

ECE 364 Software Engineering Tools Lab

Lecture 8

Python: Advanced I



Lecture Summary

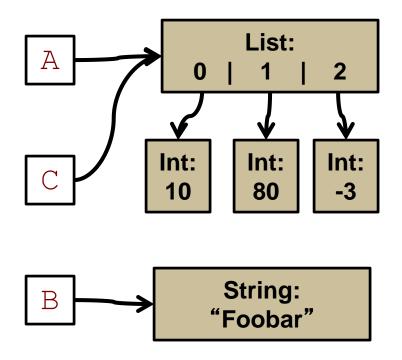
- Python Variables
- Namespaces and Scope
- Modules
- Exceptions



More on Python Variables

 All variables in Python
 This is represented in are actually pointers

memory like this:





More on Python Variables

- Whenever you use =, you are reassigning a pointer, not making a copy or altering a value.
- This can lead to side effects
- Example:

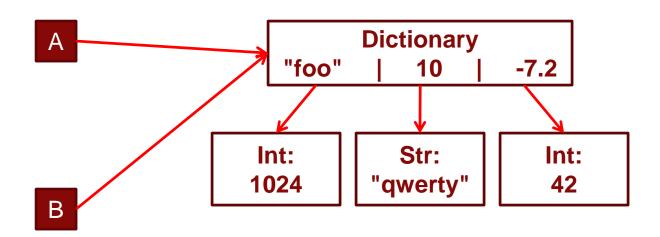
```
>>> A = [10, 80, -3]
>>> B = A
>>> B.append('Z')
>>> print(A)
[10, 80, -3, 'Z']
```



Making Copies

• The assignment B = A only points B to A

```
A={"foo":1024, 10:"qwerty", -7.2:42}
```

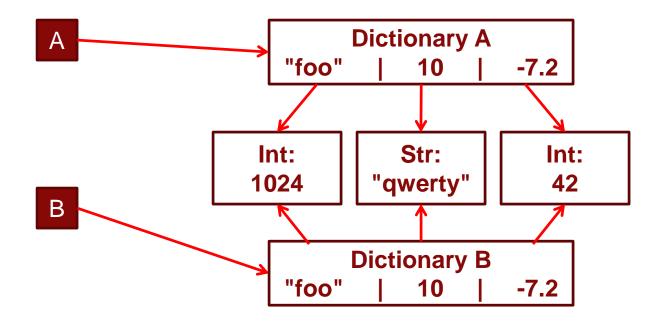




Making Copies (Shallow)

- Use the copy () function
- A shallow copy only duplicates the keys!

$$B = A.copy()$$

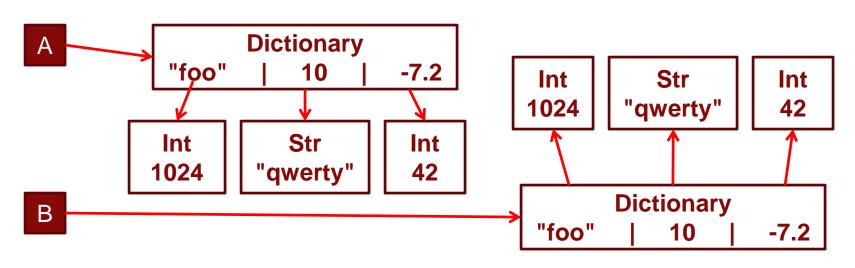




Making Copies (Deep)

- The copy module provides deepcopy ()
- Copies keys and values

```
import copy
B = copy.deepcopy(A)
```





Namespaces

- A namespace is "a mapping from names to objects"
 - e.g. "x" maps to the value 5 or "A" maps to [1, 2, 3]
- Python creates namespaces at different times
 - The built-in namespace is created when Python starts and is never deleted
 - A namespace is created for a function when the function is called and deleted when the function returns



