

Undergraduate Topics in Computer Science

John Hunt

Advanced Guide to Python 3 Programming



Undergraduate Topics in Computer Science

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John Hunt

Advanced Guide to Python 3 Programming



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For Denise, my wife.

Preface

Some of the key aspects of this book are:

1. It assumes knowledge of Python 3 and of concepts such as functions, classes, protocols, Abstract Base Classes, decorators, iterables, collection types (such as List and Tuple) etc.
2. However, the book assumes very little knowledge or experience of the topics presented.
3. The book is divided into eight topic areas; Computer graphics, Games, Testing, File Input/Output, Database Access, Logging, Concurrency and Parallelism and Network Programming.
4. Each topic in the book has an introductory chapter followed by chapters that delve into that topic.
5. The book includes exercises at the end of most chapters.
6. All code examples (and exercise solutions) are provided on line in a GitHub repository.

Chapter Organisation

Each chapter has a brief introduction, the main body of the chapter, followed by a list of online references that can be used for further reading.

Following this there is typically an *Exercises* section that lists one or more exercises that build on the skills you will have learnt in that chapter.

Sample solutions to the exercises are available in a GitHub repository that supports this book.

What You Need

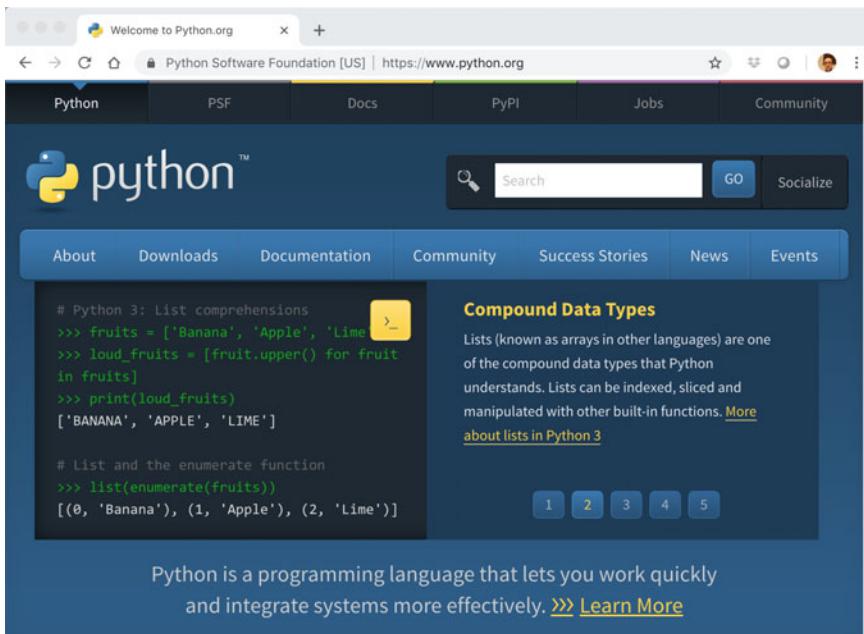
You can of course just read this book; however following the examples in this book will ensure that you get as much as possible out of the content.

For this you will need a computer.

Python is a cross platform programming language and as such you can use Python on a Windows PC, a Linux Box or an Apple Mac etc. This means that you are not tied to a particular type of operating system; you can use whatever you have available.

However you will need to install some software on your computer. At a minimum you will need Python. The focus of this book is Python 3 so that is the version that is assumed for all examples and exercises. As Python is available for a wide range of platforms from Windows, to Mac OS and Linux; you will need to ensure that you download the version for your operating system.

Python can be downloaded from the main Python web site which can be found at <http://www.python.org>.



You will also need some form of editor in which to write your programs. There are numerous generic programming editors available for different operating systems with VIM on Linux, Notepad++ on Windows and Sublime Text on Windows and Macs being popular choices.

However, using a IDE (Integrated Development Environment) editor such as PyCharm can make writing and running your programs much easier.

However, this book doesn't assume any particular editor, IDE or environment (other than Python 3 itself).

Python Versions

Currently there are two main versions of Python called Python 2 and Python 3.

- Python 2 was launched in October 2000 and has been, and still is, very widely used.
- Python 3 was launched in December 2008 and is a major revision to the language that is not backward compatible.

The issues between the two versions can be highlighted by the simple print facility:

- In Python 2 this is written as `print 'Hello World'`
- In Python 3 this is written as `print ('Hello World')`

It may not look like much of a difference but the inclusion of the `'()` marks a major change and means that any code written for one version of Python will probably not run on the other version. There are tools available, such as the `2to3` utility, that will (partially) automate translation from Python 2 to Python 3 but in general you are still left with significant work to do.

This then raises the question which version to use?

Although interest in Python 3 is steadily increasing there are many organisations that are still using Python 2. Choosing which version to use is a constant concern for many companies.

However, the Python 2 end of life plan was initially announced back in 2015 and although it has been postponed to 2020 out of concern that a large body of existing code could not easily be forward-ported to Python 3, it is still living on borrowed time. Python 3 is the future of the Python language and it is this version that has introduced many of the new and improved language and library features (that have admittedly been back ported to Python 2 in many cases). This book is solely focussed on Python 3.

Useful Python Resources

There are a wide range of resources on the web for Python; we will highlight a few here that you should bookmark. We will not keep referring to these to avoid repetition but you can refer back to this section whenever you need to:

- https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Python_Software_Foundation Python Software Foundation.

- <https://docs.python.org/3/> The main Python 3 documentation site. It contains tutorials, library references, set up and installation guides as well as Python how-tos.
- <https://docs.python.org/3/library/index.html> A list of all the builtin features for the Python language—this is where you can find online documentation for the various class and functions that we will be using throughout this book.
- <https://pymotw.com/3/> the Python 3 Module of the week site. This site contains many, many Python modules with short examples and explanations of what the modules do. A Python module is a library of features that build on and expand the core Python language. For example, if you are interested in building games using Python then pygame is a module specifically designed to make this easier.
- <https://www.fullstackpython.com/email.html> is a monthly newsletter that focusses on a single Python topic each month, such as a new library or module.
- <http://www.pythonweekly.com/> is a free weekly summary of the latest Python articles, projects, videos and upcoming events.

Each section of the book will provide additional online references relevant to the topic being discussed.

Conventions

Throughout this book you will find a number of conventions used for text styles. These text styles distinguish between different kinds of information.

Code words, variable and Python values, used within the main body of the text, are shown using a Courier font. For example:

This program creates a top level window (the `wx.Frame`) and gives it a title. It also creates a label (a `wx.StaticText` object) to be displayed within the frame.

In the above paragraph `wx.Frame` and `wx.StaticText` are classes available in a Python graphical user interface library.

A block of Python code is set out as shown here:

```
def draw_koch(size, depth):
    if depth > 0:
        for angle in ANGLES:
            draw_koch(size / 3, depth - 1)
```

```
        turtle.left(angle)
else:
    turtle.forward(size)

# Draw three sides of snowflake
for _ in range(3):
    draw_koch(SIZE_OF_SNOWFLAKE, depth)
    turtle.right(120)
```

Note that keywords are shown in bold font.

In some cases something of particular interest may be highlighted with colour:

```
# Submit the function ot the pool to run
# concurrently - obtain a future from pool
print('Submitting the worker to the pool')
future = pool.submit(worker, 'A')
```

Any command line or user input is shown in italics and coloured purple; for example:

```
> cp file.p ~otheruser/projdir/srcdir/newfile.p
```

Or

```
Hello, world
Enter your name: John
Hello John
```

Example Code and Sample Solutions

The examples used in this book (along with sample solutions for the exercises at the end of most chapters) are available in a GitHub repository. GitHub provides a web interface to Git, as well as a server environment hosting Git.

Git is a version control system typically used to manage source code files (such as those used to create systems in programming languages such as Python but also Java, C#, C++, Scala etc.). Systems such as Git are very useful for collaborative development as they allow multiple people to work on an implementation and to merge their work together. They also provide a useful historical view of the code (which also allows developers to roll back changes if modifications prove to be unsuitable).

If you already have Git installed on your computer then you can clone (obtain a copy of) the repository locally using:

```
git clone https://github.com/johnehunt/advancedpython3.git
```

If you do not have Git then you can obtain a zip file of the examples using

<https://github.com/johnnehunt/advancedpython3/archive/master.zip>

You can of course install Git yourself if you wish. To do this see <https://git-scm.com/downloads>. Versions of the Git client for Mac OS, Windows and Linux/Unix are available here.

However, many IDEs such as PyCharm come with Git support and so offer another approach to obtaining a Git repository.

For more information on Git see <http://git-scm.com/doc>. This Git guide provides a very good primer and is highly recommended.

Acknowledgements I would like to thank Phoebe Hunt for creating the pixel images used for the StarshipMeteors game in Chap. 8.

Contents

1	Introduction	1
1.1	Introduction	1
Part I Computer Graphics		
2	Introduction to Computer Graphics	5
2.1	Introduction	5
2.2	Background	6
2.3	The Graphical Computer Era	6
2.4	Interactive and Non Interactive Graphics	7
2.5	Pixels	8
2.6	Bit Map Versus Vector Graphics	10
2.7	Buffering	10
2.8	Python and Computer Graphics	10
2.9	References	11
2.10	Online Resources	11
3	Python Turtle Graphics	13
3.1	Introduction	13
3.2	The Turtle Graphics Library	13
3.2.1	The Turtle Module	13
3.2.2	Basic Turtle Graphics	14
3.2.3	Drawing Shapes	17
3.2.4	Filling Shapes	19
3.3	Other Graphics Libraries	19
3.4	3D Graphics	20
3.4.1	PyOpenGL	20
3.5	Online Resources	21
3.6	Exercises	21

4 Computer Generated Art	23
4.1 Creating Computer Art	23
4.2 A Computer Art Generator	25
4.3 Fractals in Python	28
4.3.1 The Koch Snowflake	28
4.3.2 Mandelbrot Set	31
4.4 Online Resources	33
4.5 Exercises	33
5 Introduction to Matplotlib	35
5.1 Introduction	35
5.2 Matplotlib	36
5.3 Plot Components	37
5.4 Matplotlib Architecture	38
5.4.1 Backend Layer	39
5.4.2 The Artist Layer	40
5.4.3 The Scripting Layer	41
5.5 Online Resources	42
6 Graphing with Matplotlib pyplot	43
6.1 Introduction	43
6.2 The pyplot API	43
6.3 Line Graphs	44
6.3.1 Coded Format Strings	46
6.4 Scatter Graph	47
6.4.1 When to Use Scatter Graphs	49
6.5 Pie Charts	50
6.5.1 Expanding Segments	52
6.5.2 When to Use Pie Charts	53
6.6 Bar Charts	54
6.6.1 Horizontal Bar Charts	55
6.6.2 Coloured Bars	56
6.6.3 Stacked Bar Charts	57
6.6.4 Grouped Bar Charts	58
6.7 Figures and Subplots	60
6.8 3D Graphs	63
6.9 Exercises	65
7 Graphical User Interfaces	67
7.1 Introduction	67
7.2 GUIs and WIMPS	68

7.3	Windowing Frameworks for Python	69
7.3.1	Platform-Independent GUI Libraries	70
7.3.2	Platform-Specific GUI Libraries	70
7.4	Online Resources	71
8	The wxPython GUI Library	73
8.1	The wxPython Library	73
8.1.1	wxPython Modules	74
8.1.2	Windows as Objects	75
8.1.3	A Simple Example	75
8.2	The wx.App Class	76
8.3	Window Classes	78
8.4	Widget/Control Classes	80
8.5	Dialogs	81
8.6	Arranging Widgets Within a Container	82
8.7	Drawing Graphics	84
8.8	Online Resources	86
8.9	Exercises	86
8.9.1	Simple GUI Application	86
9	Events in wxPython User Interfaces	87
9.1	Event Handling	87
9.2	Event Definitions	87
9.3	Types of Events	88
9.4	Binding an Event to an Event Handler	89
9.5	Implementing Event Handling	89
9.6	An Interactive wxPython GUI	92
9.7	Online Resources	96
9.8	Exercises	96
9.8.1	Simple GUI Application	96
9.8.2	GUI Interface to a Tic Tac Toe Game	98
10	PyDraw wxPython Example Application	99
10.1	Introduction	99
10.2	The PyDraw Application	99
10.3	The Structure of the Application	100
10.3.1	Model, View and Controller Architecture	101
10.3.2	PyDraw MVC Architecture	102
10.3.3	Additional Classes	103
10.3.4	Object Relationships	104
10.4	The Interactions Between Objects	105
10.4.1	The PyDrawApp	105
10.4.2	The PyDrawFrame Constructor	106

10.4.3	Changing the Application Mode	106
10.4.4	Adding a Graphic Object	107
10.5	The Classes	108
10.5.1	The PyDrawConstants Class	108
10.5.2	The PyDrawFrame Class	109
10.5.3	The PyDrawMenuBar Class	110
10.5.4	The PyDrawToolBar Class	111
10.5.5	The PyDrawController Class	111
10.5.6	The DrawingModel Class	113
10.5.7	The DrawingPanel Class	113
10.5.8	The DrawingController Class	114
10.5.9	The Figure Class	115
10.5.10	The Square Class	115
10.5.11	The Circle Class	116
10.5.12	The Line Class	116
10.5.13	The Text Class	117
10.6	References	117
10.7	Exercises	117

Part II Computer Games

11	Introduction to Games Programming	121
11.1	Introduction	121
11.2	Games Frameworks and Libraries	121
11.3	Python Games Development	122
11.4	Using Pygame	123
11.5	Online Resources	123
12	Building Games with pygame	125
12.1	Introduction	125
12.2	The Display Surface	126
12.3	Events	127
12.3.1	Event Types	127
12.3.2	Event Information	128
12.3.3	The Event Queue	129
12.4	A First pygame Application	130
12.5	Further Concepts	133
12.6	A More Interactive pygame Application	136
12.7	Alternative Approach to Processing Input Devices	138
12.8	pygame Modules	138
12.9	Online Resources	139

13	StarshipMeteors pygame	141
13.1	Creating a Spaceship Game	141
13.2	The Main Game Class	142
13.3	The GameObject Class	144
13.4	Displaying the Starship	145
13.5	Moving the Spaceship	146
13.6	Adding a Meteor Class	150
13.7	Moving the Meteors	152
13.8	Identifying a Collision	152
13.9	Identifying a Win	154
13.10	Increasing the Number of Meteors	154
13.11	Pausing the Game	155
13.12	Displaying the Game Over Message	156
13.13	The StarshipMeteors Game	157
13.14	Online Resources	162
13.15	Exercises	162

Part III Testing

14	Introduction to Testing	165
14.1	Introduction	165
14.2	Types of Testing	165
14.3	What Should Be Tested?	166
14.4	Testing Software Systems	167
14.4.1	Unit Testing	168
14.4.2	Integration Testing	169
14.4.3	System Testing	169
14.4.4	Installation/Upgrade Testing	170
14.4.5	Smoke Tests	170
14.5	Automating Testing	170
14.6	Test Driven Development	171
14.6.1	The TDD Cycle	172
14.6.2	Test Complexity	173
14.6.3	Refactoring	173
14.7	Design for Testability	173
14.7.1	Testability Rules of Thumb	173
14.8	Online Resources	174
14.9	Book Resources	174
15	PyTest Testing Framework	175
15.1	Introduction	175
15.2	What Is PyTest?	175
15.3	Setting Up PyTest	176
15.4	A Simple PyTest Example	176

15.5	Working with PyTest	179
15.6	Parameterised Tests	183
15.7	Online Resources	185
15.8	Exercises	185
16	Mocking for Testing	187
16.1	Introduction	187
16.2	Why Mock?	188
16.3	What Is Mocking?	190
16.4	Common Mocking Framework Concepts	191
16.5	Mocking Frameworks for Python	192
16.6	The <code>unittest.mock</code> Library	192
16.6.1	Mock and Magic Mock Classes	193
16.6.2	The Patchers	194
16.6.3	Mocking Returned Objects	195
16.6.4	Validating Mocks Have Been Called	196
16.7	Mock and MagicMock Usage	197
16.7.1	Naming Your Mocks	197
16.7.2	Mock Classes	197
16.7.3	Attributes on Mock Classes	198
16.7.4	Mocking Constants	199
16.7.5	Mocking Properties	199
16.7.6	Raising Exceptions with Mocks	199
16.7.7	Applying Patch to Every Test Method	200
16.7.8	Using Patch as a Context Manager	200
16.8	Mock Where You Use It	201
16.9	Patch Order Issues	201
16.10	How Many Mocks?	202
16.11	Mocking Considerations	202
16.12	Online Resources	203
16.13	Exercises	203
Part IV File Input/Output		
17	Introduction to Files, Paths and IO	207
17.1	Introduction	207
17.2	File Attributes	209
17.3	Paths	211
17.4	File Input/Output	212
17.5	Sequential Access Versus Random Access	213
17.6	Files and I/O in Python	214
17.7	Online Resources	214

18	Reading and Writing Files	215
18.1	Introduction	215
18.2	Obtaining References to Files	215
18.3	Reading Files	217
18.4	File Contents Iteration	218
18.5	Writing Data to Files	218
18.6	Using Files and with Statements	219
18.7	The Fileinput Module	219
18.8	Renaming Files	220
18.9	Deleting Files	220
18.10	Random Access Files	221
18.11	Directories	222
18.12	Temporary Files	224
18.13	Working with Paths	225
18.14	Online Resources	229
18.15	Exercise	229
19	Stream IO	231
19.1	Introduction	231
19.2	What is a Stream?	231
19.3	Python Streams	232
19.4	IOBase	233
19.5	Raw IO/UnBuffered IO Classes	234
19.6	Binary IO/Buffered IO Classes	234
19.7	Text Stream Classes	236
19.8	Stream Properties	237
19.9	Closing Streams	238
19.10	Returning to the open() Function	238
19.11	Online Resources	240
19.12	Exercise	240
20	Working with CSV Files	241
20.1	Introduction	241
20.2	CSV Files	241
20.2.1	The CSV Writer Class	242
20.2.2	The CSV Reader Class	243
20.2.3	The CSV DictWriter Class	244
20.2.4	The CSV DictReader Class	245
20.3	Online Resources	246
20.4	Exercises	246
21	Working with Excel Files	249
21.1	Introduction	249
21.2	Excel Files	249

21.3	The Openpyxl Workbook Class	250
21.4	The Openpyxl WorkSheet Objects	250
21.5	Working with Cells	250
21.6	Sample Excel File Creation Application	251
21.7	Loading a Workbook from an Excel File	253
21.8	Online Resources	254
21.9	Exercises	254
22	Regular Expressions in Python	257
22.1	Introduction	257
22.2	What Are Regular Expressions?	257
22.3	Regular Expression Patterns	258
22.3.1	Pattern Metacharacters	259
22.3.2	Special Sequences	259
22.3.3	Sets	260
22.4	The Python re Module	261
22.5	Working with Python Regular Expressions	261
22.5.1	Using Raw Strings	261
22.5.2	Simple Example	262
22.5.3	The Match Object	262
22.5.4	The search() Function	263
22.5.5	The match() Function	264
22.5.6	The Difference Between Matching and Searching	265
22.5.7	The.findall() Function	265
22.5.8	The.finditer() Function	266
22.5.9	The.split() Function	266
22.5.10	The.sub() Function	267
22.5.11	The.compile() Function	268
22.6	Online Resources	270
22.7	Exercises	270

Part V Database Access

23	Introduction to Databases	275
23.1	Introduction	275
23.2	What Is a Database?	275
23.2.1	Data Relationships	276
23.2.2	The Database Schema	277
23.3	SQL and Databases	279
23.4	Data Manipulation Language	280
23.5	Transactions in Databases	281
23.6	Further Reading	282

24	Python DB-API	283
24.1	Accessing a Database from Python	283
24.2	The DB-API	283
24.2.1	The Connect Function	284
24.2.2	The Connection Object	284
24.2.3	The Cursor Object	285
24.2.4	Mappings from Database Types to Python Types	286
24.2.5	Generating Errors	286
24.2.6	Row Descriptions	287
24.3	Transactions in PyMySQL	288
24.4	Online Resources	288
25	PyMySQL Module	291
25.1	The PyMySQL Module	291
25.2	Working with the PyMySQL Module	291
25.2.1	Importing the Module	292
25.2.2	Connect to the Database	292
25.2.3	Obtaining the Cursor Object	293
25.2.4	Using the Cursor Object	293
25.2.5	Obtaining Information About the Results	294
25.2.6	Fetching Results	294
25.2.7	Close the Connection	295
25.3	Complete PyMySQL Query Example	295
25.4	Inserting Data to the Database	296
25.5	Updating Data in the Database	298
25.6	Deleting Data in the Database	299
25.7	Creating Tables	300
25.8	Online Resources	301
25.9	Exercises	301
Part VI Logging		
26	Introduction to Logging	305
26.1	Introduction	305
26.2	Why Log?	305
26.3	What Is the Purpose of Logging?	306
26.4	What Should You Log?	306
26.5	What Not to Log	307
26.6	Why Not Just Use Print?	308
26.7	Online Resources	309
27	Logging in Python	311
27.1	The Logging Module	311
27.2	The Logger	312

27.3	Controlling the Amount of Information Logged	313
27.4	Logger Methods	315
27.5	Default Logger	316
27.6	Module Level Loggers	317
27.7	Logger Hierarchy	318
27.8	Formatters	319
27.8.1	Formatting Log Messages	319
27.8.2	Formatting Log Output	319
27.9	Online Resources	322
27.10	Exercises	322
28	Advanced Logging	323
28.1	Introduction	323
28.2	Handlers	323
28.2.1	Setting the Root Output Handler	325
28.2.2	Programmatically Setting the Handler	326
28.2.3	Multiple Handlers	328
28.3	Filters	329
28.4	Logger Configuration	330
28.5	Performance Considerations	333
28.6	Exercises	334
Part VII Concurrency and Parallelism		
29	Introduction to Concurrency and Parallelism	337
29.1	Introduction	337
29.2	Concurrency	337
29.3	Parallelism	339
29.4	Distribution	340
29.5	Grid Computing	340
29.6	Concurrency and Synchronisation	342
29.7	Object Orientation and Concurrency	342
29.8	Threads V Processes	343
29.9	Some Terminology	344
29.10	Online Resources	344
30	Threading	347
30.1	Introduction	347
30.2	Threads	347
30.3	Thread States	347
30.4	Creating a Thread	348
30.5	Instantiating the Thread Class	349
30.6	The Thread Class	350

30.7	The Threading Module Functions	352
30.8	Passing Arguments to a Thread	352
30.9	Extending the Thread Class	354
30.10	Daemon Threads	355
30.11	Naming Threads	356
30.12	Thread Local Data	357
30.13	Timers	358
30.14	The Global Interpreter Lock	359
30.15	Online Resources	360
30.16	Exercise	360
31	Multiprocessing	363
31.1	Introduction	363
31.2	The Process Class	363
31.3	Working with the Process Class	365
31.4	Alternative Ways to Start a Process	366
31.5	Using a Pool	368
31.6	Exchanging Data Between Processes	372
31.7	Sharing State Between Processes	374
31.7.1	Process Shared Memory	374
31.8	Online Resources	375
31.9	Exercises	376
32	Inter Thread/Process Synchronisation	377
32.1	Introduction	377
32.2	Using a Barrier	377
32.3	Event Signalling	380
32.4	Synchronising Concurrent Code	382
32.5	Python Locks	383
32.6	Python Conditions	386
32.7	Python Semaphores	388
32.8	The Concurrent Queue Class	389
32.9	Online Resources	391
32.10	Exercises	391
33	Futures	395
33.1	Introduction	395
33.2	The Need for a Future	395
33.3	Futures in Python	396
33.3.1	Future Creation	397
33.3.2	Simple Example Future	397
33.4	Running Multiple Futures	399
33.4.1	Waiting for All Futures to Complete	400
33.4.2	Processing Results as Completed	402

33.5	Processing Future Results Using a Callback	403
33.6	Online Resources	405
33.7	Exercises	405
34	Concurrency with AsyncIO	407
34.1	Introduction	407
34.2	Asynchronous IO	407
34.3	Async IO Event Loop	408
34.4	The Async and Await Keywords	409
34.4.1	Using Async and Await	409
34.5	Async IO Tasks	411
34.6	Running Multiple Tasks	414
34.6.1	Collating Results from Multiple Tasks	414
34.6.2	Handling Task Results as They Are Made Available	415
34.7	Online Resources	416
34.8	Exercises	417
Part VIII Reactive Programming		
35	Reactive Programming Introduction	421
35.1	Introduction	421
35.2	What Is a Reactive Application?	421
35.3	The ReactiveX Project	422
35.4	The Observer Pattern	422
35.5	Hot and Cold Observables	423
35.5.1	Cold Observables	424
35.5.2	Hot Observables	424
35.5.3	Implications of Hot and Cold Observables	424
35.6	Differences Between Event Driven Programming and Reactive Programming	425
35.7	Advantages of Reactive Programming	425
35.8	Disadvantages of Reactive Programming	426
35.9	The RxPy Reactive Programming Framework	426
35.10	Online Resources	426
35.11	Reference	427
36	RxPy Observables, Observers and Subjects	429
36.1	Introduction	429
36.2	Observables in RxPy	429
36.3	Observers in RxPy	430
36.4	Multiple Subscribers/Observers	432
36.5	Subjects in RxPy	433

36.6	Observer Concurrency	435
36.6.1	Available Schedulers	437
36.7	Online Resources	438
36.8	Exercises	438
37	RxPy Operators	439
37.1	Introduction	439
37.2	Reactive Programming Operators	439
37.3	Piping Operators	440
37.4	Creational Operators	441
37.5	Transformational Operators	441
37.6	Combinatorial Operators	443
37.7	Filtering Operators	444
37.8	Mathematical Operators	445
37.9	Chaining Operators	446
37.10	Online Resources	448
37.11	Exercises	448
Part IX Network Programming		
38	Introduction to Sockets and Web Services	451
38.1	Introduction	451
38.2	Sockets	451
38.3	Web Services	452
38.4	Addressing Services	452
38.5	Localhost	453
38.6	Port Numbers	454
38.7	IPv4 Versus IPv6	455
38.8	Sockets and Web Services in Python	455
38.9	Online Resources	456
39	Sockets in Python	457
39.1	Introduction	457
39.2	Socket to Socket Communication	457
39.3	Setting Up a Connection	458
39.4	An Example Client Server Application	458
39.4.1	The System Structure	458
39.4.2	Implementing the Server Application	459
39.5	Socket Types and Domains	461
39.6	Implementing the Client Application	461
39.7	The Socketserver Module	463
39.8	HTTP Server	465
39.9	Online Resources	469
39.10	Exercises	469

40	Web Services in Python	471
40.1	Introduction	471
40.2	RESTful Services	471
40.3	A RESTful API	472
40.4	Python Web Frameworks	473
40.5	Flask	474
40.6	Hello World in Flask	474
40.6.1	Using JSON	474
40.6.2	Implementing a Flask Web Service	475
40.6.3	A Simple Service	475
40.6.4	Providing Routing Information	476
40.6.5	Running the Service	477
40.6.6	Invoking the Service	478
40.6.7	The Final Solution	479
40.7	Online Resources	479
41	Bookshop Web Service	481
41.1	Building a Flask Bookshop Service	481
41.2	The Design	481
41.3	The Domain Model	482
41.4	Encoding Books Into JSON	484
41.5	Setting Up the GET Services	486
41.6	Deleting a Book	488
41.7	Adding a New Book	489
41.8	Updating a Book	491
41.9	What Happens if We Get It Wrong?	492
41.10	Bookshop Services Listing	494
41.11	Exercises	497

Chapter 1

Introduction



1.1 Introduction

I have heard many people over the years say that Python is an easy language to learn and that Python is also a simple language.

