# **Python**

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The programmer, like the poet, works only slightly removed from pure thought-stuff. He builds castles in the air, from air, creating by exertion of the imagination. Few media of creation are so flexible, so easy to polish and rework, so readily capable of realizing grand conceptual structures. Yet the program construct, unlike the poet's words, is real in the sense that it moves and works, producing visible outputs separate from the construct itself. It prints results, draws pictures, produces sounds, moves arms. The magic of myth and legend has come true in our time.

Fred Brooks, author of The Mythical Man-Month

Guide to text formatting in examples:

plain fixed-width text	code, or commands to enter
italic fixed-width text	items that can be changed
<bold></bold>	keyboard keys to press, or mouse actions to perform
plan text	output from python shell

# Why Python?

**Python** is just one programming language of many. Just like human languages, there are many different computer languages, such as **Java**, **LISP**, **PHP**, and **Perl** and...let's not forget C or others, as well as useful things like UNIX scripting. Most languages are good at least one thing – for example, writing easily portable programs is a strong-point for Java and accessing databases and splicing them into web-pages is the specialism for PHP. But underneath, all these languages are very similar at the core concept level – most have data in variables and functions (procedures, methods) to do stuff to that data. Some languages even combine data and functions into bundles called objects, and others like LISP let you treat functions like variables, and vice versa. **Python** is a powerful, elegant programming language that is easy to read and to understand. It demonstrates most of these features common to lots of other languages and is useful for real-world applications, to boot! It's also free software, has one standard implementation, and a large and friendly community of hackers around it. Once you learn Python, every other language you want to learn should seem pretty familiar...

#### **General Programming Language Concepts:**

Programming languages consist of **code**, that is a bunch of sentences written for the computer that tell it what to do. Code's not magic – in fact, it looks like some bizarre bastard child of English and logic often enough. However, unlike **natural languages** such as English or Chinese, **formal languages** like **Python** strive to eliminate ambiguity. They have to eliminate ambiguity, because your code is supposed to tell *the computer exactly what to do*. You don't want your computer making any off-the-cuff decisions for you, do you? Like any foreign language, once you read code enough, any piece of code you find will start making sense, and if it doesn't, with a little bit of Internet research and a good reference book or two, the code will make sense. Still, the computer **does not directly read your code**. It has to have it translated into something even more indecipherable to mere mortals - **machine code** of zeros and ones, register commands, and so on. To do this you need an **interpreter**, a program that lets you type in and run code (or, a program that makes programs!). Interpreters let you type and run code immediately. **Compilers** let you turn your code directly into machine code to run later.

#### **Starting Python**

A programming language is for thinking of programs, not for expressing programs you've already thought of. It should be a pencil, not a pen.

Paul Graham, author of Hackers and Painters

Starting the Python interactive shell that lets you start the interpreter consists of finding a command prompt and typing:

python <**RETURN**>

Running uncompiled Python code in the Python shell (usually ends with **.py**):

python scriptname <RETURN>

Running an executable (compiled) Python script:

./scriptname <**RETURN**>

# simon@amulree: /home/simon



simon@amulree:~ \$ python Python 2.3.4 (#2, Aug 17 2004, 19:31:38) [GCC 3.3.4 (Debian 1:3.3.4-5ubuntu1)] on linux2 Type "help", "copyright", "credits" or "license" for more information. >>> print 'hello world' hello world >>> П >>> 🛛

#### <u>Variables</u>

*Everyone will need computer programming. It is the way we will speak to the servants.* John McCarthy, rather hierarchical quote by the inventor of LISP programming language

A variable is a placeholder for a value of any kind that you are working with in your code. The important thing about variables is that the value they have **varies** over the time of the running of a program, therefore the name "variable." However, the great thing of about variables is that they keep their value until changed. What most people think of as "data" is generally stored in variables or collections of variables. Most of what you will be doing programming is moving value around variables and then doing things with them, like printing them to the screen.