Scope

- A scope is "a textual region of a Python program where a namespace is directly accessible"
- A new local namespace is created whenever a function is called
- Python resolves identifiers by searching their current scope in the following order
 - 1. Local namespace
 - 2. Global namespace within the module
 - 3. "Built-in" namespace
 - 4. If the name can not be resolved a NameError exception is raised



Scope (2)

```
# X and Y are part of the global namespace
Y=0
X=0
def foo():
   X = 10
                               # X and Y are part of a new namespace
   Y = 40
                               # global .foo, and are distinct from
    print("{}, {}".format(X, Y)) # X and Y in the global namespace
def bar():
   X = 30
                               # Python will search for names within
    print("{}, {}".format(X, Y)) # the local namespace upwards to the
                               # global namespace. Y is found
                               # global__
print("{}, {}".format(X, Y))  # prints 0 0
                               # prints 10 40
foo()
print("{}, {}".format(X, Y))  # prints 0 0
                             # prints 30 0
bar()
print("{}, {}".format(X, Y))  # prints 0 0
```



Comparison: Scope in C

- Scope in C is defined by blocks
 - Created using curly braces

```
void foo(void *bar) {
    int i = 0;
    while (bar[i] != '\0') {
        i++;
    }
    return i;
}
```



Global Variables

 To write to a variable that is in any namespace other than the current, local namespace you must declare it as global in the current namespace

```
def ChangeA():
    global A
    A = 25

A = 404
ChangeA()
ChangeA()
print(A)

>>> 25

def ChangeA():
    A = 25

A = 404
ChangeA()
print(A)

>>> 404

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```



Modules

- A python module is a file containing function definitions and statements that enables code reuse and provides modular structure to your programs
 - See Pro_Set.py in the example scripts
- An import statement loads the module and makes it's functions and variables visible to the current namespace
 - sys and os are commonly used modules
- A module's name is specified by it's file name
 - e.g. The module Pro_Set exists in the file Pro_Set.py



Modules (2)

- A module must be imported into the current namespace using an import statement
 - import mod name
- When accessing a function or variable from the module you must prepend the module name
 - e.g. os.access(...) or sys.argv



Modules (3)

- You can omit the module name when referring to functions or variables defined in the module when using an alternative import style
 - from mod_name import func_name
- The from style import makes the function or variable name directly visible to the current name space



Modules (4)

```
from sys import argv, stderr
if len(argv) != 2:
   stderr.write("usage: script.py <argl>\n")
```

•argv and stderr do not have a sys. prefix because they are directly imported from the sys module into the current namespace



Modules (5)

 An asterisk in the from style import allows you to import all functions and variables in the module into the current namespace

```
from sys import *
if len(argv) != 2:
   stderr.write("usage: script.py <arg1>\n")
```

- You should avoid using this for more than one module
 - It clutters the namespace and may cause name conflicts



Modules (6)

- Modules can be imported almost anywhere within a python program
 - Typically done at the very beginning of a file
 - But can be done elsewhere...

```
def print_usage():
   import sys # sys only visible in print_usage()
   sys.stdout.write("usage: %s\n" % (sys.argv[0],))
```

 When importing into a lower namespace the module is only accessible from within that namespace



What is an Exception?

- An exception is a program branch executed when an invalid operation or state is detected
- Each statement in a python program my cause an exception to occur, immediately changing the execution path
- Exceptions are used in many other high level languages
 - C++, Java, C# etc.
- In C there are no exceptions
 - Programmer must resort to using error codes and other mechanisms



What is an Exception?

- An exception is the error
 - Python is literally throwing the error at you
 - You can either catch it or let it knock you out
- Exceptions contain helpful details about what went wrong in the program
 - Error messages, function name, argument values etc.
 - Much more useful than error code
- Not as simple as an error code but the number
 10 does not tell much about what went wrong



Built-In Exceptions

- ValueError indicates a value is not properly formed
- IOError indicates a problem when preforming I/O
- OSError indicates an error raised by the operating system
- IndexError indicates an index lookup failed or was out of bounds
- KeyError indicates an lookup by key failed or the key was not found
- TypeError— indicates an function or operation is applied to a type that does not support it



Handling Exceptions

- There are two things a program can do with exceptions
 - Ignore them will result in early termination
 - Catch them examine the exception and perform some action to correct the problem
- It is not always possible to correct errors at runtime
 - But you can display a user friendly error message and possibly log the error

```
try:
    ... statements ...
except:
    ... exception handling statements ...
```



Handling Exceptions (2)

- There are many different types of exceptions.
- Many times you will want to handle them in a different way depending on the type.

