

Advanced Python

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- Supercomputing Wales
 - Available to researchers at Bangor
- Research Software Engineers
- Collate expert knowledge into an open and shared centralised repository
 - Yammer
 - Github
 - Workshops
 - Projects
 - Acknowledgements

Training Workshops

- Introduction to the Linux Shell
- Version Control Using Git
- Programming Principles and Practice using Python
- **Advanced Python**
- Parallel Processing in Python
- Machine Learning with Python*

See and discuss on the Yammer group.

Suggestions for new training welcome.

Environment

Cross Platform

- Google Colaboratory
- Online Python compiler, Online Python IDE, and online Python REPL
- [python.org shell](https://python.org/shell)

Python3 at Bangor - Recommend

- Visit <https://jupyter.bangor.ac.uk/jupyter/hub/login>
- Login using your Bangor University credentials.
- Select the `Python 3.8` notebook.

Formatted strings

% Operator

```
name='Aaron'  
print('Hello %s %d' % (name, 32))
```

str.format

```
print('Hello {n} {a}'.format(  
    n=name,  
    a=32  
))
```

F Strings (Python 3.6+)

```
name='Aaron'  
age=32  
print(f'Hello {name} {age}')
```

```
a=5  
b=10  
print(f'{2*(a+b)}')
```

Multiple Function Arguments

- Every function in Python receives a predefined number of arguments if declared normally, like this:

```
def test_function(first, second, third):  
    print(first, second, third)  
  
test_function('a', 'b', 'c')  
  
> a b c
```

Multiple Function Arguments

- It is possible to declare functions which receive a variable number of arguments, using the following syntax:

```
def foo(first, second, third, *the_rest):  
    print(f'First: {first}, Second: {second}, Third: {third}')
```

```
    print(f'And all the rest as a tuple ... {the_rest}')
```

```
    print(f'And all the rest as a list ... {list(the_rest)}')
```

```
foo('a', 'b', 'c', 'd', 'e')
```

```
> First: a,Second: b, Third: c
```

```
> And all the rest as a tuple ... ('d', 'e')
```

```
> And all the rest as a list ... ['d', 'e']
```

- The `the_rest` variable is a list of variables, which receives all arguments which were given to the `foo` function after the first 3 arguments.

Multiple Function Arguments

```
def foo(a, b, c, *args):  
    print(args)
```

```
foo(1,2,3,4,5,6)
```

```
> (4,5,6)
```

```
def bar(a, b, c, **kwargs):  
    print(kwargs)
```

```
bar(1,2,3,name='Aaron',age=31)
```

```
> {'name': 'Aaron', 'age': 31}
```


Multiple Function Arguments

- It is also possible to send functions arguments by keyword.

```
def foo(first, second, third, **options):  
  
    if options.get("action") == "sum":  
        print(f"The sum is: {first + second + third}")  
  
    if options.get("number") == "first":  
        print(f"The first number is {first}")  
  
foo(1, 2, 3, action = "sum", number = "first")
```

```
> The sum is: 6  
> The first number is 1
```

- The `foo` function receives 3 arguments.
- If an additional `action` argument is received, and it instructs on summing up the numbers, then the sum is printed out.
- If an additional `number` argument is received, and it instructs on printing the first argument, then the first argument is printed out.

Exception Handling

- Python's solutions to errors are exceptions.
- Traceback?

```
print(a)
```

```
Traceback (most recent call last):  
File "<stdin>", line 1, in <module>  
NameError: name 'a' is not defined
```

- Often you do not want exceptions to completely stop the program.
- If a network service went down, you would not want your program to fail and permanently stop.
- We can **catch** errors by using the `try/except` block.
- Most languages provide a mechanism to throw and catch errors.

Exception Handling

- Let's catch an `IndexError` when trying to access items that are not in a list.

try:

```
names=['Aaron', 'Beth', 'George']
```

```
print(names[4]) # Should throw an error
```

except `IndexError`:

```
# Enters this section when an IndexError is caught
```

```
print('An IndexError was caught')
```

```
print('We can carry on, the program did not stop')
```

```
> An IndexError was thrown
```

```
> We can carry on, the program did not stop
```

Exception Handling

- Let's catch a `NameError` when trying to access a variable that does not exist.

try:

```
print(x)
```

except `NameError`:

```
# Enters this section when an NameError is caught
```

```
print('An NameError was caught')
```

```
print('We can carry on, the program did not stop')
```

```
> An NameError was caught
```

```
> We can carry on, the program did not stop
```

Exception Handling

- Often an error is thrown but we do not know what kind of error to catch.

try:

```
print(x)
```

except Exception:

```
# Enters this section when an Exception is caught
```

```
print('An Exception was caught')
```

```
print('We can carry on, the program did not stop')
```

```
> An Exception was caught
```

```
> We can carry on, the program did not stop
```

- The `Exception` class is the top-level error class.
- All other errors derive from the `Exception` class.

