
webapp2 Documentation

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`webapp2` is a lightweight Python web framework compatible with Google App Engine's `webapp`.

`webapp2` is a [simple](#). it follows the simplicity of `webapp`, but improves it in some ways: it adds better URI routing and exception handling, a full featured response object and a more flexible dispatching mechanism.

`webapp2` also offers the package `webapp2_extras` with several optional utilities: sessions, localization, internationalization, domain and subdomain routing, secure cookies and others.

`webapp2` can also be used outside of Google App Engine, independently of the App Engine SDK.

For a complete description of how `webapp2` improves `webapp`, see [webapp2 features](#).

Note: `webapp2` is part of the Python 2.7 runtime since App Engine SDK 1.6.0. To include it in your app see [Configuring Libraries](#).

CHAPTER 1

Quick links

- [Package Index Page](#)
- [Github](#)
- [Discussion Group](#)

CHAPTER 2

Status

Webapp2 is currently maintained by Google Cloud Platform Developer Relations. It is not an official Google product, but is hosted by Google to allow the webapp2 community to continue to maintain the project.

Quick start

If you already know [webapp](#), webapp2 is very easy to get started. You can use webapp2 exactly like webapp, and learn the new features as you go.

If you are new to App Engine, read *Getting Started with App Engine* first. You will need the [App Engine SDK](#) installed for this quick start.

Note: If you want to use webapp2 outside of App Engine, read the *Quick start (to use webapp2 outside of App Engine)* tutorial instead.

Create an application

Create a directory `helloworld` for your new app. [Download webapp2](#), unpack it and add `webapp2.py` to that directory. If you want to use extra features such as sessions, extra routes, localization, internationalization and more, also add the `webapp2_extras` directory to your app.

Note: webapp2 is part of the Python 2.7 runtime since App Engine SDK 1.6.0, so you don't need to upload it with your app anymore. To include it in your app see [Configuring Libraries](#).

Hello, webapp2!

Create an `app.yaml` file in your app directory with the following contents:

```
application: helloworld
version: 1
runtime: python27
```

```
api_version: 1
threadsafe: true

handlers:
- url: /*.*
  script: main.app
```

Then create a file `main.py` and define a handler to display a ‘Hello, webapp2!’ message:

```
import webapp2

class HelloWebapp2(webapp2.RequestHandler):
    def get(self):
        self.response.write('Hello, webapp2!')

app = webapp2.WSGIApplication([
    ('/', HelloWebapp2),
], debug=True)
```

Test your app

If you’re using the Google App Engine Launcher, you can set up the application by selecting the **File** menu, **Add Existing Application...**, then selecting the `helloworld` directory. Select the application in the app list, click the Run button to start the application, then click the Browse button to view it. Clicking Browse simply loads (or reloads) <http://localhost:8080/> in your default web browser.

If you’re not using Google App Engine Launcher, start the web server with the following command, giving it the path to the `helloworld` directory:

```
google_appengine/dev_appserver.py helloworld/
```

The web server is now running, listening for requests on port 8080. You can test the application by visiting the following URL in your web browser:

<http://localhost:8080/>

Quick start (to use webapp2 outside of App Engine)

webapp2 can also be used outside of App Engine as a general purpose web framework, as it has these features:

- It is independent of the App Engine SDK. If the SDK is not found, it sets fallbacks to be used outside of App Engine.
- It supports threaded environments through the module *Local*.
- All webapp2_extras modules are designed to be thread-safe.
- It is compatible with WebOb 1.0 and superior, which fixes several bugs found in the version bundled with the SDK (which is of course supported as well).

It won’t support App Engine services, but if you like webapp, why not use it in other servers as well? Here we’ll describe how to do this.

Note: If you want to use webapp2 on App Engine, read the *Quick start* tutorial instead.

Prerequisites

If you don't have a package installer in your system yet (like `pip` or `easy_install`), install one. See [Installing packages](#).

If you don't have `virtualenv` installed in your system yet, install it. See [Installing virtualenv](#).

Create a directory for your app

Create a directory `hellowebapp2` for your new app. It is where you will setup the environment and create your application.

Install WebOb, Paste and webapp2

We need three libraries to use `webapp2`: `WebOb`, for Request and Response objects, `Paste`, for the development server, and `webapp2` itself.

Type this to install them using the **active virtual environment** (see [Installing virtualenv](#)):

```
$ pip install WebOb
$ pip install Paste
$ pip install webapp2
```

Or, using `easy_install`:

```
$ easy_install WebOb
$ easy_install Paste
$ easy_install webapp2
```

Now the environment is ready for your first app.

Hello, webapp2!

Create a file `main.py` inside your `hellowebapp2` directory and define a handler to display a 'Hello, webapp2!' message. This will be our bootstrap file:

```
import webapp2

class HelloWebapp2(webapp2.RequestHandler):
    def get(self):
        self.response.write('Hello, webapp2!')

app = webapp2.WSGIApplication([
    ('/', HelloWebapp2),
], debug=True)

def main():
    from paste import httpserver
    httpserver.serve(app, host='127.0.0.1', port='8080')

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

Test your app

Now start the development server using the Python executable provided by virtualenv:

```
$ python main.py
```

The web server is now running, listening for requests on port 8080. You can test the application by visiting the following URL in your web browser:

<http://127.0.0.1:8080/>

Getting Started with App Engine

This tutorial describes how to develop and deploy a simple Python project with Google App Engine. The example project, a guest book, demonstrates how to setup the Python runtime environment, how to use webapp2 and several App Engine services, including the datastore and the Google user service.

This tutorial has the following sections:

Introduction

Welcome to webapp2! Creating an App Engine application with webapp2 is easy, and only takes a few minutes. And it's free to start: upload your app and share it with users right away, at no charge and with no commitment required.

Google App Engine applications can be written in either the Java or Python programming languages. This tutorial covers Python, and presents a lightweight framework that is flexible and easy to extend: webapp2 is compatible with the default App Engine webapp framework, but offers an improved response object, better URI routing and exception handling and many extra features.

In this tutorial, you will learn how to:

- Build an App Engine application using Python
- Use the “webapp2” web application framework
- Use the App Engine datastore with the Python modeling API
- Integrate an App Engine application with Google Accounts for user authentication
- Use Django templates with your app
- Upload your app to App Engine

By the end of the tutorial, you will have implemented a working application, a simple guest book that lets users post messages to a public message board.

Next...

To get started developing Google App Engine applications, you download and set up the App Engine software development kit.

Continue to *[The Development Environment](#)*.

The Development Environment

You develop and upload Python applications for Google App Engine using the App Engine Python software development kit (SDK).

The Python SDK includes a web server application that simulates the App Engine environment, including a local version of the datastore, Google Accounts, and the ability to fetch URLs and send email directly from your computer using the App Engine APIs. The Python SDK runs on any computer with Python 2.5, and versions are available for Windows, Mac OS X and Linux. The Python SDK is not compatible with Python 3.

The Python SDK for Windows and Mac includes Google App Engine Launcher, an application that runs on your computer and provides a graphical interface that simplifies many common App Engine development tasks.

If necessary, download and install Python 2.7 for your platform from [the Python web site](#). Mac OS X users already have Python installed.

Download the App Engine SDK. Follow the instructions on the download page to install the SDK on your computer.

For this tutorial, you will use two commands from the SDK:

- `dev_appserver.py`, the development web server
- `appcfg.py`, for uploading your app to App Engine

Windows and Mac users can run Google App Engine Launcher and simply click the Run and Deploy buttons instead of using these commands.

For Windows users: The Windows installer puts these commands in the command path. After installation, you can run these commands from a command prompt.

For Mac users: You can put these commands in the command path by selecting “Make Symlinks...” from the “GoogleAppEngineLauncher” menu.

If you are using the Zip archive version of the SDK, you will find these commands in the `google_appengine` directory.

Next...

The local development environment lets you develop and test complete App Engine applications before showing them to the world. Let’s write some code.

Continue to *[Hello, World!](#)*.

Hello, World!

Python App Engine applications communicate with the web server using the [CGI](#) standard. When the server receives a request for your application, it runs the application with the request data in environment variables and on the standard input stream (for POST data). To respond, the application writes the response to the standard output stream, including HTTP headers and content.

Let’s begin by implementing a tiny application that displays a short message.

Creating a Simple Request Handler

Create a directory named `helloworld`. All files for this application reside in this directory.

Inside the `helloworld` directory, create a file named `helloworld.py`, and give it the following contents:

```
print 'Content-Type: text/plain'
print ''
print 'Hello, world!'
```

This Python script responds to a request with an HTTP header that describes the content, a blank line, and the message Hello, world!.

Creating the Configuration File

An App Engine application has a configuration file called `app.yaml`. Among other things, this file describes which handler scripts should be used for which URLs.

Inside the `helloworld` directory, create a file named `app.yaml` with the following contents:

```
application: helloworld
version: 1
runtime: python27
api_version: 1
threadsafe: true

handlers:
- url: /*
  script: helloworld.py
```

From top to bottom, this configuration file says the following about this application:

- The application identifier is `helloworld`. When you register your application with App Engine in the final step, you will select a unique identifier, and update this value. This value can be anything during development. For now, leave it set to `helloworld`.
- This is version number 1 of this application's code. If you adjust this before uploading new versions of your application software, App Engine will retain previous versions, and let you roll back to a previous version using the administrative console.
- This code runs in the `python` runtime environment, version "1". Additional runtime environments and languages may be supported in the future.
- Every request to a URL whose path matches the regular expression `/.*` (all URLs) should be handled by the `helloworld.py` script.

The syntax of this file is [YAML](#). For a complete list of configuration options, see [the app.yaml reference](#).

Testing the Application

With a handler script and configuration file mapping every URL to the handler, the application is complete. You can now test it with the web server included with the App Engine SDK.

If you're using the Google App Engine Launcher, you can set up the application by selecting the **File** menu, **Add Existing Application...**, then selecting the `helloworld` directory. Select the application in the app list, click the Run button to start the application, then click the Browse button to view it. Clicking Browse simply loads (or reloads) <http://localhost:8080/> in your default web browser.

If you're not using Google App Engine Launcher, start the web server with the following command, giving it the path to the `helloworld` directory:

```
google_appengine/dev_appserver.py helloworld/
```


The web server is now running, listening for requests on port 8080. You can test the application by visiting the following URL in your web browser:

`http://localhost:8080/`

For more information about running the development web server, including how to change which port it uses, see [the Dev Web Server reference](#), or run the command with the option `--help`.

Iterative Development

You can leave the web server running while you develop your application. The web server knows to watch for changes in your source files and reload them if necessary.

Try it now: Leave the web server running, then edit `helloworld.py` to change `Hello, world!` to something else. Reload `http://localhost:8080/` or click Browse in Google App Engine Launcher to see the change.

To shut down the web server, make sure the terminal window is active, then press Control-C (or the appropriate “break” key for your console), or click Stop in Google App Engine Launcher.

You can leave the web server running for the rest of this tutorial. If you need to stop it, you can restart it again by running the command above.

Next...

You now have a complete App Engine application! You could deploy this simple greeting right now and share it with users worldwide. But before we deploy it, let’s consider using a web application framework to make it easier to add features.

Continue to *Using the webapp2 Framework*.

Using the webapp2 Framework

The CGI standard is simple, but it would be cumbersome to write all of the code that uses it by hand. Web application frameworks handle these details for you, so you can focus your development efforts on your application’s features. Google App Engine supports any framework written in pure Python that speaks CGI (and any [WSGI](#)-compliant framework using a CGI adaptor).

Hello, webapp2!

A webapp2 application has three parts:

- One or more `RequestHandler` classes that process requests and build responses.
- A `WSGIApplication` instance that routes incoming requests to handlers based on the URL.
- A main routine that runs the `WSGIApplication` using a CGI adaptor.

Let’s rewrite our friendly greeting as a webapp2 application. Edit `helloworld/helloworld.py` and replace its contents with the following:

```
import webapp2

class MainPage(webapp2.RequestHandler):
    def get(self):
        self.response.headers['Content-Type'] = 'text/plain'
        self.response.out.write('Hello, webapp2 World!')
```

```
application = webapp2.WSGIApplication([
    ('/', MainPage)
], debug=True)
```

Also edit `app.yaml` and replace its contents with the following:

```
application: helloworld
version: 1
runtime: python27
api_version: 1
threadsafe: true

handlers:
- url: /*
  script: helloworld.application
```

Reload <http://localhost:8080/> in your browser to see the new version in action (if you stopped your web server, restart it by running the command described in “*Hello, World!*”).

What webapp2 Does

This code defines one request handler, `MainPage`, mapped to the root URL (`/`). When `webapp2` receives an HTTP GET request to the URL `/`, it instantiates the `MainPage` class and calls the instance’s `get` method. Inside the method, information about the request is available using `self.request`. Typically, the method sets properties on `self.response` to prepare the response, then exits. `webapp2` sends a response based on the final state of the `MainPage` instance.

The application itself is represented by a `webapp2.WSGIApplication` instance. The parameter `debug=True` passed to its constructor tells `webapp2` to print stack traces to the browser output if a handler encounters an error or raises an uncaught exception. You may wish to remove this option from the final version of your application.

The code `application.run()` runs the application in App Engine’s CGI environment. It uses a function provided by App Engine that is similar to the WSGI-to-CGI adaptor provided by the `wsgiref` module in the Python standard library, but includes a few additional features. For example, it can automatically detect whether the application is running in the development server or on App Engine, and display errors in the browser if it is running on the development server.

We’ll use a few more features of `webapp2` later in this tutorial. For more information about `webapp2`, see the `webapp2` reference.

Next...

Frameworks make web application development easier, faster and less error prone. `webapp2` is just one of many such frameworks available for Python. Now that we’re using a framework, let’s add some features.

Continue to *Using the Users Service*.

Using the Users Service

Google App Engine provides several useful services based on Google infrastructure, accessible by applications using libraries included with the SDK. One such service is the Users service, which lets your application integrate with Google user accounts. With the Users service, your users can use the Google accounts they already have to sign in to your application. Let’s use the Users service to personalize this application’s greeting.

Using Users

Edit `helloworld/helloworld.py` again, and replace its contents with the following:

```
from google.appengine.api import users
import webapp2

class MainPage(webapp2.RequestHandler):
    def get(self):
        user = users.get_current_user()

        if user:
            self.response.headers['Content-Type'] = 'text/plain'
            self.response.out.write('Hello, ' + user.nickname())
        else:
            self.redirect(users.create_login_url(self.request.uri))

application = webapp2.WSGIApplication([
    ('/', MainPage)
], debug=True)

def main():
    application.run()

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

Reload the page in your browser. Your application redirects you to the local version of the Google sign-in page suitable for testing your application. You can enter any username you'd like in this screen, and your application will see a fake `User` object based on that username.

When your application is running on App Engine, users will be directed to the Google Accounts sign-in page, then redirected back to your application after successfully signing in or creating an account.

The Users API

Let's take a closer look at the new pieces.

If the user is already signed in to your application, `get_current_user()` returns the `User` object for the user. Otherwise, it returns `None`:

```
user = users.get_current_user()
```

If the user has signed in, display a personalized message, using the nickname associated with the user's account:

```
if user:
    self.response.headers['Content-Type'] = 'text/plain'
    self.response.out.write('Hello, ' + user.nickname())
```

If the user has not signed in, tell webapp2 to redirect the user's browser to the Google account sign-in screen. The redirect includes the URL to this page (`self.request.uri`) so the Google account sign-in mechanism will send the user back here after the user has signed in or registered for a new account:

```
self.redirect(users.create_login_url(self.request.uri))
```

For more information about the Users API, see the [Users reference](#).

Next...

Our application can now greet visiting users by name. Let's add a feature that will let users greet each other.

Continue to *Handling Forms with webapp2*.

Handling Forms with webapp2

If we want users to be able to post their own greetings, we need a way to process information submitted by the user with a web form. The webapp2 framework makes processing form data easy.

Handling Web Forms With webapp2

Replace the contents of `helloworld/helloworld.py` with the following:

```
import cgi

from google.appengine.api import users
import webapp2

class MainPage(webapp2.RequestHandler):
    def get(self):
        self.response.out.write("""
        <html>
        <body>
        <form action="/sign" method="post">
            <div><textarea name="content" rows="3" cols="60"></textarea></div>
            <div><input type="submit" value="Sign Guestbook"></div>
        </form>
        </body>
        </html>""")

class Guestbook(webapp2.RequestHandler):
    def post(self):
        self.response.out.write('<html><body>You wrote:<pre>')
        self.response.out.write(cgi.escape(self.request.get('content')))
        self.response.out.write('</pre></body></html>')

application = webapp2.WSGIApplication([
    ('/', MainPage),
    ('/sign', Guestbook)
], debug=True)

def main():
    application.run()

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

Reload the page to see the form, then try submitting a message.

This version has two handlers: `MainPage`, mapped to the URL `/`, displays a web form. `Guestbook`, mapped to the URL `/sign`, displays the data submitted by the web form.

The `Guestbook` handler has a `post()` method instead of a `get()` method. This is because the form displayed by `MainPage` uses the HTTP POST method (`method="post"`) to submit the form data. If for some reason you need

a single handler to handle both GET and POST actions to the same URL, you can define a method for each action in the same class.

The code for the `post()` method gets the form data from `self.request`. Before displaying it back to the user, it uses `cgi.escape()` to escape HTML special characters to their character entity equivalents. `cgi` is a module in the standard Python library; see [the documentation for `cgi`](#) for more information.

Note: The App Engine environment includes the entire Python 2.5 standard library. However, not all actions are allowed. App Engine applications run in a restricted environment that allows App Engine to scale them safely. For example, low-level calls to the operating system, networking operations, and some filesystem operations are not allowed, and will raise an error when attempted. For more information, see [The Python Runtime Environment](#).

Next...

Now that we can collect information from the user, we need a place to put it and a way to get it back.

Continue to [Using the Datastore](#).

Using the Datastore

Storing data in a scalable web application can be tricky. A user could be interacting with any of dozens of web servers at a given time, and the user's next request could go to a different web server than the one that handled the previous request. All web servers need to be interacting with data that is also spread out across dozens of machines, possibly in different locations around the world.

Thanks to Google App Engine, you don't have to worry about any of that. App Engine's infrastructure takes care of all of the distribution, replication and load balancing of data behind a simple API – and you get a powerful query engine and transactions as well.

The default datastore for an application is now the [High Replication datastore](#). This datastore uses the [Paxos algorithm](#) to replicate data across datacenters. The High Replication datastore is extremely resilient in the face of catastrophic failure.

One of the consequences of this is that the consistency guarantee for the datastore may differ from what you are familiar with. It also differs slightly from the Master/Slave datastore, the other datastore option that App Engine offers. In the example code comments, we highlight some ways this might affect the design of your app. For more detailed information, see [Using the High Replication Datastore \(HRD\)](#).

The datastore writes data in objects known as entities, and each entity has a key that identifies the entity. Entities can belong to the same entity group, which allows you to perform a single transaction with multiple entities. Entity groups have a parent key that identifies the entire entity group.

In the High Replication Datastore, entity groups are also a unit of consistency. Queries over multiple entity groups may return stale, [eventually consistent](#) results. Queries over a single entity group return up-to-date, strongly consistent, results. Queries over a single entity group are called ancestor queries. Ancestor queries use the parent key (instead of a specific entity's key).

The code samples in this guide organize like entities into entity groups, and use ancestor queries on those entity groups to return strongly consistent results. In the example code comments, we highlight some ways this might affect the design of your app. For more detailed information, see [Using the High Replication Datastore](#).

A Complete Example Using the Datastore

Here is a new version of `helloworld/helloworld.py` that stores greetings in the datastore. The rest of this page discusses the new pieces:

```
import cgi
import datetime
import urllib
import wsgiref.handlers

from google.appengine.ext import db
from google.appengine.api import users
import webapp2

class Greeting(db.Model):
    """Models an individual Guestbook entry with an author, content, and date."""
    author = db.UserProperty()
    content = db.StringProperty(multiline=True)
    date = db.DateTimeProperty(auto_now_add=True)

def guestbook_key(guestbook_name=None):
    """Constructs a datastore key for a Guestbook entity with guestbook_name."""
    return db.Key.from_path('Guestbook', guestbook_name or 'default_guestbook')

class MainPage(webapp2.RequestHandler):
    def get(self):
        self.response.out.write('<html><body>')
        guestbook_name=self.request.get('guestbook_name')

        # Ancestor Queries, as shown here, are strongly consistent with the High
        # Replication datastore. Queries that span entity groups are eventually
        # consistent. If we omitted the ancestor from this query there would be a
        # slight chance that Greeting that had just been written would not show up
        # in a query.
        greetings = db.GqlQuery("SELECT * "
                                "FROM Greeting "
                                "WHERE ANCESTOR IS :1 "
                                "ORDER BY date DESC LIMIT 10",
                                guestbook_key(guestbook_name))

        for greeting in greetings:
            if greeting.author:
                self.response.out.write(
                    '<b>%s</b> wrote:' % greeting.author.nickname())
            else:
                self.response.out.write('An anonymous person wrote:')
            self.response.out.write('<blockquote>%s</blockquote>' %
                                    cgi.escape(greeting.content))

        self.response.out.write("""
            <form action="/sign?%s" method="post">
                <div><textarea name="content" rows="3" cols="60"></textarea></div>
                <div><input type="submit" value="Sign Guestbook"></div>
            </form>
            <hr>
        """)
```

```

        <form>Guestbook name: <input value="%s" name="guestbook_name">
        <input type="submit" value="switch"></form>
    </body>
</html>"" % (urllib.urlencode({'guestbook_name': guestbook_name}),
              cgi.escape(guestbook_name))

class Guestbook(webapp2.RequestHandler):
    def post(self):
        # We set the same parent key on the 'Greeting' to ensure each greeting is in
        # the same entity group. Queries across the single entity group will be
        # consistent. However, the write rate to a single entity group should
        # be limited to ~1/second.
        guestbook_name = self.request.get('guestbook_name')
        greeting = Greeting(parent=guestbook_key(guestbook_name))

        if users.get_current_user():
            greeting.author = users.get_current_user()

        greeting.content = self.request.get('content')
        greeting.put()
        self.redirect('/?' + urllib.urlencode({'guestbook_name': guestbook_name}))

application = webapp2.WSGIApplication([
    ('/', MainPage),
    ('/sign', Guestbook)
], debug=True)

def main():
    application.RUN()

if __name__ == '__main__':
    main()

```

Replace `helloworld/helloworld.py` with this, then reload <http://localhost:8080/> in your browser. Post a few messages to verify that messages get stored and displayed correctly.

Storing the Submitted Greetings

App Engine includes a data modeling API for Python. It's similar to Django's data modeling API, but uses App Engine's scalable datastore behind the scenes.

For the guestbook application, we want to store greetings posted by users. Each greeting includes the author's name, the message content, and the date and time the message was posted so we can display messages in chronological order.

To use the data modeling API, import the `google.appengine.ext.db` module:

```
from google.appengine.ext import db
```

The following defines a data model for a greeting:

```
class Greeting(db.Model):
    author = db.UserProperty()
```

```
content = db.StringProperty(multiline=True)
date = db.DateTimeProperty(auto_now_add=True)
```

This defines a `Greeting` model with three properties: `author` whose value is a `User` object, `content` whose value is a string, and `date` whose value is a `datetime.datetime`.

Some property constructors take parameters to further configure their behavior. Giving the `db.StringProperty` constructor the `multiline=True` parameter says that values for this property can contain newline characters. Giving the `db.DateTimeProperty` constructor a `auto_now_add=True` parameter configures the model to automatically give new objects a date of the time the object is created, if the application doesn't otherwise provide a value. For a complete list of property types and their options, see [the Datastore reference](#).

Now that we have a data model for greetings, the application can use the model to create new `Greeting` objects and put them into the datastore. The following new version of the `Guestbook` handler creates new greetings and saves them to the datastore:

```
class Guestbook(webapp2.RequestHandler):
    def post(self):
        guestbook_name = self.request.get('guestbook_name')
        greeting = Greeting(parent=guestbook_key(guestbook_name))

        if users.get_current_user():
            greeting.author = users.get_current_user()

        greeting.content = self.request.get('content')
        greeting.put()
        self.redirect('/?' + urllib.urlencode({'guestbook_name': guestbook_name}))
```

This new `Guestbook` handler creates a new `Greeting` object, then sets its `author` and `content` properties with the data posted by the user. The parent has an entity kind “`Guestbook`”. There is no need to create the “`Guestbook`” entity before setting it to be the parent of another entity. In this example, the parent is used as a placeholder for transaction and consistency purposes. See [Entity Groups and Ancestor Paths](#) for more information. Objects that share a common `ancestor` belong to the same entity group. It does not set the `date` property, so `date` is automatically set to “now,” as we configured the model to do.

Finally, `greeting.put()` saves our new object to the datastore. If we had acquired this object from a query, `put()` would have updated the existing object. Since we created this object with the model constructor, `put()` adds the new object to the datastore.

Because querying in the High Replication datastore is only strongly consistent within entity groups, we assign all `Greetings` to the same entity group in this example by setting the same parent for each `Greeting`. This means a user will always see a `Greeting` immediately after it was written. However, the rate at which you can write to the same entity group is limited to 1 write to the entity group per second. When you design a real application you'll need to keep this fact in mind. Note that by using services such as [Memcache](#), you can mitigate the chance that a user won't see fresh results when querying across entity groups immediately after a write.

Retrieving the Stored Greetings With GQL

The App Engine datastore has a sophisticated query engine for data models. Because the App Engine datastore is not a traditional relational database, queries are not specified using SQL. Instead, you can prepare queries using a SQL-like query language we call GQL. GQL provides access to the App Engine datastore query engine's features using a familiar syntax.

The following new version of the `MainPage` handler queries the datastore for greetings:

```
class MainPage(webapp2.RequestHandler):
    def get(self):
```



```

self.response.out.write('<html><body>')
guestbook_name=self.request.get('guestbook_name')

greetings = db.GqlQuery("SELECT * "
                        "FROM Greeting "
                        "WHERE ANCESTOR IS :1 "
                        "ORDER BY date DESC LIMIT 10",
                        guestbook_key(guestbook_name))

for greeting in greetings:
    if greeting.author:
        self.response.out.write('<b>%s</b> wrote:' % greeting.author.
↪nickname())
    else:
        self.response.out.write('An anonymous person wrote:')
        self.response.out.write('<blockquote>%s</blockquote>' %
                                cgi.escape(greeting.content))

# Write the submission form and the footer of the page
self.response.out.write("""
    <form action="/sign" method="post">
    <div><textarea name="content" rows="3" cols="60"></textarea></div>
    <div><input type="submit" value="Sign Guestbook"></div>
    </form>
</body>
</html>""")

```

The query happens here:

```

greetings = db.GqlQuery("SELECT * "
                        "FROM Greeting "
                        "WHERE ANCESTOR IS :1 "
                        "ORDER BY date DESC LIMIT 10",
                        guestbook_key(guestbook_name))

```

Alternatively, you can call the `gql(...)` method on the `Greeting` class, and omit the `SELECT * FROM Greeting` from the query:

```

greetings = Greeting.gql("WHERE ANCESTOR IS :1 ORDER BY date DESC LIMIT 10",
                        guestbook_key(guestbook_name))

```

As with SQL, keywords (such as `SELECT`) are case insensitive. Names, however, are case sensitive.

Because the query returns full data objects, it does not make sense to select specific properties from the model. All GQL queries start with `SELECT * FROM model` (or are so implied by the model's `gql(...)` method) so as to resemble their SQL equivalents.

A GQL query can have a `WHERE` clause that filters the result set by one or more conditions based on property values. Unlike SQL, GQL queries may not contain value constants: Instead, GQL uses parameter binding for all values in queries. For example, to get only the greetings posted by the current user:

```

if users.get_current_user():
    greetings = Greeting.gql(
        "WHERE ANCESTOR IS :1 AND author = :2 ORDER BY date DESC",
        guestbook_key(guestbook_name), users.get_current_user())

```

You can also use named parameters instead of positional parameters:

```
greetings = Greeting.gql("WHERE ANCESTOR = :ancestor AND author = :author ORDER BY_  
↪date DESC",  
                           ancestor=guestbook_key(guestbook_name), author=users.get_  
↪current_user())
```

In addition to GQL, the datastore API provides another mechanism for building query objects using methods. The query above could also be prepared as follows:

```
greetings = Greeting.all()  
greetings.ancestor(guestbook_key(guestbook_name))  
greetings.filter("author =", users.get_current_user())  
greetings.order("-date")
```

For a complete description of GQL and the query APIs, see the [Datastore reference](#).

Clearing the Development Server Datastore

The development web server uses a local version of the datastore for testing your application, using temporary files. The data persists as long as the temporary files exist, and the web server does not reset these files unless you ask it to do so.

If you want the development server to erase its datastore prior to starting up, use the `--clear_datastore` option when starting the server:

```
dev_appserver.py --clear_datastore helloworld/
```

Next...

We now have a working guest book application that authenticates users using Google accounts, lets them submit messages, and displays messages other users have left. Because App Engine handles scaling automatically, we will not need to revisit this code as our application gets popular.

This latest version mixes HTML content with the code for the `MainPage` handler. This will make it difficult to change the appearance of the application, especially as our application gets bigger and more complex. Let's use templates to manage the appearance, and introduce static files for a CSS stylesheet.

Continue to *Using Templates*.

Using Templates

HTML embedded in code is messy and difficult to maintain. It's better to use a templating system, where the HTML is kept in a separate file with special syntax to indicate where the data from the application appears. There are many templating systems for Python: EZT, Cheetah, ClearSilver, Quixote, and Django are just a few. You can use your template engine of choice by bundling it with your application code.

For your convenience, the `webapp2` module includes Django's templating engine. Versions 1.2 and 0.96 are included with the SDK and are part of App Engine, so you do not need to bundle Django yourself to use it.

See the Django section of [Third-party libraries](#) for information on using supported Django versions.

Using Django Templates

Add the following import statements at the top of `helloworld/helloworld.py`:

```
import os
from google.appengine.ext.webapp import template
```

Replace the MainPage handler with code that resembles the following:

```
class MainPage(webapp2.RequestHandler):
    def get(self):
        guestbook_name=self.request.get('guestbook_name')
        greetings_query = Greeting.all().ancestor(
            guestbook_key(guestbook_name)).order('-date')
        greetings = greetings_query.fetch(10)

        if users.get_current_user():
            url = users.create_logout_url(self.request.uri)
            url_linktext = 'Logout'
        else:
            url = users.create_login_url(self.request.uri)
            url_linktext = 'Login'

        template_values = {
            'greetings': greetings,
            'url': url,
            'url_linktext': url_linktext,
        }

        path = os.path.join(os.path.dirname(__file__), 'index.html')
        self.response.out.write(template.render(path, template_values))
```

Finally, create a new file in the helloworld directory named `index.html`, with the following contents:

```
<html>
<body>
    {% for greeting in greetings %}
        {% if greeting.author %}
            <b>{{ greeting.author.nickname }}</b> wrote:
        {% else %}
            An anonymous person wrote:
        {% endif %}
        <blockquote>{{ greeting.content|escape }}</blockquote>
    {% endfor %}

    <form action="/sign" method="post">
        <div><textarea name="content" rows="3" cols="60"></textarea></div>
        <div><input type="submit" value="Sign Guestbook"></div>
    </form>

    <a href="{{ url }}">{{ url_linktext }}</a>
</body>
</html>
```

Reload the page, and try it out.

`template.render(path, template_values)` takes a file path to the template file and a dictionary of values, and returns the rendered text. The template uses Django templating syntax to access and iterate over the values, and can refer to properties of those values. In many cases, you can pass datastore model objects directly as values, and access their properties from templates.

Note: An App Engine application has read-only access to all of the files uploaded with the project, the library modules, and no other files. The current working directory is the application root directory, so the path to `index.html` is simply `"index.html"`.

Next...

Every web application returns dynamically generated HTML from the application code, via templates or some other mechanism. Most web applications also need to serve static content, such as images, CSS stylesheets, or JavaScript files. For efficiency, App Engine treats static files differently from application source and data files. You can use App Engine's static files feature to serve a CSS stylesheet for this application.

Continue to *Using Static Files*.

Using Static Files

Unlike a traditional web hosting environment, Google App Engine does not serve files directly out of your application's source directory unless configured to do so. We named our template file `index.html`, but this does not automatically make the file available at the URL `/index.html`.

But there are many cases where you want to serve static files directly to the web browser. Images, CSS stylesheets, JavaScript code, movies and Flash animations are all typically stored with a web application and served directly to the browser. You can tell App Engine to serve specific files directly without your having to code your own handler.

Using Static Files

Edit `helloworld/app.yaml` and replace its contents with the following:

```
application: helloworld
version: 1
runtime: python27
api_version: 1
threadsafe: true

handlers:
- url: /stylesheets
  static_dir: stylesheets

- url: /.
  script: helloworld.app
```

The new `handlers` section defines two handlers for URLs. When App Engine receives a request with a URL beginning with `/stylesheets`, it maps the remainder of the path to files in the `stylesheets` directory and, if an appropriate file is found, the contents of the file are returned to the client. All other URLs match the `/` path, and are handled by the `helloworld.py` script.

By default, App Engine serves static files using a MIME type based on the filename extension. For example, a file with a name ending in `.css` will be served with a MIME type of `text/css`. You can configure explicit MIME types with additional options.

URL handler path patterns are tested in the order they appear in `app.yaml`, from top to bottom. In this case, the `/stylesheets` pattern will match before the `/.` pattern will for the appropriate paths. For more information on URL mapping and other options you can specify in `app.yaml`, see [the `app.yaml` reference](#).

Create the directory `helloworld/stylesheets`. In this new directory, create a new file named `main.css` with the following contents:

```
body {  
  font-family: Verdana, Helvetica, sans-serif;  
  background-color: #DDDDDD;  
}
```

Finally, edit `helloworld/index.html` and insert the following lines just after the `<html>` line at the top:

```
<head>  
  <link type="text/css" rel="stylesheet" href="/stylesheets/main.css" />  
</head>
```

Reload the page in your browser. The new version uses the stylesheet.

Next...

The time has come to reveal your finished application to the world.

Continue to *Uploading Your Application*.

Uploading Your Application

You create and manage applications in App Engine using the Administration Console. Once you have registered an application ID for your application, you upload it to your website using `appcfg.py`, a command-line tool provided in the SDK. Or, if you're using Google App Engine Launcher, you can upload your application by clicking the Deploy button.

Note: Once you register an application ID, you can delete it, but you can't re-register that same application ID after it has been deleted. You can skip these next steps if you don't want to register an ID at this time.

Registering the Application

You create and manage App Engine web applications from the App Engine Administration Console, at the following URL:

- <https://appengine.google.com/>

Google App Engine Launcher users can reach this URL by clicking the Dashboard button.

Sign in to App Engine using your Google account. If you do not have a Google account, you can [create a Google account](#) with an email address and password.

To create a new application, click the "Create an Application" button. Follow the instructions to register an application ID, a name unique to this application. If you elect to use the free `appspot.com` domain name, the full URL for the application will be `http://application-id.appspot.com/`. You can also purchase a top-level domain name for your app, or use one that you have already registered.

Edit the `app.yaml` file, then change the value of the `application:` setting from `helloworld` to your registered application ID.

Uploading the Application

To upload your finished application to Google App Engine, run the following command:

```
.. code-block:: text
```

```
appcfg.py update helloworld/
```

Or click Deploy in Google App Engine Launcher.

Enter your Google username and password at the prompts.

You can now see your application running on App Engine. If you set up a free appspot.com domain name, the URL for your website begins with your application ID:

```
.. code-block:: text
```

```
http://application-id.appspot.com
```

Congratulations!

You have completed this tutorial. For more information on the subjects covered here, see the rest of [the App Engine documentation](#) and the *webapp2's Guide to the Galaxy*.

Note: This tutorial is a port from the official Python [Getting Started](#) guide from Google App Engine, created by the App Engine team and licensed under the Creative Commons Attribution 3.0 License.

Internationalization and localization with webapp2

In this tutorial we will learn how to get started with `webapp2_extras.i18n`. This module provides a complete collection of tools to localize and internationalize apps. Using it you can create applications adapted for different locales and timezones and with internationalized date, time, numbers, currencies and more.

Prerequisites

If you don't have a package installer in your system yet (like `pip` or `easy_install`), install one. See [Installing packages](#).

Get Babel and Pytz

The `i18n` module depends on two libraries: `babel` and `pytz` (or `gaepytz`). So before we start you must add the `babel` and `pytz` packages to your application directory (for App Engine) or install it in your virtual environment (for other servers).

For App Engine, download `babel` and `pytz` and add those libraries to your app directory:

- Babel: <http://babel.edgewall.org/>
- Pytz: <http://pypi.python.org/pypi/gaepytz>

For other servers, install those libraries in your system using `pip`. App Engine users also need `babel` installed, as we use the command line utility provided by it to extract and update message catalogs. This assumes a **nix* environment:

```
$ sudo pip install babel
$ sudo pip install gaepytz
```

Or, if you don't have pip but have easy_install:

```
$ sudo easy_install babel
$ sudo easy_install gaepytz
```

Create a directory for translations

We need a directory inside our app to store a messages catalog extracted from templates and Python files. Create a directory named `locale` for this.

If you want, later you can rename this directory the way you prefer and adapt the commands we describe below accordingly. If you do so, you must change the default `i18n` configuration to point to the right directory. The configuration is passed when you create an application, like this:

```
config = {}
config['webapp2_extras.i18n'] = {
    'translations_path': 'path/to/my/locale/directory',
}

app = webapp2.WSGIApplication(config=config)
```

If you use the default `locale` directory name, no configuration is needed.

Create a simple app to be translated

For the purposes of this tutorial we will create a very simple app with a single message to be translated. So create a new app and save this as `main.py`:

```
import webapp2

from webapp2_extras import i18n

class HelloWorldHandler(webapp2.RequestHandler):
    def get(self):
        # Set the requested locale.
        locale = self.request.GET.get('locale', 'en_US')
        i18n.get_i18n().set_locale(locale)

        message = i18n.gettext('Hello, world!')
        self.response.write(message)

app = webapp2.WSGIApplication([
    ('/', HelloWorldHandler),
], debug=True)

def main():
    app.run()

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

Any string that should be localized in your code and templates must be wrapped by the function `webapp2_extras.i18n.gettext()` (or the shortcut `_()`).

Translated strings defined in module globals or class definitions should use `webapp2_extras.i18n.lazy_gettext()` instead, because we want translations to be dynamic – if we call `gettext()` when the module is imported we'll set the value to a static translation for a given locale, and this is not what we want. `lazy_gettext()` solves this making the translation to be evaluated lazily, only when the string is used.

Extract and compile translations

We use the [babel command line interface](#) to extract, initialize, compile and update translations. Refer to Babel's manual for a complete description of the command options.

The extract command can extract not only messages from several template engines but also `gettext()` (from `gettext`) and its variants from Python files. Access your project directory using the command line and follow this quick how-to:

1. Extract all translations. We pass the current app directory to be scanned. This will create a `messages.pot` file in the `locale` directory with all translatable strings that were found:

```
$ pybabel extract -o ./locale/messages.pot ./
```

You can also provide a [extraction mapping file](#) that configures how messages are extracted. If the configuration file is saved as `babel.cfg`, we point to it when extracting the messages:

```
$ pybabel extract -F ./babel.cfg -o ./locale/messages.pot ./
```

2. Initialize the directory for each locale that your app will support. This is done only once per locale. It will use the `messages.pot` file created on step 1. Here we initialize three translations, `en_US`, `es_ES` and `pt_BR`:

```
$ pybabel init -l en_US -d ./locale -i ./locale/messages.pot
$ pybabel init -l es_ES -d ./locale -i ./locale/messages.pot
$ pybabel init -l pt_BR -d ./locale -i ./locale/messages.pot
```

3. Now the translation catalogs are created in the `locale` directory. Open each `.po` file and translate it. For the example above, we have only one message to translate: our `Hello, world!`.

Open `/locale/es_ES/LC_MESSAGES/messages.po` and translate it to `¡Hola, mundo!`.

Open `/locale/pt_BR/LC_MESSAGES/messages.po` and translate it to `Olá, mundo!`.

4. After all locales are translated, compile them with this command:

```
$ pybabel compile -f -d ./locale
```

That's it.

Update translations

When translations change, first repeat step 1 above. It will create a new `.pot` file with updated messages. Then update each locales:

```
$ pybabel update -l en_US -d ./locale/ -i ./locale/messages.pot
$ pybabel update -l es_ES -d ./locale/ -i ./locale/messages.pot
$ pybabel update -l pt_BR -d ./locale/ -i ./locale/messages.pot
```

After you translate the new strings to each language, repeat step 4, compiling the translations again.

Test your app

Start the development server pointing to the application you created for this tutorial and access the default language:

```
http://localhost:8080/
```

Then try the Spanish version:

```
http://localhost:8080/?locale=es_ES
```

And finally, try the Portuguese version:

```
http://localhost:8080/?locale=pt_BR
```

Voilà! Our tiny app is now available in three languages.

What else

The `webapp2_extras.i18n` module provides several other functionalities besides localization. You can use it to internationalize dates, currencies and numbers, and there are helpers to set the locale or timezone automatically for each request. Explore the API documentation to learn more.

The WSGI application

The WSGI application receives requests and dispatches the appropriate handler, returning a response to the client. It stores the URI routes that the app will accept, configuration variables and registered objects that can be shared between requests. The WSGI app is also responsible for handling uncaught exceptions, avoiding that stack traces “leak” to the client when in production. Let’s take an in depth look at it now.

Note: If the WSGI word looks totally unfamiliar to you, read the [Another Do-It-Yourself Framework](#) tutorial by Ian Bicking. It is a very recommended introduction to WSGI and you should at least take a quick look at the concepts, but following the whole tutorial is really worth.

A more advanced reading is the WSGI specification described in the [PEP 333](#).

Initialization

The `webapp2.WSGIApplication` class is initialized with three optional arguments:

- `routes`: a list of route definitions as described in [URI routing](#).
- `debug`: a boolean flag that enables debug mode.
- `config`: a dictionary of configuration values for the application.

Compared to `webapp`, only `config` was added; it is used as a standard way to configure extra modules (sessions, internationalization, templates or your own app configuration values).

Everything is pretty straightforward:

```
import webapp2

routes = [
    (r'/', 'handlers.HelloWorldHandler'),
```

```
]

config = {}
config['webapp2_extras.sessions'] = {
    'secret_key': 'something-very-very-secret',
}

app = webapp2.WSGIApplication(routes=routes, debug=True, config=config)
```

Router

URI routing is a central piece in webapp2, and its main component is the `webapp2.Router` object, available in the application as the `webapp2.WSGIApplication.router` attribute.

The router object is responsible for everything related to mapping URIs to handlers. The router:

- Stores registered “routes”, which map URIs to the application handlers that will handle those requests.
- Matches the current request against the registered routes and returns the handler to be used for that request (or raises a `HTTPNotFound` exception if no handler was found).
- Dispatches the matched handler, i.e., calling it and returning a response to the `WSGIApplication`.
- Builds URIs for the registered routes.

Using the `router` attribute you can, for example, add new routes to the application after initialization using the `add()` method:

```
import webapp2

app = webapp2.WSGIApplication()
app.router.add((r'/', 'handlers.HelloWorldHandler'))
```

The router has several methods to override how URIs are matched or built or how handlers are adapted or dispatched without even requiring subclassing. For an example of extending the default dispatching mechanism, see *[Request handlers: returned values](#)*.

Also check the *[Router API documentation](#)* for a description of the methods `webapp2.Router.set_matcher()`, `webapp2.Router.set_dispatcher()`, `webapp2.Router.set_adapter()` and `webapp2.Router.set_builder()`.

Config

When instantiating the app, you can pass a configuration dictionary which is then accessible through the `webapp2.WSGIApplication.config` attribute. A convention is to define configuration keys for each module, to avoid name clashes, but you can define them as you wish, really, unless the module requires a specific setup. First you define a configuration:

```
import webapp2

config = {'foo': 'bar'}

app = webapp2.WSGIApplication(routes=[
    (r'/', 'handlers.MyHandler'),
], config=config)
```

Then access it as you need. Inside a `RequestHandler`, for example:

```
import webapp2

class MyHandler(webapp2.RequestHandler):
    def get(self):
        foo = self.app.config.get('foo')
        self.response.write('foo value is %s' % foo)
```

Registry

A simple dictionary is available in the application to register instances that are shared between requests: it is the `webapp2.WSGIApplication.registry` attribute. It can be used by anything that your app requires and the intention is to avoid global variables in modules, so that you can have multiple app instances using different configurations: each app has its own extra instances for any kind of object that is shared between requests. A simple example that registers a fictitious `MyParser` instance if it is not yet registered:

```
import webapp2

def get_parser():
    app = webapp2.get_app()
    # Check if the instance is already registered.
    my_parser = app.registry.get('my_parser')
    if not my_parser:
        # Import the class lazily.
        cls = webapp2.import_string('my.module.MyParser')
        # Instantiate the imported class.
        my_parser = cls()
        # Register the instance in the registry.
        app.registry['my_parser'] = my_parser

    return my_parser
```

The registry can be used to lazily instantiate objects when needed, and keep a reference in the application to be reused.