Setting a variable's value:

variableName = value

Examples:

height = 400 locX = 0.56 name = 'harry'

Using a variable:

locX = 0.56 velocityX = 0.2 newLocX = locX + velocityX

#### Data types

The purpose of computing is insight, not numbers.

Richard Hamming, inventor of the Hamming error-correcting codes

### **Integers and Floats**

Integers and floats are just numbers. Integers are whole numbers, ie: 0,1,2,3, etc. Floats are decimal numbers, ie: 0.5, 34.666, etc.

The main commands you can use with integers and floats are: add, subtract, multiply, divide, and modulus (the remainder of the first number divided however many times by the second number). Modulus is great for discovering if things are even – so where any number modulus 2 is zero, that number is even. There are a few tricks – watch out for dividing integers! The result of dividing two integers has to be an integer, so you lose any fraction bits.

Adding numbers:	Subtracting numbers:
3 + 7	7 - 3
10	4
0.5 + 6	0.5 - 6
6.5	-5.5

## Modulus:

# Tuple

A tuple is a simple list of values. Once it has been created, its values cannot be changed. Another word for this that you sometimes see is "**immutable**." This means that there are things that can be changed, like the **atomic** (non-list!) variables we created earlier, that are **mutable**.

Creating a tuple:

myTuple = ('a','b','c', d', 'e')

To get values from a tuple you have to type in an "index" after the name surrounded by brackets. Computers, always trying to save space, start their indices with **zero**, not one. Unusually, Python also lets you count indices backwards using negative numbers, and grab whole chunks using the semi-colon in between the beginning index and end index of the sub-tuple you want.

Tuples can contain various types of data:

myTuple = ('a','33.5','harry', myObject, None)

# Lists

A list is like a tuple but allows you to change the values of its contents and add new values to it. It is **mutable**. The big difference in distinguishing lists from tuples is that when you make a list, you've got to use **square brackets**, not parentheses like tuples..

Creating a list:

myList = [] myList = ['a','b','c']

Adding items to a list. Note that there's this period in between the name of your list and the command your using to "append" items to the list. This shows that this command is attached not to just any list, but to your list! Also, you can use commands like "print" to view the contents of a list, or any other variable to the screen. The object of a command like "print MyList" is to print exactly the contents of that list, and nothing else. (like "Run Jack" tells not anyone, but just Jack, to run!)

myList.append('d') print myList ['a','b','c', 'd']

You can also subtract items from a list by using the "remove" command after the name of the list (remember to put in the period!) and then giving the command the value you wish to remove from the list:

myList,append('e') ['a','b','c','d'],'e' print myList.remove('e') ['a','b','c','d']

Changing values in a list is just assigning another value to the variable using the index:

```
myList[2] = 'x'
print myList
['a', 'b', 'x', 'd']
```

There's tons of neat stuff you can do with lists built right in. You can reverse a list, or sort a list by alphabetical or numerical order. See what these commands do!

```
myList.reverse()
myList.sort()
```

## String

A string is a piece of text. Strings can be treated a bit like lists, since they are basically lists of characters (members of the alphabets and numbers mostly).

Creating a string:

myString = 'hello harry'

Getting letters from a string:

myString[7] 'a' myString[6:8] 'ha'

Strings can be added together (known as 'concatenating a string'):

myString += ' and sally' print myString 'hello harry and sally'

#### Dictionary

A dictionary is a list of items that can be located by a name, or 'key' value. Just like looking up definitions in a dictionary! Sort of like an index, but not a number.

Creating a dictionary:

myDictionary = {}

Setting a value in a dictionary:

myDictionary['key'] = value

Getting a value from a dictionary:

myDictionary['key']

myDictionary.get('key', None)

## None

None is a special value that represents nothing, it can be used to show that a variable (or object...but we're not there quite yet!) exists but has no value:

myVariable = None

#### **Built-in commands**

The Analytical Engine weaves Algebraical patterns just as the Jacquard loom weaves flowers and leaves.

Ada Augusta, daughter of Byron and first computer programmer!

