes` bytes, and may continue beyond the end of the file. `mode` must be one of the `LK_*` constants listed below. Multiple regions in a file may be locked at the same time, but may not overlap. Adjacent regions are not merged ; they must be unlocked individually.

`msvcrt.LK_LOCK`

`msvcrt.LK_RLOCK`

Locks the specified bytes. If the bytes cannot be locked, the program immediately tries again after 1 second. If, after 10 attempts, the bytes cannot be locked, `IOError` is raised.

`msvcrt.LK_NBLCK`

`msvcrt.LK_NBRLCK`

Locks the specified bytes. If the bytes cannot be locked, *IOError* is raised.

`msvcrt.LK_UNLCK`

Unlocks the specified bytes, which must have been previously locked.

`msvcrt.setmode(fd, flags)`

Set the line-end translation mode for the file descriptor *fd*. To set it to text mode, *flags* should be *os.O_TEXT*; for binary, it should be *os.O_BINARY*.

`msvcrt.open_osfhandle(handle, flags)`

Create a C runtime file descriptor from the file handle *handle*. The *flags* parameter should be a bitwise OR of *os.O_APPEND*, *os.O_RDONLY*, and *os.O_TEXT*. The returned file descriptor may be used as a parameter to *os.fdopen()* to create a file object.

`msvcrt.get_osfhandle(fd)`

Return the file handle for the file descriptor *fd*. Raises *IOError* if *fd* is not recognized.

35.2.2 Console I/O

`msvcrt.kbhit()`

Return true if a keypress is waiting to be read.

`msvcrt.getch()`

Read a keypress and return the resulting character. Nothing is echoed to the console. This call will block if a keypress is not already available, but will not wait for **Enter** to be pressed. If the pressed key was a special function key, this will return '\000' or '\xe0'; the next call will return the keycode. The **Control-C** keypress cannot be read with this function.

`msvcrt.getwch()`

Wide char variant of *getch()*, returning a Unicode value.

Nouveau dans la version 2.6.

`msvcrt.getche()`

Similar to *getch()*, but the keypress will be echoed if it represents a printable character.

`msvcrt.getwche()`

Wide char variant of *getche()*, returning a Unicode value.

Nouveau dans la version 2.6.

`msvcrt.putch(char)`

Print the character *char* to the console without buffering.

`msvcrt.putwch(unicode_char)`

Wide char variant of *putch()*, accepting a Unicode value.

Nouveau dans la version 2.6.

`msvcrt.ungetch(char)`

Cause the character *char* to be « pushed back » into the console buffer; it will be the next character read by *getch()* or *getche()*.

`msvcrt.ungetwch(unicode_char)`

Wide char variant of *ungetch()*, accepting a Unicode value.

Nouveau dans la version 2.6.

35.2.3 Other Functions

`msvcrt.heapmin()`

Force the *malloc()* heap to clean itself up and return unused blocks to the operating system. On failure, this raises *IOError*.

35.3 _winreg — Windows registry access

Note : The `_winreg` module has been renamed to `winreg` in Python 3. The *2to3* tool will automatically adapt imports when converting your sources to Python 3.

Nouveau dans la version 2.0.

These functions expose the Windows registry API to Python. Instead of using an integer as the registry handle, a *handle object* is used to ensure that the handles are closed correctly, even if the programmer neglects to explicitly close them.

This module offers the following functions :

`_winreg.CloseKey(hkey)`

Closes a previously opened registry key. The *hkey* argument specifies a previously opened key.

Note : If *hkey* is not closed using this method (or via *hkey.Close()*), it is closed when the *hkey* object is destroyed by Python.

`_winreg.ConnectRegistry(computer_name, key)`

Establishes a connection to a predefined registry handle on another computer, and returns a *handle object*.

computer_name is the name of the remote computer, of the form `r"\\computername"`. If `None`, the local computer is used.

key is the predefined handle to connect to.

The return value is the handle of the opened key. If the function fails, a *WindowsError* exception is raised.

`_winreg.CreateKey(key, sub_key)`

Creates or opens the specified key, returning a *handle object*.

key is an already open key, or one of the predefined *HKEY_* constants*.

sub_key is a string that names the key this method opens or creates.

If *key* is one of the predefined keys, *sub_key* may be `None`. In that case, the handle returned is the same key handle passed in to the function.

If the key already exists, this function opens the existing key.

The return value is the handle of the opened key. If the function fails, a *WindowsError* exception is raised.

`_winreg.CreateKeyEx(key, sub_key[, res[, sam]])`

Creates or opens the specified key, returning a *handle object*.

key is an already open key, or one of the predefined *HKEY_* constants*.

sub_key is a string that names the key this method opens or creates.

res is a reserved integer, and must be zero. The default is zero.

sam is an integer that specifies an access mask that describes the desired security access for the key. Default is *KEY_ALL_ACCESS*. See *Access Rights* for other allowed values.

If *key* is one of the predefined keys, *sub_key* may be `None`. In that case, the handle returned is the same key handle passed in to the function.

If the key already exists, this function opens the existing key.

The return value is the handle of the opened key. If the function fails, a *WindowsError* exception is raised.

Nouveau dans la version 2.7.

`_winreg.DeleteKey(key, sub_key)`

Deletes the specified key.

key is an already open key, or any one of the predefined *HKEY_* constants*.

sub_key is a string that must be a subkey of the key identified by the *key* parameter. This value must not be `None`, and the key may not have subkeys.

This method can not delete keys with subkeys.

If the method succeeds, the entire key, including all of its values, is removed. If the method fails, a *WindowsError* exception is raised.

`_winreg.DeleteKeyEx(key, sub_key[, sam[, res]])`

Deletes the specified key.

Note : The *DeleteKeyEx()* function is implemented with the *RegDeleteKeyEx* Windows API function, which is specific to 64-bit versions of Windows. See the *RegDeleteKeyEx documentation*.

key is an already open key, or any one of the predefined *HKEY_* constants*.

sub_key is a string that must be a subkey of the key identified by the *key* parameter. This value must not be `None`, and the key may not have subkeys.

res is a reserved integer, and must be zero. The default is zero.

sam is an integer that specifies an access mask that describes the desired security access for the key. Default is *KEY_WOW64_64KEY*. See *Access Rights* for other allowed values.

This method can not delete keys with subkeys.

If the method succeeds, the entire key, including all of its values, is removed. If the method fails, a *WindowsError* exception is raised.

On unsupported Windows versions, *NotImplementedError* is raised.

Nouveau dans la version 2.7.

`_winreg.DeleteValue(key, value)`

Removes a named value from a registry key.

key is an already open key, or one of the predefined *HKEY_* constants*.

value is a string that identifies the value to remove.

`_winreg.EnumKey(key, index)`

Enumerates subkeys of an open registry key, returning a string.

key is an already open key, or any one of the predefined *HKEY_* constants*.

index is an integer that identifies the index of the key to retrieve.

The function retrieves the name of one subkey each time it is called. It is typically called repeatedly until a *WindowsError* exception is raised, indicating, no more values are available.

`_winreg.EnumValue(key, index)`

Enumerates values of an open registry key, returning a tuple.

key is an already open key, or any one of the predefined *HKEY_* constants*.

index is an integer that identifies the index of the value to retrieve.

The function retrieves the name of one subkey each time it is called. It is typically called repeatedly, until a *WindowsError* exception is raised, indicating no more values.

The result is a tuple of 3 items :

In- dex	Signification
0	A string that identifies the value name
1	An object that holds the value data, and whose type depends on the underlying registry type
2	An integer that identifies the type of the value data (see table in docs for <i>SetValueEx()</i>)

`_winreg.ExpandEnvironmentStrings(unicode)`

Expands environment variable placeholders %NAME% in unicode strings like [REG_EXPAND_SZ](#) :

```
>>> ExpandEnvironmentStrings(u"%windir%")
u"C:\\Windows"
```

Nouveau dans la version 2.6.

`_winreg.FlushKey(key)`

Writes all the attributes of a key to the registry.

key is an already open key, or one of the predefined [HKEY_* constants](#).

It is not necessary to call [FlushKey\(\)](#) to change a key. Registry changes are flushed to disk by the registry using its lazy flusher. Registry changes are also flushed to disk at system shutdown. Unlike [CloseKey\(\)](#), the [FlushKey\(\)](#) method returns only when all the data has been written to the registry. An application should only call [FlushKey\(\)](#) if it requires absolute certainty that registry changes are on disk.

Note : If you don't know whether a [FlushKey\(\)](#) call is required, it probably isn't.

`_winreg.LoadKey(key, sub_key, file_name)`

Creates a subkey under the specified key and stores registration information from a specified file into that subkey.

key is a handle returned by [ConnectRegistry\(\)](#) or one of the constants [HKEY_USERS](#) or [HKEY_LOCAL_MACHINE](#).

sub_key is a string that identifies the subkey to load.

file_name is the name of the file to load registry data from. This file must have been created with the [SaveKey\(\)](#) function. Under the file allocation table (FAT) file system, the filename may not have an extension.

A call to [LoadKey\(\)](#) fails if the calling process does not have the SE_RESTORE_PRIVILEGE privilege. Note that privileges are different from permissions – see the [RegLoadKey documentation](#) for more details.

If *key* is a handle returned by [ConnectRegistry\(\)](#), then the path specified in *file_name* is relative to the remote computer.

`_winreg.OpenKey(key, sub_key[, res[, sam]])`

Opens the specified key, returning a *handle object*.

key is an already open key, or any one of the predefined [HKEY_* constants](#).

sub_key is a string that identifies the sub_key to open.

res is a reserved integer, and must be zero. The default is zero.

sam is an integer that specifies an access mask that describes the desired security access for the key. Default is [KEY_READ](#). See [Access Rights](#) for other allowed values.

The result is a new handle to the specified key.

If the function fails, [WindowsError](#) is raised.

`_winreg.OpenKeyEx()`

The functionality of [OpenKeyEx\(\)](#) is provided via [OpenKey\(\)](#), by the use of default arguments.

`_winreg.QueryInfoKey(key)`

Returns information about a key, as a tuple.

key is an already open key, or one of the predefined [HKEY_* constants](#).

The result is a tuple of 3 items :

In- dex	Signification
0	An integer giving the number of sub keys this key has.
1	An integer giving the number of values this key has.
2	A long integer giving when the key was last modified (if available) as 100's of nanoseconds since Jan 1, 1601.

`_winreg.QueryValue(key, sub_key)`

Retrieves the unnamed value for a key, as a string.

key is an already open key, or one of the predefined *HKEY_* constants*.

sub_key is a string that holds the name of the subkey with which the value is associated. If this parameter is `None` or empty, the function retrieves the value set by the `SetValue()` method for the key identified by *key*.

Values in the registry have name, type, and data components. This method retrieves the data for a key's first value that has a NULL name. But the underlying API call doesn't return the type, so always use `QueryValueEx()` if possible.

`_winreg.QueryValueEx(key, value_name)`

Retrieves the type and data for a specified value name associated with an open registry key.

key is an already open key, or one of the predefined *HKEY_* constants*.

value_name is a string indicating the value to query.

The result is a tuple of 2 items :

Index	Signification
0	The value of the registry item.
1	An integer giving the registry type for this value (see table in docs for <code>SetValueEx()</code>)

`_winreg.SaveKey(key, file_name)`

Saves the specified key, and all its subkeys to the specified file.

key is an already open key, or one of the predefined *HKEY_* constants*.

file_name is the name of the file to save registry data to. This file cannot already exist. If this filename includes an extension, it cannot be used on file allocation table (FAT) file systems by the `LoadKey()` method.

If *key* represents a key on a remote computer, the path described by *file_name* is relative to the remote computer. The caller of this method must possess the `SeBackupPrivilege` security privilege. Note that privileges are different than permissions – see the [Conflicts Between User Rights and Permissions documentation](#) for more details.

This function passes `NULL` for *security_attributes* to the API.

`_winreg.SetValue(key, sub_key, type, value)`

Associates a value with a specified key.

key is an already open key, or one of the predefined *HKEY_* constants*.

sub_key is a string that names the subkey with which the value is associated.

type is an integer that specifies the type of the data. Currently this must be `REG_SZ`, meaning only strings are supported. Use the `SetValueEx()` function for support for other data types.

value is a string that specifies the new value.

If the key specified by the *sub_key* parameter does not exist, the `SetValue` function creates it.

Value lengths are limited by available memory. Long values (more than 2048 bytes) should be stored as files with the filenames stored in the configuration registry. This helps the registry perform efficiently.

The key identified by the *key* parameter must have been opened with `KEY_SET_VALUE` access.

`_winreg.SetValueEx(key, value_name, reserved, type, value)`

Stores data in the value field of an open registry key.

key is an already open key, or one of the predefined *HKEY_* constants*.

value_name is a string that names the subkey with which the value is associated.

type is an integer that specifies the type of the data. See *Value Types* for the available types.

reserved can be anything – zero is always passed to the API.

value is a string that specifies the new value.

This method can also set additional value and type information for the specified key. The key identified by the key parameter must have been opened with *KEY_SET_VALUE* access.

To open the key, use the *CreateKey()* or *OpenKey()* methods.

Value lengths are limited by available memory. Long values (more than 2048 bytes) should be stored as files with the filenames stored in the configuration registry. This helps the registry perform efficiently.

`_winreg.DisableReflectionKey(key)`

Disables registry reflection for 32-bit processes running on a 64-bit operating system.

key is an already open key, or one of the predefined *HKEY_* constants*.

Will generally raise *NotImplemented* if executed on a 32-bit operating system.

If the key is not on the reflection list, the function succeeds but has no effect. Disabling reflection for a key does not affect reflection of any subkeys.

`_winreg.EnableReflectionKey(key)`

Restores registry reflection for the specified disabled key.

key is an already open key, or one of the predefined *HKEY_* constants*.

Will generally raise *NotImplemented* if executed on a 32-bit operating system.

Restoring reflection for a key does not affect reflection of any subkeys.

`_winreg.QueryReflectionKey(key)`

Determines the reflection state for the specified key.

key is an already open key, or one of the predefined *HKEY_* constants*.

Returns *True* if reflection is disabled.

Will generally raise *NotImplemented* if executed on a 32-bit operating system.

35.3.1 Constantes

The following constants are defined for use in many *_winreg* functions.

HKEY_* Constants

`_winreg.HKEY_CLASSES_ROOT`

Registry entries subordinate to this key define types (or classes) of documents and the properties associated with those types. Shell and COM applications use the information stored under this key.

`_winreg.HKEY_CURRENT_USER`

Registry entries subordinate to this key define the preferences of the current user. These preferences include the settings of environment variables, data about program groups, colors, printers, network connections, and application preferences.

`_winreg.HKEY_LOCAL_MACHINE`

Registry entries subordinate to this key define the physical state of the computer, including data about the bus type, system memory, and installed hardware and software.

`_winreg.HKEY_USERS`

Registry entries subordinate to this key define the default user configuration for new users on the local computer and the user configuration for the current user.

`_winreg.HKEY_PERFORMANCE_DATA`

Registry entries subordinate to this key allow you to access performance data. The data is not actually stored in the registry; the registry functions cause the system to collect the data from its source.

`_winreg.HKEY_CURRENT_CONFIG`

Contains information about the current hardware profile of the local computer system.

`_winreg.HKEY_DYN_DATA`

This key is not used in versions of Windows after 98.

Access Rights

For more information, see [Registry Key Security and Access](#).

`_winreg.KEY_ALL_ACCESS`

Combines the `STANDARD_RIGHTS_REQUIRED`, `KEY_QUERY_VALUE`, `KEY_SET_VALUE`, `KEY_CREATE_SUB_KEY`, `KEY_ENUMERATE_SUB_KEYS`, `KEY_NOTIFY`, and `KEY_CREATE_LINK` access rights.

`_winreg.KEY_WRITE`

Combines the `STANDARD_RIGHTS_WRITE`, `KEY_SET_VALUE`, and `KEY_CREATE_SUB_KEY` access rights.

`_winreg.KEY_READ`

Combines the `STANDARD_RIGHTS_READ`, `KEY_QUERY_VALUE`, `KEY_ENUMERATE_SUB_KEYS`, and `KEY_NOTIFY` values.

`_winreg.KEY_EXECUTE`

Equivalent to `KEY_READ`.

`_winreg.KEY_QUERY_VALUE`

Required to query the values of a registry key.

`_winreg.KEY_SET_VALUE`

Required to create, delete, or set a registry value.

`_winreg.KEY_CREATE_SUB_KEY`

Required to create a subkey of a registry key.

`_winreg.KEY_ENUMERATE_SUB_KEYS`

Required to enumerate the subkeys of a registry key.

`_winreg.KEY_NOTIFY`

Required to request change notifications for a registry key or for subkeys of a registry key.

`_winreg.KEY_CREATE_LINK`

Reserved for system use.

64-bit Specific

For more information, see [Accessing an Alternate Registry View](#).

`_winreg.KEY_WOW64_64KEY`

Indicates that an application on 64-bit Windows should operate on the 64-bit registry view.

`_winreg.KEY_WOW64_32KEY`

Indicates that an application on 64-bit Windows should operate on the 32-bit registry view.

Value Types

For more information, see [Registry Value Types](#).

`_winreg.REG_BINARY`

Binary data in any form.

`_winreg.REG_DWORD`
32-bit number.

`_winreg.REG_DWORD_LITTLE_ENDIAN`
A 32-bit number in little-endian format.

`_winreg.REG_DWORD_BIG_ENDIAN`
A 32-bit number in big-endian format.

`_winreg.REG_EXPAND_SZ`
Null-terminated string containing references to environment variables (%PATH%).

`_winreg.REG_LINK`
A Unicode symbolic link.

`_winreg.REG_MULTI_SZ`
A sequence of null-terminated strings, terminated by two null characters. (Python handles this termination automatically.)

`_winreg.REG_NONE`
No defined value type.

`_winreg.REG_RESOURCE_LIST`
A device-driver resource list.

`_winreg.REG_FULL_RESOURCE_DESCRIPTOR`
A hardware setting.

`_winreg.REG_RESOURCE_REQUIREMENTS_LIST`
A hardware resource list.

`_winreg.REG_SZ`
A null-terminated string.

35.3.2 Registry Handle Objects

This object wraps a Windows HKEY object, automatically closing it when the object is destroyed. To guarantee cleanup, you can call either the `Close()` method on the object, or the `CloseKey()` function.

All registry functions in this module return one of these objects.

All registry functions in this module which accept a handle object also accept an integer, however, use of the handle object is encouraged.

Handle objects provide semantics for `__nonzero__()` – thus :

```
if handle:
    print "Yes"
```

will print **Yes** if the handle is currently valid (has not been closed or detached).

The object also support comparison semantics, so handle objects will compare true if they both reference the same underlying Windows handle value.

Handle objects can be converted to an integer (e.g., using the built-in `int()` function), in which case the underlying Windows handle value is returned. You can also use the `Detach()` method to return the integer handle, and also disconnect the Windows handle from the handle object.

PyHKEY.Close()
Closes the underlying Windows handle.
If the handle is already closed, no error is raised.

PyHKEY.Detach()

Detaches the Windows handle from the handle object.

The result is an integer (or long on 64 bit Windows) that holds the value of the handle before it is detached. If the handle is already detached or closed, this will return zero.

After calling this function, the handle is effectively invalidated, but the handle is not closed. You would call this function when you need the underlying Win32 handle to exist beyond the lifetime of the handle object.

PyHKEY.__enter__()**PyHKEY.__exit__(*exc_info)**

The HKEY object implements `__enter__()` and `__exit__()` and thus supports the context protocol for the `with` statement :

```
with OpenKey(HKEY_LOCAL_MACHINE, "foo") as key:
    ... # work with key
```

will automatically close *key* when control leaves the `with` block.

Nouveau dans la version 2.6.

35.4 winsound — Sound-playing interface for Windows

Nouveau dans la version 1.5.2.