Exception Handling

- You can use the `try/except` syntax for any exception in Python.
- <https://docs.python.org/tutorial/errors.html#handling-exceptions>
- It is possible to raise an exception manually.

try:

```
# Some logic that I do not agree with
```

```
raise Exception('Custom Exception message')
```

except Exception **as** e:

```
    print(e)
```

```
> Custom Exception message
```

Exception Handling

- The `finally` block, if specified, will be executed regardless if the try block raises an error or not.

try:

```
# Some logic that I do not agree with
```

```
raise Exception('Custom Exception message')
```

except Exception **as** e:

```
print(e)
```

finally:

```
print("The 'try except' is finished")
```

```
> Custom Exception message  
> The 'try except' is finished
```

- Useful for file IO

Exception Handling

- The `try` block lets you test a block of code for errors.
- The `except` block lets you handle the error.
- The `finally` block lets you execute code, regardless of the result of the `try` and `except` blocks.

Classes and Objects

- Python is an object-oriented programming language.
- Almost everything in Python is an object, with its properties and functions.
- Objects are an encapsulation of variables and functions into a single entity.
- Objects get their variables and functions from classes.
- Classes are essentially a template to create your objects (Blueprint - House).
- To create a class use the `class` keyword.

```
class MyClass:
```

```
    x=5
```

- Can use the class named `MyClass` to create objects

```
obj = MyClass()  
print(obj.x)
```

The init Function

- The previous slide demonstrated a very simple class.
- All classes have a function called `__init__()`, which is always executed automatically when the class is being initiated.

```
class Person:  
    def __init__(self, name, age):  
        self.name = name  
        self.age = age
```

```
p1 = Person("Aaron", 31)  
print(p1.name)  
print(p1.age)
```

```
p2 = Person("Beth", 29)  
print(p2.name)  
print(p2.age)
```

Object Methods

- Objects can also contain methods. Methods in objects are functions that belong to the object.

```
class Person:
```

```
    def __init__(self, name, age):
```

```
        self.name = name
```

```
        self.age = age
```

```
    def my_func(self):
```

```
        print("Hello my name is " + self.name)
```

```
p1 = Person("Aaron", 31)
```

```
p1.my_func()
```

```
print(dir(p1)) # Very advanced
```

The self Parameter

- The `self` parameter is a reference to the current instance of the class, and is used to access variables that belong to the class.
- It does not have to be named `self`, you can call it whatever you like, but it has to be the first parameter of any function in the class:

```
class Person:
    def __init__(s, name, age):
        s.name = name
        s.age = age

    def my_func(s):
        print("Hello my name is " + s.name)

p1 = Person("Aaron", 31)
p1.my_func()
```

- Prefer `self`.

Modify Object Properties

- You can modify properties on objects

```
class Person:  
    def __init__(self, name, age):  
        self.name = name  
        self.age = age
```

```
p1 = Person("Aaron", 31)
```

```
print(p1.name)
```

```
p1.name="Beth"
```

```
print(p1.name)
```

Store a collection of Objects

- Create multiple objects, store them in a list and invoke a function.

```
class Person:
    def __init__(self, name, age):
        self.name = name
        self.age = age

p1 = Person("Aaron", 32)
p2 = Person("Beth", 28)
p3 = Person("George", 2)

people = [p1,p2,p3]

for person in people:
    print(f'{person.name} is {person.age} years old')
```

Assertions

- Fall into three categories
 - Precondition
 - A condition must be true at the start of a function for it to work correctly. Example, checking input args.
 - Postcondition
 - A condition that the function guarantees is true when it finishes. Example, checking result is valid.
 - Invariant
 - A condition that is always true at a particular point inside a piece of code. Example, age can't be negative.
- Extremely useful to ensure your object maintains a valid state (age?).

Modules

- Consider a module to be the same as a code library.
- A file containing a set of functions you want to include in your application.
- To create a module save the code in a file with the extension `.py`.
 - Save this code to a file named `hello.py`

```
def greeting(name):  
    print(f"Hello {name}")
```

- Save this code to a file named `main.py`

```
import hello  
  
hello.greeting("Aaron")  
hello.greeting("Beth")
```


Modules

- When using a function from a module, use the syntax: `module_name.function_name`
- The module can contain functions, as already described, but also variables of all types (lists, dictionaries, objects etc)
- Developers often place configuration files in separate modules.
 - Save this code to `people.py`

```
person_1 = {"name": "Aaron", "age": 31}
person_2 = {"name": "Beth", "age": 29}
```

- Save this code to `main.py`

```
import people

print(people.person_1)
print(people.person_2)
```

Modules (Re-naming)

- You can create an alias when you import a module, by using the `as` keyword:

```
import people as p

print(p.person_1)
print(p.person_2)
```

- Very common to abbreviate modules
 - `import numpy as np`
 - `import pandas as pd`
 - Developers like to type less.