A registry dictionary is also available in the *request object*, to store shared objects used during a single request.

Error handlers

As described in *Exception handling*, a dictionary is available in the app to register error handlers as the `webapp2.WSGIApplication.error_handlers` attribute. They will be used as a last resource if exceptions are not caught by handlers. It is a good idea to set at least error handlers for 404 and 500 status codes:

```
import logging

import webapp2

def handle_404(request, response, exception):
    logging.exception(exception)
    response.write('Oops! I could swear this page was here!')
    response.set_status(404)

def handle_500(request, response, exception):
    logging.exception(exception)
    response.write('A server error occurred!')
```

```
response.set_status(500)

app = webapp2.WSGIApplication([
    webapp2.Route(r'/', handler='handlers.HomeHandler', name='home')
])
app.error_handlers[404] = handle_404
app.error_handlers[500] = handle_500
```

Debug flag

A debug flag is passed to the WSGI application on instantiation and is available as the `webapp2.WSGIApplication.debug` attribute. When in debug mode, any exception that is now caught is raised and the stack trace is displayed to the client, which helps debugging. When not in debug mode, a ‘500 Internal Server Error’ is displayed instead.

You can use that flag to set special behaviors for the application during development.

For App Engine, it is possible to detect if the code is running using the SDK or in production checking the ‘SERVER_SOFTWARE’ environ variable:

```
import os

import webapp2

debug = os.environ.get('SERVER_SOFTWARE', '').startswith('Dev')

app = webapp2.WSGIApplication(routes=[
    (r'/', 'handlers.HelloWorldHandler'),
], debug=debug)
```

Thread-safe application

By default, webapp2 is thread-safe when the module `webapp2_extras.local` is available. This means that it can be used outside of App Engine or in the upcoming App Engine Python 2.7 runtime. This also works in non-threaded environments such as App Engine Python 2.5.

See in the *Quick start (to use webapp2 outside of App Engine)* tutorial an explanation on how to use webapp2 outside of App Engine.

Running the app

The application is executed in a CGI environment using the method `webapp2.WSGIApplication.run()`. When using App Engine, it uses the functions `run_bare_wsgi_app` or `run_wsgi_app` from `google.appengine.ext.webapp.util`. Outside of App Engine, it uses the `wsgiref.handlers` module. Here’s the simplest example:

```
import webapp2

class HelloWebapp2(webapp2.RequestHandler):
    def get(self):
        self.response.write('Hello, webapp2!')

app = webapp2.WSGIApplication([
```

```

    ('/', HelloWebapp2),
], debug=True)

def main():
    app.run()

if __name__ == '__main__':
    main()

```

Unit testing

As described in *Unit testing*, the application has a convenience method to test handlers: `webapp2.WSGIApplication.get_response()`. It receives the same parameters as `Request.blank()` to build a request and call the application, returning the resulting response from a handler:

```

class HelloHandler(webapp2.RequestHandler):
    def get(self):
        self.response.write('Hello, world!')

app = webapp2.WSGIApplication([('/', HelloHandler)])

# Test the app, passing parameters to build a request.
response = app.get_response('/')
assert response.status_int == 200
assert response.body == 'Hello, world!'

```

Getting the current app

The active `WSGIApplication` instance can be accessed at any place of your app using the function `webapp2.get_app()`. This is useful, for example, to access the app registry or configuration values:

```

import webapp2

app = webapp2.get_app()
config_value = app.config.get('my-config-key')

```

URI routing

URI routing is the process of taking the requested URI and deciding which application handler will handle the current request. For this, we initialize the `WSGIApplication` defining a list of *routes*: each *route* analyses the current request and, if it matches certain criteria, returns the handler and optional variables extracted from the URI.

webapp2 offers a powerful and extensible system to match and build URIs, which is explained in details in this section.

Simple routes

The simplest form of URI route in webapp2 is a tuple `(regex, handler)`, where *regex* is a regular expression to match the requested URI path and *handler* is a callable to handle the request. This routing mechanism is fully compatible with App Engine's webapp framework.

This is how it works: a list of routes is registered in the *WSGI application*. When the application receives a request, it tries to match each one in order until one matches, and then call the corresponding handler. Here, for example, we define three handlers and register three routes that point to those handlers:

```
class HomeHandler(webapp2.RequestHandler):
    def get(self):
        self.response.write('This is the HomeHandler.')

class ProductListHandler(webapp2.RequestHandler):
    def get(self):
        self.response.write('This is the ProductListHandler.')

class ProductHandler(webapp2.RequestHandler):
    def get(self, product_id):
        self.response.write('This is the ProductHandler. '
                             'The product id is %s' % product_id)

app = webapp2.WSGIApplication([
    (r'/', HomeHandler),
    (r'/products', ProductListHandler),
    (r'/products/(\d+)', ProductHandler),
])
```

When a request comes in, the application will match the request path to find the corresponding handler. If no route matches, an `HTTPException` is raised with status code 404, and the WSGI application can handle it accordingly (see *Exception handling*).

The *regex* part is an ordinary regular expression (see the `re` module) that can define groups inside parentheses. The matched group values are passed to the handler as positional arguments. In the example above, the last route defines a group, so the handler will receive the matched value when the route matches (one or more digits in this case).

Important note: If the route includes a regex group, all handler methods that receive requests from that route must include a parameter for the positional arguments; otherwise the application will attempt to pass an argument to the handler with no matching parameter and an exception will occur.

The *handler* part is a callable as explained in *Request handlers*, and can also be a string in dotted notation to be lazily imported when needed (see explanation below in *Lazy Handlers*).

Simple routes are easy to use and enough for a lot of cases but don't support keyword arguments, URI building, domain and subdomain matching, automatic redirection and other useful features. For this, webapp2 offers the extended routing mechanism that we'll see next.

Extended routes

webapp2 introduces a routing mechanism that extends the webapp model to provide additional features:

- **URI building:** the registered routes can be built when needed, avoiding hardcoded URIs in the app code and templates. If you change the route definition in a compatible way during development, all places that use that route will continue to point to the correct URI. This is less error prone and easier to maintain.
- **Keyword arguments:** handlers can receive keyword arguments from the matched URIs. This is easier to use and also more maintainable than positional arguments.
- **Nested routes:** routes can be extended to match more than the request path. We will see below a route class that can also match domains and subdomains.

And several other features and benefits.

The concept is similar to the simple routes we saw before, but instead of a tuple `(regex, handler)`, we define each route using the class `webapp2.Route`. Let's remake our previous routes using it:

```
app = webapp2.WSGIApplication([
    webapp2.Route(r'/', handler=HomeHandler, name='home'),
    webapp2.Route(r'/products', handler=ProductListHandler, name='product-list'),
    webapp2.Route(r'/products/<product_id:\d+>', handler=ProductHandler, name='product
↪'),
])
```

The first argument in the routes above is a *URL template*, the *handler* argument is the *request handler* to be used, and the *name* argument third is a name used to *build a URI* for that route.

Check `webapp2.Route.__init__()` in the API reference for the parameters accepted by the `Route` constructor. We will explain some of them in details below.

The URL template

The URL template defines the URL path to be matched. It can have regular expressions for variables using the syntax `<name:regex>`; everything outside of `<>` is not interpreted as a regular expression to be matched. Both name and regex are optional, like in the examples below:

Format	Example
<code><name></code>	<code>'/blog/<year>/<month>'</code>
<code><:regex></code>	<code>'/blog/<:\d{4}>/<:\d{2}>'</code>
<code><name:regex></code>	<code>'/blog/<year:\d{4}>/<month:\d{2}>'</code>

The same template can mix parts with name, regular expression or both.

The name, if defined, is used to build URLs for the route. When it is set, the value of the matched regular expression is passed as keyword argument to the handler. Otherwise it is passed as positional argument.

If only the name is set, it will match anything except a slash. So these routes are equivalent:

```
Route('/<user_id>/settings', handler=SettingsHandler, name='user-settings')
Route('/<user_id:[^/]+>/settings', handler=SettingsHandler, name='user-settings')
```

Note: The handler only receives `*args` if no named variables are set. Otherwise, the handler only receives `**kwargs`. This allows you to set regular expressions that are not captured: just mix named and unnamed variables and the handler will only receive the named ones.

Lazy handlers

One additional feature compared to webapp is that the handler can also be defined as a string in dotted notation to be lazily imported when needed.

This is useful to avoid loading all modules when the app is initialized: we can define handlers in different modules without needing to import all of them to initialize the app. This is not only convenient but also speeds up the application startup.

The string must contain the package or module name and the name of the handler (a class or function name). Our previous example could be rewritten using strings instead of handler classes and splitting our handlers in two files, `handlers.py` and `products.py`:

```
app = webapp2.WSGIApplication([
    (r '/', 'handlers.HomeHandler'),
    (r '/products', 'products.ProductListHandler'),
    (r '/products/(\d+)', 'products.ProductHandler'),
])
```

In the first time that one of these routes matches, the handlers will be automatically imported by the routing system.

Custom methods

A parameter `handler_method` can define the method of the handler that will be called, if handler is a class. If not defined, the default behavior is to translate the HTTP method to a handler method, as explained in [Request handlers](#). For example:

```
webapp2.Route(r'/products', handler='handlers.ProductsHandler', name='products-list',
↪ handler_method='list_products')
```

Alternatively, the handler method can be defined in the handler string, separated by a colon. This is equivalent to the previous example:

```
webapp2.Route(r'/products', handler='handlers.ProductsHandler:list_products', name=
↪ 'products-list')
```

Restricting HTTP methods

If needed, the route can define a sequence of allowed HTTP methods. Only if the request method is in that list or tuple the route will match. If the method is not allowed, an `HTTPMethodNotAllowed` exception is raised with status code 405. For example:

```
webapp2.Route(r'/products', handler='handlers.ProductsHandler', name='products-list',
↪ methods=['GET'])
```

This is useful when using functions as handlers, or alternative handlers that don't translate the HTTP method to the handler method like the default `webapp2.RequestHandler` does.

Restricting URI schemes

Like with HTTP methods, you can specify the URI schemes allowed for a route, if needed. This is useful if some URIs must be accessed using 'http' or 'https' only. For this, set the `schemes` parameter when defining a route:

```
webapp2.Route(r'/products', handler='handlers.ProductsHandler', name='products-list',
↪ schemes=['https'])
```

The above route will only match if the URI scheme is 'https'.

Domain and subdomain routing

The routing system can also handle domain and subdomain matching. This is done using a special route class provided in the `webapp2_extras.routes` module: the `webapp2_extras.routes.DomainRoute`. It is initialized with a pattern to match the current server name and a list of nested `webapp2.Route` instances that will only be tested if the domain or subdomain matches.

For example, to restrict routes to a subdomain of the appspot domain:

```
import webapp2
from webapp2_extras import routes

app = webapp2.WSGIApplication([
    routes.DomainRoute('<subdomain>.app-id.appspot.com', [
        webapp2.Route('/', handler=SubdomainHomeHandler, name='subdomain-home'),
    ]),
    webapp2.Route('/', handler=HomeHandler, name='home'),
])
```

In the example above, we define a template '`<subdomain>.app-id.appspot.com`' for the domain matching. When a request comes in, only if the request server name matches that pattern, the nested route will be tested. Otherwise the routing system will test the next route until one matches. So the first route with path `/` will only match when a subdomain of the `app-id.appspot.com` domain is accessed. Otherwise the second route with path `/` will be used.

The template follows the same syntax used by `webapp2.Route` and must define named groups if any value must be added to the match results. In the example above, an extra `subdomain` keyword is passed to the handler, but if the regex didn't define any named groups, nothing would be added.

Matching only www, or anything except www

A common need is to set some routes for the main subdomain (`www`) and different routes for other subdomains. The webapp2 routing system can handle this easily.

To match only the `www` subdomain, simply set the domain template to a fixed value:

```
routes.DomainRoute('www.mydomain.com', [
    webapp2.Route('/', handler=HomeHandler, name='home'),
])
```

To match any subdomain except the `www` subdomain, set a regular expression that excludes `www`:

```
routes.DomainRoute(r'<subdomain:(?!www\.)[^.]+>.mydomain.com', [
    webapp2.Route('/', handler=HomeHandler, name='home'),
])
```

Any subdomain that matches and is not `www` will be passed as a parameter `subdomain` to the handler.

Similarly, you can restrict matches to the main appspot domain **or** a `www` domain from a custom domain:

```
routes.DomainRoute(r'<:(app-id\.appspot\.com|www\.mydomain\.com)>', [
    webapp2.Route('/', handler=HomeHandler, name='home'),
])
```

And then have a route that matches subdomains of the main appspot domain **or** from a custom domain, except `www`:

```
routes.DomainRoute(r'<subdomain:(?!www)[^.]>.<:(app-id\.appspot\.com|mydomain\.com)>'
→, [
    webapp2.Route('/', handler=HomeHandler, name='home'),
])
```

Path prefix routes

The `webapp2_extras.routes` provides a class to wrap routes that start with a common path: the `webapp2_extras.routes.PathPrefixRoute`. The intention is to avoid repetition when defining routes.

For example, imagine we have these routes:

```
app = WSGIApplication([
    Route('/users/<user:\w+>/', UserOverviewHandler, 'user-overview'),
    Route('/users/<user:\w+>/profile', UserProfileHandler, 'user-profile'),
    Route('/users/<user:\w+>/projects', UserProjectsHandler, 'user-projects'),
])
```

We could refactor them to reuse the common path prefix:

```
import webapp2
from webapp2_extras import routes

app = WSGIApplication([
    routes.PathPrefixRoute('/users/<user:\w+>', [
        webapp2.Route('/', UserOverviewHandler, 'user-overview'),
        webapp2.Route('/profile', UserProfileHandler, 'user-profile'),
        webapp2.Route('/projects', UserProjectsHandler, 'user-projects'),
    ]),
])
```

This is not only convenient, but also performs better: the nested routes will only be tested if the path prefix matches.

Other prefix routes

The `webapp2_extras.routes` has other convenience classes that accept nested routes with a common attribute prefix:

- `webapp2_extras.routes.HandlerPrefixRoute`: receives a handler module prefix in dotted notation and a list of routes that use that module.
- `webapp2_extras.routes.NamePrefixRoute`: receives a handler name prefix and a list of routes that start with that name.

Building URIs

Because our routes have a name, we can use the routing system to build URIs whenever we need to reference those resources inside the application. This is done using the function `webapp2.uri_for()` or the method `webapp2.RequestHandler.uri_for()` inside a handler, or calling `webapp2.Router.build()` directly (a Router instance is set as an attribute `router` in the WSGI application).

For example, if you have these routes defined for the application:

```
app = webapp2.WSGIApplication([
    webapp2.Route('/', handler='handlers.HomeHandler', name='home'),
    webapp2.Route('/wiki', handler=WikiHandler, name='wiki'),
    webapp2.Route('/wiki/<page>', handler=WikiHandler, name='wiki-page'),
])
```

Here are some examples of how to generate URIs for them:

```
# /
uri = uri_for('home')
# http://localhost:8080/
uri = uri_for('home', _full=True)
# /wiki
uri = uri_for('wiki')
# http://localhost:8080/wiki
uri = uri_for('wiki', _full=True)
# http://localhost:8080/wiki#my-heading
uri = uri_for('wiki', _full=True, _fragment='my-heading')
# /wiki/my-first-page
uri = uri_for('wiki-page', page='my-first-page')
# /wiki/my-first-page?format=atom
uri = uri_for('wiki-page', page='my-first-page', format='atom')
```

Variables are passed as positional or keyword arguments and are required if the route defines them. Keyword arguments that are not present in the route are added to the URI as a query string.

Also, when calling `uri_for()`, a few keywords have special meaning:

`_full` If True, builds an absolute URI.

`_scheme` URI scheme, e.g., *http* or *https*. If defined, an absolute URI is always returned.

`_netloc` Network location, e.g., *www.google.com*. If defined, an absolute URI is always returned.

`_fragment` If set, appends a fragment (or “anchor”) to the generated URI.

Check `webapp2.Router.build()` in the API reference for a complete explanation of the parameters used to build URIs.

Routing attributes in the request object

The parameters from the matched route are set as attributes of the request object when a route matches. They are `request.route_args`, for positional arguments, and `request.route_kwargs`, for keyword arguments.

The matched route object is also available as `request.route`.

Request handlers

In the webapp2 vocabulary, *request handler* or simply *handler* is a common term that refers to the callable that contains the application logic to handle a request. This sounds a lot abstract, but we will explain everything in details in this section.

Handlers 101

A handler is equivalent to the *Controller* in the **MVC** terminology: in a simplified manner, it is where you process the request, manipulate data and define a response to be returned to the client: HTML, JSON, XML, files or whatever the app requires.

Normally a handler is a class that extends `webapp2.RequestHandler` or, for compatibility purposes, `webapp.RequestHandler`. Here is a simple one:

```
class ProductHandler(webapp2.RequestHandler):
    def get(self, product_id):
        self.response.write('You requested product %r.' % product_id)

app = webapp2.WSGIApplication([
    (r'/products/(\d+)', ProductHandler),
])
```

This code defines one request handler, `ProductHandler`, and a WSGI application that maps the URI `r'/products/(\d+)'` to that handler. When the application receives an HTTP request to a path that matches this regular expression, it instantiates the handler and calls the corresponding HTTP method from it. The handler above can only handle GET HTTP requests, as it only defines a `get()` method. To handle POST requests, it would need to implement a `post()` method, and so on.

The handler method receives a `product_id` extracted from the URI, and sets a simple message containing the id as response. Not very useful, but this is just to show how it works. In a more complete example, the handler would fetch a corresponding record from a database and set an appropriate response – HTML, JSON or XML with details about the requested product, for example.

For more details about how URI variables are defined, see [URI routing](#).

HTTP methods translated to class methods

The default behavior of the `webapp2.RequestHandler` is to call a method that corresponds with the HTTP action of the request, such as the `get()` method for a HTTP GET request. The method processes the request and prepares a response, then returns. Finally, the application sends the response to the client.

The following example defines a request handler that responds to HTTP GET requests:

```
class AddTwoNumbers(webapp2.RequestHandler):
    def get(self):
        try:
            first = int(self.request.get('first'))
            second = int(self.request.get('second'))

            self.response.write("<html><body><p>%d + %d = %d</p></body></html>" %
                               (first, second, first + second))
        except (TypeError, ValueError):
            self.response.write("<html><body><p>Invalid inputs</p></body></html>")
```

A request handler can define any of the following methods to handle the corresponding HTTP actions:

- `get()`
- `post()`
- `head()`
- `options()`
- `put()`
- `delete()`
- `trace()`

View functions

In some Python frameworks, handlers are called *view functions* or simply *views*. In Django, for example, *views* are normally simple functions that handle a request. Our examples use mostly classes, but webapp2 handlers can also be normal functions equivalent to Django's *views*.

A webapp2 handler can, really, be **any** callable. The routing system has hooks to adapt how handlers are called, and two default adapters are used whether it is a function or a class. So, differently from webapp, ordinary functions can easily be used to handle requests in webapp2, and not only classes. The following example demonstrates it:

```
def display_product(request, *args, **kwargs):
    return webapp2.Response('You requested product %r.' % args[0])

app = webapp2.WSGIApplication([
    (r'/products/(\d+)', display_product),
])
```

Here, our handler is a simple function that receives the request instance, positional route variables as `*args` and named variables as `**kwargs`, if they are defined.

Apps can have mixed handler classes and functions. Also it is possible to implement new interfaces to define how handlers are called: this is done setting new handler adapters in the routing system.

Functions are an alternative for those that prefer their simplicity or think that handlers don't benefit that much from the power and flexibility provided by classes: inheritance, attributes, grouped methods, descriptors, metaclasses, etc. An app can have mixed handler classes and functions.

Note: We avoid using the term *view* because it is often confused with the *View* definition from the classic *MVC* pattern. Django prefers to call its *MVC* implementation *MTV* (model-template-view), so *view* may make sense in their terminology. Still, we think that the term can cause unnecessary confusion and prefer to use *handler* instead, like in other Python frameworks (webapp, web.py or Tornado, for instance). In essence, though, they are synonyms.

Returned values

A handler method doesn't need to return anything: it can simply write to the response object using `self.response.write()`.

But a handler **can** return values to be used in the response. Using the default dispatcher implementation, if a handler returns anything that is not `None` it **must** be a `webapp2.Response` instance. If it does so, that response object is used instead of the default one.

For example, let's return a response object with a *Hello, world* message:

```
class HelloHandler(webapp2.RequestHandler):
    def get(self):
        return webapp2.Response('Hello, world!')
```

This is the same as:

```
class HelloHandler(webapp2.RequestHandler):
    def get(self):
        self.response.write('Hello, world!')
```

What if you think that returning a response object is verbose, and want to return simple strings? Fortunately webapp2 has all the necessary hooks to make this possible. To achieve it, we need to extend the router dispatcher to build a `Response` object using the returned string. We can go even further and also accept tuples: if a tuple is returned, we

use its values as positional arguments to instantiate the `Response` object. So let's define our custom dispatcher and a handler that returns a string:

```
def custom_dispatcher(router, request, response):
    rv = router.default_dispatcher(request, response)
    if isinstance(rv, basestring):
        rv = webapp2.Response(rv)
    elif isinstance(rv, tuple):
        rv = webapp2.Response(*rv)

    return rv

class HelloHandler(webapp2.RequestHandler):
    def get(self, *args, **kwargs):
        return 'Hello, world!'

app = webapp2.WSGIApplication([
    (r'/', HelloHandler),
])
app.router.set_dispatcher(custom_dispatcher)
```

And that's all. Now we have a custom dispatcher set using the router method `webapp2.Router.set_dispatcher()`. Our `HelloHandler` returns a string (or it could be tuple) that is used to create a `Response` object.

Our custom dispatcher could implement its own URI matching and handler dispatching mechanisms from scratch, but in this case it just extends the default dispatcher a little bit, wrapping the returned value under certain conditions.

