

# Web Programming Python Part II.

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# Review

- Python basics
- Functions

# Roadmap today

- Module
- Class
- Input and Output
- Errors and Exceptions
- Brief tour of standard libraries

# Module

- A module is a file containing Python definitions and statements.
- These statements are intended to initialize the module. They are executed only the first time the module name is encountered in an import statement.
- Modules can import other modules.

# Module

In `fibonacci.py`

```
def fib(n):  
    a, b = 0, 1  
    while b < n:  
        print(b, end=' ')  
        a, b = b, a+b  
    print()
```

```
def fib2(n):  
    result = []  
    a, b = 0, 1  
    while b < n:  
        result.append(b)  
        a, b = b, a+b  
    return result
```

# Module

- Now enter the Python interpreter and import this module with the following command:

```
import fibo
```

```
>>> fibo.fib(1000)
```

```
1 1 2 3 5 8 13 21 34 55 89 144 233 377 610 987
```

```
>>> fibo.fib2(100)
```

```
[1, 1, 2, 3, 5, 8, 13, 21, 34, 55, 89]
```

```
>>> fibo.__name__
```

```
'fibo'
```

# Module

```
>>> from fibo import fib, fib2
```

```
>>> fib(500)
```

```
1 1 2 3 5 8 13 21 34 55 89 144 233 377
```

```
>>> from fibo import *
```

```
>>> fib(500)
```

```
1 1 2 3 5 8 13 21 34 55 89 144 233 377
```

# Module

- Executing modules as scripts

```
if __name__ == "__main__":  
    import sys  
    fib(int(sys.argv[1]))
```



# Dir()

- The built-in function `dir()` is used to find out which names a module defines.

```
>>> import fibo
```

```
>>> dir(fibo)
```

# Module

- Importing \* From a Module(tricky)

# Packages

- Packages are a way of structuring Python's module namespace by using "dotted module names". For example, the module name A.B designates a submodule named B in a package named A.

# Package structure

my\_math/ *# Top-level package*

    \_\_init\_\_.py *# Initialize the sound package*

    fibo/ *# Subpackage for file format conversions*

        \_\_init\_\_.py

        fib1.py

        fib2.py

Nordlys

# Package installing

- <https://packaging.python.org/installing/>

# Exercise 4

- Create modules

# Class

- **Class:** A user-defined prototype for an object that defines a set of attributes that characterize any object of the class. The attributes are data members (class variables and instance variables) and methods, accessed via dot notation.
- **Class Definition Syntax**

```
class ClassName:  
    <statement-1>  
    . . .  
    <statement-N>
```

# Class

- Python classes provide all the standard features of Object Oriented Programming:
  - Multiple base classes
  - A derived class can override any methods of its base class or classes
  - A method can call the method of a base class with the same name
  - Objects can contain arbitrary amounts and kinds of data;



# Object

- *Objects* are Python's abstraction for data, when you instantiate a class, what you get is called an object.  
(**Instantiation:** The creation of an instance of a class.)

# Class VS Object

Create a class:

```
class MyStuff:  
    def __init__(self):  
        self.tangerine = "tangerine"  
    def apple(self):  
        print("I am an apple!")
```

Instantiate:

```
thing = MyStuff()  
thing.apple()
```

# Instantiation

- When a class defines an `__init__()` method, class instantiation automatically invokes `__init__()` for the newly-created class instance. It is called class constructor or initialization method that Python calls when you create a new instance of this class.

# Instantiation

- Of course, the `__init__()` method may have arguments for greater flexibility. In that case, arguments given to the class instantiation operator are passed on to `__init__()`. For example,

```
class Employee: #Common base class for all employees
    empCount = 0
    def __init__(self, name, salary):
        self.name = name
        self.salary = salary
        Employee.empCount += 1
```

# Creating Instance Objects

- To create instances of a class, you call the class using class name and pass in whatever arguments its `__init__` method accepts.

"This would create first object of Employee class"

```
emp1 = Employee("Zara", 2000)
```

"This would create second object of Employee class"

```
emp2 = Employee("Manni", 5000)
```

- Accessing Attributes

```
emp1.displayEmployee()
```

# Class and Instance Variables

```
class Dog:
    # class variable shared by all instances
    kind = 'canine'
    def __init__(self, name):
        # instance variable unique to each instance
        self.name = name

>>> d = Dog('Fido')
>>> e = Dog('Buddy')
>>> d.kind # shared by all dogs 'canine'
>>> e.kind # shared by all dogs 'canine'
>>> d.name # unique to d 'Fido'
>>> e.name # unique to e 'Buddy'
```

# Inheritance

```
class DerivedClassName(BaseClassName):  
    <statement-1>  
    . . .  
    <statement-N>
```

- The name BaseClassName must be defined in a scope containing the derived class definition. In place of a base class name, other arbitrary expressions are also allowed.
- When the base class is defined in another module:
- **class DerivedClassName(modname.BaseClassName):**

# Multiple Inheritance

- Python supports a form of multiple inheritance as well

```
class DerivedClassName(Base1, Base2, Base3):  
    <statement-1>  
    . . .  
    <statement-N>
```



# Private Variables and Methods

- Private means the attributes are only available for the members of the class not for the outside of the class.
- Not strict, actually Name mangling

# Private Variables and Methods

```
class Mapping:
    def __init__(self):
        self.items_list = [] # public
        self.__num = 0 # private
    def __map(self, iterable):
        pass
    @property
    def num(self):
        return self.__num
```

```
x = Mapping()
print(x.num)
print(x._Mapping__num)
```

```
class Employee: # Create an empty employee record  
    pass # Fill the fields of the record
```

```
john = Employee()  
john.name = 'John Doe'  
john.dept = 'computer lab'  
john.salary = 1000
```

# Decorator

- Decorators allow you to inject or modify code in functions or classes.
- The @ indicates the application of the decorator.