Python comes with tons of commands built in you can use. These can save you lots of time. Now many of these you could program yourself, but why bother? **Displaying information in the console:** 

print 'hello'

Formatting print statements. The weird percent sign tells the string to "stick the variable value" here, and the letter right after the percent sign tells it how to format it, as in whether or not it should have trailing zeros if it's a number. The value (or variable with that value) that you then want to print has to be preceded by another percent sign. If you are printing more than one value then you want to have your values in a tuple list.

%s - prints string or object %d - prints integer (whole number) %f - prints float (decimal number)

#### Example:

print "hello %s, %d is an integer, %f is a float" % ('harry', 10, 0.5) 'hello harry, 10 is an integer, 0.5 is a float'

### Number functions:

float – make sure number is float, or converts string to float value float('0.5') 0.5	max - return maximum value max(8,6) 8
float('p') Traceback (most recent call last): File " <stdin>", line 1, in ? ValueError: invalid literal for float(): p</stdin>	
int - makes sure number is integer, or converts string to integer value int('3') 3	min - return minimum value min(8,6) 6
	abs - return absolute value abs(6 - 8)

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# **File functions:**

A file is just something on your hard drive, and you can create those yourself from programs. They are great, because as you've noticed as soon as you exit the Python interpreter all your hard work disappears into the cybernetic ether, never to be seen again. Instead, you can write that important variables down in a file, and then read that file again.

Opening a file. The mysterious 'r' stands for 'read', and opening assigns a filename like 'myfile.txt' and a mode like 'reading' with the 'file' variable. Then you can read in commands from the file using its read command.

file = open(filename, 'r')
content = file.read()
print content
file.close()

Writing to a file is just as simple, but instead of the mysterious 'r' for 'read' mode, you want to use a 'w' for writing mode, and then write to the file with the file's write command.

file = open(filename, 'w') content = 'blah blah' file.write(content) file.close()

You can write your Python code in a text file. This makes it much easier to write multi-line commands and complex programs than just staying in the interpreter. To run them, you just type in a program into your favorite text editor, such as emacs, vi, or even gedit (just make sure you can save as plain text, not with fancy formatting!). Note we can use the raw\_input command to get data from the user.

print 'Hello! What\'s your name?' yourname = raw\_input('Enter your name, then press Enter:') print 'Nice to meet you, %s. Hope you enjoy Python!' % yourname

To run just type: python myfile.py

If something went wrong, the Python interpreter will kindly tell you the location in terms of line numbers. Go there, and try to figure out what went wrong by checking your code.

# **Control statements**

*Controlling complexity is the essence of computer programming.* B. Kernighan, co-creator of the C programming language

Control statements give structure to a program. They enable decisions to be made and actions to be looped. In essence, every control statement consists of a condition, which is either true or false. These conditons are things like:

myString == 'harry'

which if you have the statement: myString = 'harry'

Somewhere, this should be true. These conditions can involve numbers, like

temp > 45

It is very important that you put the colon (:) after the condition in a list command, and that the text after a list command be formatted by indenting it EXACTLY one indention over for every loop you are in. Then you exit the code by just looping out by just removing the extra indention.

loop <condition>: <doing something in condition> <doing something as well in loop> <outside loop now>

**If-else:** making decisions among. Usually when one thing is true, and the other is a default mode. You only have to make the decision once.

if <condition>: <do something> else: <do something else>

if <condition>: <do something> elif <condition>: <do something different> else: <do something else>

**For:** Looping through a series of items, i.e you want to keep doing something so many times, and then stop. Often you want to do something a number of times times, in which case there is a nice magic command called "range" that will, given the number 10, produce a list of [1,2,3,4,5,6,7,8,9,10]. You can also do something to every member of the list as well if the list is not composed of numbers.

for i in range(*<number>*): *<do something>*  for item in list: <do something with item>

for key, value in dictionary.items(): <do something with with key and value>

While: Looping until something changes. This is great for doing things when you don't know how many times you know what you want.

while <condition>: <do something>

Here's a simple example that prints the Fibonacci sequence up till 2000, that magic number that gives us the Golden Mean and classical architecture.

a = 0 b = 1 while b < 2000: print b a = b b = a+b

However, you must beware of the dreaded **infinite loop**, a loop that never ends. If you change your condition from "a < 2000" to "b > 0" you will see what I mean! Exit from the never-ending program by typing CTRL-C.