A micro-framework based on webapp2

Following the previous idea of a custom dispatcher, we could go a little further and extend `webapp2` to accept routes registered using a decorator, like in those Python micro-frameworks.

Without much ado, ladies and gentlemen, we present `micro-webapp2`:

```
import webapp2

class WSGIApplication(webapp2.WSGIApplication):
    def __init__(self, *args, **kwargs):
        super(WSGIApplication, self).__init__(*args, **kwargs)
        self.router.set_dispatcher(self.__class__.custom_dispatcher)

    @staticmethod
    def custom_dispatcher(router, request, response):
        rv = router.default_dispatcher(request, response)
        if isinstance(rv, basestring):
            rv = webapp2.Response(rv)
        elif isinstance(rv, tuple):
            rv = webapp2.Response(*rv)

        return rv

    def route(self, *args, **kwargs):
        def wrapper(func):
            self.router.add(webapp2.Route(handler=func, *args, **kwargs))
            return func

        return wrapper
```


Save the above code as `micro_webapp2.py`. Then you can import it in `main.py` and define your handlers and routes like this:

```
import micro_webapp2

app = micro_webapp2.WSGIApplication()

@app.route('/')
def hello_handler(request, *args, **kwargs):
    return 'Hello, world!'

def main():
    app.run()

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

This example just demonstrates some of the power and flexibility that lies behind webapp2; explore the *webapp2 API* to discover other ways to modify or extend the application behavior.

Overriding `__init__()`

If you want to override the `webapp2.RequestHandler.__init__()` method, you must call `webapp2.RequestHandler.initialize()` at the beginning of the method. It'll set the current request, response and app objects as attributes of the handler. For example:

```
class MyHandler(webapp2.RequestHandler):
    def __init__(self, request, response):
        # Set self.request, self.response and self.app.
        self.initialize(request, response)

        # ... add your custom initializations here ...
        # ...
```

Overriding `dispatch()`

One of the advantages of webapp2 over webapp is that you can wrap the dispatching process of `webapp2.RequestHandler` to perform actions before and/or after the requested method is dispatched. You can do this overriding the `webapp2.RequestHandler.dispatch()` method. This can be useful, for example, to test if requirements were met before actually dispatching the requested method, or to perform actions in the response object after the method was dispatched. Here's an example:

```
class MyHandler(webapp2.RequestHandler):
    def dispatch(self):
        # ... check if requirements were met ...
        # ...

        if requirements_were_met:
            # Parent class will call the method to be dispatched
            # -- get() or post() or etc.
            super(MyHandler, self).dispatch()
        else:
            self.abort(403)
```

In this case, if the requirements were not met, the method won't ever be dispatched and a "403 Forbidden" response will be returned instead.

There are several possibilities to explore overriding `dispatch()`, like performing common checking, setting common attributes or post-processing the response.

Request data

The request handler instance can access the request data using its `request` property. This is initialized to a populated `WebOb Request` object by the application.

The request object provides a `get()` method that returns values for arguments parsed from the query and from POST data. The method takes the argument name as its first parameter. For example:

```
class MyHandler(webapp2.RequestHandler):
    def post(self):
        name = self.request.get('name')
```

By default, `get()` returns the empty string (`' '`) if the requested argument is not in the request. If the parameter `default_value` is specified, `get()` returns the value of that parameter instead of the empty string if the argument is not present.

If the argument appears more than once in a request, by default `get()` returns the first occurrence. To get all occurrences of an argument that might appear more than once as a list (possibly empty), give `get()` the argument `allow_multiple=True`:

```
# <input name="name" type="text" />
name = self.request.get("name")

# <input name="subscribe" type="checkbox" value="yes" />
subscribe_to_newsletter = self.request.get("subscribe", default_value="no")

# <select name="favorite_foods" multiple="true">...</select>
favorite_foods = self.request.get("favorite_foods", allow_multiple=True)

# for food in favorite_foods:
# ...
```

For requests with body content that is not a set of CGI parameters, such as the body of an HTTP PUT request, the request object provides the attributes `body` and `body_file`: `body` is the body content as a byte string and `body_file` provides a file-like interface to the same data:

```
uploaded_file = self.request.body
```

GET data

Query string variables are available in `request.GET`.

`.GET` is a `MultiDict`: it is like a dictionary but the same key can have multiple values. When you call `.get(key)` for a key with multiple values, the last value is returned. To get all values for a key, use `.getall(key)`. Examples:

```
request = Request.blank('/test?check=a&check=b&name=Bob')

# The whole MultiDict:
# GET([('check', 'a'), ('check', 'b'), ('name', 'Bob')])
```

```

get_values = request.GET

# The last value for a key: 'b'
check_value = request.GET['check']

# All values for a key: ['a', 'b']
check_values = request.GET.getall('check')

# An iterable with all items in the MultiDict:
# [('check', 'a'), ('check', 'b'), ('name', 'Bob')]
request.GET.items()

```

The name `GET` is a bit misleading, but has historical reasons: `request.GET` is not only available when the HTTP method is `GET`. It is available for any request with query strings in the URI, for any HTTP method: `GET`, `POST`, `PUT` etc.

POST data

Variables url encoded in the body of a request (generally a `POST` form submitted using the `application/x-www-form-urlencoded` media type) are available in `request.POST`.

It is also a [MultiDict](#) and can be accessed in the same way as `.GET`. Examples:

```

request = Request.blank('/')
request.method = 'POST'
request.body = 'check=a&check=b&name=Bob'

# The whole MultiDict:
# POST([('check', 'a'), ('check', 'b'), ('name', 'Bob')])
post_values = request.POST

# The last value for a key: 'b'
check_value = request.POST['check']

# All values for a key: ['a', 'b']
check_values = request.POST.getall('check')

# An iterable with all items in the MultiDict:
# [('check', 'a'), ('check', 'b'), ('name', 'Bob')]
request.POST.items()

```

Like `GET`, the name `POST` is a somewhat misleading, but has historical reasons: they are also available when the HTTP method is `PUT`, and not only `POST`.

GET + POST data

`request.params` combines the variables from `GET` and `POST`. It can be used when you don't care where the variable comes from.

Files

Uploaded files are available as `cgi.FieldStorage` (see the [cgi](#) module) instances directly in `request.POST`.

Cookies

Cookies can be accessed in `request.cookies`. It is a simple dictionary:

```
request = Request.blank('/')
request.headers['Cookie'] = 'test=value'

# A value: 'value'
cookie_value = request.cookies.get('test')
```

See also:

How to set cookies using the response object

Common Request attributes

body A file-like object that gives the body of the request.

content_type Content-type of the request body.

method The HTTP method, e.g., 'GET' or 'POST'.

url Full URI, e.g., 'http://localhost/blog/article?id=1'.

scheme URI scheme, e.g., 'http' or 'https'.

host URI host, e.g., 'localhost:80'.

host_url URI host including scheme, e.g., 'http://localhost'.

path_url URI host including scheme and path, e.g., 'http://localhost/blog/article'.

path URI path, e.g., '/blog/article'.

path_qs URI path including the query string, e.g., '/blog/article?id=1'.

query_string Query string, e.g., id=1.

headers A dictionary like object with request headers. Keys are case-insensitive.

GET A dictionary-like object with variables from the query string, as unicode.

POST A dictionary-like object with variables from a POST form, as unicode.

params A dictionary-like object combining the variables GET and POST.

cookies A dictionary-like object with cookie values.

Extra attributes

The parameters from the matched `webapp2.Route` are set as attributes of the request object. They are `request.route_args`, for positional arguments, and `request.route_kwargs`, for keyword arguments. The matched route object is available as `request.route`.

A reference to the active WSGI application is also set as an attribute of the request. You can access it in `request.app`.

Getting the current request

The active `Request` instance can be accessed during a request using the function `webapp2.get_request()`.

Registry

A simple dictionary is available in the request object to register instances that are shared during a request: it is the `webapp2.Request.registry` attribute.

A registry dictionary is also available in the *WSGI application object*, to store objects shared across requests.

Learn more about WebOb

WebOb is an open source third-party library. See the [WebOb](#) documentation for a detailed API reference and examples.

Building a Response

The request handler instance builds the response using its response property. This is initialized to an empty [WebOb Response](#) object by the application.

The response object's acts as a file-like object that can be used for writing the body of the response:

```
class MyHandler(webapp2.RequestHandler):
    def get(self):
        self.response.write("<html><body><p>Hi there!</p></body></html>")
```

The response buffers all output in memory, then sends the final output when the handler exits. webapp2 does not support streaming data to the client.

The `clear()` method erases the contents of the output buffer, leaving it empty.

If the data written to the output stream is a Unicode value, or if the response includes a `Content-Type` header that ends with `; charset=utf-8`, webapp2 encodes the output as UTF-8. By default, the `Content-Type` header is `text/html; charset=utf-8`, including the encoding behavior. If the `Content-Type` is changed to have a different charset, webapp2 assumes the output is a byte string to be sent verbatim.

Setting cookies

Cookies are set in the response object. The methods to handle cookies are:

set_cookie(key, value=' ', max_age=None, path='/', domain=None, secure=None, httponly=False, comment=None, expires=None) Sets a cookie.

delete_cookie(key, path='/', domain=None) Deletes a cookie previously set in the client.

unset_cookie(key) Unsets a cookie previously set in the response object. Note that this doesn't delete the cookie from clients, only from the response.

For example:

```
# Saves a cookie in the client.
response.set_cookie('some_key', 'value', max_age=360, path='/',
                    domain='example.org', secure=True)

# Deletes a cookie previously set in the client.
response.delete_cookie('bad_cookie')

# Cancels a cookie previously set in the response.
response.unset_cookie('some_key')
```

Only the `key` parameter is required. The parameters are:

key Cookie name.

value Cookie value.

expires An expiration date. Must be a `datetime.datetime` object. Use this instead of `max_age` since the former is not supported by Internet Explorer.

max_age Cookie max age in seconds.

path URI path in which the cookie is valid.

domain URI domain in which the cookie is valid.

secure If True, the cookie is only available via HTTPS.

httponly Disallow JavaScript to access the cookie.

comment Defines a cookie comment.

overwrite If true, overwrites previously set (and not yet sent to the client) cookies with the same name.

See also:

How to read cookies from the request object

Common Response attributes

status Status code plus message, e.g., '404 Not Found'. The status can be set passing an `int`, e.g., `request.status = 404`, or including the message, e.g., `request.status = '404 Not Found'`.

status_int Status code as an `int`, e.g., 404.

status_message Status message, e.g., 'Not Found'.

body The contents of the response, as a string.

unicode_body The contents of the response, as a unicode.

headers A dictionary-like object with headers. Keys are case-insensitive. It supports multiple values for a key, but you must use `response.headers.add(key, value)` to add keys. To get all values, use `response.headers.getall(key)`.

headerlist List of headers, as a list of tuples (`header_name, value`).

charset Character encoding.

content_type 'Content-Type' value from the headers, e.g., 'text/html'.

content_type_params Dictionary of extra Content-type parameters, e.g., {'charset': 'utf8'}.

location 'Location' header variable, used for redirects.

etag 'ETag' header variable. You can automatically generate an etag based on the response body calling `response.md5_etag()`.

Learn more about WebOb

WebOb is an open source third-party library. See the [WebOb](#) documentation for a detailed API reference and examples.

Exception handling

A good app is prepared even when something goes wrong: a service is down, the application didn't expect a given input type or many other errors that can happen in a web application. To react to these cases, we need a good exception handling mechanism and prepare the app to handle the unexpected scenarios.

HTTP exceptions

WebOb provides a collection of exceptions that correspond to HTTP status codes. They all extend a base class, `webob.exc.HTTPException`, also available in webapp2 as `webapp2.HTTPException`.

An `HTTPException` is also a WSGI application, meaning that an instance of it can be returned to be used as response. If an `HTTPException` is not handled, it will be used as a standard response, setting the header status code and a default error message in the body.

Exceptions in handlers

Handlers can catch exceptions implementing the method `webapp2.RequestHandler.handle_exception()`. It is a good idea to define a base class that catches generic exceptions, and if needed override `handle_exception()` in extended classes to set more specific responses.

Here we will define a exception handling function in a base class, and the real app classes extend it:

```
import logging

import webapp2

class BaseHandler(webapp2.RequestHandler):
    def handle_exception(self, exception, debug):
        # Log the error.
        logging.exception(exception)

        # Set a custom message.
        response.write('An error occurred.')

        # If the exception is a HTTPException, use its error code.
        # Otherwise use a generic 500 error code.
        if isinstance(exception, webapp2.HTTPException):
            response.set_status(exception.code)
        else:
            response.set_status(500)

class HomeHandler(BaseHandler):
    def get(self):
        self.response.write('This is the HomeHandler.')

class ProductListHandler(BaseHandler):
    def get(self):
        self.response.write('This is the ProductListHandler.')
```

If something unexpected happens during the `HomeHandler` or `ProductListHandler` lifetime, `handle_exception()` will catch it because they extend a class that implements exception handling.

You can use exception handling to log errors and display custom messages instead of a generic error. You could also render a template with a friendly message, or return a JSON with an error code, depending on your app.

Exceptions in the WSGI app

Uncaught exceptions can also be handled by the WSGI application. The WSGI app is a good place to handle ‘404 Not Found’ or ‘500 Internal Server Error’ errors, since it serves as a last attempt to handle all uncaught exceptions, including non-registered URI paths or unexpected application behavior.

We catch exceptions in the WSGI app using error handlers registered in `webapp2.WSGIApplication.error_handlers`. This is a dictionary that maps HTTP status codes to callables that will handle the corresponding error code. If the exception is not an `HTTPException`, the status code 500 is used.

Here we set error handlers to handle “404 Not Found” and “500 Internal Server Error”:

```
import logging

import webapp2

def handle_404(request, response, exception):
    logging.exception(exception)
    response.write('Oops! I could swear this page was here!')
    response.set_status(404)

def handle_500(request, response, exception):
    logging.exception(exception)
    response.write('A server error occurred!')
    response.set_status(500)

app = webapp2.WSGIApplication([
    webapp2.Route('/', handler='handlers.HomeHandler', name='home')
])
app.error_handlers[404] = handle_404
app.error_handlers[500] = handle_500
```

The error handler can be a simple function that accepts `(request, response, exception)` as parameters, and is responsible for setting the response status code and, if needed, logging the exception.

abort()

The function `webapp2.abort()` is a shortcut to raise one of the HTTP exceptions provided by WebOb: it takes an HTTP status code (403, 404, 500 etc) and raises the corresponding exception.

Use `abort` (or `webapp2.RequestHandler.abort()` inside handlers) to raise an `HTTPException` to be handled by an exception handler. For example, we could call `abort(404)` when a requested item is not found in the database, and have an exception handler ready to handle 404s.

Besides the status code, some extra keyword arguments can be passed to `abort()`:

detail An explanation about the error.

comment An more detailed comment to be included in the response body.

headers Extra response headers to be set.

body_template A string to be used as template for the response body. The default template has the following format, with variables replaced by arguments, if defined:

```
${explanation}<br /><br />
${detail}
${html_comment}
```


Unit testing

Thanks to [WebOb](#), webapp2 is very testable. Testing a handler is a matter of building a custom `Request` object and calling `get_response()` on it passing the WSGI application.

Let's see an example. First define a simple 'Hello world' handler to be tested:

```
import webapp2

class HelloHandler(webapp2.RequestHandler):
    def get(self):
        self.response.write('Hello, world!')

app = webapp2.WSGIApplication([('/', HelloHandler)])

def main():
    app.run()

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

To test if this handler returns the correct 'Hello, world!' response, we build a request object using `Request.blank()` and call `get_response()` on it:

```
import unittest
import webapp2

# from the app main.py
import main

class TestHandlers(unittest.TestCase):
    def test_hello(self):
        # Build a request object passing the URI path to be tested.
        # You can also pass headers, query arguments etc.
        request = webapp2.Request.blank('/')
        # Get a response for that request.
        response = request.get_response(main.app)

        # Let's check if the response is correct.
        self.assertEqual(response.status_int, 200)
        self.assertEqual(response.body, 'Hello, world!')
```

To test different HTTP methods, just change the request object:

```
request = webapp2.Request.blank('/')
request.method = 'POST'
response = request.get_response(main.app)

# Our handler doesn't implement post(), so this response will have a
# status code 405.
self.assertEqual(response.status_int, 405)
```

Request.blank()

`Request.blank(path, environ=None, base_url=None, headers=None, POST=None, **kwargs)` is a class method that creates a new request object for testing purposes. It receives the following

parameters:

path A URI path, urlencoded. The path will become `path_info`, with any query string split off and used.

environ An environ dictionary.

base_url If defined, `wsgi.url_scheme`, `HTTP_HOST` and `SCRIPT_NAME` will be filled in from this value.

headers A list of `(header_name, value)` tuples for the request headers.

POST A dictionary of POST data to be encoded, or a urlencoded string. This is a shortcut to set POST data in the environ. When set, the HTTP method is set to 'POST' and the `CONTENT_TYPE` is set to 'application/x-www-form-urlencoded'.

kwargs Extra keyword arguments to be passed to `Request.__init__()`.

All necessary keys will be added to the environ, but the values you pass in will take precedence.

app.get_response()

We can also get a response directly from the WSGI application, calling `app.get_response()`. This is a convenience to test the app. It receives the same parameters as `Request.blank()` to build a request and call the application, returning the resulting response:

```
class HelloHandler(webapp2.RequestHandler):
    def get(self):
        self.response.write('Hello, world!')

app = webapp2.WSGIApplication([('/', HelloHandler)])

# Test the app, passing parameters to build a request.
response = app.get_response('/')
assert response.status_int == 200
assert response.body == 'Hello, world!'
```

Testing handlers could not be easier. Check the [WebOb](#) documentation for more information about the request and response objects.

Testing App Engine services

If you're using App Engine and need to test an application that uses Datastore, Memcache or other App Engine services, read [Local Unit Testing for Python](#) in the official documentation. The App Engine SDK provides the module `google.appengine.ext.testbed` that can be used to setup all the necessary service stubs for testing.

webapp2_extras

`webapp2_extras` is a package with common utilities that work well with `webapp2`. It includes:

- Localization and internationalization support
- Sessions using secure cookies, memcache or datastore
- Extra route classes – to match subdomains and other conveniences
- Support for third party libraries: Jinja2 and Mako
- Support for threaded environments, so that you can use `webapp2` outside of App Engine or in the upcoming App Engine Python 2.7 runtime

Some of these modules (*i18n*, *Jinja2*, *Mako* and *Sessions*) use configuration values that can be set in the WSGI application. When a config key is not set, the modules will use the default values they define.

All configuration keys are optional, except `secret_key` that must be set for *Sessions*. Here is an example that sets the `secret_key` configuration and tests that the session is working:

```
import webapp2
from webapp2_extras import sessions

class BaseHandler(webapp2.RequestHandler):
    def dispatch(self):
        # Get a session store for this request.
        self.session_store = sessions.get_store(request=self.request)

        try:
            # Dispatch the request.
            webapp2.RequestHandler.dispatch(self)
        finally:
            # Save all sessions.
            self.session_store.save_sessions(self.response)

    @webapp2.cached_property
    def session(self):
        # Returns a session using the default cookie key.
        return self.session_store.get_session()

class HomeHandler(BaseHandler):
    def get(self):
        test_value = self.session.get('test-value')
        if test_value:
            self.response.write('Session has this value: %r.' % test_value)
        else:
            self.session['test-value'] = 'Hello, session world!'
            self.response.write('Session is empty.')

config = {}
config['webapp2_extras.sessions'] = {
    'secret_key': 'some-secret-key',
}

app = webapp2.WSGIApplication([
    ('/', HomeHandler),
], debug=True, config=config)

def main():
    app.run()

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


webapp2

- WSGI app
 - *WSGIApplication*
 - *RequestContext*
- URI routing
 - *Router*
 - *BaseRoute*
 - *SimpleRoute*
 - *Route*
- Configuration
 - *Config*
- Request and Response
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- Request handlers
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 - *RedirectHandler*
- Utilities
 - *cached_property*
 - *get_app()*
 - *get_request()*

- `redirect()`
- `redirect_to()`
- `uri_for()`
- `abort()`
- `import_string()`
- `urlunsplit()`

WSGI app

See also:

The WSGI application

class `webapp2.WSGIApplication` (*routes=None, debug=False, config=None*)
A WSGI-compliant application.

__call__ (*environ, start_response*)
Called by WSGI when a request comes in.

Parameters

- **environ** – A WSGI environment.
- **start_response** – A callable accepting a status code, a list of headers and an optional exception context to start the response.

Returns An iterable with the response to return to the client.

__init__ (*routes=None, debug=False, config=None*)
Initializes the WSGI application.

Parameters

- **routes** – A sequence of *Route* instances or, for simple routes, tuples (regex, handler).
- **debug** – True to enable debug mode, False otherwise.
- **config** – A configuration dictionary for the application.

active_instance = <LocalProxy unbound>
Same as *app*, for webapp compatibility. See *set_globals()*.

allowed_methods = frozenset(['HEAD', 'TRACE', 'GET', 'PUT', 'POST', 'OPTIONS', 'DELETE'])
Allowed request methods.

app = <LocalProxy unbound>
Active *WSGIApplication* instance. See *set_globals()*.

clear_globals ()
Clears global variables. See *set_globals()*.

config = None
A *Config* instance with the application configuration.

config_class
Class used for the configuration object.
alias of *Config*

debug = False

A general purpose flag to indicate development mode: if True, uncaught exceptions are raised instead of using `HTTPInternalServerError`.

error_handlers = None

A dictionary mapping HTTP error codes to callables to handle those HTTP exceptions. See `handle_exception()`.

get_response (*args, **kwargs)

Creates a request and returns a response for this app.

This is a convenience for unit testing purposes. It receives parameters to build a request and calls the application, returning the resulting response:

```
class HelloHandler(webapp2.RequestHandler):
    def get(self):
        self.response.write('Hello, world!')

app = webapp2.WSGIApplication(['/'], HelloHandler))