The *winsound* module provides access to the basic sound-playing machinery provided by Windows platforms. It includes functions and several constants.

winsound.Beep(*frequency*, *duration*)

Beep the PC's speaker. The *frequency* parameter specifies frequency, in hertz, of the sound, and must be in the range 37 through 32,767. The *duration* parameter specifies the number of milliseconds the sound should last. If the system is not able to beep the speaker, *RuntimeError* is raised.

Nouveau dans la version 1.6.

winsound.PlaySound(*sound*, *flags*)

Call the underlying `PlaySound()` function from the Platform API. The *sound* parameter may be a filename, audio data as a string, or `None`. Its interpretation depends on the value of *flags*, which can be a bitwise ORed combination of the constants described below. If the *sound* parameter is `None`, any currently playing waveform sound is stopped. If the system indicates an error, *RuntimeError* is raised.

winsound.MessageBeep([*type*=MB_OK])

Call the underlying `MessageBeep()` function from the Platform API. This plays a sound as specified in the registry. The *type* argument specifies which sound to play ; possible values are -1, `MB_ICONASTERISK`, `MB_ICONEXCLAMATION`, `MB_ICONHAND`, `MB_ICONQUESTION`, and `MB_OK`, all described below. The value -1 produces a « simple beep » ; this is the final fallback if a sound cannot be played otherwise.

Nouveau dans la version 2.3.

winsound.SND_FILENAME

The *sound* parameter is the name of a WAV file. Do not use with *SND_ALIAS*.

winsound.SND_ALIAS

The *sound* parameter is a sound association name from the registry. If the registry contains no such name, play the system default sound unless *SND_NODEFAULT* is also specified. If no default sound is registered, raise *RuntimeError*. Do not use with *SND_FILENAME*.

All Win32 systems support at least the following ; most systems support many more :

<i>PlaySound()</i> name	Corresponding Control Panel Sound name
'SystemAsterisk'	Asterisk
'SystemExclamation'	Exclamation
'SystemExit'	Exit Windows
'SystemHand'	Critical Stop
'SystemQuestion'	Question

Par exemple :

```
import winsound
# Play Windows exit sound.
winsound.PlaySound("SystemExit", winsound.SND_ALIAS)

# Probably play Windows default sound, if any is registered (because
# "*" probably isn't the registered name of any sound).
winsound.PlaySound("*", winsound.SND_ALIAS)
```

`winsound.SND_LOOP`

Play the sound repeatedly. The `SND_ASYNC` flag must also be used to avoid blocking. Cannot be used with `SND_MEMORY`.

`winsound.SND_MEMORY`

The *sound* parameter to `PlaySound()` is a memory image of a WAV file, as a string.

Note : This module does not support playing from a memory image asynchronously, so a combination of this flag and `SND_ASYNC` will raise `RuntimeError`.

`winsound.SND_PURGE`

Stop playing all instances of the specified sound.

Note : This flag is not supported on modern Windows platforms.

`winsound.SND_ASYNC`

Return immediately, allowing sounds to play asynchronously.

`winsound.SND_NODEFAULT`

If the specified sound cannot be found, do not play the system default sound.

`winsound.SND_NOSTOP`

Do not interrupt sounds currently playing.

`winsound.SND_NOWAIT`

Return immediately if the sound driver is busy.

Note : This flag is not supported on modern Windows platforms.

`winsound.MB_ICONASTERISK`

Play the `SystemDefault` sound.

`winsound.MB_ICONEXCLAMATION`

Play the `SystemExclamation` sound.

`winsound.MB_ICONHAND`

Play the `SystemHand` sound.

`winsound.MB_ICONQUESTION`

Play the `SystemQuestion` sound.

`winsound.MB_OK`

Play the `SystemDefault` sound.

Services spécifiques à Unix

Les modules décrits dans ce chapitre fournissent des interfaces aux fonctionnalités propres au système d'exploitation Unix ou, dans certains cas, à certaines de ses variantes, en voici un aperçu :

36.1 `posix` — Les appels système POSIX les plus courants

Ce module permet d'accéder aux fonctionnalités du système d'exploitation normalisés par le Standard C et le Standard POSIX (une interface Unix habilement déguisée).

Ne pas importer ce module directement. À la place, importer le module `os`, qui fournit une version *portable* de cette interface. Sous Unix, le module `os` fournit un sur-ensemble de l'interface `posix`. Sous les systèmes d'exploitation non Unix le module `posix` n'est pas disponible, mais un sous ensemble est toujours disponible via l'interface `os`. Une fois que `os` est importé, il n'y a aucune perte de performance à l'utiliser à la place de `posix`. De plus, `os` fournit des fonctionnalités supplémentaires, telles que l'appel automatique de `putenv()` lorsqu'une entrée dans `os.environ` est modifiée.

Les erreurs sont signalées comme des exceptions ; les exceptions habituelles sont données pour les erreurs de type, tandis que les erreurs signalées par les appels système lèvent une erreur `OSError`.

36.1.1 Prise en charge de gros fichiers

Several operating systems (including AIX, HP-UX, Irix and Solaris) provide support for files that are larger than 2 GB from a C programming model where `int` and `long` are 32-bit values. This is typically accomplished by defining the relevant size and offset types as 64-bit values. Such files are sometimes referred to as *large files*.

Large file support is enabled in Python when the size of an `off_t` is larger than a `long` and the `long long` type is available and is at least as large as an `off_t`. Python longs are then used to represent file sizes, offsets and other values that can exceed the range of a Python int. It may be necessary to configure and compile Python with certain compiler flags to enable this mode. For example, it is enabled by default with recent versions of Irix, but with Solaris 2.6 and 2.7 you need to do something like :

```
CFLAGS="`getconf LFS_CFLAGS`" OPT="-g -O2 $CFLAGS" \  
./configure
```

Sur les systèmes Linux capable de supporter les fichiers volumineux, cela pourrait fonctionner :

```
CFLAGS='-D_LARGEFILE64_SOURCE -D_FILE_OFFSET_BITS=64' OPT="-g -O2 $CFLAGS" \  
./configure
```

36.1.2 Contenu du Module

En plus des nombreuses fonctions décrites dans la documentation du module *os*, *posix* possède les éléments suivants :

`posix.envIRON`

A dictionary representing the string environment at the time the interpreter was started. For example, `environ['HOME']` is the pathname of your home directory, equivalent to `getenv("HOME")` in C.

Modifier ce dictionnaire n'affecte pas les variables d'environnements fournis par *execv()*, *popen()* ou *system()* ; Si vous avez besoin de changer l'environnement, passer le paramètre `environ` à *execve()* ou ajouter les assignations de variables et les *export* à la commande à exécuter via *system()* ou *popen()*.

Note : The *os* module provides an alternate implementation of `environ` which updates the environment on modification. Note also that updating `os.environ` will render this dictionary obsolete. Use of the *os* module version of this is recommended over direct access to the *posix* module.

36.2 pwd — The password database

This module provides access to the Unix user account and password database. It is available on all Unix versions.

Password database entries are reported as a tuple-like object, whose attributes correspond to the members of the `passwd` structure (Attribute field below, see `<pwd.h>`) :

Index	Attribut	Signification
0	<code>pw_name</code>	Login name
1	<code>pw_passwd</code>	Optional encrypted password
2	<code>pw_uid</code>	Numerical user ID
3	<code>pw_gid</code>	Numerical group ID
4	<code>pw_gecos</code>	User name or comment field
5	<code>pw_dir</code>	User home directory
6	<code>pw_shell</code>	User command interpreter

The uid and gid items are integers, all others are strings. *KeyError* is raised if the entry asked for cannot be found.

Note : In traditional Unix the field `pw_passwd` usually contains a password encrypted with a DES derived algorithm (see module *crypt*). However most modern unices use a so-called *shadow password* system. On those unices the `pw_passwd` field only contains an asterisk ('*') or the letter 'x' where the encrypted password is stored in a file `/etc/shadow` which is not world readable. Whether the `pw_passwd` field contains anything useful is system-dependent. If available, the *spwd* module should be used where access to the encrypted password is required.

It defines the following items :

`pwd.getpwuid(uid)`

Return the password database entry for the given numeric user ID.

`pwd.getpwnam(name)`

Return the password database entry for the given user name.

`pwd.getpwall()`

Return a list of all available password database entries, in arbitrary order.

Voir aussi :

Module `grp` An interface to the group database, similar to this.

Module `spwd` An interface to the shadow password database, similar to this.

36.3 spwd — The shadow password database

Nouveau dans la version 2.5.

This module provides access to the Unix shadow password database. It is available on various Unix versions.

You must have enough privileges to access the shadow password database (this usually means you have to be root).

Shadow password database entries are reported as a tuple-like object, whose attributes correspond to the members of the `spwd` structure (Attribute field below, see `<shadow.h>`) :

Index	Attribut	Signification
0	<code>sp_nam</code>	Login name
1	<code>sp_pwd</code>	Encrypted password
2	<code>sp_lstchg</code>	Date of last change
3	<code>sp_min</code>	Minimal number of days between changes
4	<code>sp_max</code>	Maximum number of days between changes
5	<code>sp_warn</code>	Number of days before password expires to warn user about it
6	<code>sp_inact</code>	Number of days after password expires until account is blocked
7	<code>sp_expire</code>	Number of days since 1970-01-01 until account is disabled
8	<code>sp_flag</code>	Réservé

The `sp_nam` and `sp_pwd` items are strings, all others are integers. `KeyError` is raised if the entry asked for cannot be found.

It defines the following items :

`spwd.getspnam(name)`

Return the shadow password database entry for the given user name.

`spwd.getspall()`

Return a list of all available shadow password database entries, in arbitrary order.

Voir aussi :

Module `grp` An interface to the group database, similar to this.

Module `pwd` An interface to the normal password database, similar to this.

36.4 grp — The group database

This module provides access to the Unix group database. It is available on all Unix versions.

Group database entries are reported as a tuple-like object, whose attributes correspond to the members of the `group` structure (Attribute field below, see `<pwd.h>`) :

Index	Attribut	Signification
0	gr_name	the name of the group
1	gr_passwd	the (encrypted) group password ; often empty
2	gr_gid	the numerical group ID
3	gr_mem	all the group member's user names

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. Check both databases to get complete membership information. Also note that a `gr_name` that starts with a `+` or `-` is likely to be a YP/NIS reference and may not be accessible via `getgrnam()` or `getgrgid()`.)

It defines the following items :

`grp.getgrgid(gid)`

Return the group database entry for the given numeric group ID. `KeyError` is raised if the entry asked for cannot be found.

`grp.getgrnam(name)`

Return the group database entry for the given group name. `KeyError` is raised if the entry asked for cannot be found.

`grp.getgrall()`

Return a list of all available group entries, in arbitrary order.

Voir aussi :

Module `pwd` An interface to the user database, similar to this.

Module `spwd` An interface to the shadow password database, similar to this.

36.5 crypt — Function to check Unix passwords

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.

Notice that the behavior of this module depends on the actual implementation of the `crypt(3)` routine in the running system. Therefore, any extensions available on the current implementation will also be available on this module.

`crypt.crypt(word, salt)`

`word` will usually be a user's password as typed at a prompt or in a graphical interface. `salt` is usually a random two-character string which will be used to perturb the DES algorithm in one of 4096 ways. The characters in `salt` must be in the set `[/a-zA-Z0-9]`. Returns the hashed password as a string, which will be composed of characters from the same alphabet as the salt (the first two characters represent the salt itself).

Since a few `crypt(3)` extensions allow different values, with different sizes in the `salt`, it is recommended to use the full crypted password as salt when checking for a password.

A simple example illustrating typical use :

```
import crypt, getpass, pwd

def login():
    username = raw_input('Python login:')
    cryptpasswd = pwd.getpwnam(username)[1]
```

(suite sur la page suivante)

(suite de la page précédente)

```

if cryptedpasswd:
    if cryptedpasswd == 'x' or cryptedpasswd == '*':
        raise NotImplementedError(
            "Sorry, currently no support for shadow passwords")
    cleartext = getpass.getpass()
    return crypt.crypt(cleartext, cryptedpasswd) == cryptedpasswd
else:
    return 1

```

36.6 dl — Call C functions in shared objects

Obsolète depuis la version 2.6 : The `dl` module has been removed in Python 3. Use the `ctypes` module instead.

The `dl` module defines an interface to the `dlopen()` function, which is the most common interface on Unix platforms for handling dynamically linked libraries. It allows the program to call arbitrary functions in such a library.

Avertissement : The `dl` module bypasses the Python type system and error handling. If used incorrectly it may cause segmentation faults, crashes or other incorrect behaviour.

Note : This module will not work unless `sizeof(int) == sizeof(long) == sizeof(char *)`. If this is not the case, `SystemError` will be raised on import.

The `dl` module defines the following function :

`dl.open(name[, mode=RTLD_LAZY])`
 Open a shared object file, and return a handle. Mode signifies late binding (`RTLD_LAZY`) or immediate binding (`RTLD_NOW`). Default is `RTLD_LAZY`. Note that some systems do not support `RTLD_NOW`.
 Return value is a `dlobj`ect.

The `dl` module defines the following constants :

`dl.RTLD_LAZY`
 Useful as an argument to `open()`.

`dl.RTLD_NOW`
 Useful as an argument to `open()`. Note that on systems which do not support immediate binding, this constant will not appear in the module. For maximum portability, use `hasattr()` to determine if the system supports immediate binding.

The `dl` module defines the following exception :

exception `dl.error`
 Exception raised when an error has occurred inside the dynamic loading and linking routines.

Exemple :

```

>>> import dl, time
>>> a=dl.open('/lib/libc.so.6')
>>> a.call('time'), time.time()
(929723914, 929723914.498)

```

This example was tried on a Debian GNU/Linux system, and is a good example of the fact that using this module is usually a bad alternative.

36.6.1 Dl Objects

Dl objects, as returned by `open()` above, have the following methods :

`dl.close()`

Free all resources, except the memory.

`dl.sym(name)`

Return the pointer for the function named *name*, as a number, if it exists in the referenced shared object, otherwise `None`. This is useful in code like :

```
>>> if a.sym('time'):  
...     a.call('time')  
... else:  
...     time.time()
```

(Note that this function will return a non-zero number, as zero is the *NULL* pointer)

`dl.call(name[, arg1[, arg2...]])`

Call the function named *name* in the referenced shared object. The arguments must be either Python integers, which will be passed as is, Python strings, to which a pointer will be passed, or `None`, which will be passed as *NULL*. Note that strings should only be passed to functions as `const char*`, as Python will not like its string mutated.

There must be at most 10 arguments, and arguments not given will be treated as `None`. The function's return value must be a C long, which is a Python integer.

36.7 termios — Le style POSIX le contrôle TTY

This module provides an interface to the POSIX calls for tty I/O control. For a complete description of these calls, see *termios(2)* Unix manual page. It is only available for those Unix versions that support POSIX *termios* style tty I/O control configured during installation.

All functions in this module take a file descriptor *fd* as their first argument. This can be an integer file descriptor, such as returned by `sys.stdin.fileno()`, or a file object, such as `sys.stdin` itself.

Ce module définit aussi toutes les constantes nécessaires pour travailler avec les fonctions fournies ici ; elles ont les mêmes noms que leurs équivalents en C. Pour plus d'informations sur l'utilisation de ces terminaux, veuillez vous référer à votre documentation système.

Le module définit les fonctions suivantes :

`termios.tcgetattr(fd)`

Retourne une liste contenant les attributs TTY pour le descripteur de fichier *fd*, tel que : `[iflag, oflag, cflag, lflag, ispeed, ospeed, cc]` où *cc* est une liste de caractères spéciaux TTY (chacun est une chaîne de caractère de longueur 1, à l'exception des éléments ayant les indices *VMIN* et *VTIME*, ceux-ci sont alors des entiers quand ces champs sont définis). L'interprétation des options (*flags* en anglais) et des vitesses ainsi que l'indexation dans le tableau *cc* doit être fait en utilisant les constantes symboliques définies dans le module *termios*.

`termios.tcsetattr(fd, when, attributes)`

Définit les attributs TTY pour le descripteur de fichiers *fd* à partir des *attributes*, qui est une liste comme celle retournée par `tcgetattr()`. L'argument *when* détermine quand les attributs sont changés : *TCSANOW* pour un changement immédiat, *TCSADRAIN* pour un changement après la transmission de toute sortie en file d'attente, ou *TCSAFLUSH* pour un changement après avoir transmis toute sortie en file d'attente et rejeté toutes entrées en file d'attente.

`termios.tcsendbreak(fd, duration)`

Envoie une pause sur le descripteur de fichier *fd*. Une *duration* à zéro envoie une pause de 0.25 —0.5 seconde ; Une *duration* différente de zéro a une définition spécifique pour chaque système.

`termios.tcdrain(fd)`

Attends que toutes les sorties écrites dans le descripteur de fichier *fd* soient transmises.

`termios.tcflush(fd, queue)`

Vide la queue de données du descripteur de fichier *fd*. Le sélecteur *queue* précise la queue : TCIFLUSH pour la queue des entrées, TCOFLUSH pour la queue des sorties, ou TCIOFLUSH pour les deux queues.

`termios.tcflow(fd, action)`

Suspend ou reprends l'entrée ou la sortie du descripteur de fichier *fd*. L'argument *action* peut être TCOOFF pour suspendre la sortie, TCOON pour relancer la sortie, TCIOFF pour suspendre l'entrée, ou TCION pour relancer l'entrée.

Voir aussi :

Le module `tty` Fonctions utiles pour les opérations de contrôle communes dans le terminal.

36.7.1 Exemple

Voici une fonction qui demande à l'utilisateur d'entrer un mot de passe sans l'afficher. Remarquez la technique qui consiste à séparer un appel à `tcgetattr()` et une instruction `try... finally` pour s'assurer que les anciens attributs `tty` soient restaurés tels quels quoi qu'il arrive :

```
def getpass(prompt="Password: "):
    import 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
```

36.8 tty — Fonctions de gestion du terminal

Le module `tty` expose des fonctions permettant de mettre le `tty` en mode *cbreak* ou *raw*.

Puisqu'il a besoin du module `termios`, il ne fonctionnera que sur Unix.

Le module `tty` définit les fonctions suivantes :

`tty.setraw(fd[, when])`

Définit le mode du descripteur de fichier *fd* à *raw*. Par défaut, *when* vaut `termios.TCSAFLUSH`, et est passé à `termios.tcsetattr()`.

`tty.setcbreak(fd[, when])`

Définit le mode du descripteur de fichier *fd* à *cbreak*. *when* vaut `termios.TCSAFLUSH` par défaut, et est passé à `termios.tcsetattr()`.

Voir aussi :

Module `termios` Interface bas niveau de gestion du terminal.

36.9 pty — Outils de manipulation de pseudo-terminals

Le module `pty` expose des fonctions de manipulation de pseudo-terminals, il permet d'écrire un programme capable de démarrer un autre processus, d'écrire et de lire depuis son terminal.

La gestion de pseudo-terminals étant très dépendante de la plateforme, ce code ne gère que Linux. (Code supposé fonctionner sur d'autres plateformes, mais sans avoir été testé).

Le module `pty` expose les fonctions suivantes :

`pty.fork()`

Fork. Connecte le terminal contrôlé par le fils à un pseudo-terminal. La valeur renvoyée est (`pid`, `fd`). Notez que le fils obtient 0 comme `pid` et un `fd` non valide. Le parent obtient le `pid` du fils, et `fd` un descripteur de fichier connecté à un terminal contrôlé par le fils (et donc à l'entrée et la sortie standard du fils).

`pty.openpty()`

Ouvre une nouvelle paire de pseudo-terminals, en utilisant si possible `os.openpty()`, ou du code émulant la fonctionnalité pour des systèmes Unix génériques. Renvoie une paire de descripteurs de fichier (`master`, `slave`), pour le maître et pour l'esclave respectivement.