### Logic operators

Logic operators can be used in combination with control statements. They are primarily used to test if things are true or false.

not - test if an item is false or has no value.

and - test if two items are true

or - test if one of two items is true

You can quickly build up very complicated conditions using conditionals, such as when someone does not have the name George and is over age 18 or has less than 10 pounds. It's good to keep them separated with parentheses so you remember what your doing! The computer checks the conditional in the innermost parentheses first, and slowly builds outwards to figure out if the condition is true or false.

```
(name == "George") and ((age > 18) or (pounds < 10))
```

#### **Comments**

Programs must be written for people to read, and only incidentally for machines to execute. H. Abelson and G. Sussman in <u>The Structure and Interpretation of Computer Programs</u>

Comments are lines in a program which are ignored when running the program. They can used to put notes into a program. This is important because often you forget what you're doing, and if you want other programmers to understand your code you more or less have to do this. :

# this bit doesn't quite work yet! velX = locX % 45

Or temporarily disable some lines of code. This is great when something isn't working, so you have to "debug" it. You can also even comment out your entire program and comment it out bit by bit to isolate which parts of it have problems.:

#velX = locX % 45

A comment only applies to the line it start on. Multiple lines of test need to have a comment on the start of each line:

if not partitionName:return
partition = self.createPartitionFromName(partitionName)
#partition.addStructure(structure)
#self.bounds.addPoint(partition.bounds.minX, partition.bounds.minY)
#self.bounds.addPoint(partition.bounds.maxX, partition.bounds.maxY)

#### **Functions**

Each pattern describes a problem which occurs over and over again in our environment, and then describes the core of the solution to that problem, in such a way that you can use this solution a million times over, without ever doing it in the same way twice.

-C. Alexander

Functions allow you to bundle a series of code statements into a form that can be re-used. You can send data to a function and get it to send back the result of whatever it does to that data. All the commands we've been talking about, like "print" and "raw\_input" are actually functions.

Defining a function. Remember to use "def" before the function name, and to always use parenthesis after the function when defining it.:

def functionName(inputValue): <do something>

Calling a function:

functionName(9)
functionOne(functionTwo(9))

The data you send to a function is defined by the function 'parameters', these are like sockets or funnels which identify what is being sent to a function. A parameter is defined as a name which is then used in the function code. Note that in Python when you create a new variable inside a function, once you are finished with the function that variable is destroyed. However, variables defined outside functions can be accessed from anywhere. Often you want your function to return just one particular value, like this:

myVariable = functionName(100)

This can be done with the "result" keyword, followed by the name of the variable.

def functionName(inputValue): result = inputValue \* 5 return result

Python also has 'doc strings'. these can be used to add explanations to the code which can be called up in the Python shell:

def funkshun(value):

This function just prints whatever is sent to it.

print "funkshun:", value

funkshun.\_\_doc\_\_ 'This function just prints whatever is sent to it.'

#### **Objects**

Classes struggle, some classes triumph, others are eliminated.

Mao Zedong

An object is like a more elaborate type of function that combines groups of functions with the data they operate on. Whilst a function just processes data, an object can store data as well as process it. Object allow you think about a program in a very metaphorical way. You can think of a group of objects as team of people each doing different jobs.

The code that defines an object is called a 'class'. This is like the abstract template and the object is like an 'active' version of it. In philosophical terms, a class is a type, and objects are tokens of a type.

Defining a class:

class ClassName: def \_\_init\_\_(self): print "class created"

The init function (which is surrounded by two underscores so you know its special) is run every time you create a new object.