# Test the app, passing parameters to build a request.
response = app.get_response('/')
assert response.status_int == 200
assert response.body == 'Hello, world!'
```

Parameters

- **args** – Positional arguments to be passed to `Request.blank()`.
- **kwargs** – Keyword arguments to be passed to `Request.blank()`.

Returns A *Response* object.

handle_exception (request, response, e)

Handles a uncaught exception occurred in `__call__()`.

Uncaught exceptions can be handled by error handlers registered in `error_handlers`. This is a dictionary that maps HTTP status codes to callables that will handle the corresponding error code. If the exception is not an `HTTPException`, the status code 500 is used.

The error handlers receive (request, response, exception) and can be a callable or a string in dotted notation to be lazily imported.

If no error handler is found, the exception is re-raised.

Based on idea from [Flask](#).

Parameters

- **request** – A *Request* instance.
- **response** – A *Response* instance.
- **e** – The uncaught exception.

Returns The returned value from the error handler.

registry = None

A dictionary to register objects used during the app lifetime.

request = <LocalProxy unbound>

Active *Request* instance. See `set_globals()`.

request_class

Class used for the request object.

alias of *Request*

request_context_class

Class used for the request context object.

alias of *RequestContext*

response_class

Class used for the response object.

alias of *Response*

router = None

A *Router* instance with all URIs registered for the application.

router_class

Class used for the router object.

alias of *Router*

run (bare=False)

Runs this WSGI-compliant application in a CGI environment.

This uses functions provided by `google.appengine.ext.webapp.util`, if available: `run_bare_wsgi_app` and `run_wsgi_app`.

Otherwise, it uses `wsgiref.handlers.CGIHandler().run()`.

Parameters bare – If True, doesn't add registered WSGI middleware: use `run_bare_wsgi_app` instead of `run_wsgi_app`.

set_globals (app=None, request=None)

Registers the global variables for app and request.

If `webapp2_extras.local` is available, the app and request class attributes are assigned to a proxy object that returns them using thread-local, making the application thread-safe. This can also be used in environments that don't support threading.

If `webapp2_extras.local` is not available, app and request will be assigned directly as class attributes. This should only be used in non-threaded environments (e.g., App Engine Python 2.5).

Parameters

- **app** – A *WSGIApplication* instance.
- **request** – A *Request* instance.

class webapp2.RequestContext (app, environ)

Context for a single request.

The context is responsible for setting and cleaning global variables for a request.

__enter__ ()

Enters the request context.

Returns A tuple (request, response).

__exit__ (exc_type, exc_value, traceback)

Exits the request context.

This releases the context locals except if an exception is caught in debug mode. In this case they are kept to be inspected.

`__init__(app, environ)`
 Initializes the request context.

Parameters

- **app** – An *WSGIApplication* instance.
- **environ** – A WSGI environment dictionary.

URI routing

See also:

Router and *URI routing*

class `webapp2.Router(routes=None)`
 A URI router used to match, dispatch and build URIs.

`__init__(routes=None)`
 Initializes the router.

Parameters **routes** – A sequence of *Route* instances or, for simple routes, tuples (regex, handler).

adapt (handler)
 Adapts a handler for dispatching.

Because handlers use or implement different dispatching mechanisms, they can be wrapped to use a unified API for dispatching. This way webapp2 can support, for example, a *RequestHandler* class and function views or, for compatibility purposes, a `webapp.RequestHandler` class. The adapters follow the same router dispatching API but dispatch each handler type differently.

Parameters **handler** – A handler callable.

Returns A wrapped handler callable.

add (route)
 Adds a route to this router.

Parameters **route** – A *Route* instance or, for simple routes, a tuple (regex, handler).

build (request, name, args, kwargs)
 Returns a URI for a named *Route*.

Parameters

- **request** – The current *Request* object.
- **name** – The route name.
- **args** – Tuple of positional arguments to build the URI. All positional variables defined in the route must be passed and must conform to the format set in the route. Extra arguments are ignored.
- **kwargs** – Dictionary of keyword arguments to build the URI. All variables not set in the route default values must be passed and must conform to the format set in the route. Extra keywords are appended as a query string.

A few keywords have special meaning:

- **_full**: If True, builds an absolute URI.
- **_scheme**: URI scheme, e.g., *http* or *https*. If defined, an absolute URI is always returned.

- **_netloc**: Network location, e.g., *www.google.com*. If defined, an absolute URI is always returned.
- **_fragment**: If set, appends a fragment (or “anchor”) to the generated URI.

Returns An absolute or relative URI.

default_adapter (*handler*)

Adapts a handler for dispatching.

Because handlers use or implement different dispatching mechanisms, they can be wrapped to use a unified API for dispatching. This way webapp2 can support, for example, a *RequestHandler* class and function views or, for compatibility purposes, a `webapp.RequestHandler` class. The adapters follow the same router dispatching API but dispatch each handler type differently.

Parameters **handler** – A handler callable.

Returns A wrapped handler callable.

default_builder (*request, name, args, kwargs*)

Returns a URI for a named *Route*.

Parameters

- **request** – The current *Request* object.
- **name** – The route name.
- **args** – Tuple of positional arguments to build the URI. All positional variables defined in the route must be passed and must conform to the format set in the route. Extra arguments are ignored.
- **kwargs** – Dictionary of keyword arguments to build the URI. All variables not set in the route default values must be passed and must conform to the format set in the route. Extra keywords are appended as a query string.

A few keywords have special meaning:

- **_full**: If True, builds an absolute URI.
- **_scheme**: URI scheme, e.g., *http* or *https*. If defined, an absolute URI is always returned.
- **_netloc**: Network location, e.g., *www.google.com*. If defined, an absolute URI is always returned.
- **_fragment**: If set, appends a fragment (or “anchor”) to the generated URI.

Returns An absolute or relative URI.

default_dispatcher (*request, response*)

Dispatches a handler.

Parameters

- **request** – A *Request* instance.
- **response** – A *Response* instance.

Raises `exc.HTTPNotFound` if no route matched or `exc.HTTPMethodNotAllowed` if a route matched but the HTTP method was not allowed.

Returns The returned value from the handler.

default_matcher (*request*)

Matches all routes against a request object.

The first one that matches is returned.

Parameters **request** – A *Request* instance.

Returns A tuple (route, args, kwargs) if a route matched, or None.

Raises `exc.HTTPNotFound` if no route matched or `exc.HTTPMethodNotAllowed` if a route matched but the HTTP method was not allowed.

dispatch (request, response)

Dispatches a handler.

Parameters

- **request** – A *Request* instance.
- **response** – A *Response* instance.

Raises `exc.HTTPNotFound` if no route matched or `exc.HTTPMethodNotAllowed` if a route matched but the HTTP method was not allowed.

Returns The returned value from the handler.

match (request)

Matches all routes against a request object.

The first one that matches is returned.

Parameters **request** – A *Request* instance.

Returns A tuple (route, args, kwargs) if a route matched, or None.

Raises `exc.HTTPNotFound` if no route matched or `exc.HTTPMethodNotAllowed` if a route matched but the HTTP method was not allowed.

route_class

Class used when the route is set as a tuple.

alias of *SimpleRoute*

set_adapter (func)

Sets the function that adapts loaded handlers for dispatching.

Parameters **func** – A function that receives (router, handler) and returns a handler callable.

set_builder (func)

Sets the function called to build URIs.

Parameters **func** – A function that receives (router, request, name, args, kwargs) and returns a URI.

set_dispatcher (func)

Sets the function called to dispatch the handler.

Parameters **func** – A function that receives (router, request, response) and returns the value returned by the dispatched handler.

set_matcher (func)

Sets the function called to match URIs.

Parameters **func** – A function that receives (router, request) and returns a tuple (route, args, kwargs) if any route matches, or raise `exc.HTTPNotFound` if no route matched or `exc.HTTPMethodNotAllowed` if a route matched but the HTTP method was not allowed.

class webapp2.**BaseRoute** (*template, handler=None, name=None, build_only=False*)

Interface for URI routes.

build (*request, args, kwargs*)

Returns a URI for this route.

Parameters

- **request** – The current *Request* object.
- **args** – Tuple of positional arguments to build the URI.
- **kwargs** – Dictionary of keyword arguments to build the URI.

Returns An absolute or relative URI.

build_only = False

True if this route is only used for URI generation and never matches.

get_build_routes ()

Generator to get all routes that can be built from a route.

Build routes must implement *build()*.

Yields A tuple (*name, route*) for all nested routes that can be built.

get_match_routes ()

Generator to get all routes that can be matched from a route.

Match routes must implement *match()*.

Yields This route or all nested routes that can be matched.

get_routes ()

Generator to get all routes from a route.

Yields This route or all nested routes that it contains.

handler = None

The handler or string in dotted notation to be lazily imported.

handler_adapter = None

The handler, imported and ready for dispatching.

handler_method = None

The custom handler method, if handler is a class.

match (*request*)

Matches all routes against a request object.

The first one that matches is returned.

Parameters **request** – A *Request* instance.

Returns A tuple (*route, args, kwargs*) if a route matched, or None.

name = None

Route name, used to build URIs.

template = None

The regex template.

class webapp2.**SimpleRoute** (*template, handler=None, name=None, build_only=False*)

A route that is compatible with webapp's routing mechanism.

URI building is not implemented as webapp has rudimentar support for it, and this is the most unknown webapp feature anyway.

`__init__(template, handler=None, name=None, build_only=False)`

Initializes this route.

Parameters

- **template** – A regex to be matched.
- **handler** – A callable or string in dotted notation to be lazily imported, e.g., 'my.module.MyHandler' or 'my.module.my_function'.
- **name** – The name of this route, used to build URIs based on it.
- **build_only** – If True, this route never matches and is used only to build URIs.

`match(request)`

Matches this route against the current request.

See also:

`BaseRoute.match()`.

class webapp2.Route(*template, handler=None, name=None, defaults=None, build_only=False, handler_method=None, methods=None, schemes=None*)

A route definition that maps a URI path to a handler.

The initial concept was based on [Another Do-It-Yourself Framework](#), by Ian Bicking.

`__init__(template, handler=None, name=None, defaults=None, build_only=False, handler_method=None, methods=None, schemes=None)`

Initializes this route.

Parameters

- **template** – A route template to match against the request path. A template can have variables enclosed by <> that define a name, a regular expression or both. Examples:

Format	Example
<name>	'/blog/<year>/<month>'
<:regex>	'/blog/<:\d{4}>/<:\d{2}>'
<name:regex>	'/blog/<year:\d{4}>/<month:\d{2}>'

The same template can mix parts with name, regular expression or both.

If the name is set, the value of the matched regular expression is passed as keyword argument to the handler. Otherwise it is passed as positional argument.

If only the name is set, it will match anything except a slash. So these routes are equivalent:

```
Route('/<user_id>/settings', handler=SettingsHandler,
      name='user-settings')
Route('/<user_id:[^/]+>/settings', handler=SettingsHandler,
      name='user-settings')
```

Note: The handler only receives `*args` if no named variables are set. Otherwise, the handler only receives `**kwargs`. This allows you to set regular expressions that are not captured: just mix named and unnamed variables and the handler will only receive the named ones.

- **handler** – A callable or string in dotted notation to be lazily imported, e.g., 'my.module.MyHandler' or 'my.module.my_function'. It is possible to define a method if the callable is a class, separating it by a colon: 'my.module.

`MyHandler:my_method'`. This is a shortcut and has the same effect as defining the *handler_method* parameter.

- **name** – The name of this route, used to build URIs based on it.
- **defaults** – Default or extra keywords to be returned by this route. Values also present in the route variables are used to build the URI when they are missing.
- **build_only** – If True, this route never matches and is used only to build URIs.
- **handler_method** – The name of a custom handler method to be called, in case *handler* is a class. If not defined, the default behavior is to call the handler method correspondent to the HTTP request method in lower case (e.g., *get()*, *post()* etc).
- **methods** – A sequence of HTTP methods. If set, the route will only match if the request method is allowed.
- **schemes** – A sequence of URI schemes, e.g., ['http'] or ['https']. If set, the route will only match requests with these schemes.

build (*request*, *args*, *kwargs*)
Returns a URI for this route.

See also:

`Router.build()`.

match (*request*)
Matches this route against the current request.

Raises `exc.HTTPMethodNotAllowed` if the route defines methods and the request method isn't allowed.

See also:

`BaseRoute.match()`.

Configuration

See also:

`Config`

class `webapp2.Config` (*defaults=None*)
A simple configuration dictionary for the `WSGIApplication`.

load_config (*key*, *default_values=None*, *user_values=None*, *required_keys=None*)
Returns a configuration for a given key.

This can be used by objects that define a default configuration. It will update the app configuration with the default values the first time it is requested, and mark the key as loaded.

Parameters

- **key** – A configuration key.
- **default_values** – Default values defined by a module or class.
- **user_values** – User values, used when an object can be initialized with configuration. This overrides the app configuration.
- **required_keys** – Keys that can not be None.

Raises Exception, when a required key is not set or is None.

Request and Response

See also:

Request data and *Building a Response*

class webapp2.**Request** (*environ*, **args*, ***kwargs*)

Abstraction for an HTTP request.

Most extra methods and attributes are ported from webapp. Check the [WebOb](#) documentation for the ones not listed here.

__init__ (*environ*, **args*, ***kwargs*)

Constructs a Request object from a WSGI environment.

Parameters **environ** – A WSGI-compliant environment dictionary.

app = None

A reference to the active *WSGIApplication* instance.

arguments ()

Returns a list of the arguments provided in the query and/or POST.

The return value is an ordered list of strings.

get (*argument_name*, *default_value*='', *allow_multiple*=False)

Returns the query or POST argument with the given name.

We parse the query string and POST payload lazily, so this will be a slower operation on the first call.

Parameters

- **argument_name** – The name of the query or POST argument.
- **default_value** – The value to return if the given argument is not present.
- **allow_multiple** – Return a list of values with the given name (deprecated).

Returns Return the value with the given name given in the request. If there are multiple values, this will only return the first one. Use *get_all()* to get multiple values.

get_all (*argument_name*, *default_value*=None)

Returns a list of query or POST arguments with the given name.

We parse the query string and POST payload lazily, so this will be a slower operation on the first call.

Parameters

- **argument_name** – The name of the query or POST argument.
- **default_value** – The value to return if the given argument is not present, None may not be used as a default, if it is then an empty list will be returned instead.

Returns A (possibly empty) list of values.

get_range (*name*, *min_value*=None, *max_value*=None, *default*=0)

Parses the given int argument, limiting it to the given range.

Parameters

- **name** – The name of the argument.
- **min_value** – The minimum int value of the argument (if any).
- **max_value** – The maximum int value of the argument (if any).
- **default** – The default value of the argument if it is not given.

Returns An int within the given range for the argument.

registry = None

A dictionary to register objects used during the request lifetime.

response = None

A reference to the active *Response* instance.

route = None

A reference to the matched *Route*.

route_args = None

The matched route positional arguments.

route_kwargs = None

The matched route keyword arguments.

class webapp2.Response (*args, **kwargs)

Abstraction for an HTTP response.

Most extra methods and attributes are ported from webapp. Check the [WebOb](#) documentation for the ones not listed here.

Differences from webapp.Response:

- `out` is not a `StringIO.StringIO` instance. Instead it is the response itself, as it has the method `write()`.
- As in `WebOb`, `status` is the code plus message, e.g., '200 OK', while in webapp it is the integer code. The status code as an integer is available in `status_int`, and the status message is available in `status_message`.
- `response.headers` raises an exception when a key that doesn't exist is accessed or deleted, differently from `wsgiref.headers.Headers`.

__init__ (*args, **kwargs)

Constructs a response with the default settings.

clear ()

Clears all data written to the output stream so that it is empty.

has_error ()

Indicates whether the response was an error response.

static http_status_message (code)

Returns the default HTTP status message for the given code.

Parameters `code` – The HTTP code for which we want a message.

status

The status string, including code and message.

status_message

The response status message, as a string.

wsgi_write (start_response)

Writes this response using the given WSGI function.

This is only here for compatibility with `webapp.WSGIApplication`.

Parameters `start_response` – The WSGI-compatible `start_response` function.

Request handlers

See also:

Request handlers

class `webapp2.RequestHandler` (*request=None, response=None*)

Base HTTP request handler.

Implements most of `webapp2.RequestHandler` interface.

__init__ (*request=None, response=None*)

Initializes this request handler with the given WSGI application, Request and Response.

When instantiated by `webapp2.WSGIApplication`, `request` and `response` are not set on instantiation. Instead, `initialize()` is called right after the handler is created to set them.

Also in `webapp2` dispatching is done by the WSGI app, while `webapp2` does it here to allow more flexibility in extended classes: handlers can wrap `dispatch()` to check for conditions before executing the requested method and/or post-process the response.

Note: Parameters are optional only to support `webapp2`'s constructor which doesn't take any arguments. Consider them as required.

Parameters

- **request** – A *Request* instance.
- **response** – A *Response* instance.

abort (*code, *args, **kwargs*)

Raises an `HTTPException`.

This stops code execution, leaving the HTTP exception to be handled by an exception handler.

Parameters

- **code** – HTTP status code (e.g., 404).
- **args** – Positional arguments to be passed to the exception class.
- **kwargs** – Keyword arguments to be passed to the exception class.

app = None

A *WSGIApplication* instance.

dispatch()

Dispatches the request.

This will first check if there's a `handler_method` defined in the matched route, and if not it'll use the method correspondent to the request method (`get()`, `post()` etc).

error (*code*)

Clears the response and sets the given HTTP status code.

This doesn't stop code execution; for this, use `abort()`.

Parameters **code** – HTTP status error code (e.g., 501).

handle_exception (*exception, debug*)

Called if this handler throws an exception during execution.

The default behavior is to re-raise the exception to be handled by `WSGIApplication.handle_exception()`.

Parameters

- **exception** – The exception that was thrown.
- **debug_mode** – True if the web application is running in debug mode.

initialize (*request, response*)

Initializes this request handler with the given WSGI application, Request and Response.

Parameters

- **request** – A *Request* instance.
- **response** – A *Response* instance.

redirect (*uri, permanent=False, abort=False, code=None, body=None*)

Issues an HTTP redirect to the given relative URI.

The arguments are described in `redirect()`.

redirect_to (*_name, _permanent=False, _abort=False, _code=None, _body=None, *args, **kwargs*)

Convenience method mixing `redirect()` and `uri_for()`.

The arguments are described in `redirect()` and `uri_for()`.

request = None

A *Request* instance.

response = None

A *Response* instance.

uri_for (*_name, *args, **kwargs*)

Returns a URI for a named *Route*.

See also:

`Router.build()`.

class webapp2.RedirectHandler (*request=None, response=None*)

Redirects to the given URI for all GET requests.

This is intended to be used when defining URI routes. You must provide at least the keyword argument *url* in the route default values. Example:

```
def get_redirect_url(handler, *args, **kwargs):
    return handler.uri_for('new-route-name')

app = WSGIApplication([
    Route('/old-url', RedirectHandler, defaults={'_uri': '/new-url'}),
    Route('/other-old-url', RedirectHandler, defaults={
        '_uri': get_redirect_url}),
])
```

Based on idea from [Tornado](#).

get (**args, **kwargs*)

Performs a redirect.

Two keyword arguments can be passed through the URI route:

- **_uri**: A URI string or a callable that returns a URI. The callable is called passing (handler, *args, **kwargs) as arguments.
- **_code**: The redirect status code. Default is 301 (permanent redirect).

Utilities

These are some other utilities also available for general use.

class webapp2.**cached_property** (*func, name=None, doc=None*)

A decorator that converts a function into a lazy property.

The function wrapped is called the first time to retrieve the result and then that calculated result is used the next time you access the value:

```
class Foo(object):

    @cached_property
    def foo(self):
        # calculate something important here
        return 42
```

The class has to have a `__dict__` in order for this property to work.

Note: Implementation detail: this property is implemented as non-data descriptor. non-data descriptors are only invoked if there is no entry with the same name in the instance's `__dict__`. this allows us to completely get rid of the access function call overhead. If one choses to invoke `__get__` by hand the property will still work as expected because the lookup logic is replicated in `__get__` for manual invocation.

This class was ported from Werkzeug and Flask.

webapp2.**get_app**()

Returns the active app instance.

Returns A *WSGIApplication* instance.

webapp2.**get_request**()

Returns the active request instance.

Returns A *Request* instance.

webapp2.**redirect** (*uri, permanent=False, abort=False, code=None, body=None, request=None, response=None*)

Issues an HTTP redirect to the given relative URI.

This won't stop code execution unless **abort** is True. A common practice is to return when calling this method:

```
return redirect('/some-path')
```

Parameters

- **uri** – A relative or absolute URI (e.g., `'../flowers.html'`).
- **permanent** – If True, uses a 301 redirect instead of a 302 redirect.
- **abort** – If True, raises an exception to perform the redirect.

- **code** – The redirect status code. Supported codes are 301, 302, 303, 305, and 307. 300 is not supported because it's not a real redirect and 304 because it's the answer for a request with defined `If-Modified-Since` headers.
- **body** – Response body, if any.
- **request** – Optional request object. If not set, uses `get_request()`.
- **response** – Optional response object. If not set, a new response is created.

Returns A `Response` instance.

`webapp2.redirect_to(_name, _permanent=False, _abort=False, _code=None, _body=None, _request=None, _response=None, *args, **kwargs)`

Convenience function mixing `redirect()` and `uri_for()`.

Issues an HTTP redirect to a named URI built using `uri_for()`.

Parameters

- **_name** – The route name to redirect to.
- **args** – Positional arguments to build the URI.
- **kwargs** – Keyword arguments to build the URI.

Returns A `Response` instance.

The other arguments are described in `redirect()`.

`webapp2.uri_for(_name, _request=None, *args, **kwargs)`

A standalone `uri_for` version that can be passed to templates.

See also:

`Router.build()`.

`webapp2.abort(code, *args, **kwargs)`

Raises an `HTTPException`.

Parameters

- **code** – An integer that represents a valid HTTP status code.
- **args** – Positional arguments to instantiate the exception.
- **kwargs** – Keyword arguments to instantiate the exception.

`webapp2.import_string(import_name, silent=False)`

Imports an object based on a string in dotted notation.

Simplified version of the function with same name from `Werkzeug`.

Parameters

- **import_name** – String in dotted notation of the object to be imported.
- **silent** – If True, import or attribute errors are ignored and None is returned instead of raising an exception.

Returns The imported object.

API Reference - webapp2_extras

Auth

Utilities for authentication and authorization.

`webapp2_extras.auth.default_config = {'user_model': 'webapp2_extras.appengine.auth.models.User', 'token_new_age': ...}`
Default configuration values for this module. Keys are:

user_model User model which authenticates custom users and tokens. Can also be a string in dotted notation to be lazily imported. Default is `webapp2_extras.appengine.auth.models.User`.

session_backend Name of the session backend to be used. Default is `securecookie`.

cookie_name Name of the cookie to save the auth session. Default is `auth`.

token_max_age Number of seconds of inactivity after which an auth token is invalidated. The same value is used to set the `max_age` for persistent auth sessions. Default is `86400 * 7 * 3` (3 weeks).

token_new_age Number of seconds after which a new token is created and written to the database, and the old one is invalidated. Use this to limit database writes; set to `None` to write on all requests. Default is `86400` (1 day).

token_cache_age Number of seconds after which a token must be checked in the database. Use this to limit database reads; set to `None` to read on all requests. Default is `3600` (1 hour).

user_attributes A list of extra user attributes to be stored in the session. Default is an empty list.

class `webapp2_extras.auth.AuthStore(app, config=None)`

Provides common utilities and configuration for `Auth`.

__init__ (`app, config=None`)
Initializes the session store.

Parameters

- **app** – A `webapp2.WSGIApplication` instance.
- **config** – A dictionary of configuration values to be overridden. See the available keys in `default_config`.

class webapp2_extras.auth.**Auth**(*request*)

Authentication provider for a single request.

__init__(*request*)

Initializes the auth provider for a request.

Parameters *request* – A *webapp2.Request* instance.

get_user_by_password(*auth_id*, *password*, *remember=False*, *save_session=True*, *silent=False*)

Returns a user based on password credentials.

Parameters

- **auth_id** – Authentication id.
- **password** – User password.
- **remember** – If True, saves permanent sessions.
- **save_session** – If True, saves the user in the session if authentication succeeds.
- **silent** – If True, raises an exception if *auth_id* or *password* are invalid.

Returns A user dict or None.

Raises *InvalidAuthIdError* or *InvalidPasswordError*.

get_user_by_session(*save_session=True*)

Returns a user based on the current session.

Parameters **save_session** – If True, saves the user in the session if authentication succeeds.

Returns A user dict or None.

get_user_by_token(*user_id*, *token*, *token_ts=None*, *cache=None*, *cache_ts=None*, *remember=False*, *save_session=True*)

Returns a user based on an authentication token.

Parameters

- **user_id** – User id.
- **token** – Authentication token.
- **token_ts** – Token timestamp, used to perform pre-validation.
- **cache** – Cached user data (from the session).
- **cache_ts** – Cache timestamp.
- **remember** – If True, saves permanent sessions.
- **save_session** – If True, saves the user in the session if authentication succeeds.

Returns A user dict or None.

set_session(*user*, *token=None*, *token_ts=None*, *cache_ts=None*, *remember=False*, ***session_args*)

Saves a user in the session.

Parameters

- **user** – A dictionary with user data.
- **token** – A unique token to be persisted. If None, a new one is created.
- **token_ts** – Token timestamp. If None, a new one is created.
- **cache_ts** – Token cache timestamp. If None, a new one is created.
- **session_args** – Keyword arguments to set the session arguments.

Remember If True, session is set to be persisted.

unset_session()

Removes a user from the session and invalidates the auth token.