To some extent both of these statements are true; but only to some extent.

While the core of the Python language is easy to learn and relatively simple (in part thanks to its consistency); the sheer richness of the language constructs and flexibility available can be overwhelming. In addition the Python environment, its eco system, the range of libraries available, the often competing options available etc., can make moving to the next level daunting.

Once you have learned the core elements of the language such as how classes and inheritance work, how functions work, what are protocols and Abstract Base Classes etc. Where do you go next?

The aim of this book is to delve into those next steps. The book is organised into eight different topics:

1. **Computer Graphics.** The book covers Computer Graphics and Computer Generated Art in Python as well as Graphical User Interfaces and Graphing/ Charting via Matplotlib.
2. **Games Programming.** This topic is covered using the pygame library.
3. **Testing and Mocking.** Testing is an important aspect of any software development; this book introduces testing in general and the PyTest module in detail. It also considers mocking within testing including what and when to mock.
4. **File Input/Output.** The book covers text file reading and writing as well as reading and writing CSV and Excel files. Although not strictly related to file input, regular expressions are included in this section as they can be used to process textual data held in files.
5. **Database Access.** The book introduces databases and relational database in particular. It then presents the Python DB-API database access standard and

- one implementation of this standard, the PyMySQL module used to access a MySQL database.
- 6. **Logging.** An often missed topic is that of logging. The book therefore introduces logging the need for logging, what to log and what not to log as well as the Python logging module.
 - 7. **Concurrency and Parallelism.** The book provides extensive coverage of concurrency topics including Threads, Processes and inter thread or process synchronisation. It also presents Futures and AsyncIO.
 - 8. **Reactive Programming.** This section of the book introduces Reactive Programming using the PyRx reactive programming library.
 - 9. **Network Programming.** The book concludes by introducing socket and web service communications in Python.

Each section is introduced by a chapter providing the background and key concepts of that topic. Subsequent chapters then cover various aspects of the topic.

For example, the first topic covered is on Computer Graphics. This section has an introductory chapter on Computer Graphics in general. It then introduces the Turtle Graphics Python library which can be used to generate a graphical display.

The following chapter considers the subject of Computer Generated Art and uses the Turtle Graphics library to illustrate these ideas. Thus several examples are presented that might be considered art. The chapter concludes by presenting the well known Koch Snowflake and the Mandelbrot Fractal set.

This is followed by a chapter presenting the MatPlotLib library used for generating 2D and 3D charts and graphs (such as a line chart, bar chart or scatter graph).

The section concludes with a chapter on Graphical User Interfaces (or GUIs) using the wxpython library. This chapter explores what we mean by a GUI and some of the alternatives available in Python for creating a GUI.

Subsequent topics follow a similar pattern.

Each programming or library oriented chapter also includes numerous sample programs that can be downloaded from the GutHub repository and executed. These chapters also include one or more end of chapter exercises (with sample solutions also in the GutHub repository).

The topics within the book can be read mostly independently of each other. This allows the reader to dip into subject areas as and when required. For example, the File Input/Output section and the Database Access section can be read independently of each other (although in this case assessing both technologies may be useful in selecting an appropriate approach to adopt for the long term persistent storage of data in a particular system).

Within each section there are usually dependencies, for example it is necessary to understand the pygame library from the ‘Building Games with pygame’ introductory chapter, before exploring the worked case study presented by the chapter on the StarshipMeteors game. Similarly it is necessary to have read the Threading and Multiprocessing chapters before reading the Inter Thread/Process Synchronisation chapter.

Part I

Computer Graphics

Chapter 2

Introduction to Computer Graphics



2.1 Introduction

Computer Graphics are everywhere; they are on your TV, in cinema adverts, the core of many films, on your tablet or mobile phone and certainly on your PC or Mac as well as on the dashboard of your car, on your smart watch and in childrens electronic toys.

However what do we mean by the term Computer Graphics? The term goes back to a time when many (most) computers were purely textual in terms of their input and output and very few computers could generate graphical displays let alone handle input via such a display. However, in terms of this book we take the term Computer Graphics to include the creation of Graphical User Interfaces (or GUIs), graphs and charts such as bar charts or line plots of data, graphics in computer games (such as Space Invaders or Flight Simulator) as well as the generation of 2D and 3D scenes or images. We also use the term to include Computer Generated Art.

The availability of Computer Graphics is very important for the huge acceptance of computer systems by non computer scientists over the last 40 years. It is in part thanks to the accessibility of computer systems via computer graphic interfaces that almost everybody now uses some form of computer system (whether that is a PC, a tablet, a mobile phone or a smart TV).

A Graphical User Interface (GUI) can capture the essence of an idea or a situation, often avoiding the need for a long passage of text or textual commands. It is also because a picture can paint a thousand words; as long as it is the right picture.

In many situations where the relationships between large amounts of information must be conveyed, it is much easier for the user to assimilate this graphically than textually. Similarly, it is often easier to convey some meaning by manipulating some system entities on screen, than by combinations of text commands.

For example, a well chosen graph can make clear information that is hard to determine from a table of the same data. In turn an adventure style game can

become engaging and immersive with computer graphics which is in marked contrast to the textual versions of the 1980s. This highlights the advantages of a visual presentation compared to a purely textual one.

2.2 Background

Every interactive software system has a Human Computer Interface, whether it be a single text line system or an advanced graphic display. It is the vehicle used by developers for obtaining information from their user(s), and in turn, every user has to face some form of computer interface in order to perform any desired computer operation.

Historically computer systems did not have a Graphical User Interface and rarely generated a graphical view. These systems from the 60s, 70s and 80s typically focussed on numerical or data processing tasks. They were accessed via green or grey screens on a text oriented terminal. There was little or no opportunity for graphical output.

However, during this period various researchers at laboratories such as Stanford, MIT, Bell Telephone Labs and Xerox were looking at the possibilities that graphic systems might offer to computers. Indeed even as far back as 1963 Ivan Sutherland showed that interactive computer graphics were feasible with his Ph.D. thesis on the Sketchpad system.

2.3 The Graphical Computer Era

Graphical computer displays and interactive graphical interfaces became a common means of human-computer interaction during the 1980s. Such interfaces can save a user from the need to learn complex commands. They are less likely to intimidate computer naives and can provide a large amount of information quickly in a form which can be easily assimilated by the user.

The widespread use of high quality graphical interfaces (such as those provided by the Apple Macintosh and the early Windows interface) led many computer users to expect such interfaces to any software they use. Indeed these systems paved the way for the type of interface that is now omnipresent on PCs, Macs, Linux boxes, tablets and smart phones etc. This graphical user interface is based on the WIMP paradigm (Windows, Icons, Menus and Pointers) which is now the prevalent type of graphical user interface in use today.

The main advantage of any window-based system, and particularly of a WIMP environment, is that it requires only a small amount of user training. There is no need to learn complex commands, as most operations are available either as icons, operations on icons, user actions (such as swiping) or from menu options, and are easy to use. (An icon is a small graphic object that is usually symbolic of an

operation or of a larger entity such as an application program or a file). In general, WIMP based systems are simple to learn, intuitive to use, easy to retain and straightforward to work with.

These WIMP systems are exemplified by the Apple Macintosh interface (see Goldberg and Robson as well as Tesler), which was influenced by the pioneering work done at the Palo Alto Research Center on the Xerox Star Machine. It was, however, the Macintosh which brought such interfaces to the mass market, and first gained acceptance for them as tools for business, home and industry. This interface transformed the way in which humans expected to interact with their computers, becoming a de facto standard, which forced other manufacturers to provide similar interfaces on their own machines, for example Microsoft Windows for the PC.

This type of interface can be augmented by providing direct manipulation graphics. These are graphics which can be *grabbed* and manipulated by the user, using a mouse, to perform some operation or action. Icons are a simple version of this, the “opening” of an icon causes either the associated application to execute or the associated window to be displayed.

2.4 Interactive and Non Interactive Graphics

Computer graphics can be broadly subdivided into two categories:

- Non Interactive Computer Graphics
- Interactive Computer Graphics.

In Non Interactive Computer Graphics (aka Passive Computer Graphics) an image is generated by a computer typically on a computer screen; this image can be viewed by the user (however they cannot interact with the image). Examples of non-interactive graphics presented later in this book include Computer Generated Art in which an image is generated using the Python Turtle Graphics library. Such an image can be viewed by the user but not modified. Another example might be a basic bar chart generated using Matplotlib which presents some set of data.

Interactive Computer Graphics by contrast, involve the user interacting with the image displayed in the screen in some way, this might be to modify the data being displayed or to change the way in which the image is being rendered etc. It is typified by interactive Graphical User Interfaces (GUIs) in which a user interacts with menus, buttons, input fields, sliders, scrollbars etc. However, other visual displays can also be interactive. For example, a slider could be used with a Matplotlib chart. This display could present the number of sales made on a particular date; as the slider is moved so the data changes and the chart is modified to show different data sets.

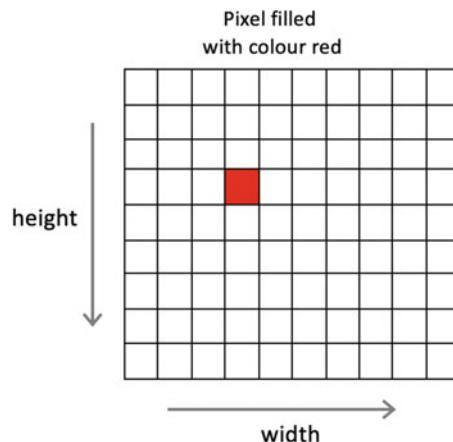
Another example is represented by all computer games which are inherently interactive and most, if not all, update their visual display in response to some user inputs. For example in the classic flight simulator game, as the user moves the joystick or mouse, the simulated plane moves accordingly and the display presented to the user updates.

2.5 Pixels

A key concept for all computer graphics systems is the pixel. Pixel was originally a word formed from combining and shortening the words picture (or pix) and element. A pixel is a cell on the computer screen. Each cell represents a dot on the screen. The size of this dot or cell and the number of cells available will vary depending upon the type, size and resolution of the screen. For example, it was common for early Windows PCs to have a 640 by 480 resolution display (using a VGA graphics card). This relates to the number of pixels in terms of the width and height. This meant that there were 640 pixels across the screen with 480 rows of pixels down the screen. By contrast todays 4K TV displays have 4096 by 2160 pixels.

The size and number of pixels available affects the quality of the image as presented to a user. With lower resolution displays (with fewer individual pixels) the image may appear blocky or poorly defined; where as with a higher resolution it may appear sharp and clear.

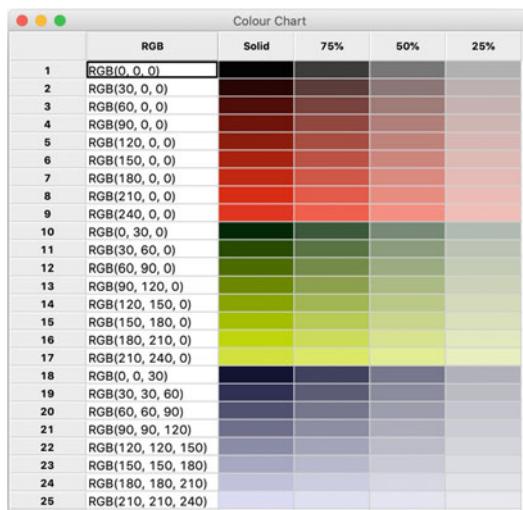
Each pixel can be referenced by its location in the display grid. By filling a pixels on the screen with different colours various images/displays can be created. For example, in the following picture a single pixel has been filled at position 4 by 4:



A sequence of pixels can form a line, a circle or any number of different shapes. However, since the grid of pixels is based on individual points, a diagonal line or a circle may need to utilise multiple pixels which when zoomed may have jagged edges. For example, the following picture shows part of a circle on which we have zoomed in:



Each pixel can have a colour and a transparency associated with it. The range of colours available depends on the display system being used. For example, mono chrome displays only allow black and white, whereas a grey scale display only allows various shades of grey to be displayed. On modern systems it is usually possible to represent a wide range of colours using the traditional RGB colour codes (where R represents Red, G represents Green and B represents Blue). In this encoding solid Red is represented by a code such as [255, 0, 0] where as solid Green is represented by [0, 255, 0] and solid Blue by [0, 0, 255]. Based on this idea various shades can be represented by combination of these codes such as Orange which might be represented by [255, 150, 50]. This is illustrated below for a set of RGB colours using different red, green and blue values:



In addition it is possible to apply a transparency to a pixel. This is used to indicate how solid the fill colour should be. The above grid illustrates the effect of applying a 75%, 50% and 25% transparency to colours displayed using the Python wxPython GUI library. In this library the transparency is referred to as the alpha opaque value. It can have values in the range 0–255 where 0 is completely transparent and 255 is completely solid.

2.6 Bit Map Versus Vector Graphics

There are two ways of generating an image/display across the pixels on the screen. One approach is known as bit mapped (or raster) graphics and the other is known as vector graphics. In the bit mapped approach each pixel is mapped to the values to be displayed to create the image. In the vector graphics approach geometric shapes are described (such as lines and points) and these are then *rendered* onto a display. Raster graphics are simpler but vector graphics provide much more flexibility and scalability.

2.7 Buffering

One issue for interactive graphical displays is the ability to change the display as smoothly and cleanly as possible. If a display is jerky or seems to jump from one image to another, then users will find it uncomfortable. It is therefore common to draw the next display on some in memory structure; often referred to as a *buffer*. This buffer can then be rendered on the display once the whole image has been created. For example Turtle Graphics allows the user to define how many changes should be made to the display before it is rendered (or drawn) on to the screen. This can significantly speed up the performance of a graphic application.

In some cases systems will use two buffers; often referred to as double buffering. In this approach one buffer is being rendered or drawn onto the screen while the other buffer is being updated. This can significantly improve the overall performance of the system as modern computers can perform calculations and generate data much faster than it can typically be drawn onto a screen.

2.8 Python and Computer Graphics

In the remainder of this section of the book we will look at generating computer graphics using the Python Turtle Graphics library. We will also discuss using this library to create Computer Generated Art. Following this we will explore the MatPlotLib library used to generate charts and data plots such as bar charts, scatter graphs, line plots and heat maps etc. We will then explore the use of Python libraries to create GUIs using menus, fields, tables etc.

2.9 References

The following are referenced in this chapter:

- I.E. Sutherland, Sketchpad: a man-machine graphical communication system (courtesy Computer Laboratory, University of Cambridge UCAM-CL-TR-574, September 2003), January 1963.
- D.C. Smith, C. Irby, R. Kimball, B. Verplank, E. Harslem, Designing the Star user interface. BYTE 7(4), 242–282 (1982).

2.10 Online Resources

The following provide further reading material:

- <https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Sketchpad> Ivan Sutherlands Sketchpad from 1963.
- http://images.designworldonline.com.s3.amazonaws.com/CADhistory/Sketchpad_A_Man-Machine_Graphical_Communication_System_Jan63.pdf Ivan Sutherlands Ph.D. 1963.
- https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Xerox_Star The Xerox Star computer and GUI.

Chapter 3

Python Turtle Graphics



3.1 Introduction

Python is very well supported in terms of graphics libraries. One of the most widely used graphics libraries is the Turtle Graphics library introduced in this chapter. This is partly because it is straight forward to use and partly because it is provided by default with the Python environment (and this you do not need to install any additional libraries to use it).

The chapter concludes by briefly considering a number of other graphic libraries including PyOpen GL. The PyOpenGL library can be used to create sophisticated 3D scenes.

3.2 The Turtle Graphics Library

3.2.1 *The Turtle Module*

This provides a library of features that allow what are known as vector graphics to be created. Vector graphics refers to the lines (or vectors) that can be drawn on the screen. The drawing area is often referred to as a drawing plane or drawing board and has the idea of x, y coordinates.

The Turtle Graphics library is intended just as a basic drawing tool; other libraries can be used for drawing two and three dimensional graphs (such as MatPlotLib) but those tend to focus on specific types of graphical displays.

The idea behind the Turtle module (and its name) derives from the Logo programming language from the 60s and 70s that was designed to introduce programming to children. It had an on screen turtle that could be controlled by commands such as forward (which would move the turtle forward), right (which would turn the turtle by a certain number of degrees), left (which turns the turtle left by a certain number of

degrees) etc. This idea has continued into the current Python Turtle Graphics library where commands such as `turtle.forward(10)` moves the turtle (or cursor as it is now) forward 10 pixels etc. By combining together these apparently simple commands, it is possible to create intricate and quiet complex shapes.

3.2.2 Basic Turtle Graphics

Although the `turtle` module is built into Python 3 it is necessary to *import* the module before you use it:

```
import turtle
```

There are in fact two ways of working with the `turtle` module; one is to use the classes available with the library and the other is to use a simpler set of functions that hide the classes and objects. In this chapter we will focus on the set of functions you can use to create drawings with the Turtle Graphics library.

The first thing we will do is to set up the window we will use for our drawings; the `TurtleScreen` class is the parent of all screen implementations used for whatever operating system you are running on.

If you are using the functions provided by the `turtle` module, then the screen object is initialised as appropriate for your operating system. This means that you can just focus on the following functions to configure the layout/display such as this screen can have a title, a size, a starting location etc.

The key functions are:

- `setup(width, height, startx, starty)` Sets the size and position of the main window/screen. The parameters are:
 - `width`—if an integer, a size in pixels, if a float, a fraction of the screen; default is 50% of screen.
 - `height`—if an integer, the height in pixels, if a float, a fraction of the screen; default is 75% of screen.
 - `startx`—if positive, starting position in pixels from the left edge of the screen, if negative from the right edge, if None, center window horizontally.
 - `starty`—if positive, starting position in pixels from the top edge of the screen, if negative from the bottom edge, if None, center window vertically.
- `title(titlestring)` sets the title of the screen/window.
- `exitonclick()` shuts down the turtle graphics screen/window when the user clicks on the screen.
- `bye()` shuts down the turtle graphics screen/window.
- `done()` starts the main event loop; this must be the last statement in a turtle graphics program.

- `speed(speed)` the drawing speed to use, the default is 3. The higher the value the faster the drawing takes place, values in the range 0–10 are accepted.
- `turtle.tracer(n = None)` This can be used to batch updates to the turtle graphics screen. It is very useful when a drawing become large and complex. By setting the number (n) to a large number (say 600) then 600 elements will be drawn in memory before the actual screen is updated in one go; this can significantly speed up the generation of for example, a fractal picture. When called without arguments, returns the currently stored value of n.
- `turtle.update()` Perform an update of the turtle screen; this should be called at the end of a program when `tracer()` has been used as it will ensure that all elements have been drawn even if the tracer threshold has not yet been reached.
- `pencolor(color)` used to set the colour used to draw lines on the screen; the color can be specified in numerous ways including using named colours set as ‘red’, ‘blue’, ‘green’ or using the RGB colour codes or by specifying the color using hexadecimal numbers. For more information on the named colours and RGB colour codes to use see <https://www.tcl.tk/man/tcl/TkCmd/colors.htm>. Note all colour methods use American spellings for example this method is `pencolor` (not `pencolour`).
- `fillcolor(color)` used to set the colour to use to fill in closed areas within drawn lines. Again note the spelling of colour!

The following code snippet illustrates some of these functions:

```
import turtle

# set a title for your canvas window
turtle.title('My Turtle Animation')

# set up the screen size (in pixels)
# set the starting point of the turtle (0, 0)
turtle.setup(width=200, height=200, startx=0, starty=0)

# sets the pen color to red
turtle.pencolor('red')

# ...

# Add this so that the window will close when clicked on
turtle.exitonclick()
```

We can now look at how to actually draw a shape onto the screen.

The cursor on the screen has several properties; these include the current drawing colour of the *pen* that the cursor moves, but also its current position (in the x, y coordinates of the screen) and the direction it is currently facing. We have

already seen that you can control one of these properties using the `pencolor()` method, other methods are used to control the cursor (or turtle) and are presented below.

The direction in which the *cursor* is pointing can be altered using several functions including:

- `right(angle)` Turn cursor right by angle units.
- `left(angle)` Turn the cursor left by angle units.
- `setheading(to_angle)` Set the orientation of the cursor to `to_angle`. Where 0 is east, 90 is north, 180 is west and 270 is south.

You can move the cursor (and if the pen is down this will draw a line) using:

- `forward(distance)` move the cursor forward by the specified distance in the direction that the cursor is currently pointing. If the pen is down then draw a line.
- `backward(distance)` move the cursor backward by distance in the opposite direction that in which the cursor is pointing.

And you can also explicitly position the cursor:

- `goto(x, y)` move the cursor to the x, y location on the screen specified; if the pen is down draw a line. You can also use steps and set position to do the same thing.
- `setx(x)` sets the cursor's x coordinate, leaves the y coordinate unchanged.
- `sety(y)` sets the cursor's y coordinate, leaves the x coordinate unchanged.

It is also possible to move the cursor without drawing by modifying whether the pen is up or down:

- `penup()` move the pen up—moving the cursor will no longer draw a line.
- `pendown()` move the pen down—moving the cursor will now draw a line in the current pen colour.

The size of the pen can also be controlled:

- `pensize(width)` set the line thickness to width. The method `width()` is an alias for this method.

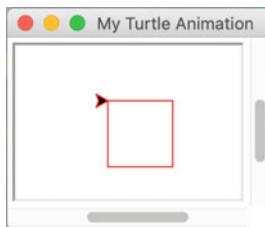
It is also possible to draw a circle or a dot:

- `circle(radius, extent, steps)` draws a circle using the given radius. The extent determines how much of the circle is drawn; if the extent is not given then the whole circle is drawn. Steps indicates the number of steps to be used to draw the circle (it can be used to draw regular polygons).
- `dot(size, color)` draws a filled circle with the diameter of size using the specified color.

You can now use some of the above methods to draw a shape on the screen. For this first example, we will keep it very simple, we will draw a simple square:

```
# Draw a square
turtle.forward(50)
turtle.right(90)
turtle.forward(50)
turtle.right(90)
turtle.forward(50)
turtle.right(90)
turtle.forward(50)
turtle.right(90)
```

The above moves the cursor forward 50 pixels then turns 90° before repeating these steps three times. The end result is that a square of 50×50 pixels is drawn on the screen:



Note that the cursor is displayed during drawing (this can be turned off with `turtle.hideturtle()` as the cursor was originally referred to as the turtle).

3.2.3 Drawing Shapes

Of course you do not need to just use fixed values for the shapes you draw, you can use variables or calculate positions based on expressions etc.

For example, the following program creates a sequences of squares rotated around a central location to create an engaging image:

```
import turtle

def setup():
    """ Provide the config for the screen """
    turtle.title('Multiple Squares Animation')
    turtle.setup(100, 100, 0, 0)
    turtle.hideturtle()

def draw_square(size):
    """ Draw a square in the current direction """
    turtle.forward(size)
    turtle.right(90)
    turtle.forward(size)
    turtle.right(90)
    turtle.forward(size)
    turtle.right(90)
    turtle.forward(size)

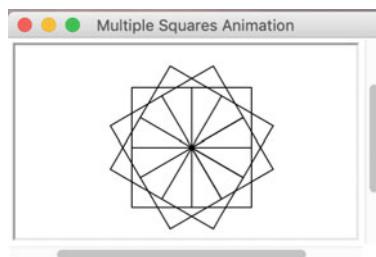
setup()

for _ in range(0, 12):
    draw_square(50)
    # Rotate the starting direction
    turtle.right(120)

# Add this so that the window will close when clicked on
turtle.exitonclick()
```

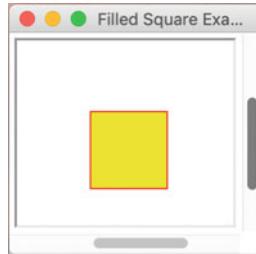
In this program two functions have been defined, one to setup the screen or window with a title and a size and to turn off the cursor display. The second function takes a size parameter and uses that to draw a square. The main part of the program then sets up the window and uses a for loop to draw 12 squares of 50 pixels each by continuously rotating 120° between each square. Note that as we do not need to reference the loop variable we are using the ‘_’ format which is considered an anonymous loop variable in Python.

The image generated by this program is shown below:



3.2.4 Filling Shapes

It is also possible to fill in the area within a drawn shape. For example, you might wish to fill in one of the squares we have drawn as shown below:



To do this we can use the `begin_fill()` and `end_fill()` functions:

- `begin_fill()` indicates that shapes should be filled with the current fill colour, this function should be called just before drawing the shape to be filled.
- `end_fill()` called after the shape to be filled has been finished. This will cause the shape drawn since the last call to `begin_fill()` to be filled using the current fill colour.
- `filling()` Return the current fill state (True if filling, False if not).

The following program uses this (and the earlier `draw_square()` function) to draw the above filled square:

```
turtle.title('Filled Square Example')
turtle.setup(100, 100, 0, 0)
turtle.hideturtle()

turtle.pencolor('red')
turtle.fillcolor('yellow')
turtle.begin_fill()

draw_square(60)

turtle.end_fill()
turtle.done()
```

3.3 Other Graphics Libraries

Of course Turtle Graphics is not the only graphics option available for Python; however other graphics libraries do not come pre-packed with Python and must be downloaded using a tool such as Anaconda, PIP or PyCharm.

- **PyQtGraph.** The PyQtGraph library is pure Python library oriented towards mathematics, scientific and engineering graphic applications as well as GUI applications. For more information see <http://www.pyqtgraph.org>.
- **Pillow.** Pillow is a Python imaging library (based on PIL the Python Imaging library) that provides image processing capabilities for use in Python. For more information on Pillow see <https://pillow.readthedocs.io/en/stable>.
- **Pyglet.** pyglet is another windowing and multimedia library for Python. See <https://bitbucket.org/pyglet/pyglet/wiki/Home>.

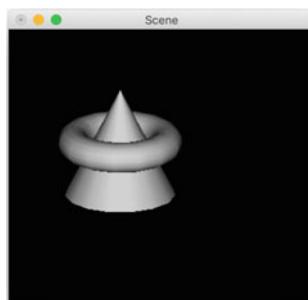
3.4 3D Graphics

Although it is certainly possible for a developer to create convincing 3D images using Turtle Graphics; it is not the primary aim of the library. This means that there is no direct support for creating 3D images other than the basic cursor moving facilities and the programmers skill.