`pty.spawn(argv[, master_read[, stdin_read]])`

Crée un nouveau processus et connecte son terminal aux entrées/sorties standard du processus courant. C'est typiquement utilisé pour duper les programmes insistant sur le fait de lire depuis leur terminal. Les fonctions `master_read` et `stdin_read` doivent être des fonctions lisant sur un descripteur de fichier. Par défaut elles lisent 1024 octets à chaque fois qu'elles sont appelées.

36.10 fcntl — The fcntl and ioctl system calls

This module performs file control and I/O control on file descriptors. It is an interface to the `fcntl()` and `ioctl()` Unix routines. For a complete description of these calls, see `fcntl(2)` and `ioctl(2)` Unix manual pages.

All functions in this module take a file descriptor `fd` as their first argument. This can be an integer file descriptor, such as returned by `sys.stdin.fileno()`, or a file object, such as `sys.stdin` itself, which provides a `fileno()` which returns a genuine file descriptor.

Le module définit les fonctions suivantes :

`fcntl.fcntl(fd, op[, arg])`

Perform the operation `op` on file descriptor `fd` (file objects providing a `fileno()` method are accepted as well). The values used for `op` are operating system dependent, and are available as constants in the `fcntl` module, using the same names as used in the relevant C header files. The argument `arg` is optional, and defaults to the integer value 0. When 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 C `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 C `fcntl()` call. The return value after a successful call is the contents of the buffer, converted to a string object. The length of the returned string will be the same as the length of the `arg` argument. This is limited to 1024 bytes. If the information returned in the buffer by the operating system is larger than 1024 bytes, this is most likely to result in a segmentation violation or a more subtle data corruption. If the `fcntl()` fails, an `IOError` is raised.

`fcntl.ioctl(fd, op[, arg[, mutate_flag]])`

This function is identical to the `fcntl()` function, except that the operations are typically defined in the library module `termios` and the argument handling is even more complicated.

The *op* parameter is limited to values that can fit in 32-bits. Additional constants of interest for use as the *op* argument can be found in the `termios` module, under the same names as used in the relevant C header files.

The parameter *arg* can be one of an integer, absent (treated identically to the integer 0), an object supporting the read-only buffer interface (most likely a plain Python string) or an object supporting the read-write buffer interface.

In all but the last case, behaviour is as for the `fcntl()` function.

If a mutable buffer is passed, then the behaviour is determined by the value of the `mutate_flag` parameter.

If it is false, the buffer's mutability is ignored and behaviour is as for a read-only buffer, except that the 1024 byte limit mentioned above is avoided – so long as the buffer you pass is at least as long as what the operating system wants to put there, things should work.

If `mutate_flag` is true, then the buffer is (in effect) passed to the underlying `ioctl()` system call, the latter's return code is passed back to the calling Python, and the buffer's new contents reflect the action of the `ioctl()`. This is a slight simplification, because if the supplied buffer is less than 1024 bytes long it is first copied into a static buffer 1024 bytes long which is then passed to `ioctl()` and copied back into the supplied buffer.

If `mutate_flag` is not supplied, then from Python 2.5 it defaults to true, which is a change from versions 2.3 and 2.4. Supply the argument explicitly if version portability is a priority.

If the `ioctl()` fails, an `IOError` exception is raised.

Un exemple :

```
>>> import array, fcntl, struct, termios, os
>>> os.getpgrp()
13341
>>> struct.unpack('h', fcntl.ioctl(0, termios.TIOCGPGRP, "  ")) [0]
13341
>>> buf = array.array('h', [0])
>>> fcntl.ioctl(0, termios.TIOCGPGRP, buf, 1)
0
>>> buf
array('h', [13341])
```

`fcntl.flock(fd, op)`

Perform the lock operation *op* on file descriptor *fd* (file objects providing a `fileno()` method are accepted as well). See the Unix manual `flock(2)` for details. (On some systems, this function is emulated using `fcntl()`.)

If the `flock()` fails, an `IOError` exception is raised.

`fcntl.lockf(fd, operation[, length[, start[, whence]]])`

This is essentially a wrapper around the `fcntl()` locking calls. *fd* is the file descriptor of the file to lock or unlock, and *operation* is one of the following values :

- `LOCK_UN` – unlock
- `LOCK_SH` – acquire a shared lock
- `LOCK_EX` – acquire an exclusive lock

When *operation* is `LOCK_SH` or `LOCK_EX`, it can also be bitwise ORed with `LOCK_NB` to avoid blocking on lock acquisition. If `LOCK_NB` is used and the lock cannot be acquired, an `IOError` will be raised and the exception will have an `errno` attribute set to `EACCES` or `EAGAIN` (depending on the operating system; for portability, check for both values). On at least some systems, `LOCK_EX` can only be used if the file descriptor refers to a file opened for writing.

length is the number of bytes to lock, *start* is the byte offset at which the lock starts, relative to *whence*, and *whence* is as with `io.IOBase.seek()`, specifically :

- 0 – relative to the start of the file (`os.SEEK_SET`)

- 1 – relative to the current buffer position (*os.SEEK_CUR*)
- 2 – relative to the end of the file (*os.SEEK_END*)

The default for *start* is 0, which means to start at the beginning of the file. The default for *length* is 0 which means to lock to the end of the file. The default for *whence* is also 0.

Examples (all on a SVR4 compliant system) :

```
import struct, fcntl, os

f = open(...)
rv = fcntl.fcntl(f, fcntl.F_SETFL, os.O_NDELAY)

lockdata = struct.pack('hhllhh', fcntl.F_WRLCK, 0, 0, 0, 0, 0)
rv = fcntl.fcntl(f, 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 *lockdata* variable is system dependent — therefore using the *flock()* call may be better.

Voir aussi :

Module *os* If the locking flags *O_SHLOCK* and *O_EXLOCK* are present in the *os* module (on BSD only), the *os.open()* function provides an alternative to the *lockf()* and *flock()* functions.

36.11 pipes — Interface au *pipelines* shell

Code source : [Lib/pipes.py](#)

Le module *pipes* définit une classe permettant d'abstraire le concept de *pipeline* — une séquence de convertisseurs d'un fichier vers un autre.

Du fait que le module utilise les lignes de commandes */bin/sh*, un shell POSIX ou compatible est requis pour *os.system()* et *os.popen()*.

class *pipes.Template*
Une abstraction d'un *pipeline*.

Exemple :

```
>>> import pipes
>>> t = pipes.Template()
>>> t.append('tr a-z A-Z', '--')
>>> f = t.open('pipefile', 'w')
>>> f.write('hello world')
>>> f.close()
>>> open('pipefile').read()
'HELLO WORLD'
```

pipes.quote(s)

Obsolète depuis la version 2.7 : Prior to Python 2.7, this function was not publicly documented. It is finally exposed publicly in Python 3.3 as the *quote* function in the *shlex* module.

Return a shell-escaped version of the string *s*. The returned value is a string that can safely be used as one token in a shell command line, for cases where you cannot use a list.

This idiom would be unsafe :

```
>>> filename = 'somefile; rm -rf ~'
>>> command = 'ls -l {}'.format(filename)
>>> print command # executed by a shell: boom!
ls -l somefile; rm -rf ~
```

`quote()` lets you plug the security hole :

```
>>> command = 'ls -l {}'.format(quote(filename))
>>> print command
ls -l 'somefile; rm -rf ~'
>>> remote_command = 'ssh home {}'.format(quote(command))
>>> print remote_command
ssh home 'ls -l \''somefile; rm -rf ~\''
```

The quoting is compatible with UNIX shells and with `shlex.split()` :

```
>>> remote_command = shlex.split(remote_command)
>>> remote_command
['ssh', 'home', 'ls -l 'somefile; rm -rf ~']
>>> command = shlex.split(remote_command[-1])
>>> command
['ls', '-l', 'somefile; rm -rf ~']
```

36.11.1 L'Objet *Template*

Les méthodes de l'objet *Template* :

Template.reset()

Réinitialise un modèle de *pipeline* à son état initial.

Template.clone()

Renvoie un nouveau modèle de *pipeline*, équivalent.

Template.debug(flag)

Si *flag* est vrai, active le débogage. Sinon, le désactive. Quand le débogage est actif, les commandes à exécuter seront affichées et le shell est pourvu de la commande `set -x` afin d'être plus verbeux.

Template.append(cmd, kind)

Ajoute une nouvelle action à la fin. La variable *cmd* doit être une commande *bourne shell* valide. La variable *kind* est composée de deux lettres.

La première lettre peut soit être '-' (qui signifie que la commande lit sa sortie standard), soit 'f' (qui signifie que la commande lit un fichier donné par la ligne de commande), soit '.' (qui signifie que la commande ne lit pas d'entrée, et donc doit être la première.)

De même, la seconde lettre peut soit être '-' (qui signifie que la commande écrit sur la sortie standard), soit 'f' (qui signifie que la commande écrit sur un fichier donné par la ligne de commande), soit '.' (qui signifie que la commande n'écrit rien, et donc doit être la dernière.)

Template.prepend(cmd, kind)

Ajoute une nouvelle action au début. Voir `append()` pour plus d'explications sur les arguments.

Template.open(file, mode)

Renvoie un objet *file-like*, ouvert à *file*, mais permettant d'écrire vers le *pipeline* ou de lire depuis celui-ci. À noter que seulement un des deux ("r" ou "w") peut être donné.

Template.copy(infile, outfile)

Copie *infile* vers *outfile* au travers du *pipe*.

36.12 posixfile — File-like objects with locking support

Obsolète depuis la version 1.5 : The locking operation that this module 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.fcntl()` for file locking.

To instantiate a `posixfile` object, use the `posixfile.open()` function. The resulting object looks and feels roughly the same as a standard file object.

The `posixfile` module defines the following constants :

`posixfile.SEEK_SET`

Offset is calculated from the start of the file.

`posixfile.SEEK_CUR`

Offset is calculated from the current position in the file.

`posixfile.SEEK_END`

Offset is calculated from the end of the file.

The `posixfile` module defines the following functions :

`posixfile.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.

`posixfile.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 :

`posixfile.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(2)` manual page on your system.

`posixfile.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(2)` manual page on your system.

`posixfile.dup()`

Duplicate the file object and the underlying file pointer and file descriptor. The resulting object behaves as if it were newly opened.

`posixfile.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.

`posixfile.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 raise *`IOError`* when the request fails.

Format characters for the `lock()` method have the following meaning :

Format	Signification
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	Signification	Notes
l	wait until the lock has been granted	
?	return the first lock conflicting with the requested lock, or <code>None</code> 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 characters for the `flags()` method have the following meanings :

Format	Signification
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	Signification	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)

Notes :

- (1) The `!` and `=` modifiers are mutually exclusive.
- (2) This string represents the flags after they may have been altered by the same call.

Exemples :

```
import posixfile

file = posixfile.open('testfile', 'w')
file.lock('w|')
...
file.lock('u')
file.close()
```

36.13 resource — Resource usage information

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 :

exception resource.error

The functions described below may raise this error if the underlying system call failures unexpectedly.

36.13.1 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(2)` 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.

resource.RLIM_INFINITY

Constant used to represent the limit for an unlimited resource.

resource.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 `error` if the underlying system call fails unexpectedly.

resource.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 `RLIM_INFINITY` can be used to request a limit that is unlimited.

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. Specifying a limit of `RLIM_INFINITY` when the hard or system limit for that resource is not unlimited will result in a `ValueError`. A process with the effective UID of super-user can request any valid limit value, including unlimited, but `ValueError` will still be raised if the requested limit exceeds the system imposed limit.

`setrlimit` may also raise `error` if the underlying system call fails.

These symbols define resources whose consumption can be controlled using the `setrlimit()` and `getrlimit()` functions described below. The values of these symbols are exactly the constants used by C programs.

The Unix man page for `getrlimit(2)` lists the available resources. Note that not all systems use the same symbol or same value to denote the same resource. This module does not attempt to mask platform differences — symbols not defined for a platform will not be available from this module on that platform.

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.

resource.RLIMIT_CPU

The maximum amount of processor 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.)

`resource.RLIMIT_FSIZE`

The maximum size of a file which the process may create.

`resource.RLIMIT_DATA`

The maximum size (in bytes) of the process's heap.

`resource.RLIMIT_STACK`

The maximum size (in bytes) of the call stack for the current process. This only affects the stack of the main thread in a multi-threaded process.

`resource.RLIMIT_RSS`

The maximum resident set size that should be made available to the process.

`resource.RLIMIT_NPROC`

The maximum number of processes the current process may create.

`resource.RLIMIT_NOFILE`

The maximum number of open file descriptors for the current process.

`resource.RLIMIT_OFILE`

The BSD name for [*RLIMIT_NOFILE*](#).

`resource.RLIMIT_MEMLOCK`

The maximum address space which may be locked in memory.

`resource.RLIMIT_VMEM`

The largest area of mapped memory which the process may occupy.

`resource.RLIMIT_AS`

The maximum area (in bytes) of address space which may be taken by the process.

36.13.2 Resource Usage

These functions are used to retrieve resource usage information :

`resource.getrusage(who)`

This function returns an object 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 fields of the return value each describe how a particular system resource has been used, e.g. amount of time spent running in user mode or number of times the process was swapped out of main memory. Some values are dependent on the clock tick interval, e.g. the amount of memory the process is using. For backward compatibility, the return value is also accessible as a tuple of 16 elements.

The fields `ru_utime` and `ru_stime` 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(2)* man page for detailed information about these values. A brief summary is presented here :

Index	Field	Resource
0	<code>ru_utime</code>	time in user mode (float)
1	<code>ru_stime</code>	time in system mode (float)
2	<code>ru_maxrss</code>	maximum resident set size
3	<code>ru_ixrss</code>	shared memory size
4	<code>ru_idrss</code>	unshared memory size
5	<code>ru_isrss</code>	unshared stack size
6	<code>ru_minflt</code>	page faults not requiring I/O
7	<code>ru_majflt</code>	page faults requiring I/O
8	<code>ru_nswap</code>	number of swap outs
9	<code>ru_inblock</code>	block input operations
10	<code>ru_oublock</code>	block output operations
11	<code>ru_msgsnd</code>	messages sent
12	<code>ru_msgrcv</code>	messages received
13	<code>ru_nsignals</code>	signals received
14	<code>ru_nvcsw</code>	voluntary context switches
15	<code>ru_nivcsw</code>	involuntary context switches

This function will raise a *ValueError* if an invalid *who* parameter is specified. It may also raise *error* exception in unusual circumstances.

Modifié dans la version 2.3 : Added access to values as attributes of the returned object.

`resource.getpagesize()`

Returns the number of bytes in a system page. (This need not be the same as the hardware page size.)

The following `RUSAGE_*` symbols are passed to the *getrusage()* function to specify which processes information should be provided for.

`resource.RUSAGE_SELF`

RUSAGE_SELF should be used to request information pertaining only to the process itself.

`resource.RUSAGE_CHILDREN`

Pass to *getrusage()* to request resource information for child processes of the calling process.

`resource.RUSAGE_BOTH`

Pass to *getrusage()* to request resources consumed by both the current process and child processes. May not be available on all systems.

36.14 nis — Interface à Sun's NIS (pages jaunes)

Le module *nis* est une simple abstraction de la librairie NIS, utile pour l'administration centralisée de plusieurs hôtes.

Du fait que NIS existe seulement sur les systèmes Unix, ce module est seulement disponible pour Unix.

Le module *nis* définit les instructions suivantes :

`nis.match(key, mapname[, domain=default_domain])`

Renvoie la valeur correspondante à *key* dans carte *mapname*, ou lève une erreur (*nis.error*) s'il n'y en a pas. Toutes les deux doivent être des chaînes, *key* doit être une chaîne ASCII. La valeur renvoyée est un dictionnaire arbitraire d'octets (pourrait contenir NULL et autres joyeusetés).

Notez que *mapname* est vérifié la première fois si c'est un alias d'un autre nom.

Modifié dans la version 2.5 : L'argument *domain* permet de passer outre le domaine NIS utilisé pour les recherches. Lorsqu'il n'est pas spécifié, recherche est dans le domaine NIS défaut.

`nis.cat(mapname[, domain=default_domain])`

Renvoie un dictionnaire qui associe *key* à *value* tel que `match(key, mapname)==value`. Notez que les clés comme les valeurs peuvent contenir des séquences arbitraires d'octets.

Notez que *mapname* est vérifié la première fois si c'est un alias d'un autre nom.

Modifié dans la version 2.5 : L'argument *domain* permet de passer outre le domaine NIS utilisé pour les recherches. Lorsqu'il n'est pas spécifié, recherche est dans le domaine NIS défaut.

`nis.maps([domain=default_domain])`

Renvoie la liste de toutes les correspondances valides.

Modifié dans la version 2.5 : L'argument *domain* permet de passer outre le domaine NIS utilisé pour les recherches. Lorsqu'il n'est pas spécifié, recherche est dans le domaine NIS défaut.

`nis.get_default_domain()`

Renvoie le domaine NIS par défaut du système.

Nouveau dans la version 2.5.

Le module *nis* définit les exceptions suivantes :

exception `nis.error`

Une erreur apparaît quand une fonction NIS renvoie un code d'erreur.

36.15 syslog — Unix syslog library routines

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.

This module wraps the system **syslog** family of routines. A pure Python library that can speak to a syslog server is available in the *logging.handlers* module as **SysLogHandler**.

Le module définit les fonctions suivantes :

`syslog.syslog(message)`

`syslog.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_INFO`, determines the message priority. If the facility is not encoded in *priority* using logical-or (`LOG_INFO | LOG_USER`), the value given in the *openlog()* call is used.

If *openlog()* has not been called prior to the call to *syslog()*, *openlog()* will be called with no arguments.

`syslog.openlog([ident[, logoption[, facility]]])`

Logging options of subsequent *syslog()* calls can be set by calling *openlog()*. *syslog()* will call *openlog()* with no arguments if the log is not currently open.

The optional *ident* keyword argument is a string which is prepended to every message, and defaults to `sys.argv[0]` with leading path components stripped. The optional *logoption* keyword argument (default is 0) is a bit field – see below for possible values to combine. The optional *facility* keyword argument (default is `LOG_USER`) sets the default facility for messages which do not have a facility explicitly encoded.

`syslog.closelog()`

Reset the syslog module values and call the system library *closelog()*.

This causes the module to behave as it does when initially imported. For example, *openlog()* will be called on the first *syslog()* call (if *openlog()* hasn't already been called), and *ident* and other *openlog()* parameters are reset to defaults.

`syslog.setlogmask(maskpri)`

Set the priority mask to *maskpri* and return 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`, `LOG_SYSLOG` and `LOG_LOCAL0` to `LOG_LOCAL7`.

Log options : `LOG_PID`, `LOG_CONS`, `LOG_NDELAY`, `LOG_NOWAIT` and `LOG_PERROR` if defined in `<syslog.h>`.

36.15.1 Examples

Simple example

A simple set of examples :

```
import syslog

syslog.syslog('Processing started')
if error:
    syslog.syslog(syslog.LOG_ERR, 'Processing started')
```

An example of setting some log options, these would include the process ID in logged messages, and write the messages to the destination facility used for mail logging :

```
syslog.openlog(logoption=syslog.LOG_PID, facility=syslog.LOG_MAIL)
syslog.syslog('E-mail processing initiated...')
```

36.16 commands — Utilities for running commands

Obsolète depuis la version 2.6 : The *commands* module has been removed in Python 3. Use the *subprocess* module instead.

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 *subprocess* module provides more powerful facilities for spawning new processes and retrieving their results. Using the *subprocess* module is preferable to using the *commands* module.

Note : In Python 3.x, *getstatus()* and two undocumented functions (*mk2arg()* and *mkarg()*) have been removed. Also, *getstatusoutput()* and *getoutput()* have been moved to the *subprocess* module.

The *commands* module defines the following functions :

`commands.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()*.

`commands.getoutput(cmd)`

Like *getstatusoutput()*, except the exit status is ignored and the return value is a string containing the command's output.

`commands.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.

Obsolète depuis la version 2.6 : This function is nonobvious and useless. The name is also misleading in the presence of `getstatusoutput()`.

Exemple :

```
>>> 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'
```

Voir aussi :

Module `subprocess` Module for spawning and managing subprocesses.

Mac OS X specific services

This chapter describes modules that are only available on the Mac OS X platform.

See the chapters *MacPython OSA Modules* and *Undocumented Mac OS modules* for more modules, and the HOWTO using-on-mac for a general introduction to Mac-specific Python programming.

Note : Most of the OS X APIs that these modules use are deprecated or removed in recent versions of OS X. Many are not available when Python is executing in 64-bit mode. These modules have been removed in Python 3. You should avoid using them in Python 2.

37.1 `ic` — Access to the Mac OS X Internet Config

This module provides access to various internet-related preferences set through **System Preferences** or the **Finder**.

Note : This module has been removed in Python 3.x.

There is a low-level companion module `icglue` which provides the basic Internet Config 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 Internet Config can produce; see the source for details.

exception `ic.error`

Exception raised on errors in the `ic` module.

The `ic` module defines the following class and function :

```
class ic.IC([signature[, ic]])
```

Create an Internet Config object. The signature is a 4-character creator code of the current application

(default 'Pyth') which may influence some of ICs settings. The optional *ic* argument is a low-level `icglue.icinstance` created beforehand, this may be useful if you want to get preferences from a different config file, etc.