```
webapp2_extras.auth.get_store(factory=<class 'webapp2_extras.auth.AuthStore'>,
                              key='webapp2_extras.auth.Auth', app=None)
```

Returns an instance of *AuthStore* from the app registry.

It'll try to get it from the current app registry, and if it is not registered it'll be instantiated and registered. A second call to this function will return the same instance.

Parameters

- **factory** – The callable used to build and register the instance if it is not yet registered. The default is the class *AuthStore* itself.
- **key** – The key used to store the instance in the registry. A default is used if it is not set.
- **app** – A *webapp2.WSGIApplication* instance used to store the instance. The active app is used if it is not set.

```
webapp2_extras.auth.set_store(store, key='webapp2_extras.auth.Auth', app=None)
```

Sets an instance of *AuthStore* in the app registry.

Parameters

- **store** – An instance of *AuthStore*.
- **key** – The key used to retrieve the instance from the registry. A default is used if it is not set.
- **request** – A *webapp2.WSGIApplication* instance used to retrieve the instance. The active app is used if it is not set.

```
webapp2_extras.auth.get_auth(factory=<class 'webapp2_extras.auth.Auth'>,
                              key='webapp2_extras.auth.Auth', request=None)
```

Returns an instance of *Auth* from the request registry.

It'll try to get it from the current request registry, and if it is not registered it'll be instantiated and registered. A second call to this function will return the same instance.

Parameters

- **factory** – The callable used to build and register the instance if it is not yet registered. The default is the class *Auth* itself.
- **key** – The key used to store the instance in the registry. A default is used if it is not set.
- **request** – A *webapp2.Request* instance used to store the instance. The active request is used if it is not set.

```
webapp2_extras.auth.set_auth(auth, key='webapp2_extras.auth.Auth', request=None)
```

Sets an instance of *Auth* in the request registry.

Parameters

- **auth** – An instance of *Auth*.
- **key** – The key used to retrieve the instance from the registry. A default is used if it is not set.
- **request** – A *webapp2.Request* instance used to retrieve the instance. The active request is used if it is not set.

i18n

This module provides internationalization and localization support for webapp2.

To use it, you must add the `babel` and `pytz` packages to your application directory (for App Engine) or install it in your virtual environment (for other servers).

You can download `babel` and `pytz` from the following locations:

<http://babel.edgewall.org/> <http://pypi.python.org/pypi/gaepytz>

`webapp2_extras.i18n.default_config = {'date_formats': {'datetime.iso': "yyyy'-MM'-dd'T'HH':'mm':'ssZ", 'time`

Default configuration values for this module. Keys are:

translations_path Path to the translations directory. Default is *locale*.

domains List of gettext domains to be used. Default is `['messages']`.

default_locale A locale code to be used as fallback. Default is `'en_US'`.

default_timezone The application default timezone according to the Olson database. Default is `'UTC'`.

locale_selector A function that receives (store, request) and returns a locale to be used for a request. If not defined, uses *default_locale*. Can also be a string in dotted notation to be imported.

timezone_selector A function that receives (store, request) and returns a timezone to be used for a request. If not defined, uses *default_timezone*. Can also be a string in dotted notation to be imported.

date_formats Default date formats for datetime, date and time.

class `webapp2_extras.i18n.I18nStore (app, config=None)`

Internalization store.

Caches loaded translations and configuration to be used between requests.

__init__ (*app, config=None*)

Initializes the i18n store.

Parameters

- **app** – A `webapp2.WSGIApplication` instance.
- **config** – A dictionary of configuration values to be overridden. See the available keys in *default_config*.

date_formats = None

Dictionary of default date formats.

default_locale = None

Default locale code.

default_timezone = None

Default timezone code.

domains = None

Translation domains to merge.

get_translations (*locale*)

Returns a translation catalog for a locale.

Parameters **locale** – A locale code.

Returns A `babel.support.Translations` instance, or `gettext.NullTranslations` if none was found.

load_translations (*dirname, locales, domains*)

Loads a translation catalog.

Parameters

- **dirname** – Path to where translations are stored.
- **locales** – A list of locale codes.
- **domains** – A list of domains to be merged.

Returns A `babel.support.Translations` instance, or `gettext.NullTranslations` if none was found.

locale_selector = None

A callable that returns the locale for a request.

set_locale_selector (*func*)

Sets the function that defines the locale for a request.

Parameters **func** – A callable that receives (store, request) and returns the locale for a request.

set_timezone_selector (*func*)

Sets the function that defines the timezone for a request.

Parameters **func** – A callable that receives (store, request) and returns the timezone for a request.

timezone_selector = None

A callable that returns the timezone for a request.

translations = None

A dictionary with all loaded translations.

translations_path = None

Path to where translations are stored.

class `webapp2_extras.i18n.I18n` (*request*)

Internalization provider for a single request.

__init__ (*request*)

Initializes the i18n provider for a request.

Parameters **request** – A `webapp2.Request` instance.

format_currency (*number, currency, format=None*)

Returns a formatted currency value. Example:

```
>>> format_currency(1099.98, 'USD', locale='en_US')
u'$1,099.98'
>>> format_currency(1099.98, 'USD', locale='es_CO')
u'US$\xa01.099,98'
>>> format_currency(1099.98, 'EUR', locale='de_DE')
u'1.099,98\xa0\u20ac'
```

The pattern can also be specified explicitly:

```
>>> format_currency(1099.98, 'EUR', u'\xa4\xa4 #,##0.00',
...                  locale='en_US')
u'EUR 1,099.98'
```

Parameters

- **number** – The number to format.

- **currency** – The currency code.
- **format** – Notation format.

Returns The formatted currency value.

format_date (*date=None, format=None, rebase=True*)

Returns a date formatted according to the given pattern and following the current locale.

Parameters

- **date** – A date or datetime object. If None, the current date in UTC is used.
- **format** – The format to be returned. Valid values are “short”, “medium”, “long”, “full” or a custom date/time pattern. Example outputs:
 - short: 11/10/09
 - medium: Nov 10, 2009
 - long: November 10, 2009
 - full: Tuesday, November 10, 2009
- **rebase** – If True, converts the date to the current *timezone*.

Returns A formatted date in unicode.

format_datetime (*datetime=None, format=None, rebase=True*)

Returns a date and time formatted according to the given pattern and following the current locale and timezone.

Parameters

- **datetime** – A datetime object. If None, the current date and time in UTC is used.
- **format** – The format to be returned. Valid values are “short”, “medium”, “long”, “full” or a custom date/time pattern. Example outputs:
 - short: 11/10/09 4:36 PM
 - medium: Nov 10, 2009 4:36:05 PM
 - long: November 10, 2009 4:36:05 PM +0000
 - full: Tuesday, November 10, 2009 4:36:05 PM World (GMT) Time
- **rebase** – If True, converts the datetime to the current *timezone*.

Returns A formatted date and time in unicode.

format_decimal (*number, format=None*)

Returns the given decimal number formatted for the current locale. Example:

```
>>> format_decimal(1.2345, locale='en_US')
u'1.234'
>>> format_decimal(1.2346, locale='en_US')
u'1.235'
>>> format_decimal(-1.2346, locale='en_US')
u'-1.235'
>>> format_decimal(1.2345, locale='sv_SE')
u'1,234'
>>> format_decimal(12345, locale='de')
u'12.345'
```

The appropriate thousands grouping and the decimal separator are used for each locale:

```
>>> format_decimal(12345.5, locale='en_US')
u'12,345.5'
```

Parameters

- **number** – The number to format.
- **format** – Notation format.

Returns The formatted decimal number.

format_number (*number*)

Returns the given number formatted for the current locale. Example:

```
>>> format_number(1099, locale='en_US')
u'1,099'
```

Parameters **number** – The number to format.

Returns The formatted number.

format_percent (*number, format=None*)

Returns formatted percent value for the current locale. Example:

```
>>> format_percent(0.34, locale='en_US')
u'34%'
>>> format_percent(25.1234, locale='en_US')
u'2,512%'
>>> format_percent(25.1234, locale='sv_SE')
u'2\xa0512\xa0%'
```

The format pattern can also be specified explicitly:

```
>>> format_percent(25.1234, u'#,##0\u2030', locale='en_US')
u'25,123\u2030'
```

Parameters

- **number** – The percent number to format
- **format** – Notation format.

Returns The formatted percent number.

format_scientific (*number, format=None*)

Returns value formatted in scientific notation for the current locale. Example:

```
>>> format_scientific(10000, locale='en_US')
u'1E4'
```

The format pattern can also be specified explicitly:

```
>>> format_scientific(1234567, u'##0E00', locale='en_US')
u'1.23E06'
```

Parameters

- **number** – The number to format.

- **format** – Notation format.

Returns Value formatted in scientific notation.

format_time (*time=None, format=None, rebase=True*)

Returns a time formatted according to the given pattern and following the current locale and timezone.

Parameters

- **time** – A time or datetime object. If None, the current time in UTC is used.
- **format** – The format to be returned. Valid values are “short”, “medium”, “long”, “full” or a custom date/time pattern. Example outputs:
 - short: 4:36 PM
 - medium: 4:36:05 PM
 - long: 4:36:05 PM +0000
 - full: 4:36:05 PM World (GMT) Time
- **rebase** – If True, converts the time to the current *timezone*.

Returns A formatted time in unicode.

format_timedelta (*datetime_or_timedelta, granularity='second', threshold=0.85*)

Formats the elapsed time from the given date to now or the given timedelta. This currently requires an unreleased development version of Babel.

Parameters

- **datetime_or_timedelta** – A timedelta object representing the time difference to format, or a datetime object in UTC.
- **granularity** – Determines the smallest unit that should be displayed, the value can be one of “year”, “month”, “week”, “day”, “hour”, “minute” or “second”.
- **threshold** – Factor that determines at which point the presentation switches to the next higher unit.

Returns A string with the elapsed time.

get_timezone_location (*dt_or_tzinfo*)

Returns a representation of the given timezone using “location format”.

The result depends on both the local display name of the country and the city associated with the time zone:

```
>>> from pytz import timezone
>>> tz = timezone('America/St_Johns')
>>> get_timezone_location(tz, locale='de_DE')
u"Kanada (St. John's)"
>>> tz = timezone('America/Mexico_City')
>>> get_timezone_location(tz, locale='de_DE')
u'Mexiko (Mexiko-Stadt)'
```

If the timezone is associated with a country that uses only a single timezone, just the localized country name is returned:

```
>>> tz = timezone('Europe/Berlin')
>>> get_timezone_name(tz, locale='de_DE')
u'Deutschland'
```

Parameters `dt_or_tzinfo` – The `datetime` or `tzinfo` object that determines the time-zone; if `None`, the current date and time in UTC is assumed.

Returns The localized timezone name using location format.

gettext (*string*, ***variables*)

Translates a given string according to the current locale.

Parameters

- **string** – The string to be translated.
- **variables** – Variables to format the returned string.

Returns The translated string.

locale = None

The current locale code.

ngettext (*singular*, *plural*, *n*, ***variables*)

Translates a possible pluralized string according to the current locale.

Parameters

- **singular** – The singular for of the string to be translated.
- **plural** – The plural for of the string to be translated.
- **n** – An integer indicating if this is a singular or plural. If greater than 1, it is a plural.
- **variables** – Variables to format the returned string.

Returns The translated string.

parse_date (*string*)

Parses a date from a string.

This function uses the date format for the locale as a hint to determine the order in which the date fields appear in the string. Example:

```
>>> parse_date('4/1/04', locale='en_US')
datetime.date(2004, 4, 1)
>>> parse_date('01.04.2004', locale='de_DE')
datetime.date(2004, 4, 1)
```

Parameters **string** – The string containing the date.

Returns The parsed date object.

parse_datetime (*string*)

Parses a date and time from a string.

This function uses the date and time formats for the locale as a hint to determine the order in which the time fields appear in the string.

Parameters **string** – The string containing the date and time.

Returns The parsed datetime object.

parse_decimal (*string*)

Parses localized decimal string into a float. Example:

```
>>> parse_decimal('1,099.98', locale='en_US')
1099.98
>>> parse_decimal('1.099,98', locale='de')
1099.98
```

When the given string cannot be parsed, an exception is raised:

```
>>> parse_decimal('2,109,998', locale='de')
Traceback (most recent call last):
...
NumberFormatError: '2,109,998' is not a valid decimal number
```

Parameters *string* – The string to parse.

Returns The parsed decimal number.

Raises `NumberFormatError` if the string can not be converted to a decimal number.

parse_number (*string*)

Parses localized number string into a long integer. Example:

```
>>> parse_number('1,099', locale='en_US')
1099L
>>> parse_number('1.099', locale='de_DE')
1099L
```

When the given string cannot be parsed, an exception is raised:

```
>>> parse_number('1.099,98', locale='de')
Traceback (most recent call last):
...
NumberFormatError: '1.099,98' is not a valid number
```

Parameters *string* – The string to parse.

Returns The parsed number.

Raises `NumberFormatError` if the string can not be converted to a number.

parse_time (*string*)

Parses a time from a string.

This function uses the time format for the locale as a hint to determine the order in which the time fields appear in the string. Example:

```
>>> parse_time('15:30:00', locale='en_US')
datetime.time(15, 30)
```

Parameters *string* – The string containing the time.

Returns The parsed time object.

set_locale (*locale*)

Sets the locale code for this request.

Parameters *locale* – A locale code.

set_timezone (*timezone*)

Sets the timezone code for this request.

Parameters *timezone* – A timezone code.

store = None

A reference to *I18nStore*.

timezone = None

The current timezone code.

to_local_timezone (*datetime*)

Returns a datetime object converted to the local timezone.

Parameters *datetime* – A datetime object.

Returns A datetime object normalized to a timezone.

to_utc (*datetime*)

Returns a datetime object converted to UTC and without tzinfo.

Parameters *datetime* – A datetime object.

Returns A naive datetime object (no timezone), converted to UTC.

translations = None

The current translations.

tzinfo = None

The current tzinfo object.

`webapp2_extras.i18n.get_store` (*factory*=<class *'webapp2_extras.i18n.I18nStore'*>, *key*=*'webapp2_extras.i18n.I18nStore'*, *app*=None)

Returns an instance of *I18nStore* from the app registry.

It'll try to get it from the current app registry, and if it is not registered it'll be instantiated and registered. A second call to this function will return the same instance.

Parameters

- **factory** – The callable used to build and register the instance if it is not yet registered. The default is the class *I18nStore* itself.
- **key** – The key used to store the instance in the registry. A default is used if it is not set.
- **app** – A *webapp2.WSGIApplication* instance used to store the instance. The active app is used if it is not set.

`webapp2_extras.i18n.set_store` (*store*, *key*=*'webapp2_extras.i18n.I18nStore'*, *app*=None)

Sets an instance of *I18nStore* in the app registry.

Parameters

- **store** – An instance of *I18nStore*.
- **key** – The key used to retrieve the instance from the registry. A default is used if it is not set.
- **request** – A *webapp2.WSGIApplication* instance used to retrieve the instance. The active app is used if it is not set.

`webapp2_extras.i18n.get_i18n` (*factory*=<class *'webapp2_extras.i18n.I18n'*>, *key*=*'webapp2_extras.i18n.I18n'*, *request*=None)

Returns an instance of *I18n* from the request registry.

It'll try to get it from the current request registry, and if it is not registered it'll be instantiated and registered. A second call to this function will return the same instance.

Parameters

- **factory** – The callable used to build and register the instance if it is not yet registered. The default is the class `I18n` itself.
- **key** – The key used to store the instance in the registry. A default is used if it is not set.
- **request** – A `webapp2.Request` instance used to store the instance. The active request is used if it is not set.

`webapp2_extras.i18n.set_i18n(i18n, key='webapp2_extras.i18n.I18n', request=None)`

Sets an instance of `I18n` in the request registry.

Parameters

- **store** – An instance of `I18n`.
- **key** – The key used to retrieve the instance from the registry. A default is used if it is not set.
- **request** – A `webapp2.Request` instance used to retrieve the instance. The active request is used if it is not set.

`webapp2_extras.i18n.lazy_gettext(string, **variables)`

A lazy version of `gettext()`.

Parameters

- **string** – The string to be translated.
- **variables** – Variables to format the returned string.

Returns A `babel.support.LazyProxy` object that when accessed translates the string.

`webapp2_extras.i18n.gettext(string, **variables)`

See `I18n.gettext()`.

`webapp2_extras.i18n.ngettext(singular, plural, n, **variables)`

See `I18n.ngettext()`.

`webapp2_extras.i18n.to_local_timezone(datetime)`

See `I18n.to_local_timezone()`.

`webapp2_extras.i18n.to_utc(datetime)`

See `I18n.to_utc()`.

`webapp2_extras.i18n.format_date(date=None, format=None, rebase=True)`

See `I18n.format_date()`.

`webapp2_extras.i18n.format_datetime(datetime=None, format=None, rebase=True)`

See `I18n.format_datetime()`.

`webapp2_extras.i18n.format_time(time=None, format=None, rebase=True)`

See `I18n.format_time()`.

`webapp2_extras.i18n.format_timedelta(datetime_or_timedelta, granularity='second', threshold=0.85)`

See `I18n.format_timedelta()`.

`webapp2_extras.i18n.format_number(number)`

See `I18n.format_number()`.


```
webapp2_extras.i18n.format_decimal (number, format=None)
    See I18n.format_decimal().

webapp2_extras.i18n.format_currency (number, currency, format=None)
    See I18n.format_currency().

webapp2_extras.i18n.format_percent (number, format=None)
    See I18n.format_percent().

webapp2_extras.i18n.format_scientific (number, format=None)
    See I18n.format_scientific().

webapp2_extras.i18n.parse_date (string)
    See I18n.parse_date().

webapp2_extras.i18n.parse_datetime (string)
    See I18n.parse_datetime().

webapp2_extras.i18n.parse_time (string)
    See I18n.parse_time().

webapp2_extras.i18n.parse_number (string)
    See I18n.parse_number().

webapp2_extras.i18n.parse_decimal (string)
    See I18n.parse_decimal().

webapp2_extras.i18n.get_timezone_location (dt_or_tzinfo)
    See I18n.get_timezone_location().
```

Jinja2

This module provides Jinja2 template support for webapp2.

To use it, you must add the `jinja2` package to your application directory (for App Engine) or install it in your virtual environment (for other servers).

You can download `jinja2` from PyPi:

<http://pypi.python.org/pypi/Jinja2>

Learn more about Jinja2:

<http://jinja.pocoo.org/>

```
webapp2_extras.jinja2.default_config = {'template_path': 'templates', 'force_compiled': False, 'globals': None, 'fi
```

Default configuration values for this module. Keys are:

template_path Directory for templates. Default is *templates*.

compiled_path Target for compiled templates. If set, uses the loader for compiled templates in production. If it ends with a `'zip'` it will be treated as a zip file. Default is `None`.

force_compiled Forces the use of compiled templates even in the development server.

environment_args Keyword arguments used to instantiate the Jinja2 environment. By default autoescaping is enabled and two extensions are set: `jinja2.ext.autoescape` and `jinja2.ext.with_`. For production it may be a good idea to set `'auto_reload'` to `False` – we don't need to check if templates changed after deployed.

globals Extra global variables for the Jinja2 environment.

filters Extra filters for the Jinja2 environment.

class webapp2_extras.jinja2.**Jinja2**(app, config=None)
Wrapper for configurable and cached Jinja2 environment.

To used it, set it as a cached property in a base *RequestHandler*:

```
import webapp2

from webapp2_extras import jinja2

class BaseHandler(webapp2.RequestHandler):

    @webapp2.cached_property
    def jinja2(self):
        # Returns a Jinja2 renderer cached in the app registry.
        return jinja2.get_jinja2(app=self.app)

    def render_response(self, _template, **context):
        # Renders a template and writes the result to the response.
        rv = self.jinja2.render_template(_template, **context)
        self.response.write(rv)
```

Then extended handlers can render templates directly:

```
class MyHandler(BaseHandler):
    def get(self):
        context = {'message': 'Hello, world!'}
        self.render_response('my_template.html', **context)
```

__init__(app, config=None)
Initializes the Jinja2 object.

Parameters

- **app** – A *webapp2.WSGIApplication* instance.
- **config** – A dictionary of configuration values to be overridden. See the available keys in *default_config*.

get_template_attribute(filename, attribute)

Loads a macro (or variable) a template exports. This can be used to invoke a macro from within Python code. If you for example have a template named *_foo.html* with the following contents:

```
{% macro hello(name) %}Hello {{ name }}!{% endmacro %}
```

You can access this from Python code like this:

```
hello = get_template_attribute('_foo.html', 'hello')
return hello('World')
```

This function comes from *Flask*.

Parameters

- **filename** – The template filename.
- **attribute** – The name of the variable of macro to access.

render_template(_filename, **context)

Renders a template and returns a response object.

Parameters

- **_filename** – The template filename, related to the templates directory.
- **context** – Keyword arguments used as variables in the rendered template. These will override values set in the request context.

Returns A rendered template.