However, there are 3D graphics libraries available for Python. One such library is Panda3D (<https://www.panda3d.org>) while another is VPython (<https://vpython.org>) while a third is pi3d (<https://pypi.org/project/pi3d>). However we will briefly look at the PyOpenGL library as this builds on the very widely used OpenGL library.

3.4.1 *PyOpenGL*

PyOpenGL his an open source project that provides a set of bindings (or wrappings around) the OpenGL library. OpenGL is the Open Graphics Library which is a cross language, cross platform API for rendering 2D and 3D vector graphics. OpenGL is used in a wide range of applications from games, to virtual reality, through data and information visualisation systems to Computer Aided Design (CAD) systems. PyOpenGL provides a set of Python functions that call out from Python to the underlying OpenGL libraries. This makes it very easy to create 3D vector based images in Python using the industry standard OpenGL library. A very simple examples of an image created using PyOpenGL is given below:



3.5 Online Resources

The following provide further reading material:

- <https://docs.python.org/3/library/turtle.html> Turtle graphics documentation.
- <http://pythonturtle.org/> The Python Turtle programming environment—this intended for teaching the basic concepts behind programming using the Turtle graphics library.
- <http://pyopengl.sourceforge.net> The PyOpenGL home page.
- <https://www.opengl.org> The OpenGL home page.

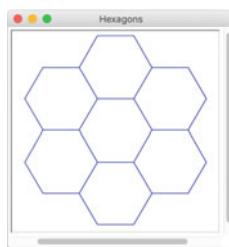
3.6 Exercises

The aim of this exercise is to create a graphic display using Python Turtle Graphics.

You should create a simple program to draw an octagon on the Turtle Graphics screen.

Modify your program so that there is an hexagon drawing function. This function should take three parameters, the x, and y coordinates to start drawing the octagon and the size of each side of the octagon.

Modify your program to draw the hexagon in multiple locations to create the following picture:



Chapter 4

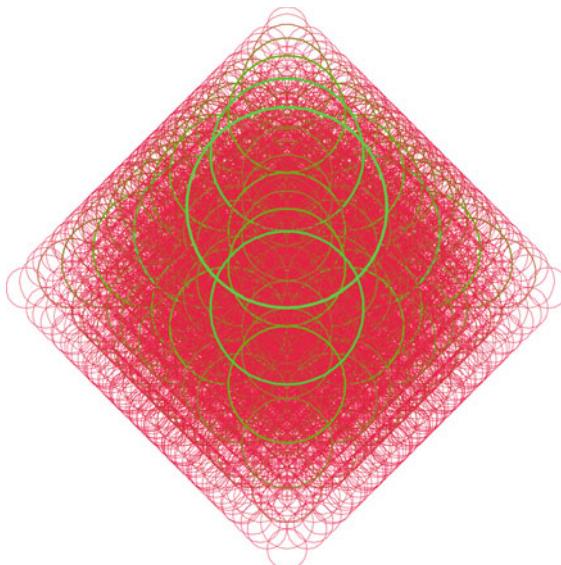
Computer Generated Art



4.1 Creating Computer Art

Computer Art is defined as any art that uses a computer. However, in the context of this book we mean it to be art that is generated by a computer or more specifically a computer program. The following example, illustrates how in a very few lines of Python code, using the Turtle graphics library, you can create images that might be considered to be computer art.

The following image is generated by a recursive function that draws a circle at a given x, y location of a specified size. This function recursively calls itself by modifying the parameters so that smaller and smaller circles are drawn at different locations until the size of the circles goes below 20 pixels.



The program used to generate this picture is given below for reference:

```
import turtle

WIDTH = 640
HEIGHT = 360

def setup_window():
    # Set up the window
    turtle.title('Circles in My Mind')
    turtle.setup(WIDTH, HEIGHT, 0, 0)

    turtle.colormode(255)    # Indicates RGB numbers will be in
the range 0 to 255
    turtle.hideturtle()
    # Batch drawing to the screen for faster rendering
    turtle.tracer(2000)

    # Speed up drawing process
    turtle.speed(10)
    turtle.penup()

def draw_circle(x, y, radius, red=50, green=255, blue=10,
width=7):
    """ Draw a circle at a specific x, y location.
    Then draw four smaller circles recursively"""
    colour = (red, green, blue)

    # Recursively drawn smaller circles
    if radius > 50:
        # Calculate colours and line width for smaller circles
        if red < 216:
            red = red + 33
            green = green - 42
            blue = blue + 10
            width -= 1
```

```

else:
    red = 0
    green = 255
    # Calculate the radius for the smaller circles
    new_radius = int(radius / 1.3)
    # Drawn four circles
    draw_circle(int(x + new_radius), y, new_radius, red,
green, blue, width)
    draw_circle(x - new_radius, y, new_radius, red, green,
blue, width)
    draw_circle(x, int(y + new_radius), new_radius, red,
green, blue, width)
    draw_circle(x, int(y - new_radius), new_radius, red,
green, blue, width)

    # Draw the original circle
    turtle.goto(x, y)
    turtle.color(colour)
    turtle.width(width)
    turtle.pendown()
    turtle.circle(radius)
    turtle.penup()

# Run the program
print('Starting')
setup_window()
draw_circle(25, -100, 200)

# Ensure that all the drawing is rendered
turtle.update()
print('Done')
turtle.done()

```

There are a few points to note about this program. It uses recursion to draw the circles with smaller and smaller circles being drawn until the radius of the circles falls below a certain threshold (the termination point).

It also uses the `turtle.tracer()` function to speed up drawing the picture as 2000 changes will be buffered before the screen is updated.

Finally, the colours used for the circles are changed at each level of recession; a very simple approach is used so that the Red, Green and Blue codes are changed resulting in different colour circles. Also a line width is used to reduce the size of the circle outline to add more interest to the image.

4.2 A Computer Art Generator

As another example of how you can use Turtle graphics to create computer art, the following program randomly generates RGB colours to use for the lines being drawn which gives the pictures more interest. It also allows the user to input an

angle to use when changing the direction in which the line is drawn. As the drawing happens within a loop even this simple change to the angle used to draw the lines can generate very different pictures.

```
# Lets play with some colours
import turtle
from random import randint

def get_input_angle():
    """ Obtain input from user and convert to an int """
    message = 'Please provide an angle:'
    value_as_string = input(message)
    while not value_as_string.isnumeric():
        print('The input must be an integer!')
        value_as_string = input(message)
    return int(value_as_string)

def generate_random_colour():
    """Generates an R,G,B values randomly in range
    0 to 255 """
    r = randint(0, 255)
    g = randint(0, 255)
    b = randint(0, 255)
    return r, g, b

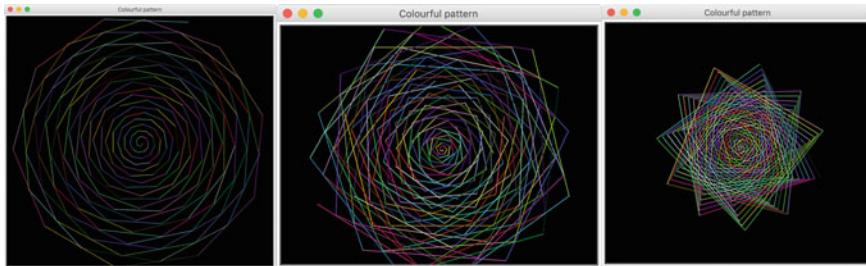
print('Set up Screen')
turtle.title('Colourful pattern')
turtle.setup(640, 600)
turtle.hideturtle()
turtle.bgcolor('black') # Set the background colour of the
screen
turtle.colormode(255) # Indicates RGB numbers will be in the
range 0 to 255
turtle.speed(10)

angle = get_input_angle()

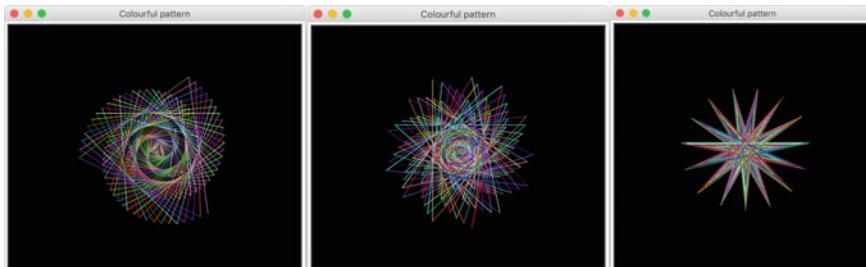
print('Start the drawing')
for i in range(0, 200):
    turtle.color(generate_random_colour())
    turtle.forward(i)
    turtle.right(angle)

print('Done')
turtle.done()
```

Some sample images generated from this program are given below. The left most picture is generated by inputting an angle of 38 degrees, the picture on the right uses an angle of 68 degrees and the bottom picture an angle of 98 degrees.



The following pictures below use angles of 118, 138 and 168 degrees respectively.



What is interesting about these images is how different each is; even though they use exactly the same program. This illustrates how algorithmic or computer generated art can be as subtle and flexible as any other art form. It also illustrates that even with such a process it is still up to the human to determine which image (if any) is the most aesthetically pleasing.

4.3 Fractals in Python

Within the arena of Computer Art fractals are a very well known art form. Fractals are recurring patterns that are calculated either using an iterative approach (such as a for loop) or a recursive approach (when a function calls itself but with modified parameters). One of the really interesting features of fractals is that they exhibit the same pattern (or nearly the same pattern) at successive levels of granularity. That is, if you magnified a fractal image you would find that the same pattern is being repeated at successively smaller and smaller magnifications. This is known as expanding symmetry or unfolding symmetry; if this replication is exactly the same at every scale, then it is called affine self-similar.

Fractals have their roots in the world of mathematics starting in the 17th century, with the term fractal being coined in the 20th century by mathematical Benoit Mandelbrot in 1975. One often cited description that Mandelbrot published to describe geometric fractals is

a rough or fragmented geometric shape that can be split into parts, each of which is (at least approximately) a reduced-size copy of the whole.

For more information see Mandelbrot, Benoît B. (1983). *The fractal geometry of nature*. Macmillan. ISBN (978-0-7167-1186-5).

Since the later part of the 20th century fractals have been a commonly used way of creating computer art.

One example of a fractal often used in computer art is the Koch snowflake, while another is the Mandelbrot set. Both of these are used in this chapter as examples to illustrate how Python and the Turtle graphics library can be used to create fractal based art.

4.3.1 *The Koch Snowflake*

The Koch snowflake is a fractal that begins with equilateral triangle and then replaces the middle third of every line segment with a pair of line segments that form an equilateral bump. This replacement can be performed to any depth generating finer and finer grained (smaller and smaller) triangles until the overall shape resembles a snow flake.

The following program can be used to generate a Koch snowflake with different levels of recursion. The larger the number of levels of recursion the more times each line segment is dissected.

```
import turtle

# Set up Constants
ANGLES = [60, -120, 60, 0]
SIZE_OF_SNOWFLAKE = 300

def get_input_depth():
    """Obtain input from user and convert to an int"""
    message = 'Please provide the depth (0 or a positive integer):'
    value_as_string = input(message)
    while not value_as_string.isnumeric():
        print('The input must be an integer!')
        value_as_string = input(message)
    return int(value_as_string)

def setup_screen(title, background='white', screen_size_x=640,
                screen_size_y=320, tracer_size=800):
    print('Set up Screen')

    turtle.title(title)
    turtle.setup(screen_size_x, screen_size_y)
    turtle.hideturtle()
    turtle.penup()
    turtle.backward(240)
    # Batch drawing to the screen for faster rendering
    turtle.tracer(tracer_size)
    turtle.bgcolor(background) # Set the background colour of the screen
```

```

def draw_koch(size, depth):
    if depth > 0:
        for angle in ANGLES:
            draw_koch(size / 3, depth - 1)
            turtle.left(angle)
    else:
        turtle.forward(size)

depth = get_input_depth()

setup_screen('Koch Snowflake (depth ' + str(depth) + ')',
            background='black',
            screen_size_x=420, screen_size_y=420)
# Set foreground colours
turtle.color('sky blue')

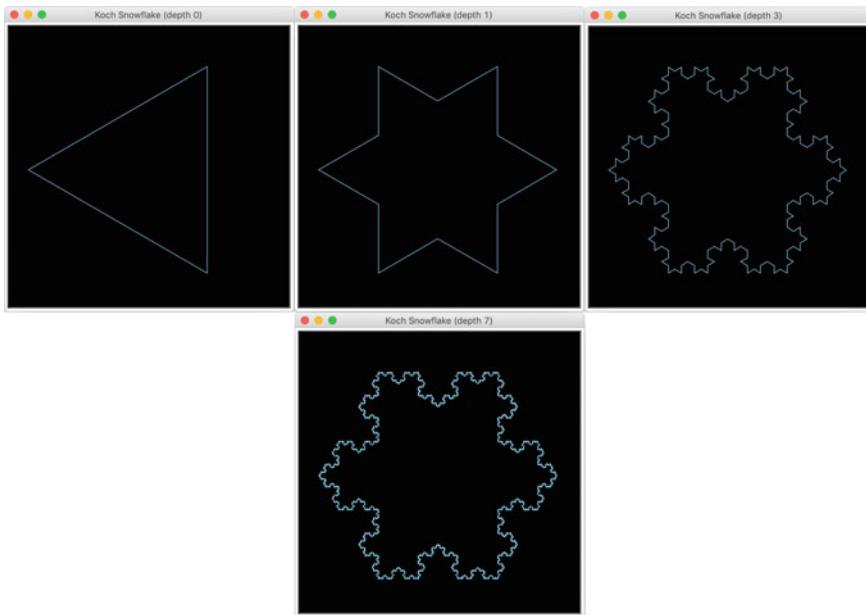
# Ensure snowflake is centred
turtle.penup()
turtle.setposition(-180, 0)
turtle.left(30)
turtle.pendown()

# Draw three sides of snowflake
for _ in range(3):
    draw_koch(SIZE_OF_SNOWFLAKE, depth)
    turtle.right(120)

# Ensure that all the drawing is rendered
turtle.update()
print('Done')
turtle.done()

```

Several different runs of the program are shown below with the depth set at 0, 1, 3 and 7.



Running the simple `draw_koch()` function with different depths makes it easy to see the way in which each side of a triangle can be dissected into a further triangle like shape. This can be repeated to multiple depths giving a more detailed structured in which the same shape is repeated again and again.

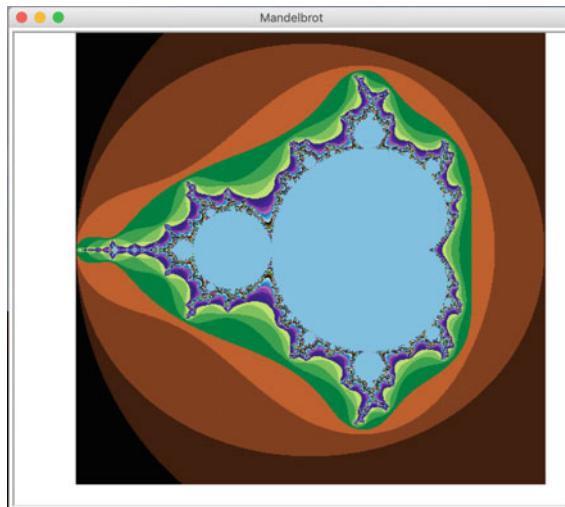
4.3.2 *Mandelbrot Set*

Probably one of the most famous fractal images is based on the Mandelbrot set. The Mandelbrot set is the set of complex numbers c for which the function $z * z + c$ does not diverge when iterated from $z = 0$ for which the sequence of functions (`func(0)`, `func(func(0))` etc.) remains bounded by an absolute value. The definition of the Mandelbrot set and its name is down to the French mathematician Adrien Douady, who named it as a tribute to the mathematician Benoit Mandelbrot.

Mandelbrot set images may be created by sampling the complex numbers and testing, for each sample point c , whether the sequence `func(0)`, `func(func(0))` etc. ranges to infinity (in practice this means that a test is made to see if it leaves some predetermined bounded neighbourhood of 0 after a predetermined number of iterations). Treating the real and imaginary parts of c as image coordinates on the complex plane, pixels may then be coloured according to how soon the sequence crosses an arbitrarily chosen threshold, with a special color (usually black) used for the values of c for which the sequence has not crossed the threshold

after the predetermined number of iterations (this is necessary to clearly distinguish the Mandelbrot set image from the image of its complement).

The following image was generated for the Mandelbrot set using Python and Turtle graphics.



The program used to generate this image is given below:

```
for y in range(IMAGE_SIZE_Y):
    zy = y * (MAX_Y - MIN_Y) / (IMAGE_SIZE_Y - 1) + MIN_Y
    for x in range(IMAGE_SIZE_X):
        zx = x * (MAX_X - MIN_X) / (IMAGE_SIZE_Y - 1) + MIN_X
        z = zx + zy * 1j
        c = z
        for i in range(MAX_ITERATIONS):
            if abs(z) > 2.0:
                break
            z = z * z + c
        turtle.color((i % 4 * 64, i % 8 * 32, i % 16 * 16))
        turtle.setposition(x - SCREEN_OFFSET_X,
                           y - SCREEN_OFFSET_Y)
        turtle.pendown()
        turtle.dot(1)
        turtle.penup()
```

4.4 Online Resources

The following provide further reading material:

- <https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Fractal> For the Wikipedia page on Fractals.
- https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Koch_snowflake The Wikipedia page on the Koch snowflake.
- https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Mandelbrot_set Wikipedia page on the Mandelbrot set.

4.5 Exercises

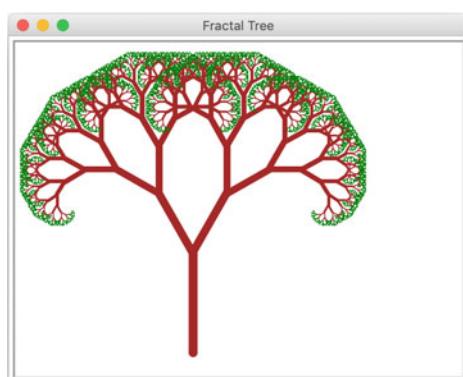
The aim of this exercise is to create a Fractal Tree.

A Fractal Tree is a tree in which the overall structure is replicated at finer and finer levels through the tree until a set of leaf elements are reached.

To draw the fractal tree you will need to:

- Draw the trunk.
- At the end of the trunk, split the trunk in two with the left trunk and the right trunk being 30° left/right of the original trunk. For aesthetic purposes the trunk may become thinner each time it is split. The trunk may be drawn in a particular colour such as brown.
- Continue this until a maximum number of splits have occurred (or the trunk size reduces to a particular minimum). You have now reached the leaves (you may draw the leaves in a different colour e.g. green).

An example of a Fractal Tree is given below:



Chapter 5

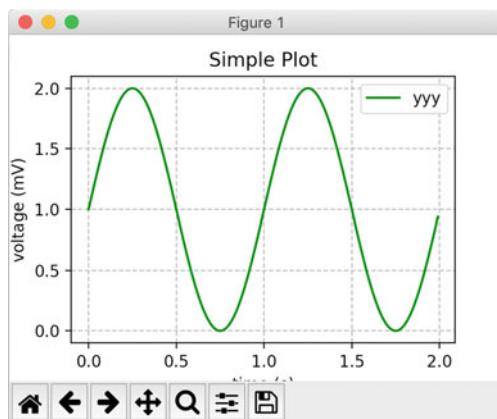
Introduction to Matplotlib



5.1 Introduction

Matplotlib is a Python graphing and plotting library that can generate a variety of different types of graph or chart in a variety of different formats. It can be used to generate line charts, scatter graphs, heat maps, bar charts, pie charts and 3D plots. It can even support animations and interactive displays.

An example of a graph generated using Matplotlib is given below. This shows a line chart used to plot a simple sine wave:



Matplotlib is a very flexible and powerful graphing library. It can support a variety of different Python graphics platforms and operating system windowing environments. It can also generate output graphics in a variety of different formats including PNG, JPEG, SVG and PDF etc.

Matplotlib can be used on its own or in conjunction with other libraries to provide a wide variety of facilities. One library that is often used in conjunction with Matplotlib is NumPy which is a library often used in Data Science applications that provides a variety of functions and data structures (such as n-dimensional arrays) that can be very useful when processing data for display within a chart.

However, Matplotlib does not come prebuilt into the Python environment; it is an optional module which must be added to your environment or IDE.

In this chapter we will introduce the Matplotlib library, its architecture, the components that comprise a chart and the `pyplot` API. The `pyplot` API is the simplest and most common way in which a programmer interacts with Matplotlib. We will then explore a variety of different types of chart and how they can be created using Matplotlib, from simple line charts, through scatter charts, to bar charts and pie charts. We will finish by looking at a simple 3D chart.

5.2 Matplotlib

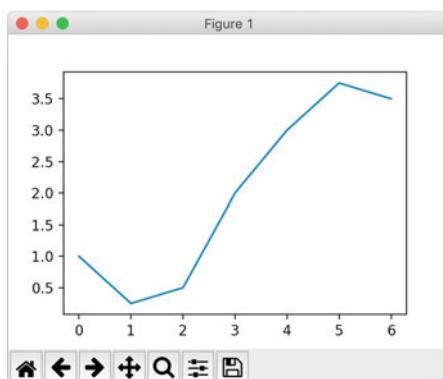
Matplotlib is a graph plotting library for Python. For simple graphs Matplotlib is very easy to use, for example to create a simple line graph for a set of x and y coordinates you can use the `matplotlib.pyplot.plot` function:

```
import matplotlib.pyplot as pyplot

# Plot a sequence of values
pyplot.plot([1, 0.25, 0.5, 2, 3, 3.75, 3.5])

# Display the chart in a window
pyplot.show()
```

This very simple program generates the following graph:

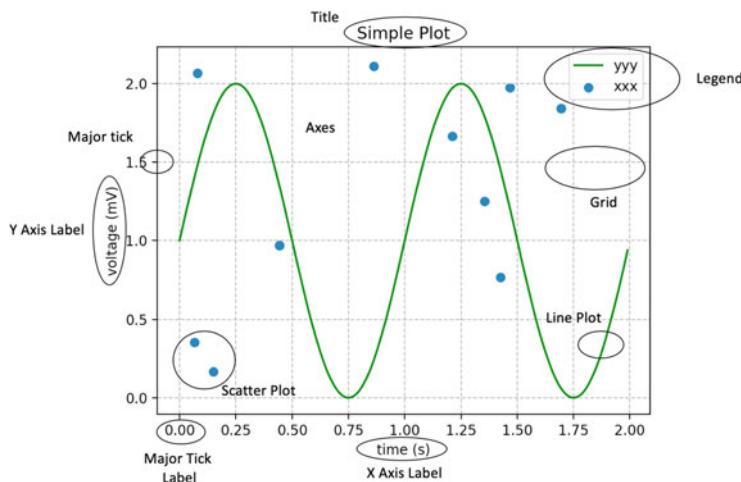


In this example, the `plot()` function takes a sequence of values which will be treated as the y axis values; the x axis values are implied by the position of the y values within the list. Thus as the list has six elements in it the x axis has the range 0–6. In turn as the maximum value contained in the list is 3.75, then the y axis ranges from 0 to 4.

5.3 Plot Components

Although they may seem simple, there are numerous elements that comprise a Matplotlib graph or plot. These elements can all be manipulated and modified independently. It is therefore useful to be familiar with the Matplotlib terminology associated with these elements, such as ticks, legends, labels etc.

The elements that make up a plot are illustrated below:



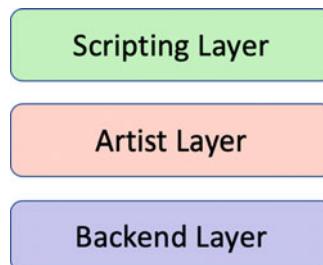
value. There can be Major ticks which are larger and may be labeled. There are also minor ticks which can be smaller (and may also be labelled).

- **Tick Labels** (Major and Minor) This is a label on a Tick.
- **Axis** The `matplotlib.axis.Axis` class defines an Axis object (such as an X or Y axis) within a parent Axes instance. It can have formatters used to format the labels used for the major and minor ticks. It is also possible to set the locations of the major and minor ticks.
- **Axis Labels** (X, Y and in some cases Z) These are labels used to describe the Axis.
- **Plot** types such as line and scatter plots. Various types of plots and graphs are supported by Matplotlib including line plots, scatter graphs, bar charts and pie charts.
- **Grid** This is an optional grid displayed behind a plot, graph or chart. The grid can be displayed with a variety of different line styles (such as solid or dashed lines), colours and line widths.

5.4 Matplotlib Architecture

The Matplotlib library has a layered architecture that hides much of the complexity associated with different windowing systems and graphic outputs. This architecture has three main layers, the Scripting Layer, the Artist Layer and the Backend Layer. Each layer has specific responsibilities and components. For example, the Backend is responsible for reading and interacting with the graph or plot being generated. In turn the Artist Layer is responsible for creating the graph objects that will be rendered by the Backend Layer. Finally the Scripting Layer is used by the developer to create the graphs.

This architecture is illustrated below:



5.4.1 Backend Layer

The Matplotlib backend *layer* handles the generation of output to different target formats. Matplotlib itself can be used in many different ways to generate many different outputs.

Matplotlib can be used interactively, it can be embedded in an application (or graphical user interface), it may be used as part of a batch application with plots being stored as PNG, SVG, PDF or other images etc.

To support all of these use cases, Matplotlib can target different outputs, and each of these capabilities is called a *backend*; the “frontend” is the developer facing code. The Backend Layer maintains all the different backends and the programmer can either use the default backend or select a different backend as required.

The backend to be used can be set via the `matplotlib.use()` function. For example, to set the backend to render Postscript use: `matplotlib.use('PS')` this is illustrated below:

```
import matplotlib

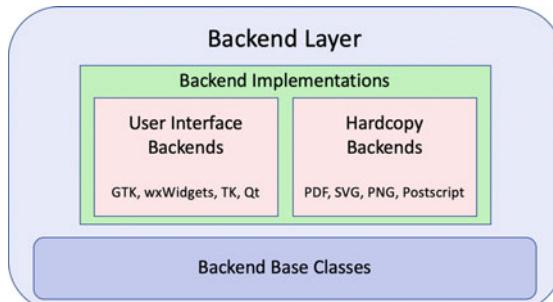
if 'matplotlib.backends' not in sys.modules:
    matplotlib.use('PS')

import matplotlib.pyplot as pyplot
```

It should be noted that if you use the `matplotlib.use()` function, this must be done *before* importing `matplotlib.pyplot`. Calling `matplotlib.use()` after `matplotlib.pyplot` has been *imported* will have no effect. Note that the argument passed to the `matplotlib.use()` function is case sensitive.