Modules (Built-In)

- There are several built-in modules in Python, which you can import whenever you like.

```
import platform
```

```
print(platform.system())  
print(platform.node())
```

```
import os
```

```
print(os.getcwd())
```

- <https://docs.python.org/3/py-modindex.html>

Lambda functions

- A lambda function is a small anonymous function - anonymous in the sense that it does not actually have a name.
- Python functions are typically defined using `def function_name()`.
- Lambda functions can take any number of arguments, but must always have one expression.

```
x = lambda a, b : a * b  
print(x(5, 6))
```

- A lambda function that sums argument a, b, and c and print the result

```
x = lambda a, b, c : a + b + c  
print(x(5, 6, 2))
```

- A lambda expression is a block of code that can be passed around to execute. A possible use case is to define filtering logic as the first argument for `filter()`

Map

- `map()` is a built in Python function that is used to apply a function to a sequence of elements.
- It offers a very clean and elegant way to express an idea and most importantly it improves the readability of your code.

```
def func(i):  
    return i*i  
  
data = [1,10,100]  
  
result = map(func, data)  
  
print(list(result))
```

- It's more pythonic to use list comprehensions.

Filter

- `filter()` is a built in Python function that is very similar to `map()` however, `filter()` will only return the elements which the applied function returned as True.

```
def remove_odd_numbers(num):  
    if num % 2 == 0:  
        return True  
    else:  
        return False
```

```
numbers = range(15)  
filtered_numbers = filter(remove_odd_numbers, numbers)  
print(list(filtered_numbers))
```

List Comprehensions

- List Comprehensions are a very powerful tool.
- Creates a new list based on another list, in a single, readable line.
- For example, let's say we need to create a list of integers which specify the length of each word in a certain sentence.

```
sentence = "the quick brown fox jumps over the lazy dog"  
words = sentence.split()  
word_lengths = [len(word) for word in words]  
print(words)  
print(word_lengths)
```

Exercise

- Using a list comprehension, create a new list called `new_list` out of the list `numbers`, which contains only the positive numbers from the list, as integers.

```
numbers = [34.6, -203.4, 44.9, 68.3, -12.2, 44.6, 12.7]
new_list = [] # Some logic
print(new_list)

> [34, 44, 68, 44, 12]
```

- Solution

```
numbers = [34.6, -203.4, 44.9, 68.3, -12.2, 44.6, 12.7]
newlist = [x for x in numbers if x > 0]
print(newlist)

> [34, 44, 68, 44, 12]
```

- List comprehension is popular and people like to display their skills. Simply break the commands down and process them step by step.

Itertools

- Python provides a module called *Itertools* that is a collection of tools for handling iterators.
- An iterator is a data type that can be used to loop through a collection of data items such as lists, tuples and dictionaries.

```
import itertools
```

```
# Join two lists into a list of tuples
```

```
for i in zip([1, 2, 3], ['a', 'b', 'c']):  
    print(i)
```

```
# Group data values
```

```
data = sorted([1, 2, 1, 3, 2, 1, 2, 3, 4, 5])  
for key, value in itertools.groupby(data):  
    print(key, list(value))
```

```
print(list(itertools.permutations('AB')))  
print(list(itertools.accumulate([1, 2, 3, 4])))  
print(list(itertools.chain([1, 2], [3, 4])))
```

Generators

- Generator functions allow you to declare functions that behave similar to an iterator but can be much more efficient.
- Consider calculating the sum of numbers from 1 to 1000 using a list and a for loop. This could require 1000 integer values to be stored in memory. Small memory usage.
- Consider calculating the sum of numbers from 1 to 1,000,000,000. This would create a huge list in memory, especially if the data items were floats.
- The solution is to use a generator that will create elements and store them in memory only as it needs (one at a time).

```
def generate_numbers(n):  
    num = 0  
    while num < n:  
        yield num  
        num += 1  
  
total = sum(generate_numbers(1000000))  
print(total)
```

Decorators

- Decorators allows programmers to modify the behaviour of a function or class.
- Wrap a function with extended logic without modifying the original code. Sometimes the source code to the original code might not be available.
- Everything in Python is an object, even functions.
- Functions can be stored as a variable, passed as a parameter to another function, returned from another function and stored in data structures.

```
# Stored as a variable
```

```
def func(a):  
    print(a)
```

```
func('Hello')
```

```
x = func  
x('Hello')
```