```
webapp2_extras.jinja2.get_jinja2(factory=<class 'webapp2_extras.jinja2.Jinja2'>,
                                key='webapp2_extras.jinja2.Jinja2', app=None)
```

Returns an instance of *Jinja2* from the app registry.

It'll try to get it from the current app registry, and if it is not registered it'll be instantiated and registered. A second call to this function will return the same instance.

Parameters

- **factory** – The callable used to build and register the instance if it is not yet registered. The default is the class *Jinja2* itself.
- **key** – The key used to store the instance in the registry. A default is used if it is not set.
- **app** – A *webapp2.WSGIApplication* instance used to store the instance. The active app is used if it is not set.

```
webapp2_extras.jinja2.set_jinja2(jinja2, key='webapp2_extras.jinja2.Jinja2', app=None)
```

Sets an instance of *Jinja2* in the app registry.

Parameters

- **store** – An instance of *Jinja2*.
- **key** – The key used to retrieve the instance from the registry. A default is used if it is not set.
- **request** – A *webapp2.WSGIApplication* instance used to retrieve the instance. The active app is used if it is not set.

JSON

This is a wrapper for the *json* module: it will use *simplejson* if available, or the *json* module from Python ≥ 2.6 if available, and as a last resource the *django.utils.simplejson* module on App Engine.

It will also escape forward slashes and, by default, output the serialized JSON in a compact format, eliminating white spaces.

Some convenience functions are also available to encode and decode to and from base64 and to quote or unquote the values.

```
webapp2_extras.json.encode(value, *args, **kwargs)
```

Serializes a value to JSON.

This comes from *Tornado*.

Parameters

- **value** – A value to be serialized.
- **args** – Extra arguments to be passed to *json.dumps()*.
- **kwargs** – Extra keyword arguments to be passed to *json.dumps()*.

Returns The serialized value.

`webapp2_extras.json.decode` (*value*, **args*, ***kwargs*)
Deserializes a value from JSON.

This comes from [Tornado](#).

Parameters

- **value** – A value to be deserialized.
- **args** – Extra arguments to be passed to `json.loads()`.
- **kwargs** – Extra keyword arguments to be passed to `json.loads()`.

Returns The deserialized value.

`webapp2_extras.json.b64encode` (*value*, **args*, ***kwargs*)
Serializes a value to JSON and encodes it using base64.

Parameters and return value are the same from `encode()`.

`webapp2_extras.json.b64decode` (*value*, **args*, ***kwargs*)
Decodes a value using base64 and deserializes it from JSON.

Parameters and return value are the same from `decode()`.

`webapp2_extras.json.quote` (*value*, **args*, ***kwargs*)
Serializes a value to JSON and encodes it using `urllib.quote` or `urllib.parse.quote(PY3)`.

Parameters and return value are the same from `encode()`.

`webapp2_extras.json.unquote` (*value*, **args*, ***kwargs*)
Decodes a value using `urllib.unquote` or `urllib.parse.unquote(PY3)` and deserializes it from JSON.

Parameters and return value are the same from `decode()`.

Local

This module implements thread-local utilities.

class `webapp2_extras.local.Local`
A container for thread-local objects.

Attributes are assigned or retrieved using the current thread.

class `webapp2_extras.local.LocalProxy` (*local*, *name=None*)
Acts as a proxy for a local object.

Forwards all operations to a proxied object. The only operations not supported for forwarding are right handed operands and any kind of assignment.

Example usage:

```
from webapp2_extras import Local
l = Local()

# these are proxies
request = l('request')
user = l('user')
```

Whenever something is bound to `l.user` or `l.request` the proxy objects will forward all operations. If no object is bound a `RuntimeError` will be raised.

To create proxies to *Local* object, call the object as shown above. If you want to have a proxy to an object looked up by a function, you can pass a function to the *LocalProxy* constructor:

```
route_kwargs = LocalProxy(lambda: webapp2.get_request().route_kwargs)
```

Mako

This module provides *Mako* template support for webapp2.

To use it, you must add the *mako* package to your application directory (for App Engine) or install it in your virtual environment (for other servers).

You can download *mako* from PyPi:

<http://pypi.python.org/pypi/Mako>

Learn more about Mako:

<http://www.makotemplates.org/>

`webapp2_extras.mako.default_config = {'template_path': 'templates'}`

Default configuration values for this module. Keys are:

template_path Directory for templates. Default is *templates*.

class `webapp2_extras.mako.Mako (app, config=None)`

Wrapper for configurable and cached Mako environment.

To used it, set it as a cached property in a base *RequestHandler*:

```
import webapp2

from webapp2_extras import mako

class BaseHandler(webapp2.RequestHandler):

    @webapp2.cached_property
    def mako(self):
        # Returns a Mako renderer cached in the app registry.
        return mako.get_mako(app=self.app)

    def render_response(self, _template, **context):
        # Renders a template and writes the result to the response.
        rv = self.mako.render_template(_template, **context)
        self.response.write(rv)
```

Then extended handlers can render templates directly:

```
class MyHandler(BaseHandler):
    def get(self):
        context = {'message': 'Hello, world!'}
        self.render_response('my_template.html', **context)
```

render_template (*_filename*, ***context*)

Renders a template and returns a response object.

Parameters

- **_filename** – The template filename, related to the templates directory.

- **context** – Keyword arguments used as variables in the rendered template. These will override values set in the request context.

Returns A rendered template.

```
webapp2_extras.mako.get_mako(factory=<class 'webapp2_extras.mako.Mako'>,
                             key='webapp2_extras.mako.Mako', app=None)
```

Returns an instance of *Mako* from the app registry.

It'll try to get it from the current app registry, and if it is not registered it'll be instantiated and registered. A second call to this function will return the same instance.

Parameters

- **factory** – The callable used to build and register the instance if it is not yet registered. The default is the class *Mako* itself.
- **key** – The key used to store the instance in the registry. A default is used if it is not set.
- **app** – A *webapp2.WSGIApplication* instance used to store the instance. The active app is used if it is not set.

```
webapp2_extras.mako.set_mako(mako, key='webapp2_extras.mako.Mako', app=None)
```

Sets an instance of *Mako* in the app registry.

Parameters

- **store** – An instance of *Mako*.
- **key** – The key used to retrieve the instance from the registry. A default is used if it is not set.
- **request** – A *webapp2.WSGIApplication* instance used to retrieve the instance. The active app is used if it is not set.

Extra routes

This module provides several extra route classes for convenience: domain and subdomain routing, prefixed routes or routes for automatic redirection.

class `webapp2_extras.routes.DomainRoute` (*template, routes*)

A route used to restrict route matches to a given domain or subdomain.

For example, to restrict routes to a subdomain of the appspot domain:

```
app = WSGIApplication([
    DomainRoute('<subdomain>.app-id.appspot.com', [
        Route('/foo', 'FooHandler', 'subdomain-thing'),
    ]),
    Route('/bar', 'BarHandler', 'normal-thing'),
])
```

The template follows the same syntax used by *webapp2.Route* and must define named groups if any value must be added to the match results. In the example above, an extra *subdomain* keyword is passed to the handler, but if the regex didn't define any named groups, nothing would be added.

__init__ (*template, routes*)

Initializes a URL route.

Parameters

- **template** – A route template to match against `environ['SERVER_NAME']`. See a syntax description in `webapp2.Route.__init__()`.
- **routes** – A list of `webapp2.Route` instances.

```
class webapp2_extras.routes.RedirectRoute(template, handler=None, name=None,
                                         defaults=None, build_only=False, handler_method=None, methods=None,
                                         schemes=None, redirect_to=None, redirect_to_name=None, strict_slash=False)
```

A convenience route class for easy redirects.

It adds `redirect_to`, `redirect_to_name` and `strict_slash` options to `webapp2.Route`.

```
__init__(template, handler=None, name=None, defaults=None, build_only=False, handler_method=None, methods=None, schemes=None, redirect_to=None, redirect_to_name=None, strict_slash=False)
```

Initializes a URL route. Extra arguments compared to `webapp2.Route.__init__()`:

Parameters

- **redirect_to** – A URL string or a callable that returns a URL. If set, this route is used to redirect to it. The callable is called passing (`handler`, `*args`, `**kwargs`) as arguments. This is a convenience to use `RedirectHandler`. These two are equivalent:

```
route = Route('/foo', handler=webapp2.RedirectHandler,
              defaults={'_uri': '/bar'})
route = Route('/foo', redirect_to='/bar')
```

- **redirect_to_name** – Same as `redirect_to`, but the value is the name of a route to redirect to. In the example below, accessing `/hello-again` will redirect to the route named `'hello'`:

```
route = Route('/hello', handler=HelloHandler, name='hello')
route = Route('/hello-again', redirect_to_name='hello')
```

- **strict_slash** – If `True`, redirects access to the same URL with different trailing slash to the strict path defined in the route. For example, take these routes:

```
route = Route('/foo', FooHandler, strict_slash=True)
route = Route('/bar/', BarHandler, strict_slash=True)
```

Because **strict_slash** is `True`, this is what will happen:

- Access to `/foo` will execute `FooHandler` normally.
- Access to `/bar/` will execute `BarHandler` normally.
- Access to `/foo/` will redirect to `/foo`.
- Access to `/bar` will redirect to `/bar/`.

```
class webapp2_extras.routes.PathPrefixRoute(prefix, routes)
```

Same as `NamePrefixRoute`, but prefixes the route path.

For example, imagine we have these routes:

```
app = WSGIApplication([
    Route('/users/<user:\w+>', UserOverviewHandler,
          'user-overview'),
    Route('/users/<user:\w+>/profile', UserProfileHandler,
          'user-profile'),
```

```
Route('/users/<user:\w+>/projects', UserProjectsHandler,
      'user-projects'),
])
```

We could refactor them to reuse the common path prefix:

```
app = WSGIApplication([
    PathPrefixRoute('/users/<user:\w+>', [
        Route('/', UserOverviewHandler, 'user-overview'),
        Route('/profile', UserProfileHandler, 'user-profile'),
        Route('/projects', UserProjectsHandler, 'user-projects'),
    ]),
])
```

This is not only convenient, but also performs better: the nested routes will only be tested if the path prefix matches.

__init__(*prefix, routes*)
Initializes a URL route.

Parameters

- **prefix** – The prefix to be prepended. It must start with a slash but not end with a slash.
- **routes** – A list of *webapp2.Route* instances.

class webapp2_extras.routes.**NamePrefixRoute**(*prefix, routes*)
The idea of this route is to set a base name for other routes:

```
app = WSGIApplication([
    NamePrefixRoute('user-', [
        Route('/users/<user:\w+>/', UserOverviewHandler, 'overview'),
        Route('/users/<user:\w+>/profile', UserProfileHandler,
              'profile'),
        Route('/users/<user:\w+>/projects', UserProjectsHandler,
              'projects'),
    ]),
])
```

The example above is the same as setting the following routes, just more convenient as you can reuse the name prefix:

```
app = WSGIApplication([
    Route('/users/<user:\w+>/', UserOverviewHandler, 'user-overview'),
    Route('/users/<user:\w+>/profile', UserProfileHandler,
          'user-profile'),
    Route('/users/<user:\w+>/projects', UserProjectsHandler,
          'user-projects'),
])
```

__init__(*prefix, routes*)
Initializes a URL route.

Parameters

- **prefix** – The prefix to be prepended.
- **routes** – A list of *webapp2.Route* instances.

class webapp2_extras.routes.**HandlerPrefixRoute**(*prefix, routes*)
Same as *NamePrefixRoute*, but prefixes the route handler.

`__init__(prefix, routes)`
Initializes a URL route.

Parameters

- **prefix** – The prefix to be prepended.
- **routes** – A list of `webapp2.Route` instances.

Secure cookies

This module provides a serializer and deserializer for signed cookies.

`class webapp2_extras.securecookie.SecureCookieSerializer(secret_key)`
Serializes and deserializes secure cookie values.

Extracted from [Tornado](#) and modified.

`__init__(secret_key)`
Initiliazes the serializer/deserializer.

Parameters **secret_key** – A random string to be used as the HMAC secret for the cookie signature.

deserialize(name, value, max_age=None)
Deserializes a signed cookie value.

Parameters

- **name** – Cookie name.
- **value** – A cookie value to be deserialized.
- **max_age** – Maximum age in seconds for a valid cookie. If the cookie is older than this, returns None.

Returns The deserialized secure cookie, or None if it is not valid.

serialize(name, value)
Serializes a signed cookie value.

Parameters

- **name** – Cookie name.
- **value** – Cookie value to be serialized.

Returns A serialized value ready to be stored in a cookie.

Security

This module provides security related helpers such as secure password hashing tools and a random string generator.

`webapp2_extras.security.generate_random_string(length=0, entropy=0, pool='abcdefghijklmnopqrstuvwxyzABCDEFGHIJKLMNOPQRSTUVWXYZ0123456789')`

Generates a random string using the given sequence pool.

To generate stronger passwords, use `ASCII_PRINTABLE` as pool.

Entropy is:

$$H = \log_2(N * L)$$

where:

- **H** is the entropy in bits.
- **N** is the possible symbol count
- **L** is length of string of symbols

Entropy chart:

Symbol set	Symbol Count (N)	Entropy per symbol (H)
HEXADECIMAL_DIGITS	16	4.0000 bits
DIGITS	10	3.3219 bits
LOWERCASE_ALPHA	26	4.7004 bits
UPPERCASE_ALPHA	26	4.7004 bits
PUNCTUATION	32	5.0000 bits
LOWERCASE_ALPHANUMERIC	36	5.1699 bits
UPPERCASE_ALPHANUMERIC	36	5.1699 bits
ALPHA	52	5.7004 bits
ALPHANUMERIC	62	5.9542 bits
ASCII_PRINTABLE	94	6.5546 bits
ALL_PRINTABLE	100	6.6438 bits

Parameters

- **length** – The length of the random sequence. Use this or *entropy*, not both.
- **entropy** – Desired entropy in bits. Use this or *length*, not both. Use this to generate passwords based on entropy: http://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Password_strength
- **pool** – A sequence of characters from which random characters are chosen. Default to case-sensitive alpha-numeric characters.

Returns A string with characters randomly chosen from the pool.

`webapp2_extras.security.generate_password_hash(password, method='sha1', length=22, pepper=None)`

Hashes a password.

The format of the string returned includes the method that was used so that `check_password_hash()` can check the hash.

This method can **not** generate unsalted passwords but it is possible to set the method to plain to enforce plaintext passwords. If a salt is used, hmac is used internally to salt the password.

Parameters

- **password** – The password to hash.
- **method** – The hash method to use ('md5' or 'sha1').
- **length** – Length of the salt to be created.
- **pepper** – A secret constant stored in the application code.

Returns

A formatted hashed string that looks like this:

```
method$salt$hash
```

This function was ported and adapted from [Werkzeug](#).

`webapp2_extras.security.check_password_hash(password, pwhash, pepper=None)`

Checks a password against a given salted and hashed password value.

In order to support unsalted legacy passwords this method supports plain text passwords, md5 and sha1 hashes (both salted and unsalted).

Parameters

- **password** – The plaintext password to compare against the hash.
- **pwhash** – A hashed string like returned by `generate_password_hash()`.
- **pepper** – A secret constant stored in the application code.

Returns *True* if the password matched, *False* otherwise.

This function was ported and adapted from [Werkzeug](#).

`webapp2_extras.security.hash_password(password, method, salt=None, pepper=None)`

Hashes a password.

Supports plaintext without salt, unsalted and salted passwords. In case salted passwords are used hmac is used.

Parameters

- **password** – The password to be hashed.
- **method** – A method from `hashlib`, e.g., *sha1* or *md5*, or *plain*.
- **salt** – A random salt string.
- **pepper** – A secret constant stored in the application code.

Returns A hashed password.

This function was ported and adapted from [Werkzeug](#).

`webapp2_extras.security.compare_hashes(a, b)`

Checks if two hash strings are identical.

The intention is to make the running time be less dependant on the size of the string.

Parameters

- **a** – String 1.
- **b** – String 2.

Returns *True* if both strings are equal, *False* otherwise.

Sessions

This module provides a lightweight but flexible session support for webapp2.

It has three built-in backends: secure cookies, memcache and datastore. New backends can be added extending `CustomBackendSessionFactory`.

The session store can provide multiple sessions using different keys, even using different backends in the same request, through the method `SessionStore.get_session()`. By default it returns a session using the default key from configuration.

`webapp2_extras.sessions.default_config = {'cookie_args': {'max_age': None, 'domain': None, 'secure': None, 'htt`

Default configuration values for this module. Keys are:

secret_key Secret key to generate session cookies. Set this to something random and unguessable. This is the only required configuration key: an exception is raised if it is not defined.

cookie_name Name of the cookie to save a session or session id. Default is *session*.

session_max_age: Default session expiration time in seconds. Limits the duration of the contents of a cookie, even if a session cookie exists. If None, the contents lasts as long as the cookie is valid. Default is None.

cookie_args Default keyword arguments used to set a cookie. Keys are:

- **max_age**: Cookie max age in seconds. Limits the duration of a session cookie. If None, the cookie lasts until the client is closed. Default is None.
- **domain**: Domain of the cookie. To work accross subdomains the domain must be set to the main domain with a preceding dot, e.g., cookies set for *.mydomain.org* will work in *foo.mydomain.org* and *bar.mydomain.org*. Default is None, which means that cookies will only work for the current subdomain.
- **path**: Path in which the authentication cookie is valid. Default is */*.
- **secure**: Make the cookie only available via HTTPS.
- **httponly**: Disallow JavaScript to access the cookie.

backends A dictionary of available session backend classes used by *SessionStore.get_session()*.

class webapp2_extras.sessions.**SessionStore**(*request, config=None*)

A session provider for a single request.

The session store can provide multiple sessions using different keys, even using different backends in the same request, through the method *get_session()*. By default it returns a session using the default key.

To use, define a base handler that extends the *dispatch()* method to start the session store and save all sessions at the end of a request:

```
import webapp2

from webapp2_extras import sessions

class BaseHandler(webapp2.RequestHandler):
    def dispatch(self):
        # Get a session store for this request.
        self.session_store = sessions.get_store(request=self.request)

        try:
            # Dispatch the request.
            webapp2.RequestHandler.dispatch(self)
        finally:
            # Save all sessions.
            self.session_store.save_sessions(self.response)

    @webapp2.cached_property
    def session(self):
        # Returns a session using the default cookie key.
        return self.session_store.get_session()
```

Then just use the session as a dictionary inside a handler:

```
# To set a value:
self.session['foo'] = 'bar'
```

```
# To get a value:
foo = self.session.get('foo')
```

A configuration dict can be passed to `__init__()`, or the application must be initialized with the `secret_key` configuration defined. The configuration is a simple dictionary:

```
config = {}
config['webapp2_extras.sessions'] = {
    'secret_key': 'my-super-secret-key',
}

app = webapp2.WSGIApplication([
    ('/', HomeHandler),
], config=config)
```

Other configuration keys are optional.

`__init__(request, config=None)`
Initializes the session store.

Parameters

- **request** – A `webapp2.Request` instance.
- **config** – A dictionary of configuration values to be overridden. See the available keys in `default_config`.

`get_backend(name)`
Returns a configured session backend, importing it if needed.

Parameters **name** – The backend keyword.

Returns A `BaseSessionFactory` subclass.

`get_session(name=None, max_age=<object object>, factory=None, backend='securecookie')`
Returns a session for a given name. If the session doesn't exist, a new session is returned.

Parameters

- **name** – Cookie name. If not provided, uses the `cookie_name` value configured for this module.
- **max_age** – A maximum age in seconds for the session to be valid. Sessions store a timestamp to invalidate them if needed. If `max_age` is `None`, the timestamp won't be checked.
- **factory** – A session factory that creates the session using the preferred backend. For convenience, use the `backend` argument instead, which defines a backend keyword based on the configured ones.
- **backend** – A configured backend keyword. Available ones are:
 - `securecookie`: uses secure cookies. This is the default backend.
 - `datastore`: uses App Engine's datastore.
 - `memcache`: uses App Engine's memcache.

Returns A dictionary-like session object.

`save_sessions(response)`
Saves all sessions in a response object.

Parameters **response** – A `webapp2.Response` object.

class `webapp2_extras.sessions.SessionDict` (*container, data=None, new=False*)

A dictionary for session data.

add_flash (*value, level=None, key='_flash'*)

Adds a flash message. Flash messages are deleted when first read.

Parameters

- **value** – Value to be saved in the flash message.
- **level** – An optional level to set with the message. Default is *None*.
- **key** – Name of the flash key stored in the session. Default is `'_flash'`.

get_flashes (*key='_flash'*)

Returns a flash message. Flash messages are deleted when first read.

Parameters **key** – Name of the flash key stored in the session. Default is `'_flash'`.

Returns The data stored in the flash, or an empty list.

class `webapp2_extras.sessions.SecureCookieSessionFactory` (*name, session_store*)

A session factory that stores data serialized in a signed cookie.

Signed cookies can't be forged because the HMAC signature won't match.

This is the default factory passed as the *factory* keyword to `SessionStore.get_session()`.

Warning: The values stored in a signed cookie will be visible in the cookie, so do not use secure cookie sessions if you need to store data that can't be visible to users. For this, use datastore or memcache sessions.

class `webapp2_extras.sessions.CustomBackendSessionFactory` (*name, session_store*)

Base class for sessions that use custom backends, e.g., memcache.

`webapp2_extras.sessions.get_store` (*factory=<class 'webapp2_extras.sessions.SessionStore'>, key='webapp2_extras.sessions.SessionStore', request=None*)

Returns an instance of `SessionStore` from the request registry.

It'll try to get it from the current request registry, and if it is not registered it'll be instantiated and registered. A second call to this function will return the same instance.

Parameters

- **factory** – The callable used to build and register the instance if it is not yet registered. The default is the class `SessionStore` itself.
- **key** – The key used to store the instance in the registry. A default is used if it is not set.
- **request** – A `webapp2.Request` instance used to store the instance. The active request is used if it is not set.

`webapp2_extras.sessions.set_store` (*store, key='webapp2_extras.sessions.SessionStore', request=None*)

Sets an instance of `SessionStore` in the request registry.

Parameters

- **store** – An instance of `SessionStore`.
- **key** – The key used to retrieve the instance from the registry. A default is used if it is not set.

- **request** – A `webapp2.Request` instance used to retrieve the instance. The active request is used if it is not set.

API Reference - webapp2_extras.appengine

Modules that use App Engine libraries and services are restricted to `webapp2_extras.appengine`.

Memcache sessions

class `webapp2_extras.appengine.sessions_memcache.MemcacheSessionFactory` (*name*,
session_store)

A session factory that stores data serialized in memcache.

To use memcache sessions, pass this class as the *factory* keyword to `webapp2_extras.sessions.SessionStore.get_session()`:

```
from webapp2_extras import sessions_memcache

# [...]

session = self.session_store.get_session(
    name='mc_session',
    factory=sessions_memcache.MemcacheSessionFactory)
```

See in `webapp2_extras.sessions.SessionStore()` an example of how to make sessions available in a `webapp2.RequestHandler`.

Datastore sessions

This module requires you to add the `ndb` package to your app. See [NDB](#).

class `webapp2_extras.appengine.sessions_ndb.DatastoreSessionFactory` (*name*, *session_store*)

A session factory that stores data serialized in datastore.

To use datastore sessions, pass this class as the *factory* keyword to `webapp2_extras.sessions.SessionStore.get_session()`:

```
from webapp2_extras import sessions_ndb

# [...]

session = self.session_store.get_session(
    name='db_session', factory=sessions_ndb.DatastoreSessionFactory)
```

See in `webapp2_extras.sessions.SessionStore()` an example of how to make sessions available in a `webapp2.RequestHandler`.

session_model

The session model class.

User Models

A collection of user related models for [Auth](#).

Warning: This is an experimental module. The API is subject to changes.