The default renderer is the ‘Agg’ which uses the Anti-Grain Geometry C++ library to make a raster (pixel) image of the figure. This produces high quality raster graphics based images of the data plots.

The ‘Agg’ backend was chosen as the default backend as it works on a broad selection of Linux systems as its supporting requirements are quite small; other backends may run on one particular system, but may not work on another system. This occurs if a particular system does not have all the dependencies loaded that the specified Matplotlib backend relies on.



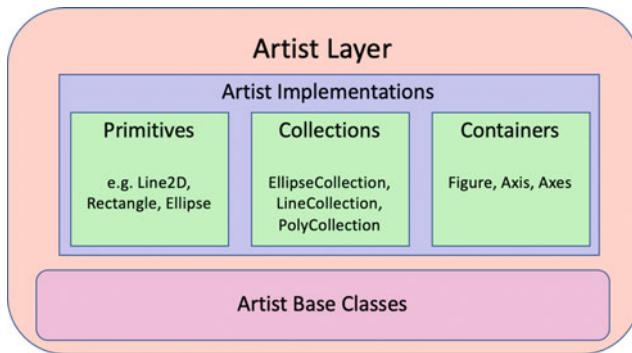
The Backend Layer can be divided into two categories:

- User interface backends (interactive) that support various Python windowing systems such as `wxWidgets` (discussed in the next chapter), `Qt`, `TK` etc.
- Hardcopy Backends (non interactive) that support raster and vector graphic outputs.

The User Interface and Hardcopy backends are built upon common abstractions referred to as the Backend base classes.

5.4.2 *The Artist Layer*

The Artist layer provides the majority of the functionality that you might consider to be what Matplotlib actually does; that is the generation of the plots and graphs that are rendered/ displayed to the user (or output in a particular format).



The artist layer is concerned with things such as the lines, shapes, axis, and axes, text etc. that comprise a plot.

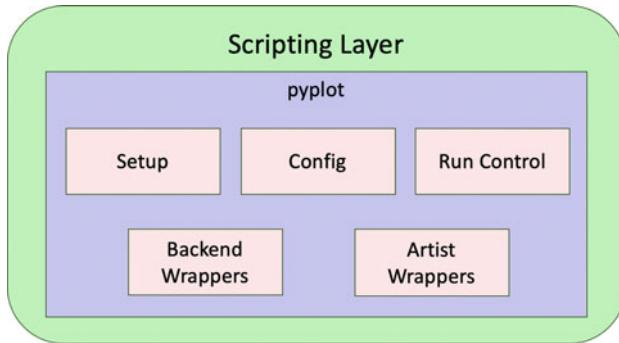
The classes used by the Artist Layer can be classified into one of the following three groups; primitives, containers and collections:

- Primitives are classes used to represent graphical objects that will be drawn on to a figures canvas.
- Containers are objects that hold primitives. For example, typically a figure would be instantiated and used to create one or more Axes etc.
- Collections are used to efficiently handle large numbers of similar types of objects.

Although it is useful to be aware of these classes; in many cases you will not need to work with them directly as the `pyplot` API hides much of the detail. However, it is possible to work at the level of figures, axes, ticks etc. if required.

5.4.3 The Scripting Layer

The scripting layer is the developer facing interface that simplifies the task of working with the other layers.



Note that from the programmers point of view, the Scripting Layer is represented by the `pyplot` module. Under the covers `pyplot` uses module-level objects to track the state of the data, handle drawing the graphs etc.

When imported `pyplot` selects either the *default* backend for the system or the one that has been configured; for example via the `matplotlib.use()` function.

It then calls a `setup()` function that:

- creates a figure manager factory function, which when called will create a new figure manager appropriate for the selected backend,
- prepares the drawing function that should be used with the selected backend,
- identifies the callable function that integrates with the backend mainloop function,
- provides the *module* for the selected backend.

The `pyplot` interface simplifies interactions with the internal wrappers by providing methods such as `plot()`, `pie()`, `bar()`, `title()`, `savefig()`, `draw()` and `figure()` etc.

Most of the examples presented in the next chapter will use the functions provided by the `pyplot` module to create the required charts; thereby hiding the lower level details.

5.5 Online Resources

See the online documentation for:

- <https://matplotlib.org> The Matplotlib library. This incorporates numerous examples with complete listings, documentation, galleries and a detailed user guide and FAQ.
- <https://pythonprogramming.net/matplotlib-python-3-basics-tutorial> Python Matplotlib crash course.

Chapter 6

Graphing with Matplotlib pyplot



6.1 Introduction

In this chapter we will explore the Matplotlib pyplot API. This is the most common way in which developers generate different types of graphs or plots using Matplotlib.

6.2 The pyplot API

The purpose of the `pyplot` module and the API it presents is to simplify the generation and manipulation of Matplotlib plots and charts. As a whole the Matplotlib library tries to make simple things easy and complex things possible. The primary way in which it achieves the first of these aims is through the `pyplot` API as this API has high level functions such as `bar()`, `plot()`, `scatter()` and `pie()` that make it easy to create bar charts, line plots, scatter graphs and pie charts.

One point to note about the functions provided by the `pyplot` API is that they can often take very many parameters; however most of these parameters will have default values that in many situations will give you a reasonable default behaviour/default visual representation. You can therefore ignore most of the parameters available until such time as you actually need to do something different; at which point you should refer to the Matplotlib documentation as this has extensive material as well as numerous examples.

It is of course necessary to import the `pyplot` module; as it is a module within the Matplotlib (e.g. `matplotlib.pyplot`) library. It is often given an alias within a program to make it easier to reference. Common alias for this module are `pyplot` or `plt`.

A typical import for the `pyplot` module is given below:

```
import matplotlib.pyplot as pyplot
```

The pyplot API can be used to

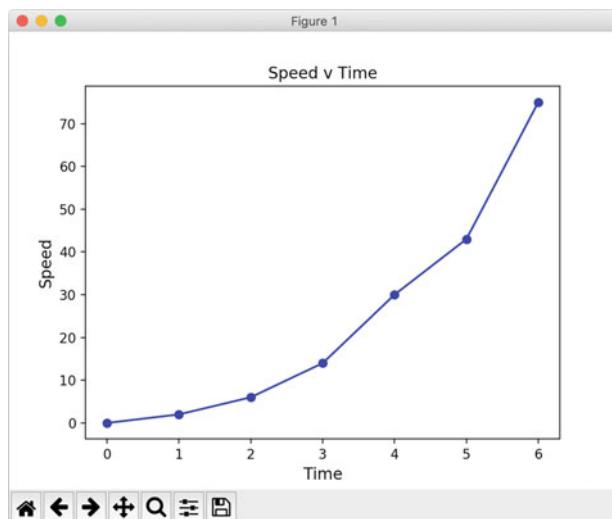
- construct the plot,
- configure labels and axis,
- manage color and line styles,
- handles events/allows plots to be interactive,
- display (show) the plot.

We will see examples of using the pyplot API in the following sections.

6.3 Line Graphs

A Line Graph or Line Plot is a graph with the points on the graph (often referred to as markers) connected by lines to show how something changes in value as some set of values (typically the x axis) changes; for example, over a series of time intervals (also known as a time series). Time Series line charts are typically drawn in chronological order; such charts are known as run charts.

The following chart is an example of a run chart; it charts time across the bottom (x axis) against speed (represented by the y axis).



The program used to generate this chart is given below:

```
import matplotlib.pyplot as pyplot

# Set up the data
x = [0, 1, 2, 3, 4, 5, 6]
y = [0, 2, 6, 14, 30, 43, 75]

# Set the axes headings
pyplot.ylabel('Speed', fontsize=12)
pyplot.xlabel('Time', fontsize=12)

# Set the title
pyplot.title("Speed v Time")

# Plot and display the graph
# Using blue circles for markers ('bo')
# and a solid line ('-')
pyplot.plot(x, y, 'bo-')
pyplot.show()
```

The first thing that this program does is to import the `matplotlib.pyplot` module and give it an alias of `pyplot` (as this is a shorter name it makes the code easier to read).

Two lists of values are then created for the `x` and `y` coordinates of each marker or plot point.

The graph itself is then configured with labels being provided for the `x` and `y` axis (using the `pyplot` functions `xlabel()` and `ylabel()`). The title of the graph is then set (again using a `pyplot` function).

After this the `x` and `y` values are then plotted as a line chart on the graph. This is done using the `pyplot.plot()` function. This function can take a wide range of parameters, the only compulsory parameters being the data used to define the plot points. In the above example a third parameter is provided; this is a string ‘`bo-`’. This is a *coded format string* in that each element of the string is meaningful to the `pyplot.plot()` function. The elements of the string are:

- `b`—this indicates the colour to use when drawing the line; in this case the letter ‘`b`’ indicates the colour blue (in the same way ‘`r`’ would indicate red and ‘`g`’ would indicate green).
- `o`—this indicates that each marker (each point being plotted) should be represented by a circle. The lines between the markers then create the line plot.
- ‘`-`’—This indicates the line style to use. A single dash (‘`-`’) indicates a solid line, whereas a double dash (‘`--`’) indicates a dashed line.

Finally the program then uses the `show()` function to render the figure on the screen; alternatively `savefig()` could have been used to save the figure to a file.

6.3.1 Coded Format Strings

There are numerous options that can be provided via the format string, the following tables summarises some of these:

The following colour abbreviations are supported by the format string:

Character	Color
'b'	blue
'g'	green
'r'	red
'c'	cyan
'm'	magenta
'y'	yellow
'k'	black
'w'	white

Different ways of representing the markers (points on the graph) connected by the lines are also supported including:

Character	Description
'.'	point marker
'.'	pixel marker
'o'	circle marker
'v'	triangle_down marker
'^'	triangle_up marker
'<'	triangle_left marker
'>'	triangle_right marker
's'	square marker
'p'	pentagon marker
'*'	star marker
'h'	hexagon1 marker
'+'	plus marker
'x'	x marker
'D'	diamond marker

Finally, the format string supports different line styles:

Character	Description
'_'	solid line style
'-'	dashed line style
'-'?	dash-dot line style
'.'	dotted line style

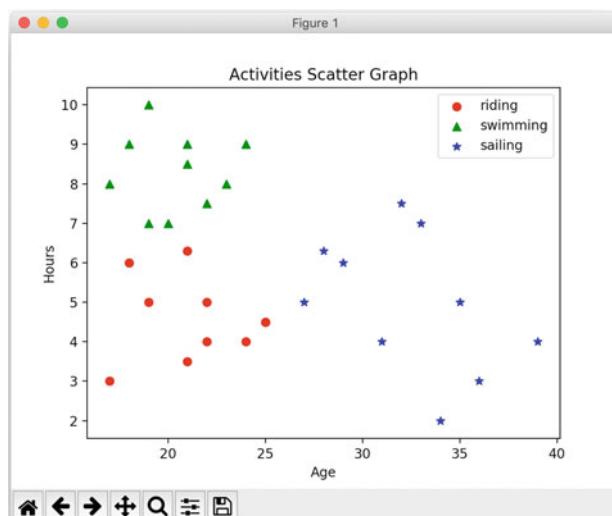
Some examples of formatting strings:

- 'r' red line with default markers and line style.
- 'g-' green solid line.
- '-' dashed line with the default colour and default markers.
- 'yo:' yellow dotted line with circle markers.

6.4 Scatter Graph

A Scatter Graph or Scatter Plot is type of plot where individual values are indicated using cartesian (or x and y) coordinates to display values. Each value is indicated via a mark (such as a circle or triangle) on the graph. They can be used to represent values obtained for two different variables; one plotted on the x axis and the other plotted on the y axis.

An example of a scatter chart with three sets of scatter values is given below



In this graph each dot represents the amount of time people of different ages spend on three different activities.

The program that was used to generate the above graph is shown below:

```
import matplotlib.pyplot as pyplot

# Create data
riding = ((17, 18, 21, 22, 19, 21, 25, 22, 25, 24),
           (3, 6, 3.5, 4, 5, 6.3, 4.5, 5, 4.5, 4))
swimming = ((17, 18, 20, 19, 22, 21, 23, 19, 21, 24),
             (8, 9, 7, 10, 7.5, 9, 8, 7, 8.5, 9))
sailing = ((31, 28, 29, 36, 27, 32, 34, 35, 33, 39),
            (4, 6.3, 6, 3, 5, 7.5, 2, 5, 7, 4))

# Plot the data
pyplot.scatter(x=riding[0], y=riding[1], c='red', marker='o',
label='riding')
pyplot.scatter(x=swimming[0], y=swimming[1], c='green',
marker='^', label='swimming')
pyplot.scatter(x=sailing[0], y=sailing[1], c='blue',
marker='*', label='sailing')

# Configure graph
pyplot.xlabel('Age')
pyplot.ylabel('Hours')
pyplot.title('Activities Scatter Graph')
pyplot.legend()

# Display the chart
pyplot.show()
```

In the above example the `plot.scatter()` function is used to generate the scatter graph for the data defined by the riding, swimming and sailing tuples.

The colours of the markers have been specified using the named parameter `c`. This parameter can take a string representing the name of a colour or a two dimensional array with a single row in which each value in the row represents an RGB color code. The `marker` indicates the marker style such as '`o`' for a circle, a '`^`' for a triangle and '`*`' for a star shape. The `label` is used in the chart legend for the marker.

Other options available on the `pyplot.scatter()` function include:

- `alpha` : indicates the alpha blending value, between 0 (transparent) and 1 (opaque).

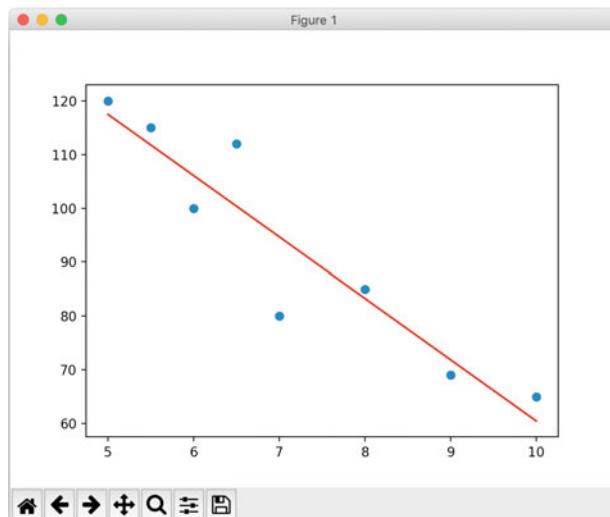
- `linewidths` : which is used to indicate the line width of the marker edges.
- `edgecolors` : indicates the color to use for the marker edges if different from the fill colour used for the marker (indicates by the parameter ‘c’).

6.4.1 When to Use Scatter Graphs

A useful question to consider is when should a scatter plot be used? In general scatter plots are used when it is necessary to show the relationship between two variables. Scatter plots are sometimes called correlation plots because they show how two variables are correlated.

In many cases a trend can be discerned between the points plotted on a scatter chart (although there may be outlying values). To help visualise the trend it can be useful to draw a trend line along with the scatter graph. The trend line helps to make the relationship of the scatter plots to the general trend clearer.

The following chart represents a set of values as a scatter graph and draws the trend line of this scatter graph. As can be seen some values are closer to the trendline than others.



The trend line has been created in this case using the `numpy` function `polyfit()`.

The `polyfit()` function performs a least squares polynomial fit for the data it is given. A `poly1d` class is then created based on the array returned by `polyfit()`. This class is a one-dimensional polynomial class. It is a convenience class, used to encapsulate “natural” operations on polynomials. The `poly1d` object is then used to generate a set of values for use with the set of `x` values for the function `pyplot.plot()`.

```
import numpy as np
import matplotlib.pyplot as pyplot

x = (5, 5.5, 6, 6.5, 7, 8, 9, 10)
y = (120, 115, 100, 112, 80, 85, 69, 65)

# Generate the scatter plot
pyplot.scatter(x, y)

# Generate the trend line
z = np.polyfit(x, y, 1)
p = np.poly1d(z)
pyplot.plot(x, p(x), 'r')

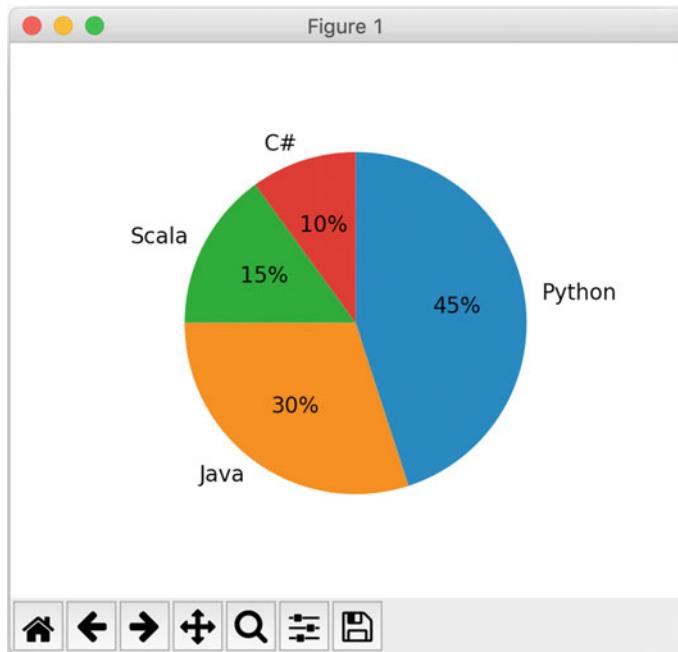
# Display the figure
pyplot.show()
```

6.5 Pie Charts

A Pie Chart is a type of graph in which a circle is divided into sectors (or wedges) that each represent a proportion of the whole. A wedge of the circle represents a category’s contribution to the overall total. As such the graph resembles a pie that has been cut into different sized slices.

Typically, the different sectors of the pie chart are presented in different colours and are arranged clockwise around the chart in order of magnitude. However, if there is a slice that does not contain a unique category of data but summarises several, for example “other types” or “other answers”, then even if it is not the smallest category, it is usual to display it last in order that it does not detract from the named categories of interest.

The following chart illustrates a pie chart used to represent programming language usage within a particular organisation.



The pie chart is created using the `pyplot.pie()` function.

```
import matplotlib.pyplot as pyplot

labels = ('Python', 'Java', 'Scala', 'C#')
sizes = [45, 30, 15, 10]

pyplot.pie(sizes,
           labels=labels,
           autopct='%1.f%%',
           counterclock=False,
           startangle=90)

pyplot.show()
```

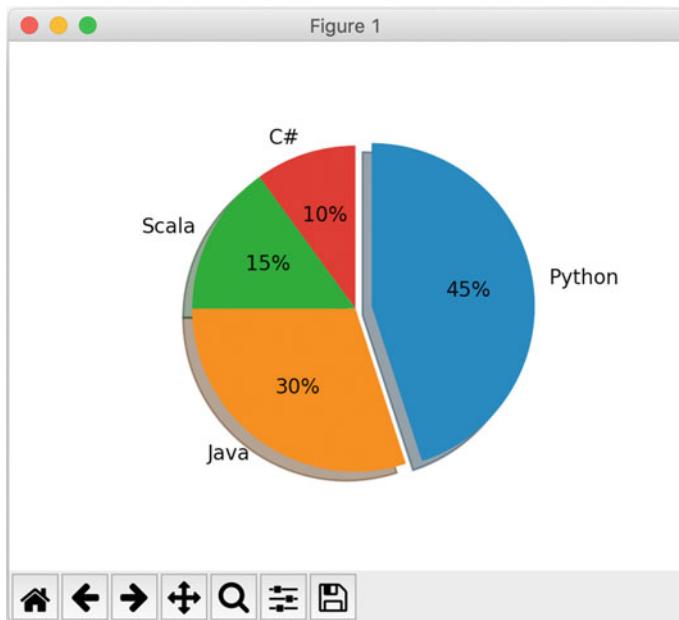
The `pyplot.pie()` function takes several parameters, most of which are optional. The only required parameter is the first one that provides the values to be used for the wedge or segment sizes. The following optional parameters are used in the above example:

- The `labels` parameter is an optional parameter that can take a sequence of strings that are used to provide labels for each wedge.
- The `autopct` parameter takes a string (or function) to be used to format the numeric values used with each wedge.
- The `counterclockwise` parameter. By default wedges are plotted counter clockwise in pyplot and so to ensure that the layout is more like the traditional clockwise approach the `counterclock` parameter is set to `False`.
- The `startangle` parameter. The starting angle has also been moved 90° using the `startangle` parameter so that the first segment starts at the top of the chart.

6.5.1 *Expanding Segments*

It can be useful to emphasize a particular segment of the pie chart by *exploding* it; that is separating it out from the rest of the pie chart. This can be done using the `explode()` parameter of the `pie()` function that takes a sequence of values indicating how much a segment should be exploded by.

The visual impact of the pie chart can also be enhanced in this case by adding a shadow to the segments using the named `shadow` boolean parameter. The effect of these are shown below:



The program that generated this modified chart is given below for reference:

```
import matplotlib.pyplot as pyplot

labels = ('Python', 'Java', 'Scala', 'C#')
sizes = [45, 30, 15, 10]

# only "explode" the 1st slice (i.e. 'Python')
explode = (0.1, 0, 0, 0)

pyplot.pie(sizes,
           explode=explode,
           labels=labels,
           autopct='%1.f%%',
           shadow=True,
           counterclock=False,
           startangle=90)

pyplot.show()
```

6.5.2 When to Use Pie Charts

It is useful to consider what data can be/should be presented using a pie chart. In general pie charts are useful for displaying data that can be classified into nominal or ordinal categories. Nominal data is categorised according to descriptive or qualitative information such as program languages, type of car, country of birth etc. Ordinal data is similar but the categories can also be ranked, for example in a survey people may be asked to say whether they classed something as very poor, poor, fair, good, very good.

Pie charts can also be used to show percentage or proportional data and usually the percentage represented by each category is provided next to the corresponding slice of pie.

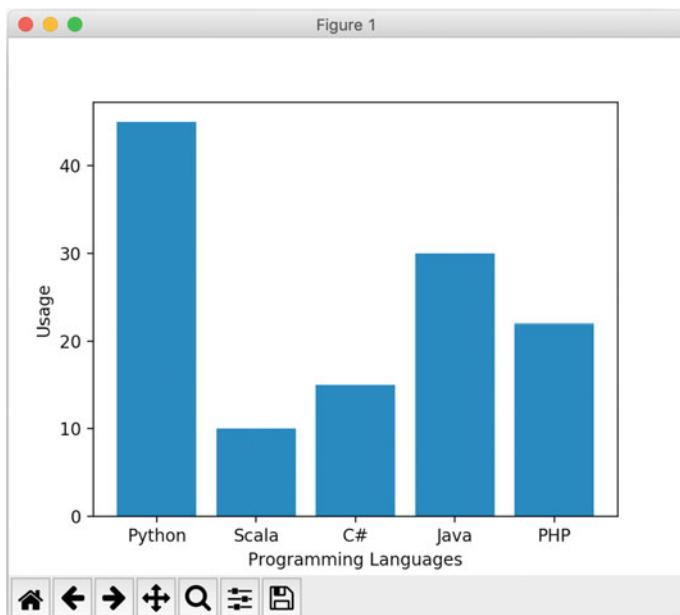
Pie charts are also typically limited to presenting data for six or less categories. When there are more categories it is difficult for the eye to distinguish between the relative sizes of the different sectors and so the chart becomes difficult to interpret.

6.6 Bar Charts

A Bar Chart is a type of chart or graph that is used to present different discrete categories of data. The data is usually presented vertically although in some cases horizontal bar charts may be used. Each category is represented by a bar whose height (or length) represents the data for that category.

Because it is easy to interpret bar charts, and how each category relates to another, they are one of the most commonly used types of chart. There are also several different common variations such as grouped bar charts and stacked bar charts.

The following is an example of a typical bar chart. Five categories of programming languages are presented along the x axis while the y axis indicates percentage usage. Each bar then represents the usage percentage associated with each programming language.



The program used to generate the above figure is given below:

```
import matplotlib.pyplot as pyplot

# Set up the data
labels = ('Python', 'Scala', 'C#', 'Java', 'PHP')
index = (1, 2, 3, 4, 5) # provides locations on x axis
sizes = [45, 10, 15, 30, 22]

# Set up the bar chart
pyplot.bar(index, sizes, tick_label=labels)

# Configure the layout
pyplot.ylabel('Usage')
pyplot.xlabel('Programming Languages')

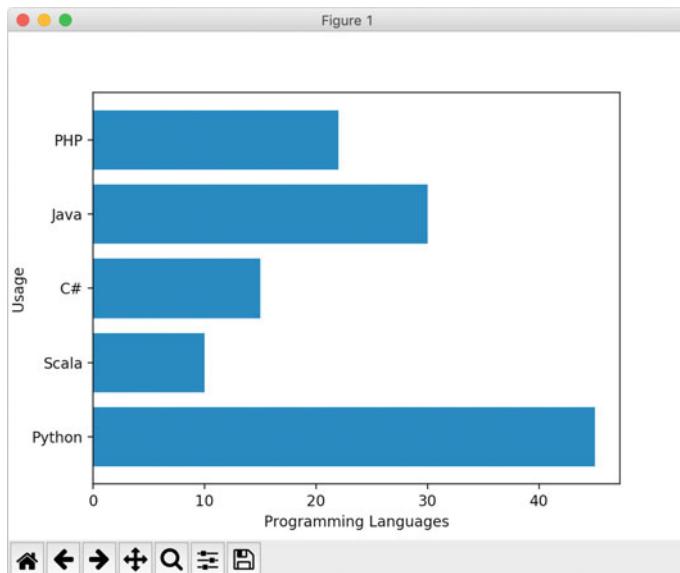
# Display the chart
pyplot.show()
```

The chart is constructed such that the lengths of the different bars are proportional to the size of the category they represent. The x-axis represents the different categories and so has no scale. In order to emphasise the fact that the categories are discrete, a gap is left between the bars on the x-axis. The y-axis does have a scale and this indicates the units of measurement.

6.6.1 Horizontal Bar Charts

Bar charts are normally drawn so that the bars are vertical which means that the taller the bar, the larger the category. However, it is also possible to draw bar charts so that the bars are horizontal which means that the longer the bar, the larger the category. This is a particularly effective way of presenting a large number of different categories when there is insufficient space to fit all the columns required for a vertical bar chart across the page.