Decorators

Passed as a parameter to another function

```
def shout(text):  
    return text.upper()  
  
def whisper(text):  
    return text.lower()  
  
def greet(func):  
    msg = func(f'I was created by {func.__name__}')  
    print(msg)  
  
greet(shout)  
greet(whisper)
```

Decorators

Returned from another function

```
def create_adder(x):  
    def adder(y):  
        return x + y  
  
    return adder
```

```
add_15 = create_adder(15)
```

```
print(add_15(10))  
print(add_15(100))
```

Decorators

```
def test_decorator(func):  
    def wrapper(*args, **kwargs):  
        print(f'Before {func.__name__} is called')  
        result = func(*args, **kwargs)  
        print(f'After {func.__name__} is called')  
        return result  
  
    return wrapper
```

```
@test_decorator  
def add_func(a, b):  
    print(f'Inside add()')  
    return a + b
```

```
a, b = 2, 5  
print(add_func(a, b))
```

Getters and Setters

- Avoid `get_` and `set_` methods, not pythonic.
- Use the property decorator.

```
class Celsius:
    def __init__(self, temperature = 0):
        self._temperature = temperature

    def to_fahrenheit(self):
        return (self.temperature * 1.8) + 32

    @property
    def temperature(self):
        #print("Getting value")
        return self._temperature

    @temperature.setter
    def temperature(self, value):
        if value < -273:
            raise ValueError("Temperature below -273 is not possible")
        #print("Setting value")
        self._temperature = value
```

Getter and Setters

```
c = Celsius()

print(c.temperature)          # 0
print(c.to_fahrenheit())     # 32

c.temperature = 30
print(c.to_fahrenheit())     # 86

c.temperature = -300
```

- Need to add validation to `__init__` method?

File Handling

- Python has several functions for creating, reading, updating, and deleting files.
- The key function for working with files in Python is the `open()` function.
- The `open()` function takes two parameters; filename, and mode.
- There are four different methods (modes) for opening a file:
 - "r" - Read - Default value. Opens a file for reading.
 - "a" - Append - Opens a file for appending.
 - "w" - Write - Opens a file for writing.
 - "x" - Create - Creates the specified file.

Open a File

- To open a file for reading it is enough to specify the name of the file
- Create a new file named `data.txt`
- Add the following code to `main.py`

```
f = open("data.txt")
```

- The `open()` function returns a file object, which has a `read()` method for reading the content of the file

```
f = open("data.txt")  
print(f.read())
```

- Return the first 5 characters of the file

```
f = open("data.txt")  
print(f.read(5))
```

Read Lines

- By looping through the lines of the file, you can read the whole file, line by line

```
file_data = open("data.txt")  
for line in file_data:  
    print(line)
```

Close Files

- It is a good practice to always close the file when you are done with it.
- In some cases, due to buffering, changes made to a file may not show until you close the file.

```
f = open("data.txt")  
print(f.readline())  
f.close()
```

Write to an existing file

- To write to an existing file, you must add a parameter to the `open()` function:
 - "a" - Append - will append to the end of the file
 - "w" - Write - will overwrite any existing content

Append data

- Add a new line to `data.txt`

```
f = open("data.txt", "a")
f.write("\nNow the file has more content!")
f.close()

# Open and read the file after the appending
f = open("data.txt", "r")
print(f.read())
```

Overwrite data

- Open the file `data.txt` and overwrite the content.

```
f = open("data.txt", "w")  
f.write("I have deleted the content!")  
f.close()  
  
# Open and read the file after the appending:  
f = open("data.txt", "r")  
print(f.read())
```

Create a new file

- To create a new file in Python, use the `open()` method, with one of the following parameters:
 - "x" - Create - will create a file, returns an error if the file exists
 - "a" - Append - will create a file if the specified file does not exist
 - "w" - Write - will create a file if the specified file does not exist
- Create a file called "data.txt"

```
f = open("data.txt", "x")
```

- Create a new file if it does not exist

```
f = open("data.txt", "w")
```


Delete a file or folder

- To delete a file, you must import the OS module, and call `os.remove()` function.

```
import os
os.remove("data.txt")
```

- To delete an entire folder, call the `os.rmdir()` function.

```
import os
os.rmdir("test_folder")
```

- You can only remove empty folders.

Test-Driven Development Demo

greetings.py

```
def get_greetings():  
    return 'Hello World!'
```

main.py

```
import unittest  
import greetings  
  
class GreetingsTests(unittest.TestCase):  
  
    def test_get_greetings(self):  
        self.assertEqual(greetings.get_greetings(), 'Hello World!')  
  
    def test_something(self):  
        self.assertTrue(2<1)  
  
if __name__ == '__main__':  
    unittest.main()  
  
# In jupyter notebook  
if __name__ == '__main__':  
    unittest.main(argv=['first-arg-is-ignored'], exit=False)
```