Creating an object from a class consists of using the name of the class like a function:

c = ClassName()

When an object stores data this is aclled a 'property' of the object. These are a special form of variable that belongs to the object. They are always written:

#### self.propertyName

The word 'self' shows that the property belongs to the object. This is very different than the way things are done in other programming languages in objects.

Objects have their own functions, often these are called 'methods' in order to separate them from functions, but they perform the same role. However, make sure you don't forget that the first argument to every function is an implicit "self" variable, and that this variable isn't needed when you call the function from the object.

Defining a method:

def methodName(self, inputValue): do something return result

Calling a method:

c.methodName(9)

c.methodName(functionOne(9))

This should start helping make like files make sense, like file input and output and even adding things and subtracting things from lists. When you "open" a file ("myFile = open('myfile.txt', "r") you pass the open function. the name of the file and a character like "r" for "read" that determines its parameters, and in return the built-in "open" function returns Then when you want to read In fact, not only are files and lists objects, all of Python consists of objects. Some, like numbers, just aren't very complicated!

New classes for objects can also be created by adapting an existing class. This is known as 'inheritance'. This allows you to take a class and refine its functions or add new ones. In philosophy and biology we can use these to create sort of taxonomies or ontologies, with the most abstract type (Animals can move) having its properties inherited by the progressively less abstract types (Mammals have warm blood, Mammls are animals, therefore mammals can move too!):



Classes and objects:



# **Modules**

Good programmers know what to write. Great ones know what to use.

Eric Raymond, author of Hackers and Painters

Modules are individual Python scripts containing a set of classes and functions. These are useful to bundle up, and these allow you to extend the language by importing new modules. If you write some general purpose code that you think another Python programmer might use, you too can bundle it up as a module.

Anatomy of a module:

import math from time import time	import statements for module
mCount = 0 mName = 'harry'	module variables
<pre>def saySomething(words):     """     This function makes the character speak.     """     print "%s says: '%s'" % (mName, words)     mCount += 1</pre>	function
<pre>class MyClass:     """     This is a simple object.     """     definit(self, name):         """         This is the object constructor.         """         self.name = name         self.count = 0         print "%s has been created." % self.name      def saySomething(self, words='boo'): </pre>	object
""" This function makes the character speak. """ print "%s says: '%s'" % (self.name, words) self.count += 1	

**Importing a module:** Note that you only do this once from a file, but in an interpreter if you load a module and change something, and want to go back to the original, you have to "reload(module)".

import module import module as x from module import x

Getting info from a modules

#### import random

dir(random)

['BPF', 'LOG4', 'NV\_MAGICCONST', 'Random', 'SG\_MAGICCONST', 'TWOPI', 'WichmannHill', '\_BuiltinMethodType', '\_all\_', '\_builtins\_', '\_doc\_', '\_file\_', '\_name\_\_', '\_acos', '\_cos', '\_e', '\_exp', '\_floor', '\_inst', '\_log', '\_pi', '\_random', '\_sin', '\_sqrt', '\_test', '\_test\_generator', 'betavariate', 'choice', 'cunifvariate', 'expovariate', 'gammavariate', 'gauss', 'getstate', 'jumpahead', 'lognormvariate', 'normalvariate', 'paretovariate', 'randint', 'random', 'randrange', 'sample', 'seed', 'setstate', 'shuffle', 'stdgamma', 'uniform', 'vonmisesvariate', 'weibullvariate']

random.randint.\_\_doc\_\_

'Return random integer in range [a, b], including both end points.'

### Displaying a module help guide:

help(modulename)

### Making an executable script.

This must be the first line in the script (or at least it should be!):

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

To define code that should be automatically executed when the script starts:

if \_\_name\_\_ == '\_\_main\_\_': script statement go here

On Unix (Linux and OS X) systems, to make the script executable, enter the following command in a standrd terminal:

chmod 755 modulename

To run the module script:

./modulename

# <u>XML</u>

Every new level of abstraction draws the computer-based world closer to the concepts we talk about in the real world. We've moved from waves to bits to data to information to infosets to application objects. As this process continues, some ambitious Comp Sci graduate student will realize that somebody already created the tree structure mapping the highest level of reality. That person was, of course, G. W. F. Hegel.

