Object Oriented Programming in Python Part 2

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Afternoon Objectives

After this lecture, you should be familiar with...

- Basic Python decorators
- The Callable pattern
- Abstract Base Classes
- Verification, unit tests, and debugging

Decorators

A decorator is a function which wraps another function:

- Looks like the original function, i.e., help(myfunc) works correctly
- But, decorator code runs before and after decorated function
- Python provides some predefined decorators
- You can define your own decorators too

Common Python Decorators:

Some common decorators are:

- Oproperty often with O<NameOfYourProperty>.setter
- @classmethod can access class-wide state
- @staticmethod groups functions under class namespace
- @abstractmethod defines a method in an ABC
- Can also find decorators for logging, argument checking, and more

Properties

Properties look like member data:

- Actually returned by a function which has been decorated with @property
- Cannot modify the property unless you also create a setter, by decorating with @<field_name>.setter
- Gives you flexibility to change implementation later

Oproperty Example

```
class GasTank:
1
3
         # Initialize tank size and fuel
4
         def __init__(self, capacity=15):
             self.capacity = capacity
5
             self.fuel = 0  # Calls setter
6
7
         @property
                                   # Getter
8
         def fuel(self):
9
             print('Checking the fuel gauge...')
10
             return self._fuel
11
12
         @fuel.setter
                                  # Setter
13
14
         def fuel(self, gals):
15
             if gals > self.capacity:
                 raise ValueError('Tank has overflowed!')
16
             else:
17
                 self._fuel = gals
18
```

@classmethod Example

```
class Math:
         pi = 3.14159265
3
         @classmethod
         def calc_area_circle(cls, r):
             return cls.pi * r**2
8
     m = Math()
9
     m.calc_area_circle(2.0)
10
11
     # Also
12
     Math.calc_area_circle(2.0)
13
```

Ostaticmethod Example

```
class Math:
1
         pi = 3.14159265
3
         @classmethod
         def calc_area_circle(cls, r):
5
              return cls.pi * r**2
6
         Ostaticmethod
9
         def sqrt(n):
              return n**0.5
10
11
     m = Math()
12
     m.sqrt(4.0)
13
14
15
     # Also
     Math.sqrt(4.0)
16
```

Callable pattern

Class instances look & behave like a function but can hold state

- Implement __call__ magic method
- Acts like a Functor in C++, i.e., like a function which can store state
- Often used with MapReduce because serializable and more flexible than a lambda or free function

Callable Example

```
class MyCallable:
1
         def __init__(self, state):
3
            self.state = state
4
         def __call__(self, elem):
5
             '''Perform map operation on an element'''
6
            return elem**2
8
     mc = MyCallable()
                           # Create the instance
9
     results = map(mc, [1, 2, 3]) # Use like a function!
10
     result = mc(2)
                                  # Call like a function!
11
```

ABCs

An Abstract Base Class (ABC):

- Defines a standard interface for derived objects
- Cannot be instantiated to 'access,' must derive a class from the ABC
- May contain some implementation for methods
- Can include abstract methods (with @abstractmethod decorator)

See doc on abc module for details

ABC Example

1 2 3

4

5

7

8

10

11

12

13 14

15

16

17 18

19

```
from abc import ABC, abstractmethod
class Polygon(ABC): # Can't create a Polygon object directly
   def init (self, vertices):
       self.vertices = vertices
   @abstractmethod
  def draw(self): # Subclasses must override draw()
       pass
class Triangle(Polygon):
   def __init__(self, vertices):
       # Check that you have just 3!
       super().__init__(vertices)
   # Override draw() here:
 def draw(self):
        # Draw lines connecting points in self.vertices
       pass
```

Verification, unit tests, and debugging

Verification and debugging

Verifying your code is correct, and finding and fixing bugs are critical skills:

- Just because your code runs, doesn't mean it is correct
- Write unit tests to exercise your code:
 - Ensures interfaces satisfy their contracts
 - Exercise key paths through code
 - Identify any bugs introduced by future changes which break existing code
 - Test code before implementing entire program
- When unit tests fail, use a debugger to examine how code executes
- Both are critical skills and will save you hours of time

Unit tests and TDD

Unit tests exercise your code so you can test individual functions

- Use a unit test framework unittest, pytest or nose
- Unit tests should exercise key cases and verify interface contracts
- A unit test can setup fixtures (i.e., resources) needed for testing
- *Test Driven Development* is a good approach to development:
 - Red: implement test and check it fails against stubbed code
 - Green: implement code (in KISS fashion) and verify it passes
 - "Premature optimization is the root of all evil" (Donald Knuth)
 - Green: refactor and optimize implementation
 - "Only refactor in the presence of working tests"
- Save time by verifying interfaces and catching errors early
- Catch errors if a future change breaks things

Design by Contract (DbC)

"Design by contract" is a helpful thought process when designing methods (and functions) and informs test-driven development.

Three components:

- Preconditions: What does the method/function expect when it begins?
- Postconditions: What does the method/function guarantee when it exits?
- Invariants: What must the method/function maintain for consistency?

Use assert to Test Preconditions

```
class Triangle(Polygon):
         def __init__(self, vertices):
             # Verify preconditions
3
             assert len(vertices) == 3, "Not a triangle!"
4
             super().__init__(vertices)
5
6
         # Override draw() here:
         def draw(self):
              # Draw lines connecting points in self.vertices
9
10
             pass
11
12
13
     t = Triangle([v1, v2]) # Throws AssertionError: Not a triangle!
14
```

Use try/except to Catch Problems Preemptively

```
num = 1
denom = 0

try:
    ratio = num / denom
except ZeroDivisionError as err:
    print("To infinity and beyond!", err)
```

Using PDB

When unit tests fail, use the debugger to find a bug:

- If working in ipython, will display line of code which caused exception
- For complex bugs, debug via PDB
- To start PDB, at a specific point in your code, add: import pdb

```
pdb.set_trace() # Start debugger here
...
```

- See PDB's help for details
- Learn how to use a debugger. It will save you a lot of pain...

Essential debugging

Once you have mastered one debugger, you have mastered them all:

| Command | Action |
|---------|--|
| h | help |
| Ъ | set a break-point |
| where | show call stack |
| S | execute next line, stepping into functions |
| n | execute next line, step over functions |
| С | continue execution |
| u | move up one stack frame |
| d | move down one stack frame |

Debugging tricks

Some hard-won debugging tips:

- When starting any project ask, 'How will I debug this?'
- Program defensively: write code that anticipates problems
- If you cannot figure out what is wrong with your code, something you think is true most likely isn't
- Explain your problem to a rubber duck . . . or friend
- Try to produce the smallest, reproducible test case
- If it used to work, ask yourself, 'What changed?'
- Add logging, but beware of Heisenberg: when you measure a system, you perturb it . . .



Miscellaneous

*args and **kwargs

Shorthand to refer to a variable number of arguments:

- For regular arguments, use *args:
 - *args is a list
 - def genius_func(*args): to define a function which takes multiple arguments
 - Can also call function using a list, if you dereference

*args Example

Case 1: supply all args via a list

```
def myargs(arg1, arg2, arg3):
    return arg1 * arg2 + arg3

>>> z = [ 2, 3, 4 ]
>>> myargs(*z)
10
```

Case 2: process variable number of arguments

```
def args2list(*args):
    return [ix for ix in args]

>>> args2list(1, 2, 3, 4)

[1, 2, 3, 4]
```

*args and **kwargs (cont.)

- For keyword arguments, use **kwargs:
 - **kwargs is a dict
 - def genius_func(**kwargs): to define a function which takes multiple keyword arguments
 - Can also call function using a dict, if you dereference

```
my_dict = {'a': 15, 'b': -92}
genius_func(**my_dict)
```

Mixed order: some_function(args, *args, **kwargs)