# Staticmethod

- Static method: Method belongs to a class, but that doesn't use the object itself at all.

```
class Pizza(object):  
    @staticmethod  
    def mix_ingredients(x, y):  
        return x + y
```

# Class method

- Class methods are methods that are not bound to an object, but to a class!

```
class Pizza(object):  
    radius = 42  
    @classmethod  
    def get_radius(cls):  
        return cls.radius
```

- Use class to access: `Pizza.get_radius()`

# Abstract method

- An abstract method is a method defined in a base class, but that may not provide any implementation

```
class Pizza(object):  
    def get_radius(self):  
        raise NotImplementedError
```

# Inheritance vs Composition

- Composition is a way of *aggregating* objects together by making some objects attributes of other objects. “has-a”
- *Inheritance* is a way of arranging objects in a hierarchy from the most general to the most specific. “is a”
- [http://python-textbok.readthedocs.io/en/1.0/Object Oriented Programming.html](http://python-textbok.readthedocs.io/en/1.0/Object_Oriented_Programming.html)



# Exercise 5

- CardHolder class

# Output formatting

- Methods from last lecture:
  - Expression statement
  - Print()
- If want more control over the formatting of your output than simply printing space-separated values:
  - Handle string manually
  - Use formatted string literals

# Substitute values into strings

- The **str()** function is meant to return representations of values which are fairly human-readable
- **repr()** is meant to generate representations which can be read by the interpreter
- For objects which don't have a particular representation for human consumption, **str()** will return the same value as **repr()**

# Examples

```
s = 'Hello python'
```

```
str(s)
```

```
'Hello python'
```

```
repr(s)
```

```
"""Hello python"""
```

```
str(1/7)
```

```
'0.14285714285714285'
```

# str.format()

- The brackets and characters within them (called format fields) are replaced with the objects passed into the str.format() method.

```
print('We are the {} who say \n  
"{}!"'.format('knights', 'Ni'))
```

We are the knights who say "Ni!"

# str.format()

- A number in the brackets can be used to refer to the position of the object passed into the str.format() method.

```
print('{0} and {1}'.format('spam', 'eggs'))
```

spam and eggs

```
print('{1} and {0}'.format('spam', 'eggs'))
```

eggs and spam

# str.format()

- If keyword arguments are used in the str.format() method, their values are referred to by using the name of the argument.

```
print('This {food} is {adjective}.'.format(\  
food='spam',adjective='absolutely horrible'))
```

This spam is absolutely horrible.

# Regular expression operations

- Check a string match a pattern or not(Perl style)
- “re” module



# Re.match()

- Check whether the beginning of *string* match the regular expression *pattern*, return a corresponding match object
- `re.match(pattern, string, flags=0)`

```
import re
```

```
print(re.match('www', 'www.runoob.com').span())
```

```
print(re.match('com', 'www.runoob.com'))
```

```
(0, 3)
```

```
None
```

# Re.search()

- Scan through string looking for the first location where the regular expression pattern produces a match.
- `re.search(pattern, string, flags=0)`

```
import re
```

```
print(re.search('www', 'www.runoob.com').span())
```

```
print(re.search('com', 'www.runoob.com').span())
```

```
(0, 3)
```

```
(11, 14)
```

# Re.search()

```
m = re.search('(?<=-)\w+', 'spam-egg')  
m.group(0)  
'egg'
```

# Regular expression operations

- For more methods and patterns, see <https://docs.python.org/3/library/re.html>

# Exercise 6

- Output formatting

# Reading and Writing Files

- File commands
  - open: opens the file
  - close: closes the file
  - read: reads the contents of the file
  - readline: reads just one line of a text file
  - truncate: empties the file(watch out!)
  - write(stuff): writes stuff to the file

# Reading and Writing Files

- `open()` returns a file object, and is most commonly used with two arguments: `open(filename, mode)`

```
f = open('my_file.txt', 'r')
```

```
f.close() or
```

```
with open('my_file', 'a') as f:
```

```
    f.write('something')
```

- The first argument is a string containing the filename. The second argument is another string containing a few characters describing the way in which the file will be used.

# Reading and Writing Files

- *mode*
  - 'r': only read
  - 'w': only writing
  - 'a': opens the file for appending to the end
  - 'r+' opens the file for both reading and writing.
- The *mode* argument is optional; 'r' will be assumed if it's omitted.