Frank Wilson, editor at O'Reilly

**XML** stands for eXtensible Markup Language, and it's sort of a universal data format for transferring things around the Web. It's basically a clean-up version of HTML (Hypertext Markup Language) that many of use. The key difference is that with XML, instead of being stuck with the names that HTML gives you, you can make up your own. This allows you to design custom markup vocabulary for describing all sorts of data.

XML data must be well-formed. HTML, at least the sloppy HTML that many of use, does not have to be well formed. For example, we often do things like this:

<b>The Meaning of Life in Paragraph</b>

The answer is <a href = "http://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Meaning\_of\_life">42</a>.

That's silly & now if we could only find "the question"... <b>The Question is!</b>

While this would be perfectly acceptable as HTML for the purposes of having a web browser render it, it is not acceptable as XML (of XHTML, the XML-conformant HTML that you should use!). In both XML and HTML there are tags, such as "b" for bold and "p" for paragraph. Tags always start with <tag>, but they should end with </b>. In XML, every tag must come in pairs, such that for every start-tag there is an end-tag, where the end-tag is not only has the same name but also has the same nambe preceded by a backwards-slash. Therefore the above code is not well-formed XML until it has the end tag of the paragraph tag in the right place. Also, tags must not nest in XML. This means that you cannot do this:

<tag1> My <tag2> content <tag1> is here </tag2>

But instead must do this:

<tag1> My <tag2> content <tag2> is here </tag1>

Also, certain characters are not allowed in XML because they are given special meaning by XML to define tags. The most common of these are quotes, apostrophes, ampersands, and less than and greater than symbols. These can then be replaced by " &, < and &gt; respectively. This proceeding a character with an ampersand character points to the XML parser that there is actually some sort of special character there, and this can in turn be used to insert Unicode characters in XML that are otherwise unprintable – try putting &#165; in your XML document.

You also have to give XML code (or at least you should) a prolog, which tells the parser what version of XML its reading and what character set its using.

<?xml version="1.0" encoding="iso-8859-1"?> means that you are using XML version 1.0 and the ISO 8859 character set. In general, while they often are similar for English, there are big differences between character sets such as printing accents differently, so it's generally more common in the XML world to use UTF-8, or <?xml version="1.0" encoding="utf-8"?>. Also, every XML document must have a root node, or a node on top that encompassees the entire document except the prolog. Now we can convert it to XML by formatting it like this:

<?xml version="1.0" encoding="utf-8"?> <root>

<b>The Meaning of Life in Paragraph</b>

The answer is <a href = "http://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Meaning\_of\_life">42</a>. That&apo; silly & now if we could only find "the question"...<b>The Question is!</b>

The tags like <b> are called "elements," and the information between them is called their "element content", which is often text. Elements are embedded within each other. Also, elements, such as the <a> element in our example, can contain attributes, such as <a>'s "href" attribute, that contain attribute values. Elements are ordered and nested within each other – while attributes are unordered and flat. Also, we often want to combine elements from different documents, so we use "namespaces" to disambiguate tags. These tags add a URI, like "http://www.w3.org/1999/xhtml" for XHTML, and we declare these using the xmlns attribute in the root node's tag, like this:

<tag xmlns = "<u>http://www.example.com</u>">

This makes all the following tags default to that namespace unless another one is declared explicitly by giving it a name like:

<tag xmlns:yans = "http://www.mypage.com/YetAnotherNameSpace">

This means that every XML element that has the prefix "yans" belongs to YetAnotherNameSpace, not the current default one. Prefixes are attached via colons, like this:

<yans:tag> My content here is in another namespace. Wow! </yans:tag>

. We can then tell the XML parser that we are using an element from a different namespace by giving

by prefixing it by the namespace URI. It's good practice to always give your XML a namespace.