```
ic.launchurl(url[, hint])
ic.parseurl(data[, start[, end[, hint]]])
ic.mapfile(file)
ic.maptypescreator(type, creator[, filename])
ic.settypescreator(file)
```

These functions are « shortcuts » to the methods of the same name, described below.

37.1.1 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 data structure. Running the *ic* module standalone will run a test program that lists all keys and values in your IC database, this will have to serve 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 :

IC.launchurl(url[, hint])

Parse the given URL, launch 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. If *hint* is not provided, incomplete URLs are invalid.

IC.parseurl(data[, start[, end[, hint]]])

Find a 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 text field you can pass the whole text field and the click-position in *start* and this routine will return the whole URL in which the user clicked. As above, *hint* is an optional scheme used to complete incomplete URLs.

IC.mapfile(file)

Return the mapping entry for the given *file*, which can be passed as either a filename or an `FSSpec()` result, 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-character filetype, *creator* is the 4-character creator type, *postcreator* is the 4-character 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.

IC.maptypescreator(type, creator[, filename])

Return the mapping entry for files with given 4-character *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*.

IC.settypescreator(file)

Given an existing *file*, specified either as a filename or as an `FSSpec()` result, 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.

37.2 MacOS — Access to Mac OS interpreter features

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 : This module has been removed in Python 3.x.

Note the capitalization of the module name; this is a historical artifact.

MacOS.runtimeModel

Always 'macho', from Python 2.4 on. In earlier versions of Python the value could also be 'ppc' for the classic Mac OS 8 runtime model or 'carbon' for the Mac OS 9 runtime model.

MacOS.linkModel

The way the interpreter has been linked. As extension modules may be incompatible between linking models, packages could use this information to give more decent error messages. The value is one of 'static' for a statically linked Python, 'framework' for Python in a Mac OS X framework, 'shared' for Python in a standard Unix shared library. Older Pythons could also have the value 'cfm' for Mac OS 9-compatible Python.

exception MacOS.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`.

MacOS.GetErrorString(errno)

Return the textual description of MacOS error code *errno*.

MacOS.DebugStr(message[, object])

On Mac OS X the string is simply printed to stderr (on older Mac OS systems more elaborate functionality was available), but it provides a convenient location to attach a breakpoint in a low-level debugger like `gdb`.

Note : Not available in 64-bit mode.

MacOS.SysBeep()

Ring the bell.

Note : Not available in 64-bit mode.

MacOS.GetTicks()

Get the number of clock ticks (1/60th of a second) since system boot.

MacOS.GetCreatorAndType(file)

Return the file creator and file type as two four-character strings. The *file* parameter can be a pathname or an `FSSpec` or `FSRef` object.

Note : It is not possible to use an `FSSpec` in 64-bit mode.

MacOS.SetCreatorAndType(file, creator, type)

Set the file creator and file type. The *file* parameter can be a pathname or an `FSSpec` or `FSRef` object. *creator* and *type* must be four character strings.

Note : It is not possible to use an `FSSpec` in 64-bit mode.

`MacOS.openrf(name[, mode])`

Open the resource fork of a file. Arguments are the same as for the built-in function `open()`. The object returned has file-like semantics, but it is not a Python file object, so there may be subtle differences.

`MacOS.WMAvailable()`

Checks whether the current process has access to the window manager. The method will return `False` if the window manager is not available, for instance when running on Mac OS X Server or when logged in via ssh, or when the current interpreter is not running from a fullblown application bundle. A script runs from an application bundle either when it has been started with `pythonw` instead of `python` or when running as an applet.

`MacOS.splash([resourceid])`

Opens a splash screen by resource id. Use resourceid 0 to close the splash screen.

Note : Not available in 64-bit mode.

37.3 macostools — Convenience routines for file manipulation

This module contains some convenience routines for file-manipulation on the Macintosh. All file parameters can be specified as pathnames, `FSRef` or `FSSpec` objects. This module expects a filesystem which supports forked files, so it should not be used on UFS partitions.

Note : This module has been removed in Python 3.

The `macostools` module defines the following functions :

`macostools.copy(src, dst[, createpath[, copytimes]])`

Copy file `src` to `dst`. If `createpath` is non-zero the folders leading to `dst` 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.

Note : This function does not work in 64-bit code because it uses APIs that are not available in 64-bit mode.

`macostools.copypath(src, dst)`

Recursively copy a file tree from `src` to `dst`, creating folders as needed. `src` and `dst` should be specified as pathnames.

Note : This function does not work in 64-bit code because it uses APIs that are not available in 64-bit mode.

`macostools.mkalias(src, dst)`

Create a finder alias `dst` pointing to `src`.

Note : This function does not work in 64-bit code because it uses APIs that are not available in 64-bit mode.

`macostools.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 tell the finder to redraw the files icon.

Obsolète depuis la version 2.6 : The function is a no-op on OS X.

`macostools.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.

37.4 findertools — The finder's Apple Events interface

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 `FSRef` or `FSSpec` objects.

The `findertools` module defines the following functions :

`findertools.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.

`findertools.Print(file)`

Tell the finder to print a file. The behaviour is identical to selecting the file and using the print command in the finder's file menu.

`findertools.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.

`findertools.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.

`findertools.sleep()`

Tell the finder to put the Macintosh to sleep, if your machine supports it.

`findertools.restart()`

Tell the finder to perform an orderly restart of the machine.

`findertools.shutdown()`

Tell the finder to perform an orderly shutdown of the machine.

37.5 EasyDialogs — Basic Macintosh dialogs

The `EasyDialogs` module contains some simple dialogs for the Macintosh. The dialogs get launched in a separate application which appears in the dock and must be clicked on for the dialogs be displayed. All routines take an optional resource ID parameter *id* with which one can override the `DLOG` resource used for the dialog, provided that the dialog items correspond (both type and item number) to those in the default `DLOG` resource. See source code for details.

Note : This module has been removed in Python 3.x.

The `EasyDialogs` module defines the following functions :

`EasyDialogs.Message(str[, id[, ok]])`

Displays a modal dialog with the message text *str*, which should be at most 255 characters long. The button text defaults to « OK », but is set to the string argument *ok* if the latter is supplied. Control is returned when the user clicks the « OK » button.

`EasyDialogs.AskString(prompt[, default[, id[, ok[, cancel]]]])`

Asks the user to input a string value via a modal dialog. *prompt* is the prompt message, and the optional *default* supplies the initial value for the string (otherwise "" is used). The text of the « OK » and « Cancel » buttons can be changed with the *ok* and *cancel* arguments. All strings can be at most 255 bytes long. *AskString()* returns the string entered or *None* in case the user cancelled.

`EasyDialogs.AskPassword(prompt[, default[, id[, ok[, cancel]]]])`

Asks the user to input a string value via a modal dialog. Like *AskString()*, but with the text shown as bullets. The arguments have the same meaning as for *AskString()*.

`EasyDialogs.AskYesNoCancel(question[, default[, yes[, no[, cancel[, id]]]])`

Presents a dialog with prompt *question* and three buttons labelled « Yes », « No », and « Cancel ». Returns 1 for « Yes », 0 for « No » and -1 for « Cancel ». The value of *default* (or 0 if *default* is not supplied) is returned when the RETURN key is pressed. The text of the buttons can be changed with the *yes*, *no*, and *cancel* arguments; to prevent a button from appearing, supply "" for the corresponding argument.

`EasyDialogs.ProgressBar([title[, maxval[, label[, id]]]])`

Displays a modeless progress-bar dialog. This is the constructor for the *ProgressBar* class described below. *title* is the text string displayed (default « Working... »), *maxval* is the value at which progress is complete (default 0, indicating that an indeterminate amount of work remains to be done), and *label* is the text that is displayed above the progress bar itself.

`EasyDialogs.GetArgv([optionlist[, commandlist[, addoldfile[, addnewfile[, addfolder[, id]]]]])`

Displays a dialog which aids the user in constructing a command-line argument list. Returns the list in `sys.argv` format, suitable for passing as an argument to *getopt.getopt()*. *addoldfile*, *addnewfile*, and *addfolder* are boolean arguments. When nonzero, they enable the user to insert into the command line paths to an existing file, a (possibly) not-yet-existent file, and a folder, respectively. (Note : Option arguments must appear in the command line before file and folder arguments in order to be recognized by *getopt.getopt()*.) Arguments containing spaces can be specified by enclosing them within single or double quotes. A *SystemExit* exception is raised if the user presses the « Cancel » button.

optionlist is a list that determines a popup menu from which the allowed options are selected. Its items can take one of two forms : *optstr* or (*optstr*, *descr*). When present, *descr* is a short descriptive string that is displayed in the dialog while this option is selected in the popup menu. The correspondence between *optstrs* and command-line arguments is :

<i>optstr</i> format	Command-line format
x	-x (short option)
x: or x=	-x (short option with value)
xyz	--xyz (long option)
xyz: or xyz=	--xyz (long option with value)

commandlist is a list of items of the form *cmdstr* or (*cmdstr*, *descr*), where *descr* is as above. The *cmdstrs* will appear in a popup menu. When chosen, the text of *cmdstr* will be appended to the command line as is, except that a trailing ':' or '=' (if present) will be trimmed off.

Nouveau dans la version 2.0.

`EasyDialogs.AskFileForOpen([message] [, typeList] [, defaultLocation] [, defaultOptionFlags] [, location] [, clientName] [, windowTitle] [, actionButtonLabel] [, cancelButtonLabel] [, preferenceKey] [, popupExtension] [, eventProc] [, previewProc] [, filterProc] [, wanted])`

Post a dialog asking the user for a file to open, and return the file selected or *None* if the user cancelled.

message is a text message to display, *typeList* is a list of 4-char filetypes allowable, *defaultLocation* is the pathname, *FSSpec* or *FSRef* of the folder to show initially, *location* is the (x, y) position on the screen where the dialog is shown, *actionButtonLabel* is a string to show instead of « Open » in the OK button, *cancelButtonLabel* is a string to show instead of « Cancel » in the cancel button, *wanted* is the type of value wanted as a return : *str*, *unicode*, *FSSpec*, *FSRef* and subtypes thereof are acceptable. For a description of the other arguments please see the Apple Navigation Services documentation and the *EasyDialogs* source code.

```
EasyDialogs.AskFileForSave([message] [, savedFileName] [, defaultLocation] [, defaultOptionFlags]
                           [, location] [, clientName] [, windowTitle] [, actionButtonLabel] [, can-
                           celButtonLabel] [, preferenceKey] [, popupExtension] [, fileType] [, fi-
                           leCreator] [, eventProc] [, wanted] )
```

Post a dialog asking the user for a file to save to, and return the file selected or *None* if the user cancelled. *savedFileName* is the default for the file name to save to (the return value). See *AskFileForOpen()* for a description of the other arguments.

```
EasyDialogs.AskFolder([message] [, defaultLocation] [, defaultOptionFlags] [, location] [, clientName]
                      [, windowTitle] [, actionButtonLabel] [, cancelButtonLabel] [, preferenceKey]
                      [, popupExtension] [, eventProc] [, filterProc] [, wanted] )
```

Post a dialog asking the user to select a folder, and return the folder selected or *None* if the user cancelled. See *AskFileForOpen()* for a description of the arguments.

Voir aussi :

Navigation Services Reference Programmer's reference documentation for the Navigation Services, a part of the Carbon framework.

37.5.1 ProgressBar Objects

ProgressBar objects provide support for modeless progress-bar dialogs. Both determinate (thermometer style) and indeterminate (barber-pole style) progress bars are supported. The bar will be determinate if its maximum value is greater than zero; otherwise it will be indeterminate.

Modifié dans la version 2.2 : Support for indeterminate-style progress bars was added.

The dialog is displayed immediately after creation. If the dialog's « Cancel » button is pressed, or if Cmd- or ESC is typed, the dialog window is hidden and *KeyboardInterrupt* is raised (but note that this response does not occur until the progress bar is next updated, typically via a call to *inc()* or *set()*). Otherwise, the bar remains visible until the *ProgressBar* object is discarded.

ProgressBar objects possess the following attributes and methods :

ProgressBar.curval

The current value (of type integer or long integer) of the progress bar. The normal access methods coerce *curval* between 0 and *maxval*. This attribute should not be altered directly.

ProgressBar.maxval

The maximum value (of type integer or long integer) of the progress bar; the progress bar (thermometer style) is full when *curval* equals *maxval*. If *maxval* is 0, the bar will be indeterminate (barber-pole). This attribute should not be altered directly.

ProgressBar.title([newstr])

Sets the text in the title bar of the progress dialog to *newstr*.

ProgressBar.label([newstr])

Sets the text in the progress box of the progress dialog to *newstr*.

ProgressBar.set(value[, max])

Sets the progress bar's *curval* to *value*, and also *maxval* to *max* if the latter is provided. *value* is first

coerced between 0 and *maxval*. The thermometer bar is updated to reflect the changes, including a change from indeterminate to determinate or vice versa.

`ProgressBar.inc([n])`

Increments the progress bar's *curval* by *n*, or by 1 if *n* is not provided. (Note that *n* may be negative, in which case the effect is a decrement.) The progress bar is updated to reflect the change. If the bar is indeterminate, this causes one « spin » of the barber pole. The resulting *curval* is coerced between 0 and *maxval* if incrementing causes it to fall outside this range.

37.6 Framework — Interactive application 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.

Note : This module has been removed in Python 3.x.

Work on the *Framework* has pretty much stopped, now that PyObjC is available for full Cocoa access from Python, 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 following are some comments posted on the MacPython newsgroup about the strengths and limitations of *Framework* :

The strong point of *Framework* is that it allows you to break into the control-flow at many different places. *W*, for instance, uses a different way to enable/disable menus and that plugs right in leaving the rest intact. The weak points of *Framework* are that it has no abstract command interface (but that shouldn't be difficult), that its dialog support is minimal and that its control/toolbar support is non-existent.

The *Framework* module defines the following functions :

`Framework.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.

`Framework.MenuBar()`

An object representing the menubar. This object is usually not created by the user.

`Framework.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).

`Framework.MenuItem(menu, title[, shortcut, callback])`

Create a menu item object. The arguments are the menu to create, 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.

Instead 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.

`Framework.Separator(menu)`

Add a separator to the end of a menu.

`FrameWork.SubMenu(menu, label)`

Create a submenu named *label* under menu *menu*. The menu object is returned.

`FrameWork.Window(parent)`

Creates a (modeless) window. *Parent* is the application object to which the window belongs. The window is not displayed until later.

`FrameWork.DialogWindow(parent)`

Creates a modeless dialog window.

`FrameWork.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. However, the window will however always be the exact size given, so parts may be offscreen.

`FrameWork.setwatchcursor()`

Set the mouse cursor to a watch.

`FrameWork.setarrowcursor()`

Set the mouse cursor to an arrow.

37.6.1 Application Objects

Application objects have the following methods, among others :

`Application.makeusermenus()`

Override this method if you need menus in your application. Append the menus to the attribute `menubar`.

`Application.getabouttext()`

Override this method to return a text string describing your application. Alternatively, override the `do_about()` method for more elaborate « about » messages.

`Application.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.

`Application.asynccevents(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 immediately 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.

`Application._quit()`

Terminate the running `mainloop()` call at the next convenient moment.

`Application.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.

`Application.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 `DialogWindow` object involved). Override if you need special handling of dialog events (keyboard shortcuts, etc).

`Application.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).

37.6.2 Window Objects

Window objects have the following methods, among others :

`Window.open()`

Override this method to open a window. Store the Mac OS window-id in `self.wid` and call the `do_postopen()` method to register the window with the parent application.

`Window.close()`

Override this method to do any special processing on window close. Call the `do_postclose()` method to cleanup the parent state.

`Window.do_postresize(width, height, macoswindowid)`

Called after the window is resized. Override if more needs to be done than calling `InvalRect`.

`Window.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.

`Window.do_update(macoswindowid, event)`

An update event for the window was received. Redraw the window.

`Window.do_activate(activate, event)`

The window was activated (`activate == 1`) or deactivated (`activate == 0`). Handle things like focus highlighting, etc.

37.6.3 ControlsWindow Object

ControlsWindow objects have the following methods besides those of `Window` objects :

`ControlsWindow.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.

37.6.4 ScrolledWindow Object

ScrolledWindow objects are ControlsWindow objects with the following extra methods :

`ScrolledWindow.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.

`ScrolledWindow.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.

`ScrolledWindow.updatescrollbars()`

Call this method when the document has changed. It will call `getscrollbarvalues()` and update the scrollbars.

`ScrolledWindow.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.

`ScrolledWindow.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`.

`ScrolledWindow.do_activate(onoff, event)`

Takes care of dimming/highlighting scrollbars when a window becomes frontmost. If you override this method, call this one at the end of your method.

`ScrolledWindow.do_postresize(width, height, window)`

Moves scrollbars to the correct position. Call this method initially if you override it.

`ScrolledWindow.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.

37.6.5 DialogWindow Objects

DialogWindow objects have the following methods besides those of Window objects :

`DialogWindow.open(resid)`

Create the dialog window, from the DLOG resource with id *resid*. The dialog object is stored in `self.wid`.

`DialogWindow.do_itemhit(item, event)`

Item number *item* was hit. You are responsible for redrawing toggle buttons, etc.

37.7 autoGIL — Global Interpreter Lock handling in event loops

The `autoGIL` module provides a function `installAutoGIL()` that automatically locks and unlocks Python's *Global Interpreter Lock* when running an event loop.

Note : This module has been removed in Python 3.x.

exception `autoGIL.AutoGILError`

Raised if the observer callback cannot be installed, for example because the current thread does not have a run loop.

`autoGIL.installAutoGIL()`

Install an observer callback in the event loop (CFRunLoop) for the current thread, that will lock and unlock the Global Interpreter Lock (GIL) at appropriate times, allowing other Python threads to run while the event loop is idle.

Availability : OSX 10.1 or later.

37.8 Mac OS Toolbox Modules

These are a set of modules that provide interfaces to various legacy Mac OS toolboxes. 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 Macintosh](#) or similar works.

These modules all live in a package called `Carbon`. Despite that name they are not all part of the Carbon framework : CF is really in the CoreFoundation framework and Qt is in the QuickTime framework. The normal use pattern is