```
try:
    ... statements that may raise an exception ...
except (IOError, ValueError):
    ... handle IO errors or value errors ...
except <ExType> as e:
    ... handle <ExType> error referenced as the variable e...
except:
    ... handle all other errors ...
else:
    ... statements to run if no exception was raised ...
finally:
    ... Always run after handling error ...
```



Handling Exceptions (4)

- except IOError:
 - No reference to the IOError exception is available.
- except IOError as e:
 - The IOError exception and its details are available in the local variable e.
 - Newer syntax that is preferred for new programs.
- except IOError, e: (In Python 2)
 - Equivalent to the above statement.



Handling Exceptions (5)

```
import sys
file name = raw input('Enter a file name: ')
                                                      Take branch if exception raised
fp = open(File name, "r") # possible exception
                                          Take branch if exception raised
sum = 0.0
for line in fp: # possible exception -
    values = line.split(',')
                                            Take branch if exception raised
    for v in values:
         fv = float(v) # possible exception
         sum += fv
fp.close()
print "Sum = %f" % (sum,)
sys.exit(0)
               Built-in Exception Handler:
               import sys, traceback
               t, v, tb = sys.exc info()
               traceback.print exception(t, v, tb, limit=2, file=sys.stderr)
               sys.exit(-1)
```



Handling Exceptions (6)

```
file name = raw input('Enter a file name: ')
try:
                                                        Take branch if exception raised
    fp = open(file name, "r") # possible exception
except:
    print "Could not open %s" (file name,) <
    sys.exit(1)
                                               Take branch if exception raised
sum = 0.0
for line in fp: # possible exception
    values = line.split(',')
    for v in values:
                                                Take branch if exception raised
         try:
             fv = float(v) # possible exception
             sum += fv
         except ValueError as e:
             print "Unknown value %s: %s" % (v,e) ←
fp.close()
print "Sum = %f" % (sum,)
sys.exit(0)
                Built-in Exception Handler:
                t, v, tb = sys.exc info()
                traceback.print_exception(t, v, tb, limit=2, file=sys.stderr) 26
                sys.exit(-1)
```



Handling Exceptions (7)

```
value = raw input('Prompt: ')
try:
    # int() Raises a ValueError exception
    result = proc integer(int(val))
except ValueError:
    result = proc other(val)
print(value)
```



Handling Exceptions (8)

 To ignore an exception the pass statement can be used to indicate not action is taken

```
value = raw input('Prompt: ')
try:
 result = proc integer(int(val))
except ValueError:
 pass # do nothing...
print(value)
```



Handling Exceptions (9)

```
import sys
try:
    fp = open(sys.argv[1], "r")
except IOError as e:
    sys.stderr.write("Reason: %s\n" % (e,))
    sys.exit(1)
for line in fp:
    print(line)
fp.close()
sys.exit(0)
```



Raising Exceptions

- There are often many times when you want to signal an error to your program
- Typically you will raise exceptions from your own modules and functions to indicate errors or malformed arguments

Exceptions are "raised" by the program using the raise <Exception> statement



Raising Exceptions (2)

```
def dotProduct(row, column):
    if type(row) is not list or type(column) is not list:
        raise TypeError("Row & Column must be lists.")
    if ((len(row) == len(column)) and (len(row) > 0)):
        raise ValueError("Row & Column must be of the same size.")
    # Continue execution.
row2 = [3, 7, 1, 8]; column2 = [2, 5, 6]
# These will raise an exception.
dotProduct(row2, column2)
dotProduct(9, column2)
```