We can then make up our own XML vocabularies, to describe anything we want, such as our schedule or fun workshops, and easily embed valid XHTML elements:

What is interesting is that XML is everywhere – and simply put, it allows us a programming language and device independent way of storing complex, structured knowledge using metaphors from the Web many people already understand.

Indeed, one way of thinking about XML is the fact that it makes everything into a tree. You can then tranverse a tree by picking out elements by their name, and finding their "parents" and "siblings." This works better if you treat attributes and elements as all sub-categories of the same thing, the "node". In fact, the easiest way to access XML data in a file for many people is to use the DOM, or "Document Object Model" does exactly that.

#### **RSS (Really Simple Syndication!)**

In 1995 I woke up from a sort-of Microsoft induced narcoleptic coma and realized there was this thing called "The Web," and got really excited about it.

Adam Bosworth, now at Google

One great thing XML has caused is the development of "microformats," or commonly used XML vocabularies. Perhaps the most popular is RSS, which stands for either Really Simple Syndication, RDF Site Summary, or something else depending on who you talk to. However, regardless of how exactly one interprets the acronym, it's used for a pretty simple idea now: for web-pages with dynamic content, provide a common XML vocabulary that can be sent to other sites and programs updating them something has changed.

RSS feeds divide the types of news into "channels," which generally can be one per web-site but on more complex web-sites there can be even more. Each channel has a series of "items" or updates it sends out whenever something new happens on to the website.

There are lots of information about news feeds, but in general the most important are "title", "description", and "link". These provide the title of the update, a brief textual description, and a link to the URI of the new news. There's lots more optional information like "author" and "date".

Here's one sample RSS feed:

```
<item>
```

```
<title>On Donne's Poetry</title>
<author>Samuel Taylor Coleridge</author>
<description>The classic review of the famous metaphysical
poet. It's now available as an online text, or e-text.</description>
<link>etext.lib.virginia.edu/stc/Coleridge/poems/Donne_Poetry.html</link>
</item>
```

</channel> </rss>

You can collect and read RSS newsfeeds into news aggregators, so you don't have to visit each webpage to see the interesting news.

# **Reading RSS Feeds Using Minidom**

#### *XML is easy. It is the problems people are trying to address with XML that are hard.* Jonathan Borden on xml-dev mailing list

Now we're going to see how you can use Python to parse these RSS feeds and display them for you in an easy to read format. This code from XML.com is complex and involves using lots of imported modules, but we'll step through it a bit.

First, we need to get the proper modules. We are going to use "urllib" to get the contents from URLs (URIs) like "<u>http://www.example.com</u>." Then we have to deal with XML, so we are going to load the "minidom" DOM XML package, a standard part of the PyXML that lets us deal with XML in Python.

from xml.dom import minidom import urllib

Since RSS comes in so many flavors (including one in RDF 1.0 which uses the Resource Description Framework that appears much more complicated but is more or less doing the same thing as vanilla RSS) we're going to make a tuple of the default namespaces we might be running in to. Note that lots of versions of RSS do not even have namespaces! Also, some versions of RSS (RDF-based RSS 1.0) use elements from yet another namespace, Dublin Core, so we have to add these to the tuple as well.

DEFAULT\_NAMESPACES = \ (None, # RSS 0.91, 0.92, 0.93, 0.94, 2.0 'http://purl.org/rss/1.0/', # RSS 1.0 'http://my.netscape.com/rdf/simple/0.9/' # RSS 0.90 ) DUBLIN\_CORE = ('http://purl.org/dc/elements/1.1/',)

Then we need to make a function that given a URI will read the resulting code and then return it. So, we define a function that takes a URI, and then return the result of using minidom's parse funciton over the results of opening the URI, as done by the function "urllib.urlopen()".

def load(rssURL): return minidom.parse(urllib.urlopen(rssURL))