```
from Carbon import AE
```

Note : Most of the OS X APIs that these modules use are deprecated or removed in recent versions of OS X. Many are not available when Python is executing in 64-bit mode. The Carbon modules have been removed in Python 3. You should avoid using them in Python 2.

37.8.1 `Carbon.AE` — Apple Events

37.8.2 `Carbon.AH` — Apple Help

37.8.3 `Carbon.App` — Appearance Manager

37.8.4 `Carbon.Appearance` — Appearance Manager constants

37.8.5 `Carbon.CF` — Core Foundation

The `CFBase`, `CFArray`, `CFData`, `CFDictionary`, `CFString` and `CFURL` objects are supported, some only partially.

- 37.8.6 `Carbon.CG` — **Core Graphics**
- 37.8.7 `Carbon.CarbonEvt` — **Carbon Event Manager**
- 37.8.8 `Carbon.CarbonEvents` — **Carbon Event Manager constants**
- 37.8.9 `Carbon.Cm` — **Component Manager**
- 37.8.10 `Carbon.Components` — **Component Manager constants**
- 37.8.11 `Carbon.ControlAccessor` — **Control Manager accssors**
- 37.8.12 `Carbon.Controls` — **Control Manager constants**
- 37.8.13 `Carbon.CoreFounation` — **CoreFounation constants**
- 37.8.14 `Carbon.CoreGraphics` — **CoreGraphics constants**
- 37.8.15 `Carbon.Ctl` — **Control Manager**
- 37.8.16 `Carbon.Dialogs` — **Dialog Manager constants**
- 37.8.17 `Carbon.Dlg` — **Dialog Manager**
- 37.8.18 `Carbon.Drag` — **Drag and Drop Manager**
- 37.8.19 `Carbon.Dragconst` — **Drag and Drop Manager constants**
- 37.8.20 `Carbon.Events` — **Event Manager constants**
- 37.8.21 `Carbon.Evt` — **Event Manager**
- 37.8.22 `Carbon.File` — **File Manager**
- 37.8.23 `Carbon.Files` — **File Manager constants**
- 37.8.24 `Carbon.Fm` — **Font Manager**
- 37.8.25 `Carbon.Folder` — **Folder Manager**
- 37.8.26 `Carbon.Folders` — **Folder Manager constants**
- 37.8.27 `Carbon.Fonts` — **Font Manager constants**
- 37.8.28 `Carbon.Help` — **Help Manager**
- 37.8.29 `Carbon.IBCarbon` — **Carbon InterfaceBuilder**
- 37.8.30 `Carbon.IBCarbonRuntime` — **Carbon InterfaceBuilder constants**
- 37.8.31 `Carbon.Icn` — **Carbon Icon Manager**
- 37.8.32 `Carbon.Icons` — **Carbon Icon Manager constants**
- 37.8.33 `Carbon.Launch` — **Carbon Launch Services**
- 37.8.34 `Carbon.LaunchServices` — **Carbon Launch Services constants**
- 37.8.35 `Carbon.List` — **List Manager**
- 37.8.36 `Carbon.Lists` — **List Manager constants**
- 37.8.37 `Carbon.MacHelp` — **Help Manager constants**
- 37.8.38 `Carbon.MediaDescr` — **Parsers and generators for Quicktime Media descriptors**
- 37.8.39 `Carbon.Menu` — **Menu Manager**
- 37.8.40 `Carbon.Menus` — **Menu Manager constants**
- 37.8.41 `Carbon.Mlto` — **Multilingual Text Editor**

The Scrap Manager supports the simplest form of cut & paste operations on the Macintosh. It can be use for both inter- and intra-application clipboard operations.

The `Scrap` module provides low-level access to the functions of the Scrap Manager. It contains the following functions :

`Carbon.Scrap.InfoScrap()`

Return current information about the scrap. The information is encoded as a tuple containing the fields (`size`, `handle`, `count`, `state`, `path`).

Field	Signification
<i>size</i>	Size of the scrap in bytes.
<i>handle</i>	Resource object representing the scrap.
<i>count</i>	Serial number of the scrap contents.
<i>state</i>	Integer ; positive if in memory, 0 if on disk, negative if uninitialized.
<i>path</i>	Filename of the scrap when stored on disk.

Voir aussi :

Scrap Manager Apple's documentation for the Scrap Manager gives a lot of useful information about using the Scrap Manager in applications.

37.8.53 `Carbon.Snd` — Sound Manager

37.8.54 `Carbon.Sound` — Sound Manager constants

37.8.55 `Carbon.TE` — TextEdit

37.8.56 `Carbon.TextEdit` — TextEdit constants

37.8.57 `Carbon.Win` — Window Manager

37.8.58 `Carbon.Windows` — Window Manager constants

37.9 `ColorPicker` — Color selection dialog

The `ColorPicker` module provides access to the standard color picker dialog.

Note : This module has been removed in Python 3.x.

`ColorPicker.GetColor(prompt, rgb)`

Show a standard color selection dialog and allow the user to select a color. The user is given instruction by the *prompt* string, and the default color is set to *rgb*. *rgb* must be a tuple giving the red, green, and blue components of the color. `GetColor()` returns a tuple giving the user's selected color and a flag indicating whether they accepted the selection of cancelled.

MacPython OSA Modules

This chapter describes the current implementation of the Open Scripting Architecture (OSA, also commonly referred to as AppleScript) for Python, allowing you to control scriptable applications from your Python program, and with a fairly pythonic interface. Development on this set of modules has stopped.

For a description of the various components of AppleScript and OSA, and to get an understanding of the architecture and terminology, you should read Apple's documentation. The « Applescript Language Guide » explains the conceptual model and the terminology, and documents the standard suite. The « Open Scripting Architecture » document explains how to use OSA from an application programmers point of view. In the Apple Help Viewer these books are located in the Developer Documentation, Core Technologies section.

As an example of scripting an application, the following piece of AppleScript will get the name of the frontmost **Finder** window and print it :

```
tell application "Finder"
    get name of window 1
end tell
```

In Python, the following code fragment will do the same :

```
import Finder

f = Finder.Finder()
print f.get(f.window(1).name)
```

As distributed the Python library includes packages that implement the standard suites, plus packages that interface to a small number of common applications.

To send AppleEvents to an application you must first create the Python package interfacing to the terminology of the application (what **Script Editor** calls the « Dictionary »). This can be done from within the **PythonIDE** or by running the `gensuitemodule.py` module as a standalone program from the command line.

The generated output is a package with a number of modules, one for every suite used in the program plus an `__init__` module to glue it all together. The Python inheritance graph follows the AppleScript inheritance graph, so if a program's dictionary specifies that it includes support for the Standard Suite, but extends one or two verbs with extra arguments then the output suite will contain a module `Standard_Suite`

that imports and re-exports everything from `StdSuites.Standard_Suite` but overrides the methods that have extra functionality. The output of *gensuitemodule* is pretty readable, and contains the documentation that was in the original AppleScript dictionary in Python docstrings, so reading it is a good source of documentation.

The output package implements a main class with the same name as the package which contains all the AppleScript verbs as methods, with the direct object as the first argument and all optional parameters as keyword arguments. AppleScript classes are also implemented as Python classes, as are comparisons and all the other thingies.

The main Python class implementing the verbs also allows access to the properties and elements declared in the AppleScript class « application ». In the current release that is as far as the object orientation goes, so in the example above we need to use `f.get(f.window(1).name)` instead of the more Pythonic `f.window(1).name.get()`.

If an AppleScript identifier is not a Python identifier the name is mangled according to a small number of rules :

- spaces are replaced with underscores
- other non-alphanumeric characters are replaced with `_xx_` where `xx` is the hexadecimal character value
- any Python reserved word gets an underscore appended

Python also has support for creating scriptable applications in Python, but The following modules are relevant to MacPython AppleScript support :

38.1 gensuitemodule — Generate OSA stub packages

The *gensuitemodule* module creates a Python package implementing stub code for the AppleScript suites that are implemented by a specific application, according to its AppleScript dictionary.

It is usually invoked by the user through the **PythonIDE**, but it can also be run as a script from the command line (pass `--help` for help on the options) or imported from Python code. For an example of its use see `Mac/scripts/genallsuites.py` in a source distribution, which generates the stub packages that are included in the standard library.

It defines the following public functions :

`gensuitemodule.is_scriptable(application)`

Returns true if `application`, which should be passed as a pathname, appears to be scriptable. Take the return value with a grain of salt : **Internet Explorer** appears not to be scriptable but definitely is.

`gensuitemodule.processfile(application[, output, basepkgname, edit_modnames, creatorsignature, dump, verbose])`

Create a stub package for `application`, which should be passed as a full pathname. For a `.app` bundle this is the pathname to the bundle, not to the executable inside the bundle ; for an unbundled CFM application you pass the filename of the application binary.

This function asks the application for its OSA terminology resources, decodes these resources and uses the resultant data to create the Python code for the package implementing the client stubs.

`output` is the pathname where the resulting package is stored, if not specified a standard « save file as » dialog is presented to the user. `basepkgname` is the base package on which this package will build, and defaults to `StdSuites`. Only when generating `StdSuites` itself do you need to specify this. `edit_modnames` is a dictionary that can be used to change modulenames that are too ugly after name mangling. `creator_signature` can be used to override the 4-char creator code, which is normally obtained from the `PkgInfo` file in the package or from the CFM file creator signature. When `dump` is given it should refer to a file object, and `processfile` will stop after decoding the resources and

dump the Python representation of the terminology resources to this file. **verbose** should also be a file object, and specifying it will cause **processfile** to tell you what it is doing.

```
gensuitemodule.processfile_fromresource(application[, output, basepkgname, edit_modnames,
                                         creatorsignature, dump, verbose])
```

This function does the same as **processfile**, except that it uses a different method to get the terminology resources. It opens **application** as a resource file and reads all "aete" and "aet" resources from this file.

38.2 aetools — OSA client support

The *aetools* module contains the basic functionality on which Python AppleScript client support is built. It also imports and re-exports the core functionality of the *aetypes* and *aepack* modules. The stub packages generated by *gensuitemodule* import the relevant portions of *aetools*, so usually you do not need to import it yourself. The exception to this is when you cannot use a generated suite package and need lower-level access to scripting.

The *aetools* module itself uses the AppleEvent support provided by the *Carbon.AE* module. This has one drawback : you need access to the window manager, see section osx-gui-scripts for details. This restriction may be lifted in future releases.

Note : This module has been removed in Python 3.x.

The *aetools* module defines the following functions :

aetools.packevent(*ae*, *parameters*, *attributes*)

Stores parameters and attributes in a pre-created *Carbon.AE.AEDesc* object. **parameters** and **attributes** are dictionaries mapping 4-character OSA parameter keys to Python objects. The objects are packed using *aepack.pack()*.

aetools.unpackevent(*ae*[, *formodulename*])

Recursively unpacks a *Carbon.AE.AEDesc* event to Python objects. The function returns the parameter dictionary and the attribute dictionary. The **formodulename** argument is used by generated stub packages to control where AppleScript classes are looked up.

aetools.keysubst(*arguments*, *keydict*)

Converts a Python keyword argument dictionary **arguments** to the format required by **packevent** by replacing the keys, which are Python identifiers, by the four-character OSA keys according to the mapping specified in **keydict**. Used by the generated suite packages.

aetools.enumsbst(*arguments*, *key*, *edict*)

If the **arguments** dictionary contains an entry for **key** convert the value for that entry according to dictionary **edict**. This converts human-readable Python enumeration names to the OSA 4-character codes. Used by the generated suite packages.

The *aetools* module defines the following class :

```
class aetools.TalkTo([signature=None, start=0, timeout=0])
```

Base class for the proxy used to talk to an application. **signature** overrides the class attribute **_signature** (which is usually set by subclasses) and is the 4-char creator code defining the application to talk to. **start** can be set to true to enable running the application on class instantiation. **timeout** can be specified to change the default timeout used while waiting for an AppleEvent reply.

TalkTo._start()

Test whether the application is running, and attempt to start it if not.

`TalkTo.send(code, subcode[, parameters, attributes])`

Create the AppleEvent `Carbon.AE.AEDesc` for the verb with the OSA designation `code`, `subcode` (which are the usual 4-character strings), pack the `parameters` and `attributes` into it, send it to the target application, wait for the reply, unpack the reply with `unpackevent` and return the reply appleevent, the unpacked return values as a dictionary and the return attributes.

38.3 aepack — Conversion between Python variables and AppleEvent data containers

The `aepack` module defines functions for converting (packing) Python variables to AppleEvent descriptors and back (unpacking). Within Python the AppleEvent descriptor is handled by Python objects of built-in type `AEDesc`, defined in module `Carbon.AE`.

Note : This module has been removed in Python 3.x.

The `aepack` module defines the following functions :

`aepack.pack(x[, forcetype])`

Returns an `AEDesc` object containing a conversion of Python value `x`. If `forcetype` is provided it specifies the descriptor type of the result. Otherwise, a default mapping of Python types to Apple Event descriptor types is used, as follows :

Type Python	descriptor type
<code>FSSpec</code>	<code>typeFSS</code>
<code>FSRef</code>	<code>typeFSRef</code>
<code>Alias</code>	<code>typeAlias</code>
<code>integer</code>	<code>typeLong</code> (32 bit integer)
<code>float</code>	<code>typeFloat</code> (64 bit floating point)
<code>string</code>	<code>typeText</code>
<code>unicode</code>	<code>typeUnicodeText</code>
<code>list</code>	<code>typeAEList</code>
<code>dictionnaire</code>	<code>typeAERecord</code>
<code>instance</code>	<i>see below</i>

If `x` is a Python instance then this function attempts to call an `__aepack__()` method. This method should return an `AEDesc` object.

If the conversion `x` is not defined above, this function returns the Python string representation of a value (the `repr()` function) encoded as a text descriptor.

`aepack.unpack(x[, formodulename])`

`x` must be an object of type `AEDesc`. This function returns a Python object representation of the data in the Apple Event descriptor `x`. Simple AppleEvent data types (integer, text, float) are returned as their obvious Python counterparts. Apple Event lists are returned as Python lists, and the list elements are recursively unpacked. Object references (ex. [line 3 of document 1](#)) are returned as instances of `aetypes.ObjectSpecifier`, unless `formodulename` is specified. AppleEvent descriptors with descriptor type `typeFSS` are returned as `FSSpec` objects. AppleEvent record descriptors are returned as Python dictionaries, with 4-character string keys and elements recursively unpacked.

The optional `formodulename` argument is used by the stub packages generated by `gensuitemodule`, and ensures that the OSA classes for object specifiers are looked up in the correct module. This ensures that if, say, the Finder returns an object specifier for a window you get an instance of `Finder.Window` and not a generic `aetypes.Window`. The former knows about all the properties and elements a window has in the Finder, while the latter knows no such things.

Voir aussi :

Module `Carbon.AE` Built-in access to Apple Event Manager routines.

Module `aetypes` Python definitions of codes for Apple Event descriptor types.

38.4 aetypes — AppleEvent objects

The `aetypes` defines classes used to represent Apple Event data descriptors and Apple Event object specifiers.

Apple Event data is contained in descriptors, and these descriptors are typed. For many descriptors the Python representation is simply the corresponding Python type : `typeText` in OSA is a Python string, `typeFloat` is a float, etc. For OSA types that have no direct Python counterpart this module declares classes. Packing and unpacking instances of these classes is handled automatically by `aepack`.

An object specifier is essentially an address of an object implemented in an Apple Event server. An Apple Event specifier is used as the direct object for an Apple Event or as the argument of an optional parameter. The `aetypes` module contains the base classes for OSA classes and properties, which are used by the packages generated by `gensuitemodule` to populate the classes and properties in a given suite.

For reasons of backward compatibility, and for cases where you need to script an application for which you have not generated the stub package this module also contains object specifiers for a number of common OSA classes such as `Document`, `Window`, `Character`, etc.

Note : This module has been removed in Python 3.x.

The `AEObjects` module defines the following classes to represent Apple Event descriptor data :

class `aetypes.Unknown(type, data)`

The representation of OSA descriptor data for which the `aepack` and `aetypes` modules have no support, i.e. anything that is not represented by the other classes here and that is not equivalent to a simple Python value.

class `aetypes.Enum(enum)`

An enumeration value with the given 4-character string value.

class `aetypes.InsertionLoc(of, pos)`

Position `pos` in object `of`.

class `aetypes.Boolean(bool)`

A boolean.

class `aetypes.StyledText(style, text)`

Text with style information (font, face, etc) included.

class `aetypes.AEText(script, style, text)`

Text with script system and style information included.

class `aetypes.IntlText(script, language, text)`

Text with script system and language information included.

class `aetypes.IntlWritingCode(script, language)`

Script system and language information.

class `aetypes.QDPoint(v, h)`

A quickdraw point.

class `aetypes.QDRectangle(v0, h0, v1, h1)`

A quickdraw rectangle.

```
class aetypes.RGBColor(r, g, b)
    A color.
```

```
class aetypes.Type(type)
    An OSA type value with the given 4-character name.
```

```
class aetypes.Keyword(name)
    An OSA keyword with the given 4-character name.
```

```
class aetypes.Range(start, stop)
    A range.
```

```
class aetypes.Ordinal(abso)
    Non-numeric absolute positions, such as "firs", first, or "midd", middle.
```

```
class aetypes.Logical(logc, term)
    The logical expression of applying operator logc to term.
```

```
class aetypes.Comparison(obj1, relo, obj2)
    The comparison relo of obj1 to obj2.
```

The following classes are used as base classes by the generated stub packages to represent AppleScript classes and properties in Python :

```
class aetypes.ComponentItem(which[, fr])
    Abstract baseclass for an OSA class. The subclass should set the class attribute want to the 4-character OSA class code. Instances of subclasses of this class are equivalent to AppleScript Object Specifiers. Upon instantiation you should pass a selector in which, and optionally a parent object in fr.
```

```
class aetypes.NProperty(fr)
    Abstract baseclass for an OSA property. The subclass should set the class attributes want and which to designate which property we are talking about. Instances of subclasses of this class are Object Specifiers.
```

```
class aetypes.ObjectSpecifier(want, form, seld[, fr])
    Base class of ComponentItem and NProperty, a general OSA Object Specifier. See the Apple Open Scripting Architecture documentation for the parameters. Note that this class is not abstract.
```

38.5 MiniAEFrame — Open Scripting Architecture server support

The module *MiniAEFrame* provides a framework for an application that can function as an Open Scripting Architecture (OSA) server, i.e. receive and process AppleEvents. It can be used in conjunction with *FrameWork* or standalone. As an example, it is used in *PythonCGISlave*.

The *MiniAEFrame* module defines the following classes :

```
class MiniAEFrame.AEServer
    A class that handles AppleEvent dispatch. Your application should subclass this class together with either MiniApplication or FrameWork.Application. Your __init__() method should call the __init__() method for both classes.
```

```
class MiniAEFrame.MinApplication
    A class that is more or less compatible with FrameWork.Application but with less functionality. Its event loop 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.
```

38.5.1 AEServer Objects

`AEServer.installaehandler(classe, type, callback)`

Installs an AppleEvent handler. *classe* and *type* are the four-character OSA Class and Type designators, '****' wildcards are allowed. When a matching AppleEvent is received the parameters are decoded and your callback is invoked.

`AEServer.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-character 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-character 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.

In addition, support modules have been pre-generated for Finder, Terminal, Explorer, Netscape, CodeWarrior, SystemEvents and StdSuites.

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).

39.1 `al` — Audio functions on the SGI

Obsolète depuis la version 2.6 : The `al` module has been removed in Python 3.

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.

Avertissement : 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.)

Le module définit les fonctions suivantes :

`al.openport(name, direction[, config])`

The name and direction arguments are strings. The optional *config* argument is a configuration object as returned by `newconfig()`. The return value is an *audio port object*; methods of audio port objects are described below.

`al.newconfig()`

The return value is a new *audio configuration object*; methods of audio configuration objects are described below.

`al.queryparams(device)`

The *device* argument is an integer. The return value is a list of integers containing the data returned by `ALqueryparams()`.

`al.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 (!).

`al.setparams(device, list)`

The *device* argument is an integer. The *list* argument is a list such as returned by `queryparams()`.

39.1.1 Configuration Objects

Configuration objects returned by `newconfig()` have the following methods :

`audio configuration.getqueuesize()`

Return the queue size.

`audio configuration.setqueuesize(size)`

Set the queue size.

`audio configuration.getwidth()`

Get the sample width.

`audio configuration.setwidth(width)`

Set the sample width.

`audio configuration.getchannels()`

Get the channel count.

`audio configuration.setchannels(nchannels)`

Set the channel count.

`audio configuration.getsampfmt()`

Get the sample format.

`audio configuration.setsampfmt(sampfmt)`

Set the sample format.

`audio configuration.getfloatmax()`

Get the maximum value for floating sample formats.

`audio configuration.setfloatmax(floatmax)`

Set the maximum value for floating sample formats.

39.1.2 Port Objects

Port objects, as returned by `openport()`, have the following methods :

`audio port.closeport()`

Close the port.

`audio port.getfd()`

Return the file descriptor as an int.

`audio port.getfilled()`

Return the number of filled samples.

`audio port.getfillable()`

Return the number of fillable samples.

`audio port.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).

`audio port.writesamps(samples)`

Write samples into the queue, blocking if necessary. The samples are encoded as described for the `readsamps()` return value.

`audio port.getfillpoint()`

Return the “fill point”.

`audio port.setfillpoint(fillpoint)`

Set the “fill point”.

`audio port.getconfig()`

Return a configuration object containing the current configuration of the port.

`audio port.setconfig(config)`

Set the configuration from the argument, a configuration object.

`audio port.getstatus(list)`

Get status information on last error.

39.2 AL — Constants used with the `al` module

Obsolète depuis la version 2.6 : The `AL` module has been removed in Python 3.

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 *
```

39.3 `cd` — CD-ROM access on SGI systems

Obsolète depuis la version 2.6 : The `cd` module has been removed in Python 3.