# Read()

- To read a file's contents, call `f.read(size)`, which reads some quantity of data and returns it as a string (in text mode) or bytes object (in binary mode).
- *size* is an optional numeric argument.

```
f.read()
```

```
'This is the entire file.\n'
```

```
f.read()
```

```
"""
```

# Readline()

- `f.readline()` reads a single line from the file;
- A newline character (`\n`) is left at the end of the string, and is only omitted on the last line of the file if the file doesn't end in a newline.

# Readline()

```
f.readline() 'This is the first line of the file.\n'  
f.readline() 'Second line of the file\n'  
f.readline() ''  
for line in f:  
    print(line, end=' ')
```

This is the first line of the file.

Second line of the file

If you want to read all the lines of a file in a list you can also use `list(f)` or `f.readlines()`.

# Write()

- `f.write(string)` writes the contents of *string* to the file, returning the number of characters written.
- Other types of objects need to be converted – either to a string (in text mode) or a bytes object (in binary mode) – before writing them.

```
value = ('the answer', 42)
s = str(value) # convert the tuple to string
f.write(s)
```

# JSON

- JSON: JavaScript Object Notation
- JSON is a syntax for storing and exchanging data
- When you want to save more complex data types like nested lists and dictionaries, parsing and serializing by hand becomes complicated.

# JSON

- **json.dumps():** Encode data
- **json.loads():** Decode data

```
>>> import json
```

```
>>> json.dumps([1, 'simple', 'list'])  
'[1, "simple", "list"]'
```

# Encode

Python	JSON
dict	object
list, tuple	array
str	string
int, float, int- & float-derived Enums	number
True	true
False	false
None	null

# Decode

JSON	Python
object	dict
array	list
string	str
number (int)	int
number (real)	float
true	True
false	False
null	None



# JSON

- Another variant of the dumps() function, called dump() simply serializes the object to a text file. So if f is a text file object opened for writing, we can do this:

```
json.dump(x, f)
```

- To decode the object again, if f is a text file object which has been opened for reading:

```
x = json.load(f)
```

# JSON

*# Write JSON data into file*

```
with open('data.json', 'w') as f:  
    json.dump(data, f)
```

*# Read data from file*

```
with open('data.json', 'r') as f:  
    data = json.load(f)
```

# Pickle

- pickle - the pickle module
- Contrary to JSON, *pickle* is a protocol which allows the serialization of arbitrarily complex Python objects.
- <https://docs.python.org/3/library/pickle.html#data-stream-format>

# Exercise 7

- Read file
- JSON write

# Errors and Exceptions

- Syntax Errors
- Exceptions

# Syntax Errors

- Syntax errors, also known as parsing errors, are perhaps the most common kind of complaint you get while you are still learning Python:

```
while True  
    print('Hello world')
```

- A colon (':') is missing before it.

# Exceptions

- Even if a statement or expression is syntactically correct, it may cause an error when an attempt is made to execute it. Errors detected during execution are called *exceptions* and are not unconditionally fatal

# Exceptions

```
10 * (1/0)
```

Traceback (most recent call last): File "<stdin>", line 1, in <module>  
ZeroDivisionError: division by zero

```
4 + spam*3
```

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

```
'2' + 2
```

Traceback (most recent call last): File "<stdin>", line 1, in <module>  
TypeError: Can't convert 'int' object to str implicitly



# Handling Exceptions

```
while True:
    try:
        x = int(input("Please enter a number: "))
        break
    except ValueError:
        print("Oops! That was no valid number. Try again...")
```

# Handling Exceptions

- A *try* statement may have more than one except clause, to specify handlers for different exceptions. At most one handler will be executed.

```
except (RuntimeError, TypeError, NameError):  
    pass
```

# Handling Exceptions

- The try ... Except statement has an optional *else clause*

```
for arg in sys.argv[1:]:  
    try:  
        f = open(arg, 'r')  
    except OSError:  
        print('cannot open', arg)  
    else:  
        print(arg, 'has', len(f.readlines()), 'lines')  
f.close()
```

# Raising Exceptions

- The *raise* statement allows the programmer to force a specified exception to occur.

```
raise NameError('HiThere')
```

```
Traceback (most recent call last): File "<stdin>", line 1, in <module>  
NameError: HiThere
```

# User-defined Exceptions

- Programs may name their own exceptions by creating a new exception class
- Exceptions should typically be derived from the Exception class, either directly or indirectly

# Defining Clean-up Actions

- The *try* statement has another optional clause which is intended to define clean-up actions that must be executed under all circumstances

```
try:  
    raise KeyboardInterrupt  
finally:  
    print( 'Goodbye! ' )
```

Goodbye!

**KeyboardInterrupt** Traceback (most recent call last): File "<stdin>", line 2, in <module>

# Exercise 8

- Exception

# Brief tour of the standard libraries

1. Operating System: `os`
2. Command Line Arguments: `sys`
3. String Pattern Matching: `re`
4. Mathematics: `math`; `random`; `statistics`
5. Internet Access: `urllib.request`
6. Machine learning: `Tensorflow`; `Theano`; `scikit-learn`; etc
7. Database: `pymysql`