We then want to be able to find out each of the elements by name. Since we might be dealing with namespaces, we iterate through the tuples of possible namespace prefixes we created earlier when trying to get the whole name of the tag. We want to pass this function a node from miniDOM (like the root node of the RSS XML document), a tagname (like "author"), and the possible namespace tuple. Then for every possible name combination, we use minidom's "getElementByTagNameNS" feature with the namspace and tag names as arguments in order to discover if any "children" of that node (nodes directly beneath it) match that wanted tag. If there are children that fit this (i.e. the length of a list of these nodes is greater than zero, or it just exists), we return these nodes. Otherwise we return the empty nodes.

def getElementsByTagName(node, tagName,possibleNamespaces=DEFAULT\_NAMESPACES):

for namespace in possibleNamespaces: children = node.getElementsByTagNameNS(namespace, tagName) if len(children): return children return []

However, since there should not according to the RSS specification be multiple authors, titles, and so on, we can define another "helper function" that just returns the first child (i.e. "children[0]") in most cases.

# 

Now that we found some nodes that have content, we still have to get the text content out, and we don't want to throw out any HTML or other markup in the text as well. This clever function uses a feature in Prolog called "list comprehensions" that offer a concise way to create lists by embedding the loop that creates the members of the list in the list index itself. Therefor this simple function just "joins" together the data in each child node (as given by the "child.data" minidom member variable) that the list returns.

def textOf(node): return node and "".join([child.data for child in node.childNodes]) or ""

Lastly, we require the ability to run this thing. So we have a main function after our declared function. It takes the name of an RSS feed from the user's at the command prompt, like this, by virtue of using the "load(sys.argv[1])" function. It's argument, the list "argv", is how Python communicates data from the command prompt, as in:

python rss.py http://www.infoshop.org/inews/backend/news.rdf

A second member of the list "argv[2]" would exist if the python program took two arguments, and son on. The rest of the main function doesn't do too much other than use the "textOf" function created earlier to iterate over relevant parts of the RSS feeds. The data the textOf function returns take advantage of with a built in string conversion to UTF-8 to properly use characters via "encode("utf-8").

import sys
rssDocument = load(sys.argv[1])
for item in getElementsByTagName(rssDocument, 'item'):
 print 'Title:', textOf(first(item, 'title')).encode("utf-8")
 print 'Link:', textOf(first(item, 'link')).encode("utf-8")
 print 'Description:', textOf(first(item, 'description')).encode("utf-8")
 print 'Date:', textOf(first(item, 'date', DUBLIN\_CORE)).encode("utf-8")
 print 'Author:', textOf(first(item, 'creator', DUBLIN\_CORE)).encode("utf-8")
 print

There's lots to do to expand this program. You could add in user prompts, or save and load files that keep track of lists of often read RSS feeds, and allow users to add and subtract feeds by name. You could upload and run the Python program on the Web using either a CGI (Common Gateway Interface) to print off the formatting as HTML, or just have it run as a UNIX job and have the program output straight HTML instead of text. Various error-checks on the command prompt could be added, or even a graphical user interface for adding, subtracting, and reading feeds. The best way to learn to code is often not to code everything from scratch yourself, but to modify and extend free and open source code to suit your particular desires and needs. And likely other people will want to use your code as well! Enjoy Python and happy hacking!

# Reference:

### **Websites**

Python site: <u>http://www.python.org</u> Dive Into Python, tutorials: <u>http://www.diveintopython.org</u> Vaults of Parnassus, Python libraries: <u>http://www.vex.net/parnassus</u> Python Cookbook: <u>http://aspn.activestate.com/ASPN/Python/Cookbook/</u> PyGame, gaming libraries: <u>http://www.pygame.org</u> AIMA, Artificial Intelligence examples: <u>http://aima.cs.berkeley.edu/python/readme.html</u> 'war' simple Python game: <u>http://www.pythonpros.com/gstein/war/</u> XML.com: Latest news on XML <u>http://www.xml.com</u> World Wide Web Consortium: Crazy people that keep making XML-standards: <u>http://www.w3.org</u>

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