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 `open()` and creates a parser to parse the data from the CD with `createparser()`. The object returned by `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 :

`cd.createparser()`

Create and return an opaque parser object. The methods of the parser object are described below.

`cd.msftoframe(minutes, seconds, frames)`

Converts a (*minutes*, *seconds*, *frames*) triple representing time in absolute time code into the corresponding CD frame number.

`cd.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/sc0d410'`, or `None`. If omitted or `None`, the hardware inventory is consulted to locate a CD-ROM drive. The *mode*, if not omitted, should be the string `'r'`.

The module defines the following variables :

exception `cd.error`

Exception raised on various errors.

`cd.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`.

`cd.BLOCKSIZE`

The size of one uninterpreted frame of audio data.

The following variables are states as returned by `getstatus()` :

`cd.READY`

The drive is ready for operation loaded with an audio CD.

`cd.NODISC`

The drive does not have a CD loaded.

`cd.CDROM`

The drive is loaded with a CD-ROM. Subsequent play or read operations will return I/O errors.

`cd.ERROR`

An error occurred while trying to read the disc or its table of contents.

`cd.PLAYING`

The drive is in CD player mode playing an audio CD through its audio jacks.

`cd.PAUSED`

The drive is in CD layer mode with play paused.

`cd.STILL`

The equivalent of *PAUSED* on older (non 3301) model Toshiba CD-ROM drives. Such drives have never been shipped by SGI.

`cd.audio`

`cd.pnum`

`cd.index`

`cd.ptime`

`cd.ptime`

`cd.catalog`

`cd.ident`

`cd.control`

Integer constants describing the various types of parser callbacks that can be set by the `addcallback()` method of CD parser objects (see below).

39.3.1 Player Objects

Player objects (returned by `open()`) have the following methods :

CD `player.allowremoval()`

Unlocks the eject button on the CD-ROM drive permitting the user to eject the caddy if desired.

CD `player.bestreadsize()`

Returns the best value to use for the `num_frames` parameter of the `reada()` method. Best is defined as the value that permits a continuous flow of data from the CD-ROM drive.

CD `player.close()`

Frees the resources associated with the player object. After calling `close()`, the methods of the object should no longer be used.

CD `player.eject()`

Ejects the caddy from the CD-ROM drive.

CD `player.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 man page `CDgetstatus(3dm)`. The value of *state* is one of the following : *ERROR*, *NODISC*, *READY*, *PLAYING*, *PAUSED*, *STILL*, or *CDROM*.

CD `player.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.

CD `player.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 `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.

CD `player.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.

CD `player.playabs(minutes, seconds, frames, play)`

Like `play()`, except that the start is given in minutes, seconds, and frames instead of a track number.

CD `player.playtrack(start, play)`

Like `play()`, except that playing stops at the end of the track.

CD `player.playtrackabs(track, minutes, seconds, frames, play)`

Like `play()`, except that playing begins at the specified absolute time and ends at the end of the specified track.

CD `player.preventremoval()`

Locks the eject button on the CD-ROM drive thus preventing the user from arbitrarily ejecting the caddy.

CD `player.reada(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.

CD `player.seek(minutes, seconds, frames)`

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.

CD `player.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.

CD `player.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.

CD `player.stop()`

Stops the current playing operation.

CD `player.togglepause()`

Pauses the CD if it is playing, and makes it play if it is paused.

39.3.2 Parser Objects

Parser objects (returned by `createparser()`) have the following methods :

CD `parser.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 :

Type	Valeur
<code>audio</code>	String which can be passed unmodified to <code>al.writesamps()</code> .
<code>pnum</code>	Integer giving the program (track) number.
<code>index</code>	Integer giving the index number.
<code>ptime</code>	Tuple consisting of the program time in minutes, seconds, and frames.
<code>atime</code>	Tuple consisting of the absolute time in minutes, seconds, and frames.
<code>catalog</code>	String of 13 characters, giving the catalog number of the CD.
<code>ident</code>	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.
<code>control</code>	Integer giving the control bits from the CD subcode data

CD `parser.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.

CD `parser.parseframe(frame)`

Parses one or more frames of digital audio data from a CD such as returned by `readdda()`. 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.

CD `parser.removecallback(type)`

Removes the callback for the given *type*.

CD `parser.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.

39.4 `fl` — FORMS library for graphical user interfaces

Obsolète depuis la version 2.6 : The `fl` module has been removed in Python 3.

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()`.

39.4.1 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 :

`fl.make_form(type, width, height)`

Create a form with given type, width and height. This returns a *form* object, whose methods are described below.

`fl.do_forms()`

The standard FORMS main loop. Returns a Python object representing the FORMS object needing interaction, or the special value `FL.EVENT`.

`fl.check_forms()`

Check for FORMS events. Returns what `do_forms()` above returns, or `None` if there is no event that immediately needs interaction.

`fl.set_event_call_back(function)`

Set the event callback function.

`fl.set_graphics_mode(rgbmode, doublebuffering)`

Set the graphics modes.

`fl.get_rgbmode()`

Return the current rgb mode. This is the value of the C global variable `fl_rgbmode`.

`fl.show_message(str1, str2, str3)`

Show a dialog box with a three-line message and an OK button.

`fl.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.

`fl.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).

`fl.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.

`fl.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.

`fl.get_directory()`

`fl.get_pattern()`

`fl.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.

`fl.qdevice(dev)`

`fl.unqdevice(dev)`

`fl.isqueued(dev)`

`fl.qtest()`

`fl.qread()`

`fl.qreset()`

`fl.qenter(dev, val)`

`fl.get_mouse()`

`fl.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!

`fl.color()`

`fl.mapcolor()`

`fl.getmcolor()`

See the description in the FORMS documentation of `fl_color()`, `fl_mapcolor()` and `fl_getmcolor()`.

39.4.2 Form Objects

Form objects (returned by `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_*()` methods 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.

`form.show_form(placement, bordertype, name)`

Show the form.

```

form.hide_form()
    Hide the form.

form.redraw_form()
    Redraw the form.

form.set_form_position(x, y)
    Set the form's position.

form.freeze_form()
    Freeze the form.

form.unfreeze_form()
    Unfreeze the form.

form.activate_form()
    Activate the form.

form.deactivate_form()
    Deactivate the form.

form.bgn_group()
    Begin a new group of objects; return a group object.

form.end_group()
    End the current group of objects.

form.find_first()
    Find the first object in the form.

form.find_last()
    Find the last object in the form.

form.add_box(type, x, y, w, h, name)
    Add a box object to the form. No extra methods.

form.add_text(type, x, y, w, h, name)
    Add a text object to the form. No extra methods.

form.add_clock(type, x, y, w, h, name)
    Add a clock object to the form. — Method : get_clock().

form.add_button(type, x, y, w, h, name)
    Add a button object to the form. — Methods : get_button(), set_button().

form.add_lightbutton(type, x, y, w, h, name)
    Add a lightbutton object to the form. — Methods : get_button(), set_button().

form.add_roundbutton(type, x, y, w, h, name)
    Add a roundbutton object to the form. — Methods : get_button(), set_button().

form.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().

form.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().

```

`form.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()`.

`form.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()`.

`form.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()`.

`form.add_input(type, x, y, w, h, name)`
Add an input object to the form. — Methods : `set_input()`, `get_input()`, `set_input_color()`, `set_input_return()`.

`form.add_menu(type, x, y, w, h, name)`
Add a menu object to the form. — Methods : `set_menu()`, `get_menu()`, `addto_menu()`.

`form.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()`.

`form.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()`.

`form.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 :

Nom	Type C	Signification
<code>window</code>	<code>int</code> (read-only)	GL window id
<code>w</code>	<i>float</i>	form width
<code>h</code>	<i>float</i>	form height
<code>x</code>	<i>float</i>	form x origin
<code>y</code>	<i>float</i>	form y origin
<code>deactivated</code>	<i>int</i>	nonzero if form is deactivated
<code>visible</code>	<i>int</i>	nonzero if form is visible
<code>frozen</code>	<i>int</i>	nonzero if form is frozen
<code>doublebuf</code>	<i>int</i>	nonzero if double buffering on

39.4.3 FORMS Objects

Besides methods specific to particular kinds of FORMS objects, all FORMS objects also have the following methods :

FORMS object.`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.

FORMS `object.delete_object()`

Delete the object.

FORMS `object.show_object()`

Show the object.

FORMS `object.hide_object()`

Hide the object.

FORMS `object.redraw_object()`

Redraw the object.

FORMS `object.freeze_object()`

Freeze the object.

FORMS `object.unfreeze_object()`

Unfreeze the object.

FORMS objects have these data attributes ; see the FORMS documentation :

Nom	Type C	Signification
<code>objclass</code>	int (read-only)	object class
<i>type</i>	int (read-only)	object type
<code>boxtype</code>	<i>int</i>	box type
<code>x</code>	<i>float</i>	x origin
<code>y</code>	<i>float</i>	y origin
<code>w</code>	<i>float</i>	width
<code>h</code>	<i>float</i>	height
<code>col1</code>	<i>int</i>	primary color
<code>col2</code>	<i>int</i>	secondary color
<code>align</code>	<i>int</i>	alignment
<code>lcol</code>	<i>int</i>	label color
<code>lsize</code>	<i>float</i>	label font size
<code>label</code>	<i>string</i>	label string
<code>lstyle</code>	<i>int</i>	label style
<code>pushed</code>	int (read-only)	(see FORMS docs)
<code>focus</code>	int (read-only)	(see FORMS docs)
<code>belowmouse</code>	int (read-only)	(see FORMS docs)
<code>frozen</code>	int (read-only)	(see FORMS docs)
<code>active</code>	int (read-only)	(see FORMS docs)
<i>input</i>	int (read-only)	(see FORMS docs)
<code>visible</code>	int (read-only)	(see FORMS docs)
<code>radio</code>	int (read-only)	(see FORMS docs)
<code>automatic</code>	int (read-only)	(see FORMS docs)

39.5 FL — Constants used with the fl module

Obsolète depuis la version 2.6 : The *FL* module has been removed in Python 3.

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 *
```

39.6 flp — Functions for loading stored FORMS designs

Obsolète depuis la version 2.6 : The *flp* module has been removed in Python 3.

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 !

39.7 fm — *Font Manager* interface

Obsolète depuis la version 2.6 : The *fm* module has been removed in Python 3.

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 :

fm.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.

fm.findfont(fontname)

Return a font handle object. Calls *fmfindfont(fontname)*.

fm.enumerate()

Returns a list of available font names. This is an interface to *fmenumerate()*.

fm.prstr(string)

Render a string using the current font (see the *setfont()* font handle method below). Calls *fmprstr(string)*.

fm.setpath(string)

Sets the font search path. Calls *fmsetpath(string)*. (XXX Does not work!?!)

fm.fontpath()

Returns the current font search path.

Font handle objects support the following operations :

font handle.scalefont(factor)

Returns a handle for a scaled version of this font. Calls *fmscalefont(fh, factor)*.

font handle.setfont()

Makes this font the current font. Note : the effect is undone silently when the font handle object is deleted. Calls *fmsetfont(fh)*.

font handle.getfontname()

Returns this font's name. Calls *fmgetfontname(fh)*.

font `handle.getcomment()`
 Returns the comment string associated with this font. Raises an exception if there is none. Calls `fmgetcomment(fh)`.

font `handle.getfontinfo()`
 Returns a tuple giving some pertinent data about this font. This is an interface to `fmgetfontinfo()`. The returned tuple contains the following numbers : (`printer_matched`, `fixed_width`, `xorig`, `yorig`, `xsize`, `ysize`, `height`, `nglyphs`).

font `handle.getstrwidth(string)`
 Returns the width, in pixels, of *string* when drawn in this font. Calls `fmgetstrwidth(fh, string)`.

39.8 gl — Graphics Library interface

Obsolète depuis la version 2.6 : The *gl* module has been removed in Python 3.

This module provides access to the Silicon Graphics *Graphics Library*. It is available only on Silicon Graphics machines.

Avertissement : 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 :

gl.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.

`gl.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.

`gl.vnarray()`

Similar to `nvarray()` but the pairs have the point first and the normal second.

`gl.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]`.

`gl.nurbscurve(knots, ctlpoints, order, type)`

Defines a nurbs curve. The length of `ctlpoints` is `len(knots) - order`.

`gl.pwlcurve(points, type)`

Defines a piecewise-linear curve. *points* is a list of points. *type* must be `N_ST`.

`gl.pick(n)`

`gl.select(n)`

The only argument to these functions specifies the desired size of the pick or select buffer.

`gl.endpick()`

`gl.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()
```

Voir aussi :

PyOpenGL : The Python OpenGL Binding An interface to OpenGL is also available; see information about the **PyOpenGL** project online at <http://pyopengl.sourceforge.net/>. This may be a better option if support for SGI hardware from before about 1996 is not required.

39.9 DEVICE — Constants used with the gl module

Obsolète depuis la version 2.6 : The *DEVICE* module has been removed in Python 3.

This modules defines the constants used by the Silicon Graphics *Graphics Library* that C programmers find in the header file `<gl/device.h>`. Read the module source file for details.

39.10 GL — Constants used with the gl module

Obsolète depuis la version 2.6 : The *GL* module has been removed in Python 3.

This module contains constants used by the Silicon Graphics *Graphics Library* from the C header file `<gl/gl.h>`. Read the module source file for details.

39.11 imgfile — Support for SGI imglib files

Obsolète depuis la version 2.6 : The *imgfile* module has been removed in Python 3.

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 enough in some cases. Currently, colormap files are not supported.

The module defines the following variables and functions :

exception `imgfile.error`

This exception is raised on all errors, such as unsupported file type, etc.

`imgfile.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.

`imgfile.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.rectwrite()`, for instance.

`imgfile.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 smooth 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.

`imgfile.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.

`imgfile.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()`.

39.12 jpeg — Read and write JPEG files

Obsolète depuis la version 2.6 : The `jpeg` module has been removed in Python 3.

The module `jpeg` provides access to the jpeg compressor and decompressor written by the Independent JPEG Group (IJG). JPEG is a standard for compressing pictures; it is defined in ISO 10918. For details on JPEG or the Independent JPEG Group software refer to the JPEG standard or the documentation provided with the software.

A portable interface to JPEG image files is available with the Python Imaging Library (PIL) by Fredrik Lundh. Information on PIL is available at <http://www.pythonware.com/products/pil/>.

The `jpeg` module defines an exception and some functions.

exception `jpeg.error`

Exception raised by `compress()` and `decompress()` in case of errors.

`jpeg.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 `gl.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.

`jpeg.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 `gl.lrectwrite()`.

`jpeg.setoption(name, value)`

Set various options. Subsequent `compress()` and `decompress()` calls will use these options. The following options are available :

Option	Effect
'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). This only affects compression.
'optimize'	Perform Huffman table optimization. Takes longer, but results in smaller compressed image. This only affects compression.
'smooth'	Perform inter-block smoothing on uncompressed image. Only useful for low- quality images. This only affects decompression.

Voir aussi :

JPEG Still Image Data Compression Standard The canonical reference for the JPEG image format, by Pennebaker and Mitchell.

Information Technology - Digital Compression and Coding of Continuous-tone Still Images - Requirements and Test Methods

The ISO standard for JPEG is also published as ITU T.81. This is available online in PDF form.

The modules described in this chapter provide interfaces to features that are unique to SunOS 5 (also known as Solaris version 2).

40.1 sunaudiodev — Access to Sun audio hardware

Obsolète depuis la version 2.6 : The *sunaudiodev* module has been removed in Python 3.

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 found in the *audio(7I)* manual page.

The module *SUNAUDIODEV* defines constants which may be used with this module.

This module defines the following variables and functions :

exception *sunaudiodev.error*

This exception is raised on all errors. The argument is a string describing what went wrong.

sunaudiodev.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 *audio(7I)* for details.

As per the manpage, this module first looks in the environment variable *AUDIODEV* for the base audio device filename. If not found, it falls back to */dev/audio*. The control device is calculated by appending « *ctl* » to the base audio device.

40.1.1 Audio Device Objects

The audio device objects are returned by *open()* define the following methods (except *control* objects which only provide *getinfo()*, *setinfo()*, *fileno()*, and *drain()*) :

audio device.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.

audio device.fileno()

Returns the file descriptor associated with the device. This can be used to set up SIGPOLL notification, as described below.

audio device.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.

audio device.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).

audio device.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 <sun/audioio.h> and in the *audio(7I)* manual 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**.

audio device.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.

audio device.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.

audio device.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.

audio device.setinfo(status)

This method sets the audio device status parameters. The *status* parameter is a device status object as returned by **getinfo()** and possibly modified by the program.

audio device.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.

The audio device supports asynchronous notification of various events, through the SIGPOLL signal. Here's an example of how you might enable this in Python :

```
def handle_sigpoll(signum, frame):
    print 'I got a SIGPOLL update'

import fcntl, signal, STROPTS

signal.signal(signal.SIGPOLL, handle_sigpoll)
fcntl.ioctl(audio_obj.fileno(), STROPTS.I_SETSIG, STROPTS.S_MSG)
```

40.2 SUNAUDIODEV — Constants used with sunaudiodev

Obsolète depuis la version 2.6 : The *SUNAUDIODEV* module has been removed in Python 3.

This is a companion module to *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.

Modules non Documentés

Voici un rapide survol des modules actuellement non documentés, mais qui devraient l'être. N'hésitez pas à contribuer à leur documentation ! (En anglais, par mail, à docs@python.org.)

L'idée de lister les modules à documenter vient d'un message de Fredrik Lundh. Depuis, le contenu de ce chapitre à pu être mis à jour.

41.1 Miscellaneous useful utilities

Some of these are very old and/or not very robust ; marked with « *hmm.* »

ihooks — Import hook support (for *rexec*; may become obsolete). Removed in Python 3.x.

41.2 Modules spécifiques à une plateforme

Ces modules sont utilisés pour implémenter le module *os.path*, et n'ont pas plus de documentation. Le besoin de les documenter ne se fait pas réellement sentir.

ntpath — Implementation of *os.path* on Win32, Win64, WinCE, and OS/2 platforms.

posixpath — Implementation du module *os.path* pour les systèmes POSIX.

bsddb185 — Backwards compatibility module for systems which still use the Berkeley DB 1.85 module. It is normally only available on certain BSD Unix-based systems. It should never be used directly.