```
webapp2_extras.appengine.auth.models.User
    alias of <Mock id='139746820348048'>

webapp2_extras.appengine.auth.models.UserToken
    alias of <Mock id='139746808600336'>

webapp2_extras.appengine.auth.models.Unique
    alias of <Mock id='139746808602000'>
```

Users

`webapp2_extras.appengine.users.login_required(handler_method)`

A decorator to require that a user be logged in to access a handler.

To use it, decorate your `get()` method like this:

```
@login_required
def get(self):
    user = users.get_current_user(self)
    self.response.out.write('Hello, ' + user.nickname())
```

We will redirect to a login page if the user is not logged in. We always redirect to the request URI, and Google Accounts only redirects back as a GET request, so this should not be used for POSTs.

`webapp2_extras.appengine.users.admin_required(handler_method)`

A decorator to require that a user be an admin for this application to access a handler.

To use it, decorate your `get()` method like this:

```
@admin_required
def get(self):
```

```
user = users.get_current_user(self)
self.response.out.write('Hello, ' + user.nickname())
```

We will redirect to a login page if the user is not logged in. We always redirect to the request URI, and Google Accounts only redirects back as a GET request, so this should not be used for POSTs.

webapp2 features

Here's an overview of the main improvements of webapp2 compared to webapp.

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- *Future proof*
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Compatible with webapp

webapp2 is designed to work with existing webapp apps without any changes. See how this looks familiar:

```
import webapp2 as webapp
from google.appengine.ext.webapp.util import run_wsgi_app

class HelloWorldHandler(webapp.RequestHandler):
    def get(self):
        self.response.out.write('Hello, World!')

app = webapp.WSGIApplication([
    ('/', HelloWorldHandler),
], debug=True)

def main():
    run_wsgi_app(app)

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

Everybody starting with App Engine must know a bit of webapp. And you can use webapp2 exactly like webapp, following the official tutorials, and learn the new features later, as you go. This makes webapp2 insanely easy to learn.

Also, the SDK libraries that use webapp can be used with webapp2 as they are or with minimal adaptations.

Compatible with latest WebOb

The WebOb version included in the App Engine SDK was released in 2008. Since then many bugs were fixed and the source code became cleaner and better documented. webapp2 is compatible with the WebOb version included in the SDK, but for those that prefer the latest version can be used as well. This avoids the bugs [#170](#), [#719](#) and [#2788](#), at least.

Full-featured response object

webapp2 uses a full-featured response object from WebOb. It offers several conveniences to set headers, like easy cookies and other goodies:

```
class MyHandler(webapp2.RequestHandler):
    def get(self):
        self.response.set_cookie('key', 'value', max_age=360, path='/')
```

Status code exceptions

`abort()` (or `self.abort()` inside handlers) raises a proper `HTTPException` (from `WebOb`) and stops processing:

```
# Raise a 'Not Found' exception and let the 404 error handler do its job.
abort(404)
# Raise a 'Forbidden' exception and let the 403 error handler do its job.
self.abort(403)
```

Improved exception handling

HTTP exceptions can also be handled by the WSGI application:

```
# ...
import logging

def handle_404(request, response, exception):
    logging.exception(exception)
    response.write('Oops! I could swear this page was here!')
    response.set_status(404)

app = webapp2.WSGIApplication([
    ('/', MyHandler),
])
app.error_handlers[404] = handle_404
```

Lazy handlers

Lazy handlers can be defined as a string to be imported only when needed:

```
app = webapp2.WSGIApplication([
    ('/', 'my.module.MyHandler'),
])
```

Keyword arguments from URI

`RequestHandler` methods can also receive keyword arguments, which are easier to maintain than positional ones. Simply use the `Route` class to define URIs (and you can also create custom route classes, examples [here](#)):

```
class BlogArchiveHandler(webapp2.RequestHandler):
    def get(self, year=None, month=None):
        self.response.write('Hello, keyword arguments world!')

app = webapp2.WSGIApplication([
    webapp2.Route('/<year:\d{4}>/<month:\d{2}>', handler=BlogArchiveHandler, name=
        ↪ 'blog-archive'),
])
```

Positional arguments from URI

Positional arguments are also supported, as URI routing is fully compatible with `webapp2`:

```
class BlogArchiveHandler(webapp2.RequestHandler):
    def get(self, year, month):
        self.response.write('Hello, webapp routing world!')

app = webapp2.WSGIApplication([
    ('/(\d{4})/(\d{2})', BlogArchiveHandler),
])
```

Returned responses

Several Python frameworks adopt the pattern on returning a response object, instead of writing to an existing response object like webapp. For those that prefer, webapp2 supports this: simply return a response object from a handler and it will be used instead of the one created by the application:

```
class BlogArchiveHandler(webapp2.RequestHandler):
    def get(self):
        return webapp2.Response('Hello, returned response world!')

app = webapp2.WSGIApplication([
    webapp2.Route('/', handler=HomeHandler, name='home'),
])
```

Custom handler methods

webapp2 routing and dispatching system can do a lot more than webapp. For example, handlers can also use custom methods:

```
class MyHandler(webapp2.RequestHandler):
    def my_custom_method(self):
        self.response.write('Hello, custom method world!')

    def my_other_method(self):
        self.response.write('Hello, another custom method world!')

app = webapp2.WSGIApplication([
    webapp2.Route('/', handler=MyHandler, name='custom-1', handler_method='my_custom_
↪method'),
    webapp2.Route('/other', handler=MyHandler, name='custom-2', handler_method='my_
↪other_method'),
])
```

View functions

In webapp2 handlers don't need necessarily to be classes. For those that prefer, functions can be used as well:

```
def my_sweet_function(request, *args, **kwargs):
    return webapp2.Response('Hello, function world!')

app = webapp2.WSGIApplication([
    webapp2.Route('/', handler=my_sweet_function, name='home'),
])
```


More flexible dispatching mechanism

The `WSGIApplication` in webapp is hard to modify. It dispatches the handler giving little chance to define how it is done, or to pre-process requests before a handler method is actually called. In webapp2 the handlers dispatch themselves, making it easy to implement before and after dispatch hooks.

webapp2 is thought to be lightweight but flexible. It basically provides an easy to customize URI routing and dispatching mechanisms: you can even extend how URIs are matched or built or how handlers are adapted or dispatched without subclassing.

For an example of webapp2's flexibility, see [A micro-framework based on webapp2](#).

Domain and subdomain routing

webapp2 supports *domain and subdomain routing* to restrict URI matches based on the server name:

```
routes.DomainRoute('www.mydomain.com', [
    webapp2.Route('/', handler=HomeHandler, name='home'),
])
```

Match HTTP methods or URI schemes

webapp2 routing system allows routes to be restricted to the *HTTP method* or a specific *URI scheme*. You can set routes that will only match requests using 'https', for example.

URI builder

URIs defined in the application can be built. This is more maintainable than hardcoding them in the code or templates. Simply use the `uri_for()` function:

```
uri = uri_for('blog-archive', year='2010', month='07')
```

And a handler helper for redirects builds the URI to redirect to. `redirect_to = redirect + uri_for`:

```
self.redirect_to('blog-archive', year='2010', month='07')
```

Redirection for legacy URIs

Old URIs can be conveniently redirected using a simple route:

```
def get_redirect_uri(handler, *args, **kwargs):
    return handler.uri_for('view', item=kwargs.get('item'))

app = webapp2.WSGIApplication([
    webapp2.Route('/view/<item>', ViewHandler, 'view'),
    webapp2.Route('/old-page', RedirectHandler, defaults={'uri': '/view/i-came-from-a-
↳ redirect'}),
    webapp2.Route('/old-view/<item>', RedirectHandler, defaults={'uri': get_redirect_
↳ uri}),
])
```

Simple, well-tested and documented

webapp2 is *simple*, extensively documented and has almost 100% test coverage. The source code is explicit, magic-free and made to be extended. We like less.

Independent of the App Engine SDK

webapp2 doesn't depend on the Google App Engine SDK and *can be used outside of App Engine*. If the SDK is not found, it has fallbacks to be used in any server as a general purpose web framework.

Future proof

Because it works on threaded environments, webapp2 is ready for when App Engine introduces threading support in the Python 2.7 runtime.

Same performance

Best of all is that with all these features, there is no loss of performance: cold start times are the same as webapp. Here are some logs of a 'Hello World' cold start:

```
100ms 77cpu_ms
143ms 58cpu_ms
155ms 77cpu_ms
197ms 96cpu_ms
106ms 77cpu_ms
```

Extras

The `webapp2_extras` package provides common utilities that integrate well with webapp2:

- Localization and internationalization support
- Sessions using secure cookies, memcache or datastore
- Extra route classes – to match subdomains and other conveniences
- Support for third party libraries: Jinja2 and Mako
- Support for threaded environments, so that you can use webapp2 outside of App Engine or in the upcoming App Engine Python 2.7 runtime

- [genindex](#)
- [modindex](#)
- [search](#)

API

Configuration

This page moved to [api.webapp2_extras.config](#).

i18n

This page moved to [i18n](#).

Jinja2

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JSON

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Local

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Local App

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Mako

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Extra routes

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Secure cookies

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Security

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Users

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Authentication with webapp2

Login with forms

Login with sessions

Login with tokens

Custom User model

`webapp2_extras.appengine.auth.models` provides a default `User` model to be used on App Engine, but it can be replaced by any custom model that implements the required interface. This means that `webapp2_extras.auth` can be used with any model you wish – even non-App Engine models which use, let's say, SQLAlchemy or other abstraction layers.

The required interface that a custom user model must implement consists of only five methods:

```
class User(object):

    def get_id(self):
        """Returns this user's unique ID, which can be an integer or string."""

    @classmethod
    def get_by_auth_token(cls, user_id, token):
        """Returns a user object based on a user ID and token.

        :param user_id:
            The user_id of the requesting user.
        :param token:
            The token string to be verified.
        :returns:
            A tuple ``(User, timestamp)``, with a user object and
            the token timestamp, or ``(None, None)`` if both were not found.
        """

    @classmethod
    def get_by_auth_password(cls, auth_id, password):
        """Returns a user object, validating password.

        :param auth_id:
            Authentication id.
        :param password:
            Password to be checked.
        :returns:
            A user object, if found and password matches.
        :raises:
            ``auth.InvalidAuthIdError`` or ``auth.InvalidPasswordError``.
        """

    @classmethod
    def create_auth_token(cls, user_id):
```

```
        """Creates a new authorization token for a given user ID.

        :param user_id:
            User unique ID.
        :returns:
            A string with the authorization token.
        """

    @classmethod
    def delete_auth_token(cls, user_id, token):
        """Deletes a given authorization token.

        :param user_id:
            User unique ID.
        :param token:
            A string with the authorization token.
        """
```

Additionally, all values configured for `user_attributes`, if any, must be provided by the user object as attributes. These values are stored in the session, providing a nice way to cache commonly used user information.

Installing packages

To use webapp2 outside of App Engine, you need a package manager to install dependencies in your system – mostly WebOb, and maybe libraries required by the various webapp2_extras modules, if you will use them.

For App Engine, some webapp2_extras modules may require that you install external packages to access specific command line tools (i18n, for example, uses pybabel to extract and compile translation catalogs).

In this tutorial we'll show how to install a package manager and installer.

Install a distutils library

If you don't have a distutils library (`distribute` or `setuptools`) installed on your system yet, you need to install one. Distribute is recommended, but setuptools will serve as well.

Distribute is “the standard method for working with Python module distributions”. It will manage our package dependencies and upgrades. If you already have one of them, jump to next step. If not, the installation is straightforward:

1. Download the installer and save it anywhere. It is a single file:

http://python-distribute.org/distribute_setup.py

2. Execute it from the command line (this will require `sudo` if you are using Linux or a Mac):

```
$ python distribute_setup.py
```

If you don't see any error messages, yay, it installed successfully. Let's move forward. For Windows, check the `distribute` or `setuptools` documentation.

Install a package installer

We need a package installer (`pip` or `easy_install`) to install and update Python packages. Any will work, but if you don't have one yet, `pip` is recommended. Here's how to install it:

1. Download `pip` from PyPi:

<http://pypi.python.org/pypi/pip>

2. Unpack it and access the unpacked directory using the command line. Then run `setup.py install` on that directory (this will require `sudo` if you are using Linux or a Mac):

```
$ python setup.py install
```

That's it. If you don't see any error messages, the `pip` command should now be available in your system. (work in progress)

Single sign on with webapp2 and the Google Apps Marketplace

Installing virtualenv

`virtualenv`, sets a “virtual environment” that allows you to run different projects with separate libraries side by side. This is a good idea both for development and production, as it'll assure that each project uses their own library versions and don't affect each other.

Note: For App Engine development, `virtualenv` is not necessary. The SDK provides a “sandboxed environment” that serves almost the same purposes.

If you don't have a package installer in your system yet (like `pip` or `easy_install`), install one. See [Installing packages](#).

Then follow these steps to install `virtualenv`:

1. To install it on a Linux or Mac systems, type in the command line:

```
$ sudo pip install virtualenv
```

Or, using `easy_install`:

```
$ sudo easy_install virtualenv
```

2. Then create a directory for your app, access it and setup a virtual environment using the following command:

```
$ virtualenv env
```

3. Activate the environment. On Linux or Mac, use:

```
$ . env/bin/activate
```

Or on a Windows system:

```
$ env\scripts\activate
```

TODO: documentation

Miscellaneous notes about things to be documented.

Unordered list of topics to be documented

- routing
 - common regular expressions examples
- sessions
 - basic usage & configuration
 - using multiple sessions in the same request
 - using different backends
 - using flashes
 - updating session arguments (max_age etc)
 - purging db sessions
- i18n (increment existing tutorial)
 - basic usage & configuration
 - loading locale/timezone automatically for each request
 - formatting date/time/datetime
 - formatting currency
 - using i18n in templates
- jinja2 & mako
 - basic usage & configuration
 - setting global filters and variables (using config or factory)
- auth
 - basic usage & configuration
 - setting up ‘own auth’
 - making user available automatically on each request
 - purging tokens
- config
 - configuration conventions (“namespaced” configuration for webapp2_extras modules)
- tricks
 - configuration in a separate file
 - routes in a separate file
 - reduce verbosity when defining routes (R = webapp2.Route)

Common errors

- “TypeError: ‘unicode’ object is not callable”: one possible reason is that the `RequestHandler` returned a string. If the handler returns anything, it **must** be a `webapp2.Response` object. Or it must not return anything and write to the response instead using `self.response.write()`.

Secret keys

Add a note about how to generate strong session secret keys:

```
$ openssl genrsa -out ${PWD}/private_rsa_key.pem 2048
```

Jinja2 factory

To create Jinja2 with custom filters and global variables:

```
from webapp2_extras import jinja2

def jinja2_factory(app):
    j = jinja2.Jinja2(app)
    j.environment.filters.update({
        'my_filter': my_filter,
    })
    j.environment.globals.update({
        'my_global': my_global,
    })
    return j

# When you need jinja, get it passing the factory.
j = jinja2.get_jinja2(factory=jinja2_factory)
```

Debugging Jinja2

<http://stackoverflow.com/questions/3086091/debug-jinja2-in-google-app-engine/3694434#3694434>

Configuration notes

Notice that configuration is set primarily in the application. See:

<http://webapp-improved.appspot.com/guide/app.html#config>

By convention, modules that are configurable in webapp2 use the module name as key, to avoid name clashes. Their configuration is then set in a nested dict. So, e.g., `i18n`, `jinja2` and `sessions` are configured like this:

```
config = {}
config['webapp2_extras.i18n'] = {
    'default_locale': ...,
}
config['webapp2_extras.jinja2'] = {
    'template_path': ...,
}
config['webapp2_extras.sessions'] = {
    'secret_key': ...,
}
app = webapp2.WSGIApplication(..., config=config)
```

You only need to set the configuration keys that differ from the default ones. For convenience, configurable modules have a `'default_config'` variable just for the purpose of documenting the default values, e.g.:

http://webapp-improved.appspot.com/api/extras.i18n.html#webapp2_extras.i18n.default_config

Cookies, quoting & unicode

<http://groups.google.com/group/webapp2/msg/985092351378c43e> <http://stackoverflow.com/questions/6839922/unicodedecodeerror-is-raised-when-getting-a-cookie-in-google-app-engine>

Marketplace integration

```
<?xml version="1.0" encoding="UTF-8" ?>
<ApplicationManifest xmlns="http://schemas.google.com/ApplicationManifest/2009">
  <!-- Name and description pulled from message bundles -->
  <Name>Tipfy</Name>
  <Description>A simple application for testing the marketplace.</Description>

  <!-- Support info to show in the marketplace & control panel -->
  <Support>
    <!-- URL for application setup as an optional redirect during the install -->
    <Link rel="setup" href="https://app-id.appspot.com/a/${DOMAIN_NAME}/setup" />

    <!-- URL for application configuration, accessed from the app settings page in_
    ↳the control panel -->
    <Link rel="manage" href="https://app-id.appspot.com/a/${DOMAIN_NAME}/manage" />

    <!-- URL explaining how customers get support. -->
    <Link rel="support" href="https://app-id.appspot.com/a/${DOMAIN_NAME}/support" />

    <!-- URL that is displayed to admins during the deletion process, to specify_
    ↳policies such as data retention, how to claim accounts, etc. -->
    <Link rel="deletion-policy" href="https://app-id.appspot.com/a/${DOMAIN_NAME}/
    ↳deletion-policy" />
  </Support>

  <!-- Show this link in Google's universal navigation for all users -->
  <Extension id="navLink" type="link">
    <Name>Tipfy</Name>
    <Url>https://app-id.appspot.com/a/${DOMAIN_NAME}</Url>
    <!-- This app also uses the Calendar API -->
    <Scope ref="Users"/>
    <!--
    <Scope ref="Groups"/>
    <Scope ref="Nicknames"/>
    -->
  </Extension>

  <!-- Declare our OpenID realm so our app is white listed -->
  <Extension id="realm" type="openIdRealm">
    <Url>https://app-id.appspot.com</Url>
  </Extension>

  <!-- Special access to APIs -->
  <Scope id="Users">
    <Url>https://apps-apis.google.com/a/feeds/user/#readonly</Url>
    <Reason>Users can be selected to gain special permissions to access or modify_
    ↳content.</Reason>
  </Scope>
  <!--
  <Scope id="Groups">
    <Url>https://apps-apis.google.com/a/feeds/group/#readonly</Url>
  </Scope>
  <!--
```

```
    <Reason></Reason>
  </Scope>
  <Scope id="Nicknames">
    <Url>https://apps-apis.google.com/a/feeds/nickname/#readonly</Url>
    <Reason></Reason>
  </Scope>
-->
</ApplicationManifest>
```


CHAPTER 10

Requirements

webapp2 is compatible with Python 2.5 and superior. No Python 3 yet.

[WebOb](#) is the only library required for the core functionality.

Modules from webapp2_extras may require additional libraries, as indicated in their docs.

CHAPTER 11

Credits

webapp2 is a superset of [webapp](#), created by the App Engine team.

Because webapp2 is intended to be compatible with webapp, the official webapp documentation is valid for webapp2 too. Parts of this documentation were ported from the [App Engine documentation](#), written by the App Engine team and licensed under the Creative Commons Attribution 3.0 License.

webapp2 has code ported from [Werkzeug](#) and [Tipfy](#).

webapp2_extras has code ported from Werkzeug, Tipfy and [Tornado Web Server](#).

The [Sphinx](#) theme mimics the App Engine documentation.

CHAPTER 12

Contribute

webapp2 is considered stable, feature complete and well tested, but if you think something is missing or is not working well, please describe it in our issue tracker:

<https://github.com/GoogleCloudPlatform/webapp2/issues>

Let us know if you found a bug or if something can be improved. New tutorials and webapp2_extras modules are also welcome, and tests or documentation are never too much.

Thanks!

CHAPTER 13

License

webapp2 is licensed under the [Apache License 2.0](#).

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