In Matplotlib the `pyplot.bart()` function can be used to generate a horizontal bar chart:

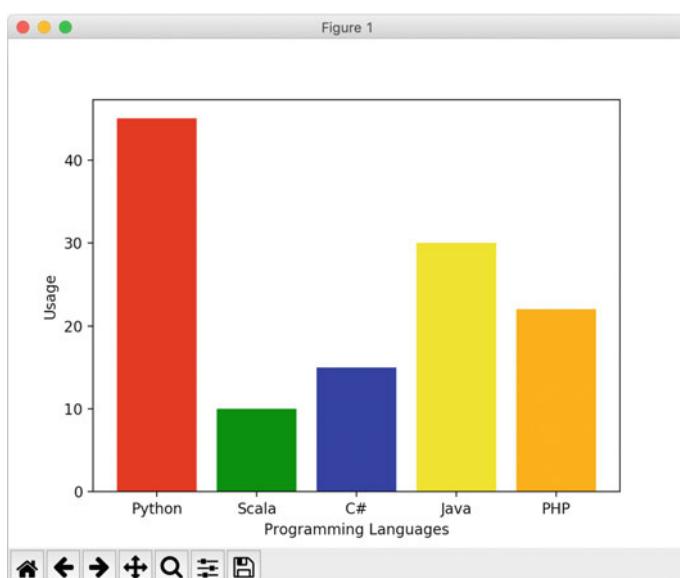


In this case the only line of code to change from the previous example is:

```
pyplot.barch(x_values, sizes, tick_label = labels)
```

6.6.2 Coloured Bars

It is also common to colour different bars in the chart in different colours or using different shades. This can help to distinguish one bar from another. An example is given below:



The colour to be used for each category can be provided via the `color` parameter to the `bar()` (and `barch()`) function. This is a sequence of the colours to apply. For example, the above coloured bar chart can be generated using:

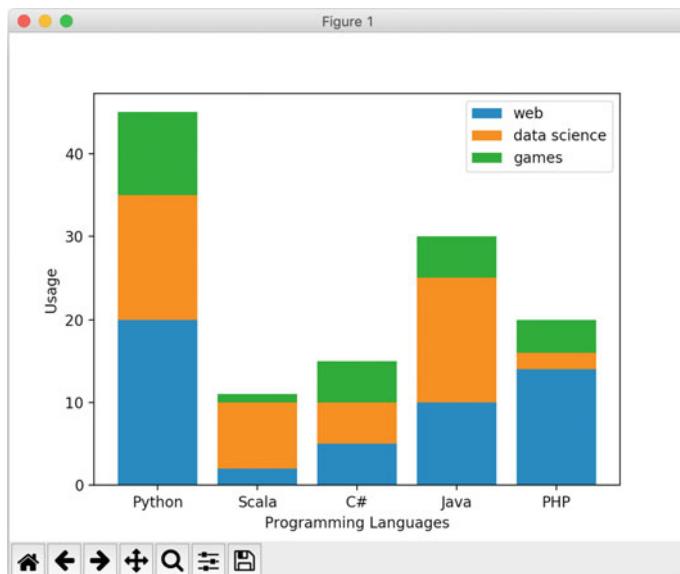
```
pyplot.bar(x_values, sizes, tick_label=labels, color=['red',  
'green', 'blue', 'yellow', 'orange'])
```

6.6.3 Stacked Bar Charts

Bar Charts can also be stacked. This can be a way of showing total values (and what contributes to those total values) across several categories. That is, it is a way of viewing overall totals, for several different categories based on how different elements contribute to those totals.

Different colours are used for the different sub-groups that contribute to the overall bar. In such cases, a legend or key is usually provided to indicate what sub-group each of the shadings/colours represent. The legend can be placed in the plot area or may be located below the chart.

For example, in the following chart the total usage of a particular programming language is composed of its use in games and web development as well as data science analytics.



From this figure we can see how much each use of a programming language contributes to the overall usage of that language. The program that generated this chart is given below:

```

import matplotlib.pyplot as pyplot

# Set up the data
labels = ('Python', 'Scala', 'C#', 'Java', 'PHP')
index = (1, 2, 3, 4, 5)
web_usage = [20, 2, 5, 10, 14]
data_science_usage = [15, 8, 5, 15, 2]
games_usage = [10, 1, 5, 5, 4]

# Set up the bar chart
pyplot.bar(index, web_usage, tick_label=labels, label='web')
pyplot.bar(index, data_science_usage, tick_label=labels,
label='data science', bottom=web_usage)

web_and_games_usage = [web_usage[i] + data_science_usage[i]
for i in range(0, len(web_usage))]
pyplot.bar(index, games_usage, tick_label=labels,
label='games', bottom=web_and_games_usage)

# Configure the layout
pyplot.ylabel('Usage')
pyplot.xlabel('Programming Languages')
pyplot.legend()

# Display the chart
pyplot.show()

```

One thing to note from this example is that after the first set of values are added using the `pyplot.bar()` function, it is necessary to specify the bottom locations for the next set of bars using the `bottom` parameter. We can do this just using the values already used for `web_usage` for the second bar chart; however for the third bar chart we must add the values used for `web_usage` and `data_science_usage` together (in this case using a for list comprehension).

6.6.4 Grouped Bar Charts

Finally, Grouped Bar Charts are a way of showing information about different sub-groups of the main categories. In such cases, a legend or key is usually provided to indicate what sub-group each of the shadings/colours represent. The legend can be placed in the plot area or may be located below the chart.

For a particular category separate bar charts are drawn for each of the subgroups. For example, in the following chart the results obtained for two sets of teams across

a series of lab exercises are displayed. Thus each team has a bar for lab1, lab2, lab3 etc. A space is left between each category to make it easier to compare the sub categories.

The following program generates the grouped bar chart for the lab exercises example:

```
import matplotlib.pyplot as pyplot

BAR_WIDTH = 0.35

# set up grouped bar charts
teamA_results = (60, 75, 56, 62, 58)
teamB_results = (55, 68, 80, 73, 55)
# Set up the index for each bar
index_teamA = (1, 2, 3, 4, 5)
index_teamB = [i + BAR_WIDTH for i in index_teamA]

# Determine the mid point for the ticks
ticks = [i + BAR_WIDTH / 2 for i in index_teamA]
tick_labels = ('Lab 1', 'Lab 2', 'Lab 3', 'Lab 4', 'Lab 5')

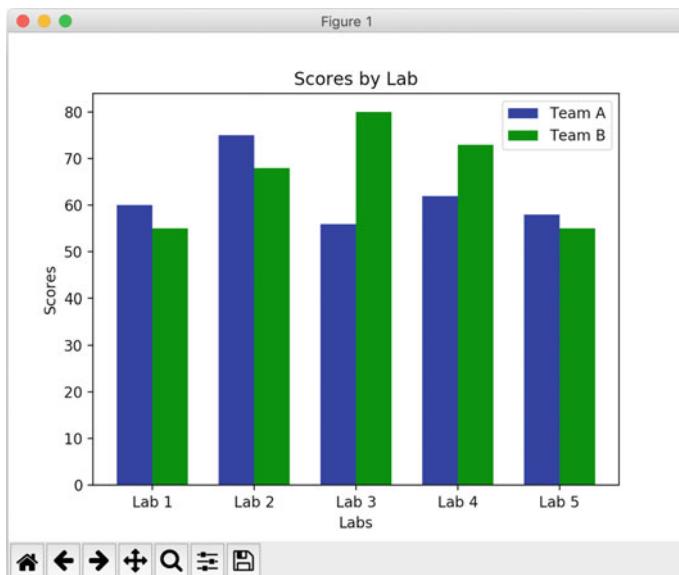
# Plot the bar charts
pyplot.bar(index_teamA, teamA_results, BAR_WIDTH, color='b',
           label='Team A')
pyplot.bar(index_teamB, teamB_results, BAR_WIDTH, color='g',
           label='Team B')

# Set up the graph
pyplot.xlabel('Labs')
pyplot.ylabel('Scores')
pyplot.title('Scores by Lab')
pyplot.xticks(ticks, tick_labels)
pyplot.legend()

# Display the graph
pyplot.show()
```

Notice in the above program that it has been necessary to calculate the index for the second team as we want the bars presented next to each other. Thus the index for the teams includes the width of the bar for each index point, thus the first bar is at index position 1.35, the second at index position 2.35 etc. Finally the tick positions must therefore be between the two bars and thus is calculated by taking into account the bar widths.

This program generates the following grouped bar chart:



6.7 Figures and Subplots

A Matplotlib figure is the object that contains all the graphical elements displayed on a plot. That is the axes, the legend, the title as well as the line plot or bar chart itself. It thus represents the overall window or page and is the top, outer graphical component.

In many cases the figure is implicit as the developer interacts with the `pyplot` API; however the figure can be accessed directly if required.

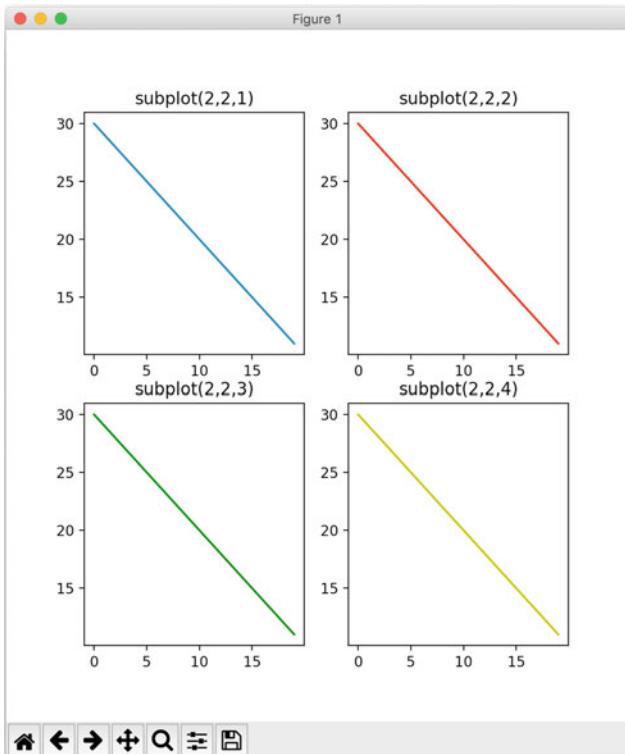
The `matplotlib.pyplot.figure()` function generates a figure object. This function returns a `matplotlib.figure.Figure` object. It is then possible to interact directly with the figure object. For example it is possible to add axes to the figure, to add sub plots to a graph etc.

Working directly with the figure is necessary if you want to add multiple subplots to a figure. This can be useful if what is required is to be able to compare different views of the same data side by side. Each subplot has its own axes which can coexist within the figure.

One or more subplots can be added to a figure using the `figure.add_subplot()` method. This method adds an Axes to the figure as one of a set of one or more subplots. A subplot can be added using a 3-digit integer (or three separate integers) describing the position of the subplot. The digits represent the number of rows, columns and the index of the sub plot within the resulting matrix.

Thus 2, 2, 1 (and 221) all indicate that the subplot will take the 1st index within a two by two grid of plots. In turn 2, 2, 3 (223) indicates that the subplot will be at index 3 which will be row 2 and column 1 within the 2 by 2 grid of plots. Where as 2, 2, 4 (or 224) indicates that the plot should be added as at index 4 or the fourth subplot within the grid (so position 2 by 2) etc.

For example, the following figure illustrates four subplots presented within a single figure. Each subplot is added via the `figure.add_subplot()` method.



This figure is generated by the following program:

```
import matplotlib.pyplot as pyplot

t = range(0, 20)
s = range(30, 10, -1)
# Set up the grid of subplots to be 2 by 2
grid_size='22'

# Initialize a Figure
figure = pyplot.figure()

# Add first subplot
position = grid_size + '1'
print('Adding first subplot to position', position)
axis1 = figure.add_subplot(position)
axis1.set(title='subplot(2,2,1)')
axis1.plot(t, s)

# Add second subplot
position = grid_size + '2'
print('Adding second subplot to position', position)
axis2 = figure.add_subplot(position)
axis2.set(title='subplot(2,2,2)')
axis2.plot(t, s, 'r-')

# Add third subplot
position = grid_size + '3'
print('Adding third subplot to position', position)
axis3 = figure.add_subplot(position)
axis3.set(title='subplot(2,2,3)')
axis3.plot(t, s, 'g-')

# Add fourth subplot
position = grid_size + '4'
print('Adding fourth subplot to position', position)
axis4 = figure.add_subplot(position)
axis4.set(title='subplot(2,2,4)')
axis4.plot(t, s, 'y-')

# Display the chart
pyplot.show()
```

The console output from this program is given below:

```
Adding first subplot to position 221
Adding second subplot to position 222
Adding third subplot to position 223
Adding fourth subplot to position 224
```

6.8 3D Graphs

A three dimensional graph is used to plot the relationships between three sets of values (instead of the two used in the examples presented so far in this chapter). In a three dimensional graph as well as the x and y axis there is also a z axis.

The following program creates a simple 3D graph using two sets of values generated using the numpy range function. These are then converted into a coordinate matrices using the numpy meshgrid() function. The z axis values are created using the numpy sin() function. The 3D graph surface is plotted using the plot_surface() function of the futures axes object. This takes the x, y and z coordinates. The function is also given a colour map to use when rendering the surface (in this case the Matplotlib cool to warm colour map is used).

```
import matplotlib.pyplot as pyplot
# Import matplotlib colour map
from matplotlib import cm as colourmap
# Required for fD Projections
from mpl_toolkits.mplot3d import Axes3D
# Provide access to numpy functions
import numpy as np

# Make the data to be displayed
x_values = np.arange(-6, 6, 0.3)
y_values = np.arange(-6, 6, 0.3)

# Generate coordinate matrices from coordinate vectors
x_values, y_values = np.meshgrid(x_values, y_values)

# Generate Z values as sin of x plus y values
z_values = np.sin(x_values + y_values)
```

```
# Obtain the figure object
figure = pyplot.figure()

# Get the axes object for the 3D graph
axes = figure.gca(projection='3d')

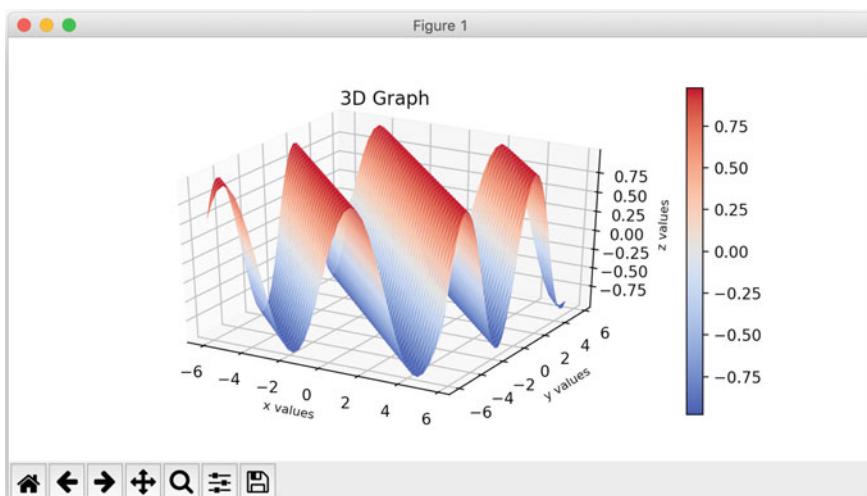
# Plot the surface.
surf = axes.plot_surface(x_values,
                         y_values,
                         z_values,
                         cmap=colourmap.coolwarm)

# Add a color bar which maps values to colors.
figure.colorbar(surf)

# Add labels to the graph
pyplot.title("3D Graph")
axes.set_ylabel('y values', fontsize=8)
axes.set_xlabel('x values', fontsize=8)
axes.set_zlabel('z values', fontsize=8)

# Display the graph
pyplot.show()
```

This program generates the following 3D graph:



One point to note about three dimensional graphs is that they are not universally accepted as being a good way to present data. One of the maxims of data visualisation is keep it simple/keep it clean. Many consider that a three dimensional chart does not do this and that it can be difficult to see what is really being shown or that it can be hard to interpret the data appropriately. For example, in the above chart what are the values associated with any of the peaks? This is difficult to determine as it is hard to see where the peaks are relative to the X, Y and Z axis. Many consider such 3D charts to be eye candy; pretty to look at but not providing much information. As such the use of a 3D chart should be minimised and only used when actually necessary.

6.9 Exercises

The following table provides information on cities in the UK and their populations (note that London has been omitted as its population is so much larger than that of any other city and this would distort the graph).

City	Population
Bristol	617,280
Cardiff	447,287
Bath	94,782
Liverpool	864,122
Glasgow	591,620
Edinburgh	464,990
Leeds	455,123
Reading	318,014
Swansea	300,352
Manchester	395,515

Using this data create:

1. A scatter plot for the city to population data.
2. A bar chart for the city to population data.

Chapter 7

Graphical User Interfaces



7.1 Introduction

A Graphical User Interface can capture the essence of an idea or a situation, often avoiding the need for a long passage of text. Such interfaces can save a user from the need to learn complex commands. They are less likely to intimidate computer users and can provide a large amount of information quickly in a form which can be easily assimilated by the user.

The widespread use of high quality graphical interfaces has led many computer users to expect such interfaces to any software they use. Most programming languages either incorporate a Graphical User Interface (GUI) library or have third party libraries available.

Python is of course a cross platform programming language and this brings in additional complexities as the underlying operating system may provide different windowing facilities depending upon whether the program is running on Unix, Linux, Mac OS or Windows operating systems.

In this chapter we will first introduce what we mean by a GUI and by WIMP based UIs in particular. We will then consider the range of libraries available for Python before selecting one to use. This chapter will then describe how to create rich client graphical displays (desktop application) using one of these GUI libraries. Thus in this chapter we consider how windows, buttons, text fields and labels etc. are created, added to windows, positioned and organised.

7.2 GUIs and WIMPS

GUIs (Graphical User Interfaces) and WIMP (Windows, Icons, Mice and Pop-up Menus) style interfaces have been available within computer systems for many years but they are still one of the most significant developments to have occurred. These interfaces were originally developed out of a desire to address many of the perceived weaknesses of purely textual interfaces.

The textual interface to an operating system was typified by a peremptory prompt. In Unix/Linux systems for example, the prompt is often merely a single character such as %, > or \$, which can be intimidating. This is true even for experienced computer users if they are not familiar with the Unix/Linux family of operating systems.

For example, a user wishing to copy a file from one directory to another might have to type something like:

```
> cp file.pdf ~otheruser/projdir/srcdir/newfile.pdf
```

This long sequence needs to be entered with no mistakes in order to be accepted. Any error in this command will cause the system to generate an error message which might or might not be enlightening. Even where systems attempt to be more “user friendly” through features like command histories, much typing of arrow keys and filenames is typically needed.

The main issue on both input and output is one of bandwidth. For example, in situations where the relationships between large amounts of information must be described, it is much easier to assimilate this if output is displayed graphically than if it is displayed as a tables of figures. On input, combinations of mouse actions can be given a meaning that could otherwise only be conveyed by several lines of text.

WIMP stands for Windows (or Window Managers), Icons, Mice and Pop-up menus. WIMP interfaces allow the user to overcome at least some of the weaknesses of their textual counterparts—it is possible to provide a pictorial image of the operating system which can be based on a concept the user can relate to, menus can be used instead of textual commands and information in general can be displayed graphically.

The fundamental concepts presented via a WIMP interface were originally developed at XEROX’s Palo Alto Research Center and used on the Xerox Star machine, but gained much wider acceptance through first the Apple Macintosh and then IBM PC implementations of WIMP interfaces.

Most WIMP style environments use a desktop analogy (although this is less true of mobile devices such as phones and tablets):

- the whole screen represents a working surface (a desktop),
- graphic windows that can overlap represent sheets of paper on that desktop,

- graphic objects are used for specific concepts, for example filing cabinets for disks or a waste bin for file disposal (these could be regarded as desk accessories),
- various application programs are displayed on the screen, these stand for tools that you might use on your desktop.

In order to interact with this display, the WIMP user is provided with a mouse (or a light pen or a touch sensitive screen), which can be used to select icons and menus or to manipulate windows.

The software basis of any WIMP style environment is the *window manager*. It controls the multiple, possibly overlapping windows and icons displayed on the screen. It also handles the transfer of information about events which occur in those windows to the appropriate application and generates the various menus and prompts used.

A window is an area of the graphic screen in which a page or piece of a page of information may be displayed; it may display text, graphics or a combination of both. These windows may be overlapping, and associated with the same process, or they may be associated with separate processes. Windows can generally be created, opened, closed, moved and resized.

An icon is a small graphic object that is usually symbolic of an operation or of a larger entity such as an application program or a file. The *opening* of an icon causes either the associated application to execute or the associated window to be displayed.

At the heart of the users ability to interact with such WIMP based programs is the *event loop*. This loop *listens* for events such as the user clicking a button or selecting a menu item or entering a text field. When such an *event* occurs it triggers the associated behaviour (such as running a function linked with a button).

7.3 Windowing Frameworks for Python

Python is a cross platform programming language. As such Python programs can be written on one platform (such as a Linux box) and then run on that platform or another operating system platform (such as Windows or Mac OS). This can however generate issues for libraries that need to be available across multiple operating system platforms. The area of GUIs is particularly an issue as a library written to exploit features available in the Microsoft Windows system may not be available (or may look different) on Mac OS or Linux systems.

Each operating system that Python runs on may have one or more windowing systems written for it and these systems may or may not be available on other operating systems. This makes the job of providing a GUI library for Python that much more difficult.

Developers of Python GUIs have taken one of two approaches to handle this:

- One approach is to write a wrapper that abstracts the underlying GUI facilities so that the developer works at a level above a specific windowing system's facilities. The Python library then maps (as best it can) the facilities to the underlying system that is currently being used.
- The other approach is to provide a closer wrapping to a particular set of facilities on the underlying GUI system and to only target systems that support those facilities.

Some of the libraries available for Python are listed below and have been categorised into platform-independent libraries and platform-specific libraries:

7.3.1 Platform-Independent GUI Libraries

- **Tkinter.** This is the standard built-in Python GUI library. It is built on top of the Tcl/Tk widget set that has been around for very many years for many different operating systems. Tcl stands for Tool Command Language while Tk is the graphical user interface toolkit for Tcl.
- **wxPython.** wxWidgets is a free, highly portable GUI library. Its is written in C++ and it can provide a native look and feel on operating systems such as Windows, Mac OS, Linux etc. wxPython is a set of Python bindings for wxWidgets. This is the library that we will be using in this chapter.
- **PyQT or PySide** both of these libraries wrap the Qt toolkit facilities. Qt is a cross platform software development system for the implementation of GUIs and applications.

7.3.2 Platform-Specific GUI Libraries

- **PyObjc** is a Mac OS specific library that provides an Objective-C bridge to the Apple Mac Cocoa GUI libraries.
- **PythonWin** provides a set of wrappings around the Microsoft Windows Foundation classes and can be used to create Windows based GUIs.

7.4 Online Resources

There are numerous online references that support the development of GUIs and of Python GUIs in particular, including:

- <https://www.wxpython.org> wxPython home page.
- <https://www.tcl.tk> for Information on Tcl/Tk.
- <https://www.qt.io> For information on the Qt cross-platform software and UI development library.
- <https://wiki.python.org/moin/PyQt> For information about PyQt.
- <https://pypi.org/project/PySide/> which provides project information for PySide.
- [https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Cocoa_\(API\)](https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Cocoa_(API)) for the Wikipedia page on the MacOS Cocoa library.
- <https://pythonhosted.org/pyobjc/> for information on the Python to Objective-C bridge.
- <https://docs.microsoft.com/en-us/cpp/mfc/mfc-desktop-applications?view=vs-2019> Provides an introduction to the Microsoft Foundation classes.
- <https://www.cgl.ucsf.edu/Outreach/pc204/pythonwin.html> for information on PythonWin.

Chapter 8

The wxPython GUI Library



8.1 The wxPython Library

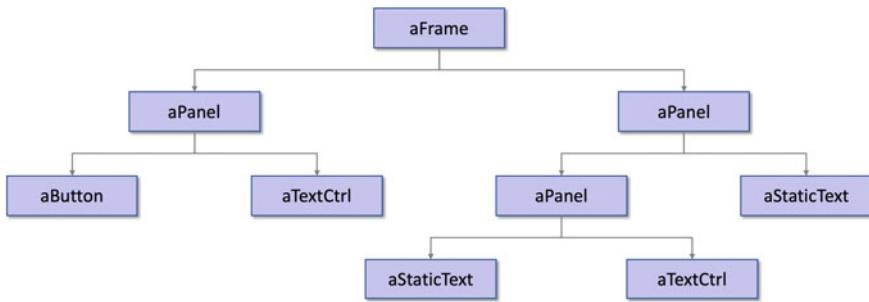
The wxPython library is a cross platform GUI library (or toolkit) for Python. It allows programmers to develop highly graphical user interfaces for their programs using common concepts such as menu bars, menus, buttons, fields, panels and frames.

In wxPython all the elements of a GUI are contained within top level windows such as a `wx.Frame` or a `wx.Dialog`. These windows contain graphical components known as widgets or controls. These widgets/controls may be grouped together into Panels (which may or may not have a visible representation).

Thus in wxPython we might construct a GUI from:

- **Frames** which provide the basic structure for a window: borders, a label and some basic functionality (e.g. resizing).
- **Dialogs** which are like Frames but provide fewer border controls.
- **Widgets/Controls** that are graphical objects displayed in a frame. Some other languages refer to them as UI components. Examples of widgets are buttons, checkboxes, selection lists, labels and text fields.
- **Containers** are component that are made up of one or more other components (or containers). All the components within a container (such as a panel) can be treated as a single entity.

Thus a GUI is constructed hierarchically from a set of widgets, containers and one or more Frames (or in the case of a pop up dialog then Dialogs). This is illustrated below for a window containing several panels and widgets:



Windows such as Frames and Dialogs have a component hierarchy that is used (amongst other things) to determine how and when elements of the window are drawn and redrawn. The component hierarchy is rooted with the frame, within which components and containers can be added.

The above figure illustrates a component hierarchy for a frame, with two container Panels and a few basic widgets/ui components held within the Panels. Note that a panel can contain another sub panel with different widgets in.

8.1.1 wxPython Modules

The wxPython library is comprised of many different modules. These modules provide different features from the core `wx` module to the html oriented `wx.html` and `wx.html2` modules. These modules include:

- `wx` which holds the core widgets and classes in the `wx` library.
- `wx.adv` that provides less commonly used or more advanced widgets and classes.
- `wx.grid` contains widgets and classes supporting the display and editing of tabular data.
- `wx.richtext` consists of widgets and classes used for displaying multiple text styles and images.
- `wx.html` comprises widgets and supporting classes for a generic html renderer.
- `wx.html2` provides further widget and supporting classes for a native html renderer, with CSS and javascript support.

8.1.2 Windows as Objects

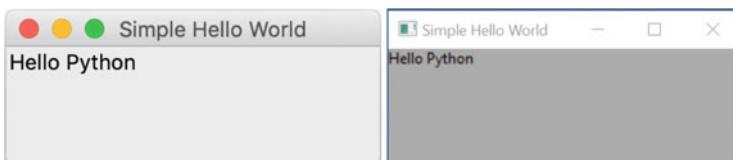
In wxPython, Frames and Dialogs as well as their contents are instances of appropriate classes (such as `Frame`, `Dialog`, `Panel`, `Button` or `StaticText`). Thus when you create a window, you create an object that knows how to display itself on the computer screen. You must tell it what to display and then tell it to show its contents to the user.

You should bear the following points in mind during your reading of this chapter; they will help you understand what you are required to do:

- You create a window by instantiating a `Frame` or `Dialog` object.
- You define what the window displays by creating a widget that has an appropriate parent component. This adds the widget to a container, such as a type of panel or a frame.
- You can send messages to the window to change its state, perform an operation, and display a graphic object.
- The window, or components within the window, can send messages to other objects in response to user (or program) actions.
- Everything displayed by a window is an instance of a class and is potentially subject to all of the above.
- `wx.App` handles the main event loop of the GUI application.

8.1.3 A Simple Example

An example of creating a very simple window using wxPython is given below. The result of running this short program is shown here for both a Mac and a Windows PC:



This program creates a top level window (the `wx.Frame`) and gives it a title. It also creates a label (a `wx.StaticText` object) to be displayed within the frame.

To use the wxPython library it is necessary to import the `wx` module.

```
import wx

# Create the Application Object
app = wx.App()

# Now create a Frame (representing the window)
frame = wx.Frame(parent=None, title='Simple Hello World')
# And add a text label to it
text = wx.StaticText(parent=frame, label='Hello Python')

# Display the window (frame)
frame.Show()

# Start the event loop
app.MainLoop()
```

The program also creates a new instance of the Application Object called `wx.App()`.

Every wxPython GUI program must have one Application Object. It is the equivalent of the `main()` function in many non-GUI applications as it will run the GUI application for you. It also provides default facilities for defining *startup* and *shutdown* operations and can be subclassed to create custom behaviour.

The `wx.StaticText` class is used to create a single (or multiple) line label. In this case the label shows the string ‘Hello Python’. The `StaticText` object is constructed with reference to its parent container. This is the container within which the text will be displayed. In this case the `StaticText` is being displayed directly within the Frame and thus the frame object is its containing parent object. In contrast the Frame which is a top level window, does not have a parent container.

Also notice that the frame must be shown (displayed) for the user to see it. This is because there might be multiple different windows that need to be shown (or hidden) in different situations for an application.

Finally the program starts the applications’ *main event loop*; within this loop the program listens for any user input (such as requesting that the window is closed).

8.2 The `wx.App` Class

The `wx.App` class represents the application and is used to:

- start up the wxPython system and initialise the underlying GUI toolkit,
- set and get application-wide properties,
- implement the native windowing system main message or event loop, and to dispatch events to window instances.

Every wxPython application must have a single `wx.App` instance. The creation of all of the UI objects should be delayed until after the `wx.App` object has been created in order to ensure that the GUI platform and wxWidgets have been fully initialised.

It is common to subclass the `wx.App` class and override methods such as `OnPreInit` and `OnExit` to provide custom behaviour. This ensures that the required behaviour is run at appropriate times. The methods that can be overridden for this purpose are:

- `OnPreInit`, This method can be overridden to define behaviour that should be run once the application object is created, but before the `OnInit` method has been called.
- `OnInit` This is expected to create the applications main window, display that window etc.
- `OnRun`, This is the method used to start the execution of the main program.
- `OnExit`, This can be overridden to provide any behaviour that should be called just before the application exits.

As an example, if we wish to set up a GUI application such that the main frame is initialised and shown after the `wx.App` has been instantiated then the safest way is to override the `OnInit()` method of the `wx.App` class in a suitable subclass. The method should return `True` or `False`; where `True` is used to indicate that processing of the application should continue and `False` indicates that the application should terminate immediately (usually as the result of some unexpected issue).

An example `wx.App` subclass is shown below:

```
class MainApp(wx.App):  
  
    def OnInit(self):  
        """ Initialise the main GUI Application """  
        frame = WelcomeFrame()  
        frame.Show()  
        # Indicate whether processing should continue or not  
        return True
```

This class can now be instantiated and the `MainLoop` started, for example:

```
# Run the GUI application  
app = MainApp()  
app.MainLoop()
```

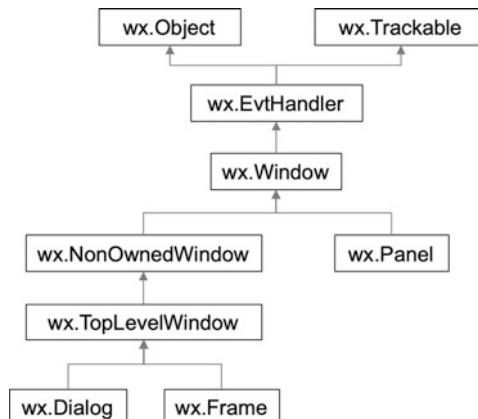
It is also possible to override the `OnExit()` to clean up anything initialised in the `OnInit()` method.

8.3 Window Classes

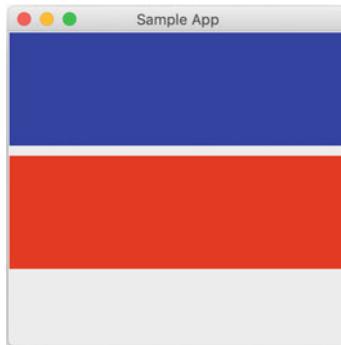
The window or widget container classes that are commonly used within a wxPython application are:

- `wx.Dialog` A Dialog is a top level window used for popups where the user has limited ability to interact with the window. In many cases the user can only input some data and/or accept or decline an option.
- `wx.Frame` A Frame is a top level window whose size and position can be set and can (usually) be controlled by the user.
- `wx.Panel` Is a container (non top level window) on which controls/widgets can be placed. This is often used in conjunction with a Dialog or a Frame to manage the positioning of widgets within the GUI.

The inheritance hierarchy for these classes is given below for reference:



As an example of using a Frame and a Panel, the following application creates two Panels and displays them within a top level Frame. The background colour of the Frame is the default grey; while the background colour for the first Panel is blue and for the second Panel it is red. The resulting display is shown below:



The program that generated this GUI is given below:

```
import wx

class SampleFrame(wx.Frame):

    def __init__(self):
        super().__init__(parent=None,
                        title='Sample App',
                        size=(300, 300))

        # Set up the first Panel to be at position 1, 1
        # (The default) and of size 300 by 100
        # with a blue background
        self.panel1 = wx.Panel(self)
        self.panel1.SetSize(300, 100)
        self.panel1.SetBackgroundColour(wx.Colour(0, 0, 255))

        # Set up the second Panel to be at position 1, 110
        # and of size 300 by 100 with a red background
        self.panel2 = wx.Panel(self)
        self.panel2.SetSize(1, 110, 300, 100)
        self.panel2.SetBackgroundColour(wx.Colour(255, 0, 0))

class MainApp(wx.App):

    def OnInit(self):
        """ Initialise the main GUI Application """
        frame = SampleFrame()
        frame.Show()
        return True

# Run the GUI application
app = MainApp()
app.MainLoop()
```

The `SampleFrame` is a subclass of the `wx.Frame` class; it thus inherits all of the functionality of a Top Level Frame (window). Within the `__init__()` method of the `SampleFrame` the super classes `__init__()` method is called. This is used to set the size of the Frame and to give the Frame a title. Note that the Frame also indicates that it does not have a parent window.

When the Panel is created it is necessary to specify the window (or in this case Frame) within which it will be displayed. This is a common pattern within wxPython.

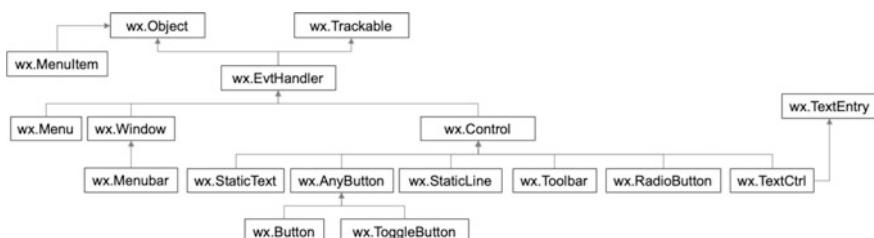
Also note that the `SetSize` method of the `Panel` class also allows the position to be specified and that the `Colour` class is the wxPython `Colour` class.

8.4 Widget/Control Classes

Although there are very many widgets/controls available to the developer, the most commonly used include:

- `wx.Button/wx.ToggleButton/wx.RadioButton` These are widgets that provide button like behaviour within a GUI.
- `wx.TextCtrl` This widget allows text to be displayed and edited. I can be a single line or multiple line widget depending upon configuration.
- `wx.StaticText` Used to display one or more lines of read-only text. In many libraries this widget is known as a label.
- `wx.StaticLine` A line used in dialogs to separate groups of widgets. The line may be vertical or horizontal.
- `wx.ListBox` This widget is used to allow a user to select one option from a list of options.
- `wx.MenuBar/wx.Menu/wx.MenuItem`. The components that can be used to construct a set of menus for a User Interface.
- `wxToolBar` This widget is used to display a bar of buttons and/or other widgets usually placed below the menubar in a `wx.Frame`.

The inheritance hierarchy of these widgets is given below. Note that they all inherit from the class `Control` (hence why they are often referred to as Controls as well as Widgets or GUI components).



Whenever a widget is created it is necessary to provide the container window class that will hold it, such as a `Frame` or a `Panel`, for example:

```
enter_button = wx.Button(panel, label='Enter')
```

In this code snippet a `wx.Button` is being created that will have a label ‘Enter’ and will be displayed within the given Panel.

8.5 Dialogs

The generic `wx.Dialog` class can be used to build any custom dialog you require. It can be used to create *modal* and *modeless* dialogs:

- A modal dialog blocks program flow and user input on other windows until it is dismissed.
- A modeless dialog behaves more like a frame in that program flow continues, and input in other windows is still possible.
- The `wx.Dialog` class provides two versions of the `show` method to support modal and modeless dialogs. The `ShowModal()` method is used to display a modal dialog, while the `Show()` is used to show a modeless dialog.

As well as the generic `wx.Dialog` class, the `wxPython` library provides numerous prebuilt dialogs for common situations. These pre built dialogs include:

- `wx.ColourDialog` This class is used to generate a colour chooser dialog.
- `wx.DirDialog` This class provides a directory chooser dialog.
- `wx.FileDialog` This class provides a file chooser dialog.
- `wx.FontDialog` This class provides a font chooser dialog.
- `wx.MessageDialog` This class can be used to generate a single or multi-line message or information dialog. It can support Yes, No and Cancel options. It can be used for generic messages or for error messages.
- `wx.MultiChoiceDialog` This dialog can be used to display a lit of strings and allows the user to select one or more values for the list.
- `wx.PasswordEntryDialog` This class represents a dialog that allows a user to enter a one-line password string from the user.
- `wxProgressDialog` If supported by the GUI platform, then this class will provide the platforms native progress dialog, otherwise it will use the pure Python `wx.GenericProgressDialog`. The `wx.GenericProgressDialog` shows a short message and a progress bar.
- `wx.TextEntryDialog` This class provides a dialog that requests a one-line text string from the user.

Most of the dialogs that return a value follow the same pattern. This pattern returns a value from the `ShowModal()` method that indicates if the user selected OK or CANCEL (using the return value `wx.ID_OK` or `wx.ID_CANCEL`). The selected/entered value can then be obtained from a suitable get method such as `GetColourData()` for the `ColourDialog` or `GetPath()` for the `DirDialog`.

8.6 Arranging Widgets Within a Container

Widgets can be located within a window using specific coordinates (such as 10 pixels down and 5 pixels across). However, this can be a problem if you are considering cross platform applications, this is because how a button is rendered (drawn) on a Mac is different to Windows and different again from the windowing systems on Linux/Unix etc.

This means that different amount of spacing must be given on different platforms. In addition the fonts used with text boxes and labels differ between different platforms also requiring differences in the layout of widgets.

To overcome this wxPython provides *Sizers*. Sizers work with a container such as a Frame or a Panel to determine how the contained widgets should be laid out. Widgets are added to a sizer which is then set onto a container such as a Panel.

A Sizer is thus an object which works with a container and the host windowing platform to determine the best way to display the objects in the window. The developer does not need to worry about what happens if a user resizes a window or if the program is executed on a different windowing platform.

Sizers therefore help to produce portable, presentable user interfaces. In fact one Sizer can be placed within another Sizer to create complex component layouts.

There are several sizers available including:

- `wx.BoxSizer` This sizer can be used to place several widgets into a row or column organisation depending upon the orientation. When the `BoxSizer` is created the orientation can be specified using `wx.VERTICAL` or `wx.HORIZONTAL`.
- `wx.GridSizer` This sizer lays widgets out in a two dimensional grid. Each cell within the grid has the same size. When the `GridSizer` object is created it is possible to specify the number of rows and columns the grid has. It is also possible to specify the spacing between the cells both horizontally and vertically.
- `wx.FlexGridSizer` This sizer is a slightly more flexible version of the `GridSizer`. In this version not all columns and rows need to be the same size (although all cells in the same column are the same width and all cells in the same row are the same height).

- `wx.GridBagSizer` is the most flexible sizer. It allows widgets to be positioned relative to the grid and also allows widgets to span multiple rows and/or columns.

To use a Sizer it must first be instantiated. When widgets are created they should be added to the sizer and then the sizer should be set on the container.

For example, the following code uses a `GridSizer` used with a `Panel` to layout out four widgets comprised of two buttons, a `StaticText` label and a `TextCtrl` input field:

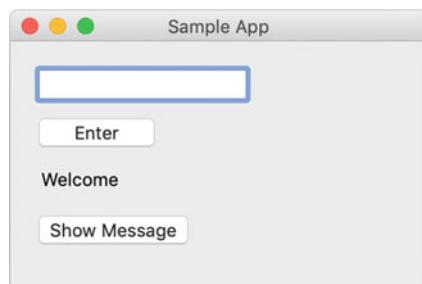
```
# Create the panel
panel = wx.Panel(self)

# Create the sizer to use with 4 rows and 1 column
# And 5 spacing around each cell
grid = wx.GridSizer(4, 1, 5, 5)

# Create the widgets
text = wx.TextCtrl(panel, size=(150, -1))
enter_button = wx.Button(panel, label='Enter')
label = wx.StaticText(panel, label='Welcome')
message_button = wx.Button(panel, label='Show Message')

# Add the widgets to the grid sizer
grid.AddMany([text, enter_button, label, message_button])
# Set the sizer on the panel
panel.SetSizer(grid)
```

The resulting display is shown below:



8.7 Drawing Graphics

In earlier chapters we looked at the Turtle graphics API for generating vector and raster graphics in Python.

The wxPython library provides its own facilities for generating cross platform graphic displays using lines, squares, circles, text etc. This is provided via the Device Context.

A Device Context (often shortened to just DC) is an object on which graphics and text can be drawn.

It is intended to allow different output devices to all have a common graphics API (also known as the GDI or Graphics Device Interface). Specific device contexts can be instantiate depending on whether the program is to use a window on a computer screen or some other output medium (such as a printer).

There are several Device Context types available such as `wx.WindowDC`, `wx.PaintDC` and `wx.ClientDC`:

- The `wx.WindowDC` is used if we want to paint on the whole window (Windows only). This includes window decorations.
- The `wx.ClientDC` is used to draw on the client area of a window. The client area is the area of a window without its decorations (title and border).
- The `wx.PaintDC` is used to draw on the client area as well but is intended to support the window refresh paint event handling mechanism.

Note that the `wx.PaintDC` should be used only from a `wx.PaintEvent` handler while the `wx.ClientDC` should never be used from a `wx.PaintEvent` handler.

Whichever Device Context is used, they all support a similar set of methods that are used to generate graphics, such as:

- `DrawCircle (x, y, radius)` Draws a circle with the given centre and radius.
- `DrawEllipse (x, y, width, height)` Draws an ellipse contained in the rectangle specified either with the given top left corner and the given size or directly.
- `DrawPoint (x, y)` Draws a point using the color of the current pen.
- `DrawRectangle (x, y, width, height)` Draws a rectangle with the given corner coordinate and size.
- `DrawText (text, x, y)` Draws a text string at the specified point, using the current text font, and the current text foreground and background colours.
- `DrawLine (pt1, pt2)/DrawLine (x1, y1, x2, y2)` This method draws a line from the first point to the second.

It is also important to understand when the device context is refreshed/redrawn. For example, if you resize a window, maximise it, minimise it, move it, or modify its contents the window is redrawn. This generates an event, a `PaintEvent`.

You can bind a method to the `PaintEvent` (using `wx.EVT_PAINT`) that can be called each time the window is refreshed.

This method can be used to draw whatever the contents of the window should be. If you do not redraw the contents of the device context in such a method than whatever you previously drew will display when the window is refreshed.

The following simple program illustrates the use of some of the Draw methods listed above and how a method can be bound to the paint event so that the display is refreshed appropriately when using a *device context*:

```
import wx

class DrawingFrame(wx.Frame):

    def __init__(self, title):
        super().__init__(None,
                         title=title,
                         size=(300, 200))

        self.Bind(wx.EVT_PAINT, self.on_paint)

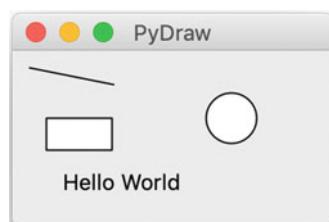
    def on_paint(self, event):
        """set up the device context (DC) for painting"""
        dc = wx.PaintDC(self)
        dc.DrawLine(10, 10, 60, 20)
        dc.DrawRectangle(20, 40, 40, 20)
        dc.DrawText("Hello World", 30, 70)
        dc.DrawCircle(130, 40, radius=15)

class GraphicApp(wx.App):

    def OnInit(self):
        """Initialise the GUI display"""
        frame = DrawingFrame(title='PyDraw')
        frame.Show()
        return True

# Run the GUI application
app = GraphicApp()
app.MainLoop()
```

When this program is run the following display is generated:



8.8 Online Resources

There are numerous online references that support the development of GUIs and of Python GUIs in particular, including:

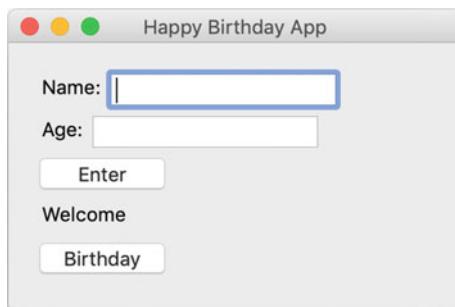
- <https://docs.wxpython.org> for documentation on wxPython.
- <https://www.wxpython.org> wxPython home page.
- <https://www.wxwidgets.org> For information on the underlying wxWidgets Cross platform GUI library.

8.9 Exercises

8.9.1 Simple GUI Application

In this exercise you will implement your own simple GUI application.

The application should generate the display for a simple UI. An example of the user interface is given below:



Notice that we have added a label to the input fields for name and age; you can manage their display using a nested panel.

In the next chapter we will add event handling to this application so that the application can respond to button clicks etc.

Chapter 9

Events in wxPython User Interfaces



9.1 Event Handling

Events are an integral part of any GUI; they represent user interactions with the interface such as clicking on a button, entering text into a field, selecting a menu option etc.

The main *event loop* listens for an event; when one occurs it processes that event (which usually results in a function or method being called) and then waits for the next event to happen. This loop is initiated in wxPython via the call to the `MainLoop()` method on the `wx.App` object.

This raises the question ‘what is an Event?’’. An event object is a piece of information representing some interaction that occurred typically with the GUI (although an event can be generated by anything). An event is processed by an *Event Handler*. This is a method or function that is called when the event occurs. The event is passed to the handler as a parameter. An *Event Binder* is used to bind an event to an event handler.

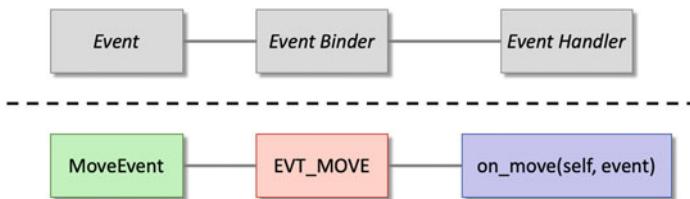
9.2 Event Definitions

It is useful to summarise the definitions around events as the terminology used can be confusing and is very similar:

- **Event** represents information from the underlying GUI framework that describes something that has happened and any associated data. The specific data available will differ depending on what has occurred. For example, if a window has been moved then the associated data will relate to the window’s new location. Whereas a `CommandEvent` generated by a selection action from a `ListBox` provides the item index for the selection.

- **Event Loop** the main processing loop of the GUI that waits for an event to occur. When an event occurs the associated event handler is called.
- **Event Handlers** these are methods (or functions) that are called when an event occurs.
- **Event Binders** associate a type of event with an event handler. There are different event binders for different types of event. For example, the event binder associated with the `wx.MoveEvent` is named `wx.EVT_MOVE`.

The relationship between the Event, the Event Handler via the Event Binder is illustrated below:



The top three boxes illustrate the concepts while the lower 3 boxes provide a concrete example of binding a `Move_Event` to an `on_move()` method via the `EVT_MOVE` binder.

9.3 Types of Events

There are numerous different types of event including:

- `wx.CloseEvent` used to indicate that a Frame or Dialog has been closed. The event binder for this event is named `wx.EVT_CLOSE`.
- `wx.CommandEvent` used with widgets such as buttons, list boxes, menu items, radio buttons, scrollbars, sliders etc. Depending upon the type of widget that generated the event different information may be provided. For example, for a Button a CommandEvent indicates that a button has been clicked where as for a ListBox it indicates that an option has been selected, etc. Different event binders are used for different event situations. For example, to bind a command event to a event handler for a button then the `wx.EVT_BUTTON` binder is used; while for a ListBox a `wx.EVT_LISTBOX` binder can be used.
- `wx.FocusEvent` This event is sent when a window's focus changes (loses or gains focus). You can pick up a window gaining focus using the `wx.EVT_SET_FOCUS` event binder. The `wx.EVT_KILL_FOCUS` is used to bind an event handler that will be called when a window loses focus.

- `wx.KeyEvent` This event contains information relating to a key press or release.
- `wx.MaximizeEvent` This event is generated when a top level window is maximised.
- `wx.MenuEvent` This event is used for menu oriented actions such as the menu being opened or closed; however it should be noted that this event is not used when a menu item is selected (`MenuItem`s generate `CommandEvent`s).
- `wx.MouseEvent` This event class contains information about the events generated by the mouse: this includes information on which mouse button was pressed (and released) and whether the mouse was double clicked etc.
- `wx.WindowCreateEvent` This event is sent just after the actual window is created.
- `wx.WindowDestroyEvent` This event is sent as early as possible during the window destruction process.

9.4 Binding an Event to an Event Handler

An event is bound to an Event Handler using the `Bind()` method of an event generating object (such as a button, field, menu item etc.) via a named Event Binder.

For example:

```
button.Bind(wx.EVT_BUTTON, self.event_handler_method)
```

9.5 Implementing Event Handling

There are four steps involved in implementing event handling for a widget or window, these are:

1. **Identify the event of interest.** Many widgets will generate different events in different situations; it may therefore be necessary to determine which event you are interested in.
2. **Find the correct Event Binder name**, e.g. `wx.EVT_CLOSE`, `wx.EVT_MOVE` or `wx.EVT_BUTTON` etc. Again you may find that the widget you are interested in supports numerous different event binders which may be used in different situations (even for the same event).
3. **Implement an event handler** (i.e. a suitable method or function) that will be called when the event occurs. The event handler will be supplied with the event object.
4. **Bind the Event to the Event Handler** via the Binder Name using the `Bind()` method of the widget or window.

To illustrate this we will use a simple example.

We will write a very simple event handling application. This application will have a Frame containing a Panel. The Panel will contain a label using the `wx.StaticText` class.

We will define an event handler called `on_mouse_click()` that will move the `StaticText` label to the current mouse location when the left mouse button is pressed. This means that we can move the label around the screen.

To do this we first need to determine the widget that will be used to generate the event. In this case it is the panel that contains the text label. Having done this we can look at the `Panel` class to see what events and Event Bindings it supports. It turns out that the `Panel` class only directly defines support for `NavigationKeyEvents`. This is not actually what we want; however the `Panel` class extends the `Window` class.

The `Window` class supports numerous event bindings, from those associated with setting the focus (`wx.EVT_SET_FOCUS` and `wx.EVT_KILL_FOCUS`) to key presses (`wx.EVT_KEY_DOWN` and `wx.EVT_KEY_UP`) as well as mouse events. There are however numerous different mouse event bindings. These allow left, middle and right mouse button clicks to be picked up, down clicks to be identified, situations such as the mouse entering or leaving the window etc. However, the binding we are interested in for a `MouseEvent` is the `wx.EVT_LEFT_DOWN` binding; this picks up on the `MouseEvent` when the left mouse button is pressed (there is also the `wx.EVT_LEFT_UP` binding which can be used to pick up an event that occurs when the left mouse button is released).

We now know that we need to bind the `on_mouse_click()` event handler to the `MouseEvent` via the `wx.EVT_LEFT_DOWN` event binder, for example:

```
self.panel.Bind(wx.EVT_LEFT_DOWN, self.on_mouse_click)
```

All event handler methods takes two parameters, `self` and the mouse event. Thus the signature of the `on_mouse_click()` method is:

```
def on_mouse_click(self, mouse_event):
```

The mouse event object has numerous methods defined that allow information about the mouse to be obtained such as the number of mouse clicks involved (`GetClickCount()`), which button was pressed (`GetButton()`) and the current mouse position within the containing widget or window (`GetPosition()`). We can therefore use this last method to obtain the current mouse location and then use the `SetPosition(x, y)` method on the `StaticText` object to set its position.

The end result is the program shown below:

```
import wx

class WelcomeFrame(wx.Frame):
    """ The Main Window / Frame of the application """

    def __init__(self):
        super().__init__(parent=None,
                         title='Sample App',
                         size=(300, 200))

        # Set up panel within the frame and text label
        self.panel = wx.Panel(self)
        self.text = wx.StaticText(self.panel,
                                 label='Hello')

        # Bind the on_mouse_click method to the
        # Mouse Event via the
        # left mouse click binder
        self.panel.Bind(wx.EVT_LEFT_DOWN,
                        self.on_mouse_click)

    def on_mouse_click(self, mouse_event):
        """ When the left mouse button is clicked
            This method is called. It will obtain
            the current mouse coordinates, and
            reposition the text label
            to this position. """
        x, y = mouse_event.GetPosition()
        print(x, y)
        self.text.SetPosition(wx.Point(x, y))

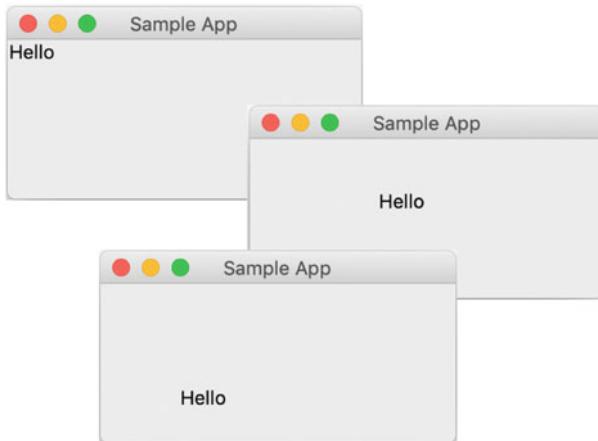
class MainApp(wx.App):

    def OnInit(self):
        """ Initialise the main GUI Application"""
        frame = WelcomeFrame()
        frame.Show()
        # Indicate that processing should continue
        return True

    # Run the GUI application
    app = MainApp()
    app.MainLoop()
```

When this program is run; the window is displayed with the ‘Hello’ `StaticText` label in the top left hand corner of the Frame (actually it is added to the Panel, however the Panel fills the Frame in this example). If the user then clicks the left mouse button anywhere within the Frame then the ‘Hello’ label jumps to that location.

This is shown below for the initial setup and then for two locations within the window.

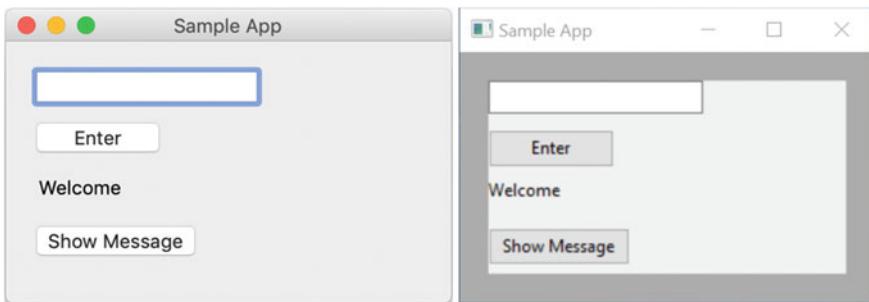


9.6 An Interactive wxPython GUI

An example of a slightly larger GUI application, that brings together many of the ideas presented in this chapter, is given below.

In this application we have a text input field (a `wx.TextCtrl`) that allows a user to enter their name. When they click on the Enter button (`wx.Button`) the welcome label (a `wx.StaticText`) is updated with their name. The ‘Show Message’ button is used to display a `wx.MessageDialog` which will also contain their name.

The initial display is shown below for both a Mac and a Windows PC, note that the default background colour for a Frame is different on a Windows PC than on a Mac and thus although the GUI runs on both platforms, the look differs between the two:



The code used to implement this GUI application is given below:

```
import wx

class HelloFrame(wx.Frame):

    def __init__(self, title):
        super().__init__(None, title=title, size=(300, 200))

        self.name = '<unknown>'

        # Create the BoxSizer to use for the Frame
        vertical_box_sizer = wx.BoxSizer(wx.VERTICAL)
        self.SetSizer(vertical_box_sizer)

        # Create the panel to contain the widgets
        panel = wx.Panel(self)
        # Add the Panel to the Frames Sizer
        vertical_box_sizer.Add(panel,
                               wx.ID_ANY,
                               wx.EXPAND | wx.ALL,
                               20)

        # Create the GridSizer to use with the Panel
        grid = wx.GridSizer(4, 1, 5, 5)

        # Set up the input field
        self.text = wx.TextCtrl(panel, size=(150, -1))
```

```
# Now configure the enter button
enter_button = wx.Button(panel, label='Enter')
enter_button.Bind(wx.EVT_BUTTON, self.set_name)

# Next set up the text label
self.label = wx.StaticText(panel,
                           label='Welcome',
                           style=wx.ALIGN_LEFT)

# Now configure the Show Message button
message_button = wx.Button(panel, label='Show Message')
message_button.Bind(wx.EVT_BUTTON, self.show_message)

# Add the widgets to the grid sizer to handle layout
grid.AddMany([self.text,
              enter_button,
              self.label,
              message_button])

# Set the sizer on the panel
panel.SetSizer(grid)

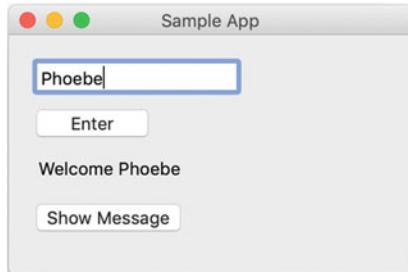
# Centre the Frame on the Computer Screen
self.Centre()

def show_message(self, event):
    """ Event Handler to display the Message Dialog
    using the current value of the name attribute. """
    dialog = wx.MessageDialog(None,
                             message='Welcome To Python ' + self.name,
                             caption='Hello',
                             style=wx.OK)
    dialog.ShowModal()

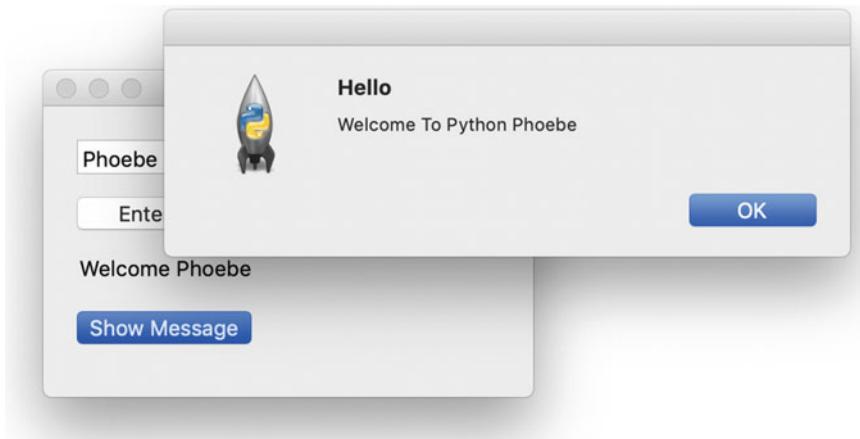
def set_name(self, event):
    """ Event Handler for the Enter button.
    Retrieves the text entered into the input field
    and sets the self.name attribute. This is then
    used to set the text label """
    self.name = self.text.GetLineText(0)
    self.label.SetLabelText('Welcome ' + self.name)
```

```
class MainApp(wx.App):  
  
    def OnInit(self):  
        """ Initialise the GUI display"""  
        frame = HelloFrame(title='Sample App')  
        frame.Show()  
        # Indicate whether processing should continue or not  
        return True  
  
    def OnExit(self):  
        """ Executes when the GUI application shuts down"""  
        print('Goodbye')  
        # Need to indicate success or failure  
        return True  
  
# Run the GUI application  
app = MainApp()  
app.MainLoop()
```

If the user enters their name in the top TextCtrl field, for example ‘Phoebe’, then when they click on the ‘Enter’ button the welcome label changes to ‘Welcome Phoebe’:



If they now click on the ‘Show Message’ button then the `wx.MessageDialog` (a specific type of `wx.Dialog`) will display a welcome message to Phoebe:



9.7 Online Resources

There are numerous online references that support the development of GUIs and of Python GUIs in particular, including:

- <https://docs.wxpython.org> for documentation on wxPython.
- <https://www.wxpython.org> wxPython home page.
- <https://www.wxwidgets.org> For information on the underlying wxWidgets Cross platform GUI library.

9.8 Exercises

9.8.1 Simple GUI Application

This exercise builds on the GUI you created in the last chapter.

The application should allow a user to enter their name and age. You will need to check that the value entered into the age field is a numeric value (for example using `isnumeric()`). If the value is not a number then an error message dialog should be displayed.

A button should be provided labelled ‘Birthday’; when clicked it should increment the age by one and display a Happy Birthday message. The age should be updated within the GUI.

An example of the user interface you created in the last chapter is given below:



As an example, the user might enter their name and age as shown below:



When the user clicks on the ‘birthday’ button then the Happy Birthday message dialog is displayed:



9.8.2 GUI Interface to a Tic Tac Toe Game

The aim of this exercise is to implement a simple Tic Tac Toe game. The game should allow two users to play interactive using the same mouse. The first user will have play as the ‘X’ player and the second user as the ‘O’ player.

When each user selects a button you can set the label for the button to their symbol.

You will need two check after each move to see if someone has won (or if the game is a draw).

You will still need an internal representation of the grid so that you can determine who, if anyone, has won.

An example of how the GUI for the TicTacToe game might look is given below:



You can also add dialogs to obtain the players names and to notify them who won or whether there was a draw.

Chapter 10

PyDraw wxPython Example Application

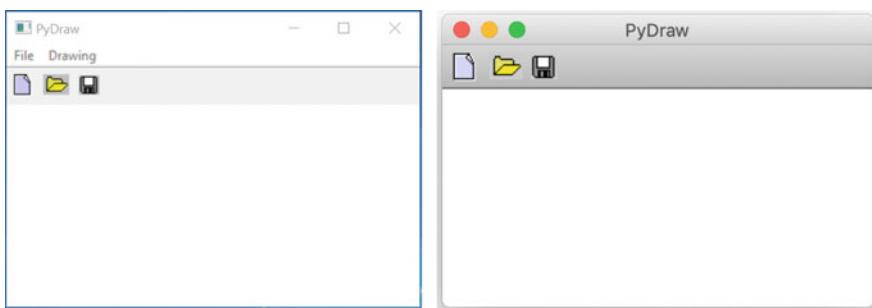


10.1 Introduction

This chapter builds on the GUI library presented in the last two chapters to illustrate how a larger application can be built. It presents a case study of a drawing tool akin to a tool such as Visio etc.

10.2 The PyDraw Application

The PyDraw application allows a user to draw diagrams using squares, circles, lines and text. At present there is no select, resize, reposition or delete option available (although these could be added if required). PyDraw is implemented using the wxPython set of components as defined in version 4.0.6.

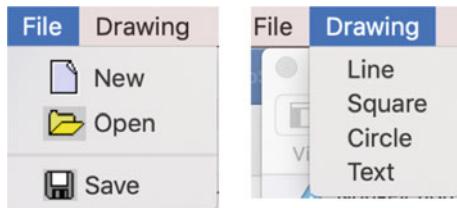


When a user starts the PyDraw application, they see the interface shown above (for both the Microsoft Windows and Apple Mac operating systems). Depending on

the operating system it has a menu bar across the top (on a Mac this menu bar is at the Top of the Mac display), a tool bar below the menu bar and a scrollable drawing area below that.

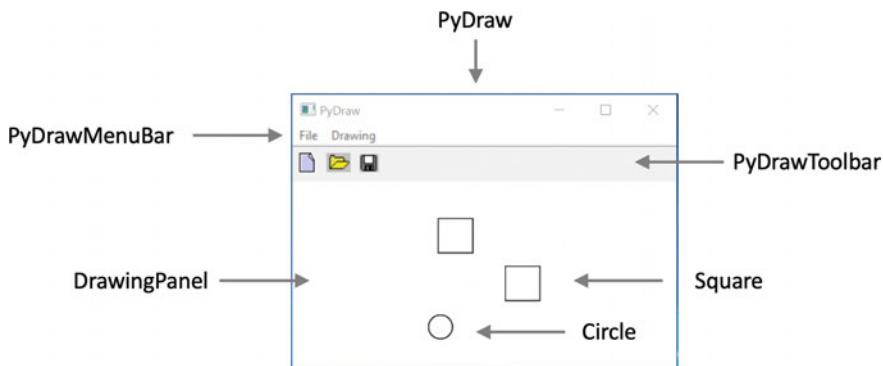
The first button on the tool bar clears the drawing area. The second and third buttons are only implemented so that they print out a message into the Python console, but are intended to allow a user to load and save drawings.

The tool bar buttons are duplicated on the menus defined for the application, along with a drawing tool selection menu, as shown below:

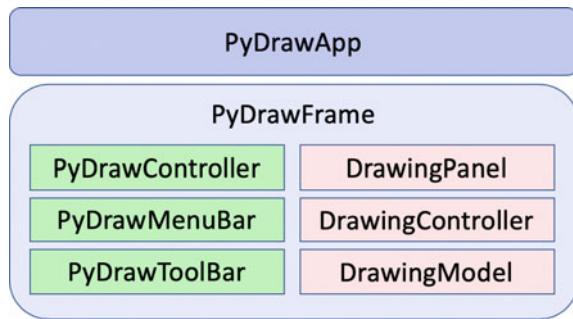


10.3 The Structure of the Application

The user interface created for the PyDraw application is made up of a number of elements (see below): the `PyDrawMenuBar`, the `PyDrawToolbar` containing a sequence of buttons across the top of the window, the drawing panel, and the window frame (implemented by the `PyDrawFrame` class).

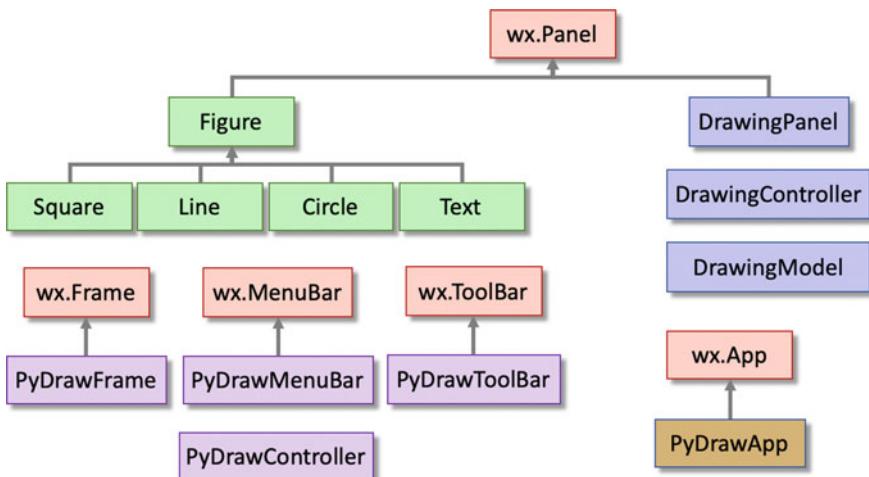


The following diagram shows the same information as that presented above, but as a containment hierarchy, this means that the diagram illustrates how one object is contained within another. The lower level objects are contained within the higher level objects.



It is important to visualize this as the majority of wxPython interfaces are built up in this way, using containers and sizers.

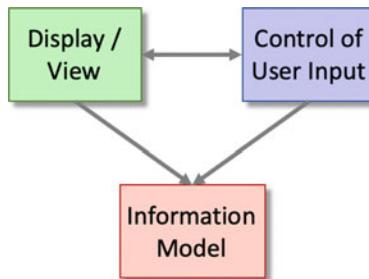
The inheritance structure between the classes used in the PyDraw application is illustrated below. This class hierarchy is typical of an application which incorporates user interface features with graphical elements.



10.3.1 Model, View and Controller Architecture

The application adopts the well established Model-View-Controller (or MVC) design pattern for separating out the responsibilities between the view element (e.g. the Frame or Panel), the control element (for handling user input) and the model element (which holds the data to be displayed).

This separation of concerns is not a new idea and allows the construction of GUI applications that mirror the Model-View-Controller architecture. The intention of the MVC architecture is the separation of the user display, from the control of user input, from the underlying information model as illustrated below.



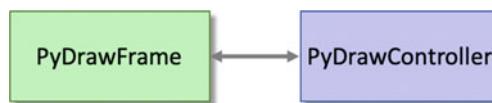
There are a number of reasons why this separation is useful:

- reusability of application and/or user interface components,
- ability to develop the application and user interface separately,
- ability to inherit from different parts of the class hierarchy.
- ability to define control style classes which provide common features separately from how these features may be displayed.

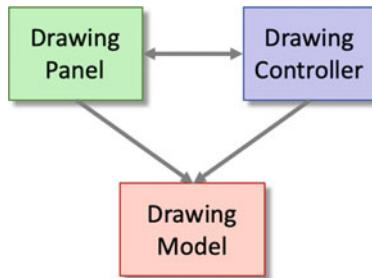
This means that different interfaces can be used with the same application, without the application knowing about it. It also means that any part of the system can be changed without affecting the operation of the other. For example, the way that the graphical interface (the look) displays the information could be changed without modifying the actual application or how input is handled (the feel). Indeed the application need not know what type of interface is currently connected to it at all.

10.3.2 PyDraw MVC Architecture

The MVC structure of the PyDraw application has a top level controller class `PyDrawController` and a top level view class the `PyDrawFrame` (there is no model as the top level MVC triad does not hold any explicit data itself). This is shown below:



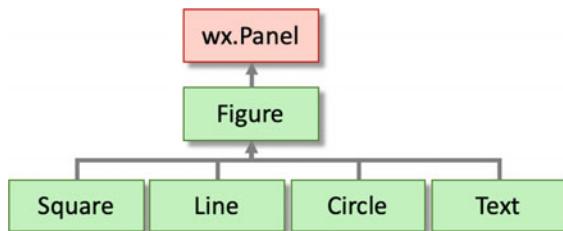
At the next level down there is another MVC structure; this time for the drawing element of the application. There is a `DrawingController`, with a `DrawingModel` and a `DrawingPanel` (the view) as illustrated below:



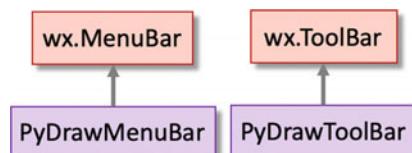
The `DrawingModel`, `DrawingPanel` and `DrawingController` classes exhibit the classic MVC structure. The view and the controller classes (`DrawingPanel` and `DrawingController`) know about each other and the drawing model, whereas the `DrawingModel` knows nothing about the view or the controller. The view is notified of changes in the drawing through the `paint` event.

10.3.3 Additional Classes

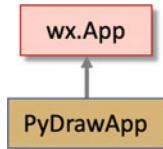
There are also four types of drawing object (of Figure): `Circle`, `Line`, `Square` and `Text` figures. The only difference between these classes is what is drawn on the graphic *device context* within the `on_paint()` method. The `Figure` class, from which they all inherit, defines the common attributes used by all objects within a Drawing (e.g. point representing an x and y location and size).



The `PyDrawFrame` class also uses a `PyDrawMenuBar` and a `PyDrawToolBar` class. The first of these extends the `wx.MenuBar` with menu items for use within the PyDraw application. In turn the `PyDrawToolBar` extends the `wx.ToolBar` and provides icons for use in PyDraw.

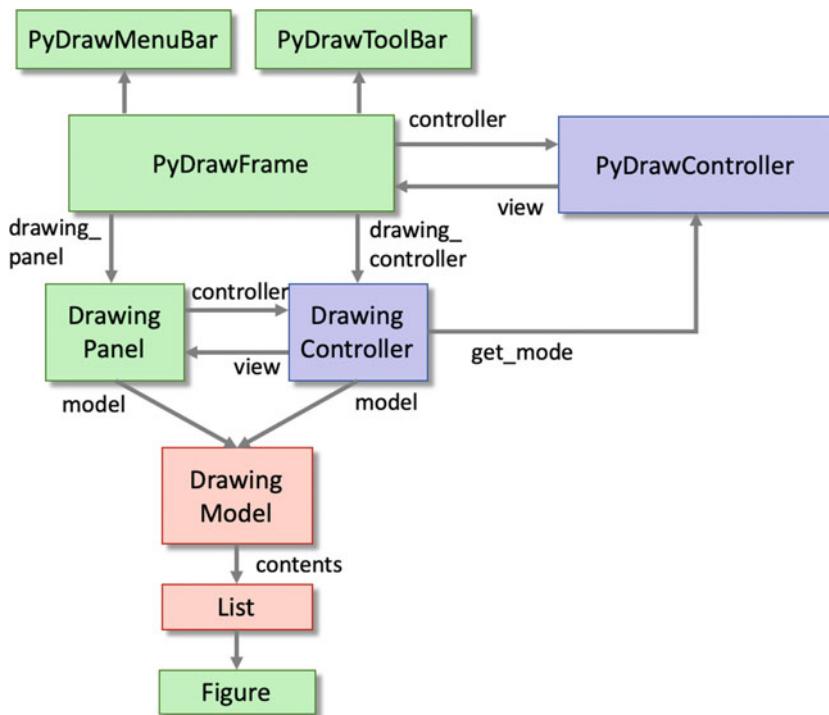


The final class is the `PyDrawApp` class that extends the `wx.App` class.



10.3.4 Object Relationships

However, the inheritance hierarchy is only part of the story for any object oriented application. The following figure illustrates how the objects relate to one another within the working application.



The `PyDrawFrame` is responsible for setting up the controller and the `DrawingPanel`.

The `PyDrawController` is responsible for handling menu and tool bar user interactions.

This separates graphical elements from the behaviour triggered by the user.

The DrawingPanel is responsible for displaying any figures held by the DrawingModel. The DrawingController manages all user interactions with the DrawingPanel including adding figures and clearing all figures from the model. The DrawingModel holds list of figures to be displayed.

10.4 The Interactions Between Objects

We have now examined the physical structure of the application but not how the objects within that application interact.

In many situations this can be extracted from the source code of the application (with varying degrees of difficulty). However, in the case of an application such as PyDraw, which is made up of a number of different interacting components, it is useful to describe the system interactions explicitly.

The diagrams illustrating the interactions between the objects use the following conventions:

- a solid arrow indicates a message send,
- a square box indicates a class,
- a name in brackets indicates the type of instance,
- numbers indicate the sequence of message sends.

These diagrams are based on the collaboration diagrams found in the UML (Unified Modelling Language) notation.

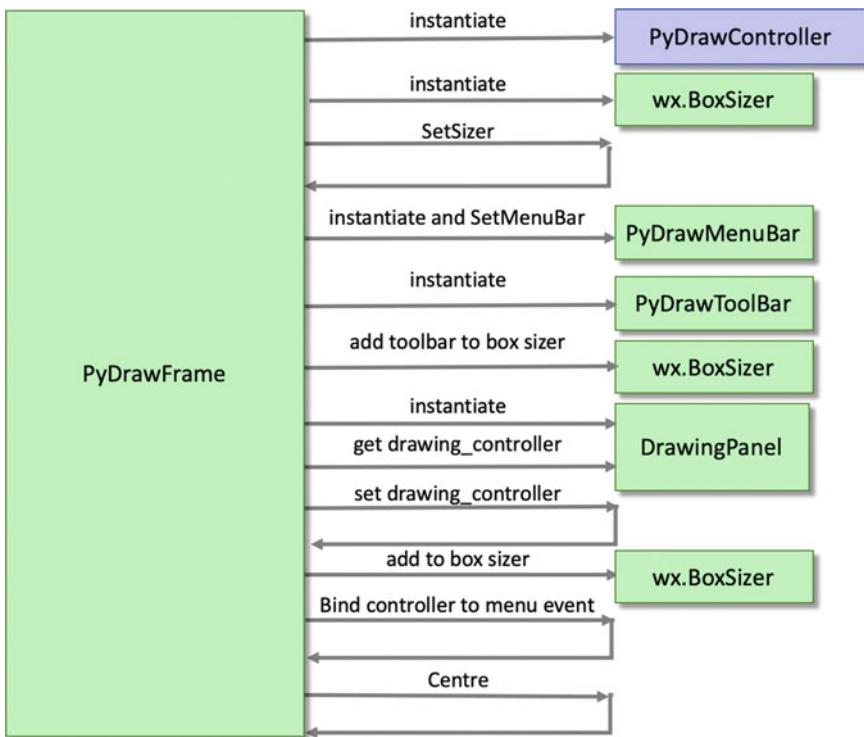
10.4.1 The PyDrawApp

When the PyDrawApp is instantiated the PyDrawFrame is created and displayed using the OnInit() method. The MainLoop() method is then invoked. This is shown below:

```
class PyDrawApp(wx.App):  
  
    def OnInit(self):  
        """ Initialise the GUI display """  
        frame = PyDrawFrame(title='PyDraw')  
        frame.Show()  
        return True  
  
    # Run the GUI application  
    app = PyDrawApp()  
    app.MainLoop()
```

10.4.2 The PyDrawFrame Constructor

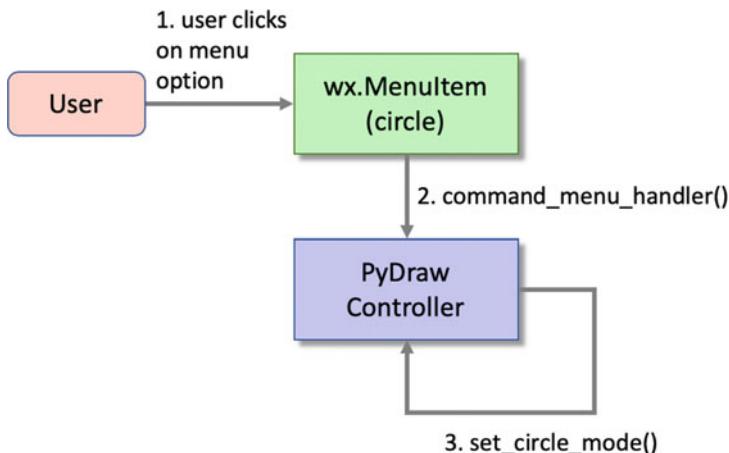
The PyDrawFrame constructor method sets up the main display of the UI application and also initialises the controllers and drawing elements. This is shown below using a collaboration diagram:



The PyDrawFrame constructor sets up the environment for the application. It creates the top level PyDrawController. It creates the DrawingPanel and initialises the display layout. It initialises the menu bar and tool bar. It binds the controllers menu handler to the menus and centers itself.

10.4.3 Changing the Application Mode

One interesting thing to note is what happens when the user selects an option from the Drawing menu. This allows the *mode* to be changed to a square, circle, line or text. The interactions involved are shown below for the situation where a user selects the ‘Circle’ menu item on the Drawing menu (using a collaboration diagram):

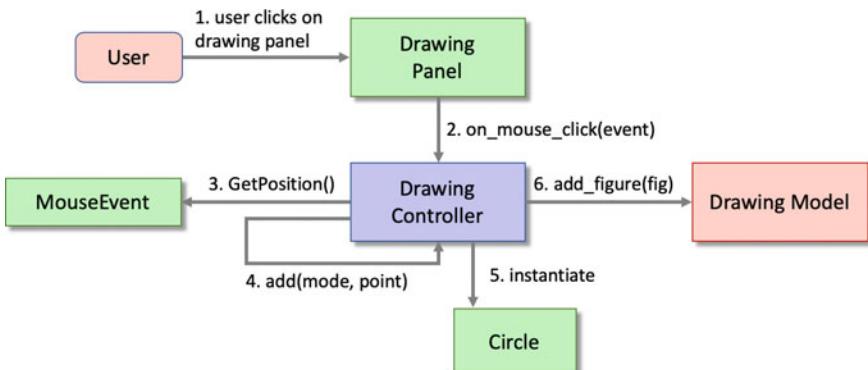


When the user selects one of the menu items the `command_menu_handler()` method of the `PyDrawController` is invoked. This method determines which menu item has been selected; it then calls an appropriate setter method (such as `set_circle_mode()` or `set_line_mode()` etc.). These methods set the mode attribute of the controller to an appropriate value.

10.4.4 Adding a Graphic Object

A user adds a graphic object to the drawing displayed by the `DrawingPanel` by pressing the mouse button.

When the user clicks on the drawing panel, the `DrawingController` responds as shown below:



The above illustrates what happens when the user presses and releases a mouse button over the drawing panel, to create a new figure.

When the user presses the mouse button, a mouse clicked message is sent to the `DrawingController`, which decides what action to perform in response (see above). In `PyDraw`, it obtains the cursor point at which the event was generated by calling the `GetPosition()` method on the `mouse_event`.

The controller then calls its own `add()` method passing in the current mode and the current mouse location. The controller obtains the current *mode* (from the `PyDrawController` using the method callback provided when the `DrawingController` is instantiated) and adds the appropriate type of figure to the `DrawingModel`.

The `add()` method then adds a new figure to the drawing model based on the specified mode.

10.5 The Classes

This section presents the classes in the `PyDraw` application. As these classes build on concepts already presented in the last few chapters, they shall be presented in their entirety with comments highlighting specific points of their implementations. Note that the code imports the `wx` module from the `wxPython` library, e.g.

```
import wx
```

10.5.1 The `PyDrawConstants` Class

The purpose of this class is to provide a set of constants that can be referenced in the remainder of the application. It is used to provide constants for the IDs used with menu items and toolbar tools. It also provides constants used to represent the current mode (to indicate whether a line, square, circle or text should be added to the display).

```
class PyDrawConstants:  
    LINE_ID = 100  
    SQUARE_ID = 102  
    CIRCLE_ID = 103  
    TEXT_ID = 104  
  
    SQUARE_MODE = 'square'  
    LINE_MODE = 'line'  
    CIRCLE_MODE = 'circle'  
    TEXT_MODE = 'Text'
```

10.5.2 The PyDrawFrame Class

The PyDrawFrame class provides the main window for the application. Note that due to the separation of concerns introduced via the MVC architecture, the *view* class is only concerned with the layout of the components:

```
class PyDrawFrame(wx.Frame):
    """ Main Frame responsible for the
    layout of the UI."""

    def __init__(self, title):
        super().__init__(None,
                         title=title,
                         size=(300, 200))

        # Set up the controller
        self.controller = PyDrawController(self)

        # Set up the layout fo the UI
        self.vertical_box_sizer = wx.BoxSizer(wx.VERTICAL)
        self.SetSizer(self.vertical_box_sizer)

        # Set up the menu bar
        self.SetMenuBar(PyDrawMenuBar())

        # Set up the toolbar
        self.vertical_box_sizer.Add(PyDrawToolBar(self),
                                   wx.ID_ANY,
                                   wx.EXPAND | wx.ALL, )

        # Setup drawing panel
        self.drawing_panel = DrawingPanel(self,
                                          self.controller.get_mode)
        self.drawing_controller = self.drawing_panel.controller

        # Add the Panel to the Frames Sizer
        self.vertical_box_sizer.Add(self.drawing_panel,
                                   wx.ID_ANY,
                                   wx.EXPAND | wx.ALL)

        # Set up the command event handling for the menu bar
        # and tool bar
        self.Bind(wx.EVT_MENU,
                  self.controller.command_menu_handler)

        self.Centre()
```

10.5.3 The PyDrawMenuBar Class

The PyDrawMenuBar class is a subclass of the `wx.MenuBar` class which defines the contents of the menu bar for the PyDraw application. It does this by creating two `wx.Menu` objects and adding them to the menu bar. Each `wx.Menu` implements a drop down menu from the menu bar. To add individual menu items the `wx.MenuItem` class is used. These menu items are appended to the menu. The menus are themselves appended to the menu bar. Note that each menu item has an id that can be used to identify the source of a command event in an event handler. This allows a single event handler to deal with events generated by multiple menu items.

```
class PyDrawMenuBar(wx.MenuBar):

    def __init__(self):
        super().__init__()
        fileMenu = wx.Menu()
        newItem = wx.MenuItem(fileMenu, wx.ID_NEW,
text="New", kind=wx.ITEM_NORMAL)
        newItem.SetBitmap(wx.Bitmap("new.gif"))
        fileMenu.Append(newItem)
        loadMenuItem = wx.MenuItem(fileMenu, wx.ID_OPEN,
text="Open", kind=wx.ITEM_NORMAL)
        loadMenuItem.SetBitmap(wx.Bitmap("load.gif"))
        fileMenu.Append(loadMenuItem)

        fileMenu.AppendSeparator()
        saveMenuItem = wx.MenuItem(fileMenu, wx.ID_SAVE,
text="Save", kind=wx.ITEM_NORMAL)
        saveMenuItem.SetBitmap(wx.Bitmap("save.gif"))
        fileMenu.Append(saveMenuItem)

        fileMenu.AppendSeparator()
        quit = wx.MenuItem(fileMenu, wx.ID_EXIT,
'&Quit\tCtrl+Q')

        fileMenu.Append(quit)
        self.Append(fileMenu, '&File')

        drawingMenu = wx.Menu()
        lineMenuItem = wx.MenuItem(drawingMenu,
PyDraw_Constants.LINE_ID, text="Line", kind=wx.ITEM_NORMAL)
        drawingMenu.Append(lineMenuItem)
        squareMenuItem = wx.MenuItem(drawingMenu,
PyDraw_Constants.SQUARE_ID, text="Square", kind=wx.ITEM_NORMAL)
        drawingMenu.Append(squareMenuItem)
        circleMenuItem = wx.MenuItem(drawingMenu,
```

```

PyDraw_Constants.CIRCLE_ID, text="Circle", kind=wx.ITEM_NORMAL)
    drawingMenu.Append(circleMenuItem)
    textMenuItem = wx.MenuItem(drawingMenu,
PyDraw_Constants.TEXT_ID, text="Text", kind=wx.ITEM_NORMAL)
    drawingMenu.Append(textMenuItem)

self.Append(drawingMenu, '&Drawing')

```

10.5.4 The PyDrawToolBar Class

The DrawToolBar class is a subclass of `wx.ToolBar`. The classes constructor initialises three tools that are displayed within the toolbar. The `Realize()` method is used to ensure that the tools are rendered appropriately. Note that appropriate ids have been used to allow an event handler to identify which tools generated a particular command event. By reusing the same ids for related menu items and command tools, a single handler can be used to manage events from both types of sources.

```

class PyDrawToolBar(wx.ToolBar):

    def __init__(self, parent):
        super().__init__(parent)
        self.AddTool(toolId=wx.ID_NEW, label="New",
bitmap=wx.Bitmap("new.gif"), shortHelp='Open drawing',
kind=wx.ITEM_NORMAL)
        self.AddTool(toolId=wx.ID_OPEN, label="Open",
bitmap=wx.Bitmap("load.gif"), shortHelp='Open drawing',
kind=wx.ITEM_NORMAL)
        self.AddTool(toolId=wx.ID_SAVE, label="Save",
bitmap=wx.Bitmap("save.gif"), shortHelp='Save drawing',
kind=wx.ITEM_NORMAL)
    self.Realize()

```

10.5.5 The PyDrawController Class

This class provides the control element of the top level view. It maintains the current mode and implements a handler that can handle events from menu items and from the tool bar tools. An `id` is used to identify each individual menu or tool which allows a single handler to be registered with the frame.

```
class PyDrawController:

    def __init__(self, view):
        self.view = view
        # Set the initial mode
        self.mode = PyDrawConstants.SQUARE_MODE

    def set_circle_mode(self):
        self.mode = PyDrawConstants.CIRCLE_MODE

    def set_line_mode(self):
        self.mode = PyDrawConstants.LINE_MODE

    def set_square_mode(self):
        self.mode = PyDrawConstants.SQUARE_MODE

    def set_text_mode(self):
        self.mode = PyDrawConstants.TEXT_MODE

    def clear_drawing(self):
        self.view.drawing_controller.clear()

    def get_mode(self):
        return self.mode

    def command_menu_handler(self, command_event):
        id = command_event.GetId()
        if id == wx.ID_NEW:
            print('Clear the drawing area')
            self.clear_drawing()
        elif id == wx.ID_OPEN:
            print('Open a drawing file')
        elif id == wx.ID_SAVE:
            print('Save a drawing file')
        elif id == wx.ID_EXIT:
            print('Quite the application')
            self.view.Close()
        elif id == PyDrawConstants.LINE_ID:
            print('set drawing mode to line')
            self.set_line_mode()
        elif id == PyDrawConstants.SQUARE_ID:
            print('set drawing mode to square')
            self.set_square_mode()
        elif id == PyDrawConstants.CIRCLE_ID:
            print('set drawing mode to circle')
            self.set_circle_mode()
        elif id == PyDrawConstants.TEXT_ID:
            print('set drawing mode to Text')
            self.set_text_mode()
        else:
            print('Unknown option', id)
```

10.5.6 The DrawingModel Class

The DrawingModel class has a contents attribute that is used to hold all the figures in the drawing. It also provides some convenience methods to reset the contents and to add a figure to the contents.

```
class DrawingModel:

    def __init__(self):
        self.contents = []

    def clear_figures(self):
        self.contents = []

    def add_figure(self, figure):
        self.contents.append(figure)
```

The DrawingModel is a relatively simple model which merely records a set of graphical figures in a List. These can be any type of object and can be displayed in any way as long as they implement the `on_paint()` method. It is the objects themselves which determine what they look like when drawn.

10.5.7 The DrawingPanel Class

The DrawingPanel class is a subclass of the `wx.Panel` class. It provides the view for the drawing data model. This uses the classical MVC architecture and has a model (DrawingModel), a view (the DrawingPanel) and a controller (the DrawingController).

The DrawingPanel instantiates its own DrawingController to handle mouse events.

It also registers for paint events so that it knows when to refresh the display.

```
class DrawingPanel(wx.Panel):

    def __init__(self, parent, get_mode):
        super().__init__(parent, -1)
        self.SetBackgroundColour(wx.Colour(255, 255, 255))
        self.model = DrawingModel()
        self.controller = DrawingController(self, self.model,
get_mode)
        self.Bind(wx.EVT_PAINT, self.on_paint)
        self.Bind(wx.EVT_LEFT_DOWN,
self.controller.on_mouse_click)
```

```
def on_paint(self, event):
    """set up the device context (DC) for painting"""
    dc = wx.PaintDC(self)
    for figure in self.model.contents:
        figure.on_paint(dc)
```

10.5.8 The DrawingController Class

The DrawingController class provides the control class for the top level MVC architecture used with the DrawingModel (model) and DrawingPanel (view) classes. In particular it handles the mouse events in the DrawingPanel via the `on_mouse_click()` method.

It also defines an add method that is used to add a figure to the DrawingModel (the actual figure depends on the current mode of the PyDrawController). A final method, the `clear()` method, removes all figures from the drawing model and refreshes the display.

```
class DrawingController:

    def __init__(self, view, model, get_mode):
        self.view = view
        self.model = model
        self.get_mode = get_mode

    def on_mouse_click(self, mouse_event):
        point = mouse_event.GetPosition()
        self.add(self.get_mode(), point)

    def add(self, mode, point, size=30):
        if mode == PyDrawConstants.SQUARE_MODE:
            fig = Square(self.view, point, wx.Size(size, size))
        elif mode == PyDrawConstants.CIRCLE_MODE:
            fig = Circle(self.view, point, size)
        elif mode == PyDrawConstants.TEXT_MODE:
            fig = Text(self.view, point, size)
        elif mode == PyDrawConstants.LINE_MODE:
            fig = Line(self.view, point, size)
        self.model.add_figure(fig)

    def clear(self):
        self.model.clear_figures()
        self.view.Refresh()
```

10.5.9 The Figure Class

The Figure class (an abstract superclass of the *Figure* class hierarchy) captures the elements which are common to graphic objects displayed within a drawing. The point defines the position of the figure, while the size attribute defines the size of the figure. Note that the Figure is a subclass of a wx.Panel and thus the display is constructed from inner panels onto which the various figure shapes are drawn.

The Figure class defines a single abstract method `on_paint(dc)` that must be implemented by all concrete subclasses. This method should define how the shape is drawn on the drawing panel.

```
class Figure(wx.Panel):

    def __init__(self, parent, id=wx.ID_ANY, pos=None,
                 size=None, style=wx.TAB_TRAVERSAL):
        wx.Panel.__init__(self, parent, id=id, pos=pos,
                          size=size, style=style)
        self.point = pos
        self.size = size

    @abstractmethod
    def on_paint(self, dc):
        Pass
```

10.5.10 The Square Class

This is a subclass of Figure that specifies how to draw a square shape in a drawing. It implements the `on_paint()` method inherited from Figure.

```
class Square(Figure):
    def __init__(self, parent, pos, size):
        super().__init__(parent=parent, pos=pos, size=size)

    def on_paint(self, dc):
        dc.DrawRectangle(self.point, self.size)
```

10.5.11 The Circle Class

This is another subclass of `Figure`. It implements the `on_paint()` method by drawing a circle. Note that the shape will be drawn within the panel size defined via the `Figure` class (using the call to super). It is therefore necessary to see the circle to fit within these bounds. This means that the `size` attribute must be used to generate an appropriate radius. Also note that the `DrawCircle()` method of the device context takes a point that is the centre of the circle so this must also be calculated.

```
class Circle(Figure):
    def __init__(self, parent, pos, size):
        super().__init__(parent=parent, pos=pos,
                        size=wx.Size(size, size))
        self.radius = (size - 10) / 2
        self.circle_center = wx.Point(self.point.x +
                                       self.radius, self.point.y + self.radius)

    def on_paint(self, dc):
        dc.DrawCircle(pt=self.circle_center,
                      radius=self.radius)
```

10.5.12 The Line Class

This is another subclass of `Figure`. In this very simple example, a default end point for the line is generated. Alternatively the program could look for a mouse released event and pick up the mouse at this location and use this as the end point of the line.

```
class Line(Figure):
    def __init__(self, parent, pos, size):
        super().__init__(parent=parent, pos=pos,
                        size=wx.Size(size, size))
        self.end_point = wx.Point(self.point.x + size,
                                  self.point.y + size)

    def on_paint(self, dc):
        dc.DrawLine(pt1=self.point, pt2=self.end_point)25.1.4
```

10.5.13 The Text Class

This is also a subclass of `Figure`. A default value is used for the text to display; however a dialog could be presented to the user allowing them to input the text they wish to display:

```
class Text(Figure):
    def __init__(self, parent, pos, size):
        super().__init__(parent=parent, pos=pos,
                         size=wx.Size(size, size))

    def on_paint(self, dc):
        dc.DrawText(text='Text', pt=self.point)
```

10.6 References

The following provides some background on the Model-View-Controller architecture in user interfaces.

- G.E. Krasner, S.T. Pope, A cookbook for using the model-view controller user interface paradigm in smalltalk-80. *JOOP* 1(3), 26–49 (1988).

10.7 Exercises

You could develop the `PyDraw` application further by adding the following features:

- A delete option You can add a button labelled Delete to the window. It should set the mode to “delete”. The `drawingPanel` must be altered so that the `mouseReleased` method sends a delete message to the drawing. The drawing must find and remove the appropriate graphic object and send the changed message to itself.
- A resize option This involves identifying which of the shapes has been selected and then either using a dialog to enter the new size or providing some option that allows the size fo the shape to be indicated using the mouse.

Part II

Computer Games

Chapter 11

Introduction to Games Programming



11.1 Introduction

Games programming is performed by developers/coders who implement the logic that drives a game.

Historically games developers did everything; they wrote the code, designed the sprites and icons, handled the game play, dealt with sounds and music, generated any animations required etc. However, as the game industry has matured games companies have developed specific roles including Computer Graphics (CG) animators, artists, games developers and games engine and physics engine developers etc.

Those involved with code development may develop a physics engine, a games engine, the games themselves, etc. Such developers focus on different aspects of a game. For examples a game engine developer focusses on creating the framework within which the game will run. In turn a physics engine developer will focus on implementing the mathematics behind the physics of the simulated games world (such as the effect of gravity on characters and components within that world). In many cases there will also be developers working on the AI engine for a game. These developers will focus on providing facilities that allow the game or characters in the game to operate intelligently.

Those developing the actual game play will use these engines and frameworks to create the overall end result. It is they who give life to the game and make it an enjoyable (and playable) experience.

11.2 Games Frameworks and Libraries

There are many frameworks and libraries available that allow you to create anything from simple games to large complex role playing games with infinite worlds.

One example is the Unity framework that can be used with the C# programming language. Another such framework is the Unreal engine used with the C++ programming language.

Python has also been used for games development with several well known games titles depending on it in one way or another. For example, Battlefield 2 by Digital Illusions CE is a military simulator first-person shooter game. Battlefield Heroes handles portions of the game logic involving game modes and scoring using Python.

Other games that use Python include Civilisation IV (for many of the tasks), Pirates of the Caribbean Online and Overwatch (which makes its choices with Python).

Python is also embedded as a scripting engine within tools such as Autodesk's Maya which is a computer animation toolkit that is often used with games.

11.3 Python Games Development

For those wanting to learn more about game development; Python has much to offer. There are many examples available online as well as several game oriented frameworks.

The frameworks/libraries available for games development in Python including:

- **Arcade**. This is a Python library for creating 2D style video games.
- **pyglet** is a windowing and multimedia library for Python that can also be used for games development.
- **Cocos2d** is a framework for building 2D games that is built on top of pyglet.
- **pygame** is probably the most widely used library for creating games within the Python world. There are also many extensions available for pygame that help to create a wide range of different types of games.

We will focus on pygame in the next two chapters in this book.

Other libraries of interest to Python games developers include:

- **PyODE**. This is an open-source Python binding for the Open Dynamics Engine which is an open-source physics engine.
- **pymunk** Pymunk is a easy-to-use 2D physics library that can be used whenever you need 2d rigid body physics with Python. It is very good when you need 2D physics in your game, demo or other application. It is built on top of the 2D physics library Chipmunk.
- **pyBox2D** pybox2d is a 2D physics library for your games and simple simulations. It's based on the Box2D library written in C++. It supports several shape

types (circle, polygon, thin line segments) as well as a number of joint types (revolute, prismatic, wheel, etc.).

- **Blender.** This is a open-source 3D computer graphics software toolset used for creating animated films, visual effects, art, 3D printed models, interactive 3D applications and video games. Blender's features include 3D modeling, texturing, raster graphics editing, rigging and skinning, etc. Python can be used as a scripting tool for creation, prototyping, game logic and more.
- **Quake Army Knife** which is an environment for developing 3D maps for games based on the Quake engine. It is written in Delphi and Python.

11.4 Using Pygame

In the next two chapters we will explore the core *pygame* library and how it can be used to develop interactive computer games. The next chapter explores pygame itself and the facilities it provides. The following chapter develops a simple interactive game in which the user moves a starship around avoiding meteors which scroll vertically down the screen.

11.5 Online Resources

For further information games programming and the libraries mentioned in this chapter see:

- <https://unity.com/> the C# framework for games development.
- <https://www.unrealengine.com> for C++ games development.
- <http://arcade.academy/> provides details on the Arcade games framework.
- <http://www.pyglet.org/> for information on the pyglet library.
- <http://cocos2d.org/> is the home page for the Cocos2d framework.
- <https://www.pygame.org> for information on pygame.
- <http://pyode.sourceforge.net/> for details of the PyODE bindings to the Open Dynamics Engine.
- <http://www.pymunk.org/> provides information on pymunk.
- <https://github.com/pybox2d/pybox2d> which is a Git hub repository for pyBox2d.
- <https://git.blender.org/gitweb/gitweb.cgi/blender.git> Git Hub repository for Blender.
- <https://sourceforge.net/p/quark/code> SourceForge repository for Quake Army Knife.
- <https://www.autodesk.co.uk/products/maya/overview> for information on Autodesk Maya computer animation software.

Chapter 12

Building Games with pygame



12.1 Introduction

pygame is a cross-platform, free and Open Source Python library designed to make building multimedia applications such as games easy. Development of pygame started back in October 2000 with pygame version 1.0 being released six months later. The version of pygame discussed in this chapter is version 1.9.6. If you have a later version check to see what changes have been made to see if they have any impact on the examples presented here.

pygame is built on top of the SDL library. SDL (or Simple Directmedia Layer) is a cross platform development library designed to provide access to audio, keyboards, mouse, joystick and graphics hardware via OpenGL and Direct3D. To promote portability, pygame also supports a variety of additional backends including WinDIB, X11, Linux Frame Buffer etc.

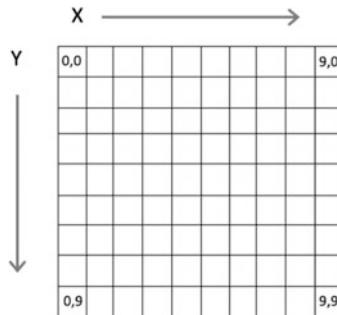
SDL officially supports Windows, Mac OS X, Linux, iOS and Android (although other platforms are unofficially supported). SDL itself is written in C and pygame provides a wrapper around SDL. However, pygame adds functionality not found in SDL to make the creation of graphical or video games easier. These functions include vector maths, collision detection, 2D sprite scene graph management, MIDI support, camera, pixel array manipulation, transformations, filtering, advanced freetype font support and drawing.

The remainder of this chapter introduces pygame, the key concepts; the key modules, classes and functions and a very simple first pygame application. The next chapter steps through the development of a simple arcade style video game which illustrates how a game can be created using pygame.

12.2 The Display Surface

The Display Surface (aka the display) is the most important part of a pygame game. It is the main window display of your game and can be of any size, however you can only have one Display Surface.

In many ways the Display Surface is like a blank piece of paper on which you can draw. The surface itself is made up of pixels which are numbered from 0,0 in the top left hand corner with the pixel locations being indexed in the x axis and the y axis. This is shown below:



The above diagram illustrates how pixels within a Surface are indexed. Indeed a Surface can be used to draw lines, shapes (such as rectangles, squares, circles and ellipses), display images, manipulate individual pixels etc. Lines are drawn from one pixel location to another (for example from location 0,0 to location 9,0 which would draw a line across the top of the above display surface). Images can be displayed within the display surface given a starting point such as 1, 1.

The Display Surface is created by the `pygame.display.set_mode()` function. This function takes a tuple that can be used to specify the size of the Display Surface to be returned. For example:

```
display_surface = pygame.display.set_mode((400, 300))
```

This will create a Display Surface (window) of 400 by 300 pixels.

Once you have the Display Surface you can fill it with an appropriate background colour (the default is black) however if you want a different background colour or want to clear everything that has previously been drawn on the surface, then you can use the surface's `fill()` method:

```
WHITE = (255, 255, 255)
display_surface.fill(WHITE)
```

The fill method takes a tuple that is used to define a colour in terms of Red, Green and Blue (or RGB) colours. Although the above examples uses a meaningful name for the tuple representing the RGB values used for white; there is of course no requirement to do this (although it is considered good practice).

To aid in performance any changes you make to the Display Surface actually happen in the background and will not be rendered onto the actual display that the user sees until you call the `update()` or `flip()` methods on the surface. For example:

- `pygame.display.update()`
- `pygame.display.flip()`

The `update()` method will redraw the display with all changes made to the display in the background. It has an optional parameter that allows you to specify just a region of the display to update (this is defined using a `Rect` which represents a rectangular area on the screen). The `flip()` method always refreshes the whole of the display (and as such does exactly the same as the `update()` method with no parameters).

Another method, which is not specifically a Display Surface method, but which is often used when the display surface is created, provides a caption or title for the top level window. This is the `pygame.display.set_caption()` function. For example:

```
pygame.display.set_caption('Hello World')
```

This will give the top level window the caption (or title) ‘Hello World’.

12.3 Events

Just as the Graphical User Interface systems described in earlier chapters have an event loop that allows the programmer to work out what the user is doing (in those cases this is typically selecting a menu item, clicking a button or entering data etc.); pygame has an event loop that allows the game to work out what the player is doing. For example, the user may press the left or right arrow key. This is represented by an event.

12.3.1 Event Types

Each event that occurs has associated information such as the type of that event. For example:

- Pressing a key will result in a `KEYDOWN` type of event, while releasing a key will result in a `KEYUP` event type.
- Selecting the window close button will generate a `QUIT` event type etc.
- Using the mouse can generate `MOUSEMOTION` events as well as `MOUSEBUTTONDOWN` and `MOUSEBUTTONUP` event types.

- Using a Joystick can generate several different types of event including JOYAXISMOTION, JOYBALLMOTION, JOYBUTTONDOWN and JOYBUTTONUP.

These event types tell you what occurred to generate the event. This means that you can choose which types of events you want to deal with and ignore other events.

12.3.2 Event Information

Each type of event object provides information associated with that event. For example a Key oriented event object will provide the actual key pressed while a mouse oriented event object will provide information on the position of the mouse, which button was pressed etc. If you try an access an attribute on an event that does not support that attribute, then an error will be generated.

The following lists some of the attributes available for different event types:

- KEYDOWN and KEYUP, the event has a key attribute and a mod attribute (indicating if any other modifying keys such as Shift are also being pressed).
- MOUSEBUTTONUP and MOUSEBUTTONDOWN has an attribute pos that holds a tuple indicating the mouse location in terms of x and y coordinates on the underlying surface. It also has a button attribute indicating which mouse was pressed.
- MOUSEMOTION has pos, rel and buttons attributes. The pos is a tuple indicating the x and y location of mouse cursor. The real attribute indicates the amount of mouse movement and buttons indicates the state of the mouse buttons.

As an example if we want to check for a keyboard event type and then check that the key pressed was the space bar, then we can write:

```
if event.type == pygame.KEYDOWN:
    # Check to see which key is pressed
    if event.key == pygame.K_SPACE:
        print('space')
```

This indicates that if it is a key pressed event and that the actual key was the space bar; then print the string ‘space’.

There are many keyboard constants that are used to represent the keys on the keyboard and pygame.K_SPACE constant used above is just one of them.

All the keyboard constants are prefixed with ‘K_’ followed by the key or the name of the key, for example:

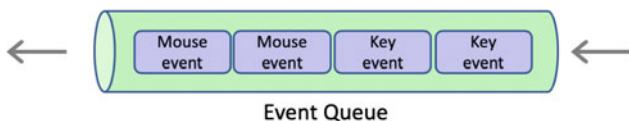
- K_TAB, K_SPACE, K_PLUS, K_0, K_1, K_AT, K_a, K_b, K_z, K_DELTE, K_DOWN, K_LEFT, K_RIGHT, K_LEFT etc.

Further keyboard constants are provided for modifier states that can be combined with the above such as KMOD_SHIFT, KMOD_CAPS, KMOD_CTRL and KMOD_ALT.

12.3.3 The Event Queue

Events