41.3 Multimedia

audiodev — Platform-independent API for playing audio data. Removed in Python 3.x.

linuxaudiodev — Play audio data on the Linux audio device. Replaced in Python 2.3 by the *ossaudiodev* module. Removed in Python 3.x.

sunaudio — Interpret Sun audio headers (may become obsolete or a tool/demo). Removed in Python 3.x.

toaiff — Convert « arbitrary » sound files to AIFF files ; should probably become a tool or demo. Requires the external program **sox**. Removed in Python 3.x.

41.4 Undocumented Mac OS modules

41.4.1 applesingle — AppleSingle decoder

Obsolète depuis la version 2.6.

41.4.2 buildtools — Helper module for BuildApplet and Friends

Obsolète depuis la version 2.4.

41.4.3 cfmfile — Code Fragment Resource module

cfmfile is a module that understands Code Fragments and the accompanying « cfrg » resources. It can parse them and merge them, and is used by BuildApplication to combine all plugin modules to a single executable.

Obsolète depuis la version 2.4.

41.4.4 icopen — Internet Config replacement for open()

Importing *icopen* will replace the built-in *open()* with a version that uses Internet Config to set file type and creator for new files.

Obsolète depuis la version 2.6.

41.4.5 macerrors — Mac OS Errors

macerrors contains constant definitions for many Mac OS error codes.

Obsolète depuis la version 2.6.

41.4.6 macresource — Locate script resources

macresource helps scripts finding their resources, such as dialogs and menus, without requiring special case code for when the script is run under MacPython, as a MacPython applet or under OSX Python.

Obsolète depuis la version 2.6.

41.4.7 Nav — NavServices calls

A low-level interface to Navigation Services.

Obsolète depuis la version 2.6.

41.4.8 PixmapWrapper — Wrapper for Pixmap objects

PixmapWrapper wraps a Pixmap object with a Python object that allows access to the fields by name. It also has methods to convert to and from PIL images.

Obsolète depuis la version 2.6.

41.4.9 videoreader — Read QuickTime movies

videoreader reads and decodes QuickTime movies and passes a stream of images to your program. It also provides some support for audio tracks.

Obsolète depuis la version 2.6.

41.4.10 **W** — Widgets built on **FrameWork**

The **W** widgets are used extensively in the **IDE**.

Obsolète depuis la version 2.6.

41.5 **Obsolete**

These modules are not normally available for import ; additional work must be done to make them available.

These extension modules written in C are not built by default. Under Unix, these must be enabled by uncommenting the appropriate lines in **Modules/Setup** in the build tree and either rebuilding Python if the modules are statically linked, or building and installing the shared object if using dynamically-loaded extensions.

timing — Measure time intervals to high resolution (use `time.clock()` instead). Removed in Python 3.x.

41.6 **SGI-specific Extension modules**

The following are SGI specific, and may be out of touch with the current version of reality.

c1 — Interface to the SGI compression library.

sv — Interface to the « simple video » board on SGI Indigo (obsolete hardware). Removed in Python 3.x.

>>> L'invite de commande utilisée par défaut dans l'interpréteur interactif. On la voit souvent dans des exemples de code qui peuvent être exécutés interactivement dans l'interpréteur.

... The default Python prompt of the interactive shell when entering code for an indented code block, when within a pair of matching left and right delimiters (parentheses, square brackets, curly braces or triple quotes), or after specifying a decorator.

2to3 Outil qui essaie de convertir du code pour Python 2.x en code pour Python 3.x en gérant la plupart des incompatibilités qui peuvent être détectées en analysant la source et parcourant son arbre syntaxique.

2to3 est disponible dans la bibliothèque standard sous le nom de `lib2to3`; un point d'entrée indépendant est fourni via `Tools/scripts/2to3`. Cf. *2to3 — Traduction automatique de code en Python 2 vers Python 3*.

classe de base abstraite Les classes de base abstraites (ABC, suivant l'abréviation anglaise *Abstract Base Class*) complètent le *duck-typing* en fournissant un moyen de définir des interfaces pour les cas où d'autres techniques comme `hasattr()` seraient inélégantes, ou subitement fausses (par exemple avec les méthodes magiques). Les ABC introduisent des sous-classes virtuelles, qui n'héritent pas d'une classe mais qui sont quand même reconnues par `isinstance()` ou `issubclass()` (Voir la documentation du module `abc`). Python contient de nombreuses ABC pour les structures de données (dans le module `collections`), les nombres (dans le module `numbers`), les flux (dans le module `io`). Vous pouvez créer vos propres ABC avec le module `abc`.

argument Une valeur, donnée à une *fonction* ou à une *méthode* lors de son appel. Il existe deux types d'arguments :

- *argument nommé* : un argument précédé d'un identifiant (comme `name=`) ou un dictionnaire précédé de `**`, lors d'un appel de fonction. Par exemple, 3 et 5 sont tous les deux des arguments nommés dans l'appel à `complex()` ici :

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

- *argument positionnel* : Un argument qui n'est pas nommé. Les arguments positionnels apparaissent au début de la liste des arguments, ou donnés sous forme d'un *itérable* précédé par `*`. Par exemple, 3 et 5 sont tous les deux des arguments positionnels dans les appels suivants :

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

Les arguments se retrouvent dans le corps de la fonction appelée parmi les variables locales. Voir la section [calls](#) à propos des règles dictant cette affectation. Syntaxiquement, toute expression est acceptée comme argument, et c'est la valeur résultante de l'expression qui sera affectée à la variable locale.

Voir aussi [parameter](#) dans le glossaire, et la question dans la FAQ à propos de la différence entre argument et paramètre.

attribut Valeur associée à un objet et désignée par son nom via une notation utilisant des points. Par exemple, si un objet *o* possède un attribut *a*, il sera référencé par *o.a*.

BDFL Dictateur bienveillant à vie (*Benevolent Dictator For Life* en anglais). Pseudonyme de [Guido van Rossum](#), le créateur de Python.

Objet bytes-compatible Un objet gérant le `bufferobjects`, comme les classes [str](#), [bytearray](#), ou [memoryview](#). Les objets bytes-compatibles peuvent manipuler des données binaires et ainsi servir à leur compression, sauvegarde, ou envoi sur une socket. Certaines actions nécessitent que la donnée binaire soit modifiable, ce qui n'est pas possible avec tous les objets byte-compatibles.

code intermédiaire (*bytecode*) Le code source, en Python, est compilé en un `bytecode`, la représentation interne à CPython d'un programme Python. Le `bytecode` est stocké dans un fichier nommé `.pyc` ou `.pyo`. Ces caches permettent de charger les fichiers plus rapidement lors de la deuxième exécution (en évitant ainsi de recommencer la compilation en `bytecode`). On dit que ce *langage intermédiaire* est exécuté sur une *machine virtuelle* qui exécute des instructions machine pour chaque instruction du `bytecode`. Notez que le `bytecode` n'a pas vocation à fonctionner entre différentes machines virtuelle Python, encore moins entre différentes version de Python.

La documentation du [module dis](#) fournit une liste des instructions du code intermédiaire.

classe Modèle pour créer des objets définis par l'utilisateur. Une définition de classe (*class*) contient normalement des définitions de méthodes qui agissent sur les instances de la classe.

classic class Any class which does not inherit from [object](#). See [new-style class](#). Classic classes have been removed in Python 3.

coercition The implicit conversion of an instance of one type to another during an operation which involves two arguments of the same type. For example, `int(3.15)` converts the floating point number to the integer 3, but in `3+4.5`, each argument is of a different type (one int, one float), and both must be converted to the same type before they can be added or it will raise a `TypeError`. Coercion between two operands can be performed with the `coerce` built-in function; thus, `3+4.5` is equivalent to calling `operator.add(*coerce(3, 4.5))` and results in `operator.add(3.0, 4.5)`. Without coercion, all arguments of even compatible types would have to be normalized to the same value by the programmer, e.g., `float(3)+4.5` rather than just `3+4.5`.

nombre complexe Extension des nombres réels familiers, dans laquelle tous les nombres sont exprimés sous la forme d'une somme d'une partie réelle et d'une partie imaginaire. Les nombres imaginaires sont les nombres réels multipliés par l'unité imaginaire (la racine carrée de -1 , souvent écrite *i* en mathématiques ou *j* par les ingénieurs). Python comprend nativement les nombres complexes, écrits avec cette dernière notation : la partie imaginaire est écrite avec un suffixe *j*, exemple, `3+1j`. Pour utiliser les équivalents complexes de [math](#), utilisez [cmath](#). Les nombres complexes sont un concept assez avancé en mathématiques. Si vous ne connaissez pas ce concept, vous pouvez tranquillement les ignorer.

gestionnaire de contexte Objet contrôlant l'environnement à l'intérieur d'un bloc `with` en définissant les méthodes `__enter__()` et `__exit__()`. Consultez la [PEP 343](#).

CPython L'implémentation canonique du langage de programmation Python, tel que distribué sur [python.org](#). Le terme « CPython » est utilisé dans certains contextes lorsqu'il est nécessaire de distinguer cette implémentation des autres comme *Jython* ou *IronPython*.

décorateur Fonction dont la valeur de retour est une autre fonction. Un décorateur est habituellement utilisé pour transformer une fonction via la syntaxe `@wrapper`, dont les exemples typiques sont : `classmethod()` et `staticmethod()`.

La syntaxe des décorateurs est simplement du sucre syntaxique, les définitions des deux fonctions suivantes sont sémantiquement équivalentes :

```
def f(...):
    ...
f = staticmethod(f)

@staticmethod
def f(...):
    ...
```

Quoique moins fréquemment utilisé, le même concept existe pour les classes. Consultez la documentation définitions de fonctions et définitions de classes pour en savoir plus sur les décorateurs.

descripteur Any *new-style* object which defines the methods `__get__()`, `__set__()`, or `__delete__()`. When a class attribute is a descriptor, its special binding behavior is triggered upon attribute lookup. Normally, using `a.b` to get, set or delete an attribute looks up the object named `b` in the class dictionary for `a`, but if `b` is a descriptor, the respective descriptor method gets called. Understanding descriptors is a key to a deep understanding of Python because they are the basis for many features including functions, methods, properties, class methods, static methods, and reference to super classes.

Pour plus d'informations sur les méthodes des descripteurs, consultez `descriptors`.

dictionnaire An associative array, where arbitrary keys are mapped to values. The keys can be any object with `__hash__()` and `__eq__()` methods. Called a hash in Perl.

vue de dictionnaire The objects returned from `dict.viewkeys()`, `dict.viewvalues()`, and `dict.viewitems()` are called dictionary views. They provide a dynamic view on the dictionary's entries, which means that when the dictionary changes, the view reflects these changes. To force the dictionary view to become a full list use `list(dictview)`. See *Les vues de dictionnaires*.

docstring Première chaîne littérale qui apparaît dans l'expression d'une classe, fonction, ou module. Bien qu'ignorée à l'exécution, elle est reconnue par le compilateur et placée dans l'attribut `__doc__` de la classe, de la fonction ou du module. Comme cette chaîne est disponible par introspection, c'est l'endroit idéal pour documenter l'objet.

duck-typing Style de programmation qui ne prend pas en compte le type d'un objet pour déterminer s'il respecte une interface, mais qui appelle simplement la méthode ou l'attribut (*Si ça a un bec et que ça cancanne, ça doit être un canard*, *duck* signifie canard en anglais). En se concentrant sur les interfaces plutôt que les types, du code bien construit améliore sa flexibilité en autorisant des substitutions polymorphiques. Le *duck-typing* évite de vérifier les types via `type()` ou `isinstance()`. Notez cependant que le *duck-typing* peut travailler de pair avec les *classes de base abstraites*. À la place, le *duck-typing* utilise plutôt `hasattr()` ou la programmation *EAFP*.

EAFP Il est plus simple de demander pardon que demander la permission (*Easier to Ask for Forgiveness than Permission* en anglais). Ce style de développement Python fait l'hypothèse que le code est valide et traite les exceptions si cette hypothèse s'avère fausse. Ce style, propre et efficace, est caractérisé par la présence de beaucoup de mots clés `try` et `except`. Cette technique de programmation contraste avec le style *LBYL* utilisé couramment dans les langages tels que C.

expression A piece of syntax which can be evaluated to some value. In other words, an expression is an accumulation of expression elements like literals, names, attribute access, operators or function calls which all return a value. In contrast to many other languages, not all language constructs are expressions. There are also *statements* which cannot be used as expressions, such as `print` or `if`. Assignments are also statements, not expressions.

module d'extension Module écrit en C ou C++, utilisant l'API C de Python pour interagir avec Python et le code de l'utilisateur.

objet fichier Objet exposant une ressource via une API orientée fichier (avec les méthodes `read()` ou `write()`). En fonction de la manière dont il a été créé, un objet fichier peut interfacer l'accès à un fichier sur le disque ou à un autre type de stockage ou de communication (typiquement l'entrée standard, la sortie standard, un tampon en mémoire, une socket réseau, ...). Les objets fichiers sont aussi appelés *file-like-objects* ou *streams*.

There are actually three categories of file objects : raw binary files, buffered binary files and text files. Their interfaces are defined in the *io* module. The canonical way to create a file object is by using the *open()* function.

objet fichier-compatible Synonyme de *objet fichier*.

chercheur An object that tries to find the *loader* for a module. It must implement a method named `find_module()`. See **PEP 302** for details.

division entière Division mathématique arrondissant à l'entier inférieur. L'opérateur de la division entière est `//`. Par exemple l'expression `11 // 4` vaut 2, contrairement à `11 / 4` qui vaut 2.75. Notez que `(-11) // 4` vaut -3 car l'arrondi se fait à l'entier inférieur. Voir la **PEP 328**.

fonction Suite d'instructions qui renvoie une valeur à son appelant. On peut lui passer des *arguments* qui pourront être utilisés dans le corps de la fonction. Voir aussi *paramètre*, *méthode* et *fonction*.

__future__ A pseudo-module which programmers can use to enable new language features which are not compatible with the current interpreter. For example, the expression `11/4` currently evaluates to 2. If the module in which it is executed had enabled *true division* by executing :

```
from __future__ import division
```

the expression `11/4` would evaluate to 2.75. By importing the `__future__` module and evaluating its variables, you can see when a new feature was first added to the language and when it will become the default :

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

ramasse-miettes (*garbage collection*) Le mécanisme permettant de libérer de la mémoire lorsqu'elle n'est plus utilisée. Python utilise un ramasse-miettes par comptage de référence, et un ramasse-miettes cyclique capable de détecter et casser les références circulaires.

générateur A function which returns an iterator. It looks like a normal function except that it contains `yield` statements for producing a series of values usable in a for-loop or that can be retrieved one at a time with the `next()` function. Each `yield` temporarily suspends processing, remembering the location execution state (including local variables and pending try-statements). When the generator resumes, it picks up where it left off (in contrast to functions which start fresh on every invocation).

expression génératrice Expression qui donne un itérateur. Elle ressemble à une expression normale, suivie d'une expression `for` définissant une variable de boucle, un intervalle et une expression `if` optionnelle. Toute cette expression génère des valeurs pour la fonction qui l'entoure :

```
>>> sum(i*i for i in range(10))      # sum of squares 0, 1, 4, ... 81
285
```

GIL Voir *global interpreter lock*.

verrou global de l'interpréteur (*global interpreter lock* en anglais) Mécanisme utilisé par l'interpréteur *CPython* pour s'assurer qu'un seul fil d'exécution (*thread* en anglais) n'exécute le *bytecode* à la fois. Cela simplifie l'implémentation de *CPython* en rendant le modèle objet (incluant des parties critiques comme la classe native *dict*) implicitement protégé contre les accès concourants. Verrouiller l'interpréteur entier rend plus facile l'implémentation de multiples fils d'exécution (*multi-thread* en anglais), au détriment malheureusement de beaucoup du parallélisme possible sur les machines ayant plusieurs processeurs.

Cependant, certains modules d'extension, standards ou non, sont conçus de manière à libérer le GIL lorsqu'ils effectuent des tâches lourdes tel que la compression ou le hachage. De la même manière, le GIL est toujours libéré lors des entrées / sorties.

Les tentatives précédentes d'implémenter un interpréteur Python avec une granularité de verrouillage plus fine ont toutes échouées, à cause de leurs mauvaises performances dans le cas d'un processeur unique. Il est admis que corriger ce problème de performance induit mènerait à une implémentation beaucoup plus compliquée et donc plus coûteuse à maintenir.

hachable An object is *hashable* if it has a hash value which never changes during its lifetime (it needs a `__hash__()` method), and can be compared to other objects (it needs an `__eq__()` or `__cmp__()` method). Hashable objects which compare equal must have the same hash value.

La hachabilité permet à un objet d'être utilisé comme clé de dictionnaire ou en tant que membre d'un ensemble (type *set*), car ces structures de données utilisent ce *hash*.

Tous les types immuables fournis par Python sont hachables, et aucun type mutable (comme les listes ou les dictionnaires) ne l'est. Toutes les instances de classes définies par les utilisateurs sont hachables par défaut, elles sont toutes différentes selon `__eq__`, sauf comparées à elles mêmes, et leur empreinte (*hash*) est calculée à partir de leur *id()*.

IDLE Environnement de développement intégré pour Python. IDLE est un éditeur basique et un interpréteur livré avec la distribution standard de Python.

immuable Objet dont la valeur ne change pas. Les nombres, les chaînes et les n-uplets sont immuables. Ils ne peuvent être modifiés. Un nouvel objet doit être créé si une valeur différente doit être stockée. Ils jouent un rôle important quand une valeur de *hash* constante est requise, typiquement en clé de dictionnaire.

integer division Mathematical division discarding any remainder. For example, the expression `11/4` currently evaluates to 2 in contrast to the 2.75 returned by float division. Also called *floor division*. When dividing two integers the outcome will always be another integer (having the floor function applied to it). However, if one of the operands is another numeric type (such as a *float*), the result will be coerced (see *coercion*) to a common type. For example, an integer divided by a float will result in a float value, possibly with a decimal fraction. Integer division can be forced by using the `//` operator instead of the `/` operator. See also *future*.

importer Processus rendant le code Python d'un module disponible dans un autre.

importateur Objet qui trouve et charge un module, en même temps un *chercheur* et un *chargeur*.

interactif Python a un interpréteur interactif, ce qui signifie que vous pouvez écrire des expressions et des instructions à l'invite de l'interpréteur. L'interpréteur Python va les exécuter immédiatement et vous en présenter le résultat. Démarrez juste `python` (probablement depuis le menu principal de votre ordinateur). C'est un moyen puissant pour tester de nouvelles idées ou étudier de nouveaux modules (souvenez-vous de `help(x)`).

interprété Python est un langage interprété, en opposition aux langages compilés, bien que la frontière soit floue en raison de la présence d'un compilateur en code intermédiaire. Cela signifie que les fichiers sources peuvent être exécutés directement, sans avoir à compiler un fichier exécutable intermédiaire. Les langages interprétés ont généralement un cycle de développement / débogage plus court que les langages compilés. Cependant, ils s'exécutent généralement plus lentement. Voir aussi *interactif*.

itérable An object capable of returning its members one at a time. Examples of iterables include all sequence types (such as `list`, *str*, and *tuple*) and some non-sequence types like *dict* and *file* and objects of any classes you define with an `__iter__()` or `__getitem__()` method. Iterables can be used in a `for` loop and in many other places where a sequence is needed (`zip()`, `map()`, ...). When an iterable object is passed as an argument to the built-in function *iter()*, it returns an iterator for the object. This iterator is good for one pass over the set of values. When using iterables, it is usually not necessary to call *iter()* or deal with iterator objects yourself. The `for` statement does that automatically for you, creating a temporary unnamed variable to hold the iterator for the duration of the loop. See also *iterator*, *sequence*, and *generator*.

itérateur An object representing a stream of data. Repeated calls to the iterator's `next()` method return successive items in the stream. When no more data are available a *StopIteration* exception

is raised instead. At this point, the iterator object is exhausted and any further calls to its `next()` method just raise `StopIteration` again. Iterators are required to have an `__iter__()` method that returns the iterator object itself so every iterator is also iterable and may be used in most places where other iterables are accepted. One notable exception is code which attempts multiple iteration passes. A container object (such as a `list`) produces a fresh new iterator each time you pass it to the `iter()` function or use it in a `for` loop. Attempting this with an iterator will just return the same exhausted iterator object used in the previous iteration pass, making it appear like an empty container.

Vous trouverez davantage d'informations dans *Les types itérateurs*.

fonction clé Une fonction clé est un objet callable qui renvoie une valeur à fins de tri ou de classement. Par exemple, la fonction `locale.strxfrm()` est utilisée pour générer une clé de classement prenant en compte les conventions de classement spécifiques aux paramètres régionaux courants.

Plusieurs outils dans Python acceptent des fonctions clé pour maîtriser comment les éléments sont triés ou groupés. Typiquement les fonctions `min()`, `max()`, `sorted()`, `list.sort()`, `heapq.nsmallest()`, `heapq.nlargest()`, et `itertools.groupby()`.

La méthode `str.lower()` peut servir en fonction clé pour effectuer des recherches insensibles à la casse. Aussi, il est possible de créer des fonctions clé au besoin avec des expressions `lambda`, comme `lambda r: (r[0], r[2])`. Finalement le module `operator` fournit des constructeurs de fonctions clé : `attrgetter()`, `itemgetter()`, et `methodcaller()`. Voir Comment Trier pour avoir des exemples de création et d'utilisation de fonctions clés.

argument nommé Voir *argument*.

lambda An anonymous inline function consisting of a single *expression* which is evaluated when the function is called. The syntax to create a lambda function is `lambda [parameters]: expression`

LBYL Regarde avant de tomber, (*Look before you leap* en anglais). Ce style de programmation consiste à vérifier des conditions avant d'effectuer des appels ou des accès. Ce style contraste avec le style *EAFP* et se caractérise par la présence de beaucoup d'instructions `if`.

Dans un environnement avec plusieurs fils d'exécution (*multi-threaded* en anglais), le style *LBYL* peut engendrer un séquençage critique (*race condition* en anglais) entre le « regarde » et le « tomber ». Par exemple, le code `if key in mapping: return mapping[key]` peut échouer si un autre fil d'exécution supprime la clé `key` du `mapping` après le test mais avant l'accès. Ce problème peut être résolu avec des verrous (*locks*) ou avec l'approche *EAFP*.

list A built-in Python *sequence*. Despite its name it is more akin to an array in other languages than to a linked list since access to elements is $O(1)$.

liste en compréhension (ou liste en intension) A compact way to process all or part of the elements in a sequence and return a list with the results. `result = ["0x%02x" % x for x in range(256) if x % 2 == 0]` generates a list of strings containing even hex numbers (0x..) in the range from 0 to 255. The `if` clause is optional. If omitted, all elements in `range(256)` are processed.

chargeur An object that loads a module. It must define a method named `load_module()`. A loader is typically returned by a *finder*. See [PEP 302](#) for details.

Tableau de correspondances Un conteneur permettant d'accéder à des éléments par clé et implémente les méthodes spécifiées dans *Mapping* ou `~collections.MutableMapping` :ref:`classes de base abstraites`. Les classes suivantes sont des exemples de mapping : *dict*, *collections.defaultdict*, *collections.OrderedDict*, et *collections.Counter*.

métaclasses Classe d'une classe. Les définitions de classe créent un nom pour la classe, un dictionnaire de classe et une liste de classes parentes. La métaclasses a pour rôle de réunir ces trois paramètres pour construire la classe. La plupart des langages orientés objet fournissent une implémentation par défaut. La particularité de Python est la possibilité de créer des métaclasses personnalisées. La plupart des utilisateurs n'aura jamais besoin de cet outil, mais lorsque le besoin survient, les métaclasses offrent des solutions élégantes et puissantes. Elles sont utilisées pour journaliser les accès à des propriétés, rendre sûr les environnements *multi-threads*, suivre la création d'objets, implémenter des singletons et bien d'autres tâches.

Plus d'informations sont disponibles dans : *metaclasses*.

méthode Fonction définie à l'intérieur d'une classe. Lorsqu'elle est appelée comme un attribut d'une instance de cette classe, la méthode reçoit l'instance en premier *argument* (qui, par convention, est habituellement nommé *self*). Voir *function* et *nested scope*.

ordre de résolution des méthodes L'ordre de résolution des méthodes (*MRO* pour *Method Resolution Order* en anglais) est, lors de la recherche d'un attribut dans les classes parentes, la façon dont l'interpréteur Python classe ces classes parentes. Voir [The Python 2.3 Method Resolution Order](#) pour plus de détails sur l'algorithme utilisé par l'interpréteur Python depuis la version 2.3.

module Objet utilisé pour organiser une portion unitaire de code en Python. Les modules ont un espace de noms et peuvent contenir n'importe quels objets Python. Charger des modules est appelé *importer*. Voir aussi *paquet*.

MRO Voir *ordre de résolution des méthodes*.

muable Un objet muable peut changer de valeur tout en gardant le même *id()*. Voir aussi *immuable*.

n-uplet nommé (*named-tuple* en anglais) Classe qui, comme un *n-uplet* (*tuple* en anglais), a ses éléments accessibles par leur indice. Et en plus, les éléments sont accessibles par leur nom. Par exemple, *time.localtime()* donne un objet ressemblant à un *n-uplet*, dont *year* est accessible par son indice : *t[0]* ou par son nom : *t.tm_year*).

Un *n-uplet nommé* peut être un type natif tel que *time.struct_time* ou il peut être construit comme une simple classe. Un *n-uplet nommé* complet peut aussi être créé via la fonction *collections.namedtuple()*. Cette dernière approche fournit automatiquement des fonctionnalités supplémentaires, tel qu'une représentation lisible comme *Employee(name='jones', title='programmer')*.

espace de noms The place where a variable is stored. Namespaces are implemented as dictionaries. There are the local, global and built-in namespaces as well as nested namespaces in objects (in methods). Namespaces support modularity by preventing naming conflicts. For instance, the functions *__builtin__.open()* and *os.open()* are distinguished by their namespaces. Namespaces also aid readability and maintainability by making it clear which module implements a function. For instance, writing *random.seed()* or *itertools.izip()* makes it clear that those functions are implemented by the *random* and *itertools* modules, respectively.

portée imbriquée The ability to refer to a variable in an enclosing definition. For instance, a function defined inside another function can refer to variables in the outer function. Note that nested scopes work only for reference and not for assignment which will always write to the innermost scope. In contrast, local variables both read and write in the innermost scope. Likewise, global variables read and write to the global namespace.

nouvelle classe Any class which inherits from *object*. This includes all built-in types like *list* and *dict*. Only new-style classes can use Python's newer, versatile features like *__slots__*, descriptors, properties, and *__getattr__()*.

More information can be found in newstyle.

objet N'importe quelle donnée comportant des états (sous forme d'attributs ou d'une valeur) et un comportement (des méthodes). C'est aussi (*object*) l'ancêtre commun à absolument toutes les *nouvelles classes*.

paquet *module* Python qui peut contenir des sous-modules ou des sous-paquets. Techniquement, un paquet est un module qui possède un attribut *__path__*.

paramètre A named entity in a *function* (or method) definition that specifies an *argument* (or in some cases, arguments) that the function can accept. There are four types of parameters :

- *positional-or-keyword* : l'argument peut être passé soit par sa *position*, soit en tant que *argument nommé*. C'est le type de paramètre par défaut. Par exemple, *foo* et *bar* dans l'exemple suivant :

```
def func(foo, bar=None): ...
```

- *positional-only* : l'argument ne peut être donné que par sa position. Python n'a pas de syntaxe pour déclarer de tels paramètres, cependant des fonctions natives, comme *abs()*, en utilisent.

- *var-positional* : une séquence d'arguments positionnels peut être fournie (en plus de tous les arguments positionnels déjà acceptés par d'autres paramètres). Un tel paramètre peut être défini en préfixant son nom par une *. Par exemple *args* ci-après :

```
def func(*args, **kwargs): ...
```

- *var-keyword* : une quantité arbitraire d'arguments peut être passée, chacun étant nommé (en plus de tous les arguments nommés déjà acceptés par d'autres paramètres). Un tel paramètre est défini en préfixant le nom du paramètre par **. Par exemple, *kwargs* ci-dessus.

Les paramètres peuvent spécifier des arguments obligatoires ou optionnels, ainsi que des valeurs par défaut pour les arguments optionnels.

See also the [argument](#) glossary entry, the FAQ question on the difference between arguments and parameters, and the function section.

PEP Python Enhancement Proposal. A PEP is a design document providing information to the Python community, or describing a new feature for Python or its processes or environment. PEPs should provide a concise technical specification and a rationale for proposed features.

PEPs are intended to be the primary mechanisms for proposing major new features, for collecting community input on an issue, and for documenting the design decisions that have gone into Python. The PEP author is responsible for building consensus within the community and documenting dissenting opinions.

See [PEP 1](#).

argument positionnel Voir [argument](#).

Python 3000 Surnom donné à la série des Python 3.x (très vieux surnom donné à l'époque où Python 3 représentait un futur lointain). Aussi abrégé *Py3k*.

Pythonique Idée, ou bout de code, qui colle aux idiomes de Python plutôt qu'aux concepts communs rencontrés dans d'autres langages. Par exemple, il est idiomatique en Python de parcourir les éléments d'un itérable en utilisant `for`. Beaucoup d'autres langages n'ont pas cette possibilité, donc les gens qui ne sont pas habitués à Python utilisent parfois un compteur numérique à la place :

```
for i in range(len(food)):
    print food[i]
```

Plutôt qu'utiliser la méthode, plus propre et élégante, donc *Pythonique* :

```
for piece in food:
    print piece
```

nombre de références Nombre de références à un objet. Lorsque le nombre de références à un objet descend à zéro, l'objet est désalloué. Le comptage de référence n'est généralement pas visible dans le code Python, mais c'est un élément clé de l'implémentation *CPython*. Le module `sys` définit une fonction `getrefcount()` que les développeurs peuvent utiliser pour obtenir le nombre de références à un objet donné.

__slots__ A declaration inside a *new-style class* that saves memory by pre-declaring space for instance attributes and eliminating instance dictionaries. Though popular, the technique is somewhat tricky to get right and is best reserved for rare cases where there are large numbers of instances in a memory-critical application.

séquence An *iterable* which supports efficient element access using integer indices via the `__getitem__()` special method and defines a `len()` method that returns the length of the sequence. Some built-in sequence types are `list`, `str`, `tuple`, and `unicode`. Note that `dict` also supports `__getitem__()` and `__len__()`, but is considered a mapping rather than a sequence because the lookups use arbitrary *immutable* keys rather than integers.

tranche An object usually containing a portion of a *sequence*. A slice is created using the subscript notation, `[]` with colons between numbers when several are given, such as in `variable_name[1:3:5]`.

The bracket (subscript) notation uses *slice* objects internally (or in older versions, `__getslice__()` and `__setslice__()`).

méthode spéciale (*special method* en anglais) Méthode appelée implicitement par Python pour exécuter une opération sur un type, comme une addition. De telles méthodes ont des noms commençant et terminant par des doubles tirets bas. Les méthodes spéciales sont documentées dans `specialnames`.

instruction Une instruction (*statement* en anglais) est un composant d'un « bloc » de code. Une instruction est soit une *expression*, soit une ou plusieurs constructions basées sur un mot-clé, comme `if`, `while` ou `for`.

struct sequence A tuple with named elements. Struct sequences expose an interface similar to *named tuple* in that elements can be accessed either by index or as an attribute. However, they do not have any of the named tuple methods like `_make()` or `_asdict()`. Examples of struct sequences include `sys.float_info` and the return value of `os.stat()`.

chaîne entre triple guillemets Chaîne qui est délimitée par trois guillemets simples (') ou trois guillemets doubles ("). Bien qu'elle ne fournisse aucune fonctionnalité qui ne soit pas disponible avec une chaîne entre guillemets, elle est utile pour de nombreuses raisons. Elle vous autorise à insérer des guillemets simples et doubles dans une chaîne sans avoir à les protéger et elle peut s'étendre sur plusieurs lignes sans avoir à terminer chaque ligne par un \. Elle est ainsi particulièrement utile pour les chaînes de documentation (*docstrings*).

type Le type d'un objet Python détermine quel genre d'objet c'est. Tous les objets ont un type. Le type d'un objet peut être obtenu via son attribut `__class__` ou via `type(obj)`.

retours à la ligne universels A manner of interpreting text streams in which all of the following are recognized as ending a line : the Unix end-of-line convention '\n', the Windows convention '\r\n', and the old Macintosh convention '\r'. See [PEP 278](#) and [PEP 3116](#), as well as `str.splitlines()` for an additional use.

environnement virtuel Environnement d'exécution isolé (en mode coopératif) qui permet aux utilisateurs de Python et aux applications d'installer et de mettre à jour des paquets sans interférer avec d'autres applications Python fonctionnant sur le même système.

machine virtuelle Ordinateur défini entièrement par du logiciel. La machine virtuelle (*virtual machine*) de Python exécute le *bytecode* produit par le compilateur de *bytecode*.

Le zen de Python Liste de principes et de préceptes utiles pour comprendre et utiliser le langage. Cette liste peut être obtenue en tapant « `import this` » dans une invite Python interactive.

À propos de ces documents

Ces documents sont générés à partir de sources en [reStructuredText](#) par [Sphinx](#), un analyseur de documents spécialement conçu pour la documentation Python.

Le développement de la documentation et de ses outils est entièrement basé sur le volontariat, tout comme Python. Si vous voulez contribuer, allez voir la page [reporting-bugs](#) qui contient des informations pour vous y aider. Les nouveaux volontaires sont toujours les bienvenus !

Merci beaucoup à :

- Fred L. Drake, Jr., créateur des outils originaux de la documentation Python et rédacteur de la plupart de son contenu ;
- le projet [Docutils](#) pour avoir créé *reStructuredText* et la suite d'outils *Docutils* ;
- Fredrik Lundh pour son projet [Alternative Python Reference](#), dont Sphinx a pris beaucoup de bonnes idées.

B.1 Contributeurs de la documentation Python

De nombreuses personnes ont contribué au langage Python, à sa bibliothèque standard et à sa documentation. Consultez [Misc/ACKS](#) dans les sources de la distribution Python pour avoir une liste partielle des contributeurs.

Ce n'est que grâce aux suggestions et contributions de la communauté Python que Python a une documentation si merveilleuse – Merci !

Histoire et licence

C.1 Histoire du logiciel

Python a été créé au début des années 1990 par Guido van Rossum, au Stichting Mathematisch Centrum (CWI, voir <https://www.cwi.nl/>) au Pays-Bas en tant que successeur d'un langage appelé ABC. Guido est l'auteur principal de Python, bien qu'il inclut de nombreuses contributions de la part d'autres personnes.

En 1995, Guido continua son travail sur Python au Corporation for National Research Initiatives (CNRI, voir <https://www.cnri.reston.va.us/>) de Reston, en Virginie, d'où il diffusa plusieurs versions du logiciel.

En mai 2000, Guido et l'équipe de développement centrale de Python sont parti vers BeOpen.com pour former l'équipe BeOpen PythonLabs. En octobre de la même année, l'équipe de PythonLabs est partie vers Digital Creations (désormais Zope Corporation ; voir <http://www.zope.com/>). En 2001, la Python Software Foundation (PSF, voir <http://www.python.org/psf/>) voit le jour. Il s'agit d'une organisation à but non lucratif détenant les droits de propriété intellectuelle de Python. Zope Corporation en est un sponsor.

Toutes les versions de Python sont Open Source (voir <https://www.opensource.org/> pour la définition d'Open Source). Historiquement, la plupart, mais pas toutes, des versions de Python ont également été compatible avec la GPL, le tableau ci-dessous résume les différentes versions.

Version	Dérivé de	Année	Propriétaire	Compatible avec la GPL ?
0.9.0 à 1.2	n/a	1991-1995	CWI	oui
1.3 à 1.5.2	1.2	1995-1999	CNRI	oui
1.6	1.5.2	2000	CNRI	non
2.0	1.6	2000	BeOpen.com	non
1.6.1	1.6	2001	CNRI	non
2.1	2.0+1.6.1	2001	PSF	non
2.0.1	2.0+1.6.1	2001	PSF	oui
2.1.1	2.1+2.0.1	2001	PSF	oui
2.1.2	2.1.1	2002	PSF	oui
2.1.3	2.1.2	2002	PSF	oui
2.2 et supérieur	2.1.1	2001-maintenant	PSF	oui

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Merci aux nombreux bénévoles qui ont travaillé sous la direction de Guido pour rendre ces versions possibles.

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C.3.1 Mersenne twister

Le module `_random` inclut du code construit à partir d'un téléchargement depuis <http://www.math.sci.hiroshima-u.ac.jp/~m-mat/MT/MT2002/emt19937ar.html>. Voici mot pour mot les commentaires du code original :

A C-program for MT19937, with initialization improved 2002/1/26.
Coded by Takuji Nishimura and Makoto Matsumoto.

Before using, initialize the state by using `init_genrand(seed)`
or `init_by_array(init_key, key_length)`.

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<http://www.math.sci.hiroshima-u.ac.jp/~m-mat/MT/emt.html>

email: m-mat @ math.sci.hiroshima-u.ac.jp (remove space)

C.3.2 Interfaces de connexion (*sockets*)

Le module *socket* utilise les fonctions `getaddrinfo()` et `getnameinfo()` codées dans des fichiers source séparés et provenant du projet WIDE : <http://www.wide.ad.jp/>.

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```

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```

C.3.4 MD5 message digest algorithm

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L. Peter Deutsch
ghost@aladdin.com

Independent implementation of MD5 (RFC 1321).

This code implements the MD5 Algorithm defined in RFC 1321, whose text is available at

<http://www.ietf.org/rfc/rfc1321.txt>

The code is derived from the text of the RFC, including the test suite (section A.5) but excluding the rest of Appendix A. It does not include any code or documentation that is identified in the RFC as being copyrighted.

The original and principal author of md5.h is L. Peter Deutsch <ghost@aladdin.com>. Other authors are noted in the change history that follows (in reverse chronological order):

2002-04-13 lpd Removed support for non-ANSI compilers; removed references to Ghostscript; clarified derivation from RFC 1321; now handles byte order either statically or dynamically.
1999-11-04 lpd Edited comments slightly for automatic TOC extraction.
1999-10-18 lpd Fixed typo in header comment (ansi2knr rather than md5); added conditionalization for C++ compilation from Martin Purschke <purschke@bnl.gov>.
1999-05-03 lpd Original version.

C.3.5 Interfaces de connexion asynchrones

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```

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```
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C.3.8 Les fonctions UUencode et UUdecode

Le module `uu` contient la note suivante :

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Modified by Jack Jansen, CWI, July 1995:

- Use `binascii` module to do the actual line-by-line conversion between `ascii` and `binary`. This results in a 1000-fold speedup. The C version is still 5 times faster, though.
- Arguments more compliant with Python standard

C.3.9 Appel de procédures distantes en XML (*RPC*, pour *Remote Procedure Call*)

The `xmlrpc.lib` module contains the following notice :

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C.3.11 Select kqueue

Le module `select` contient la note suivante pour l'interface kqueue :

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C.3.12 *strtod* et *dtoa*

Le fichier `Python/dtoa.c`, qui fournit les fonctions `dtoa` et `strtod` pour la conversions de *doubles C* vers et depuis les chaînes, et tiré d'un fichier du même nom par David M. Gay, actuellement disponible sur <http://www.netlib.org/fp/>. Le fichier original, tel que récupéré le 16 mars 2009, contient la licence suivante :

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```

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C.3.15 libffi

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```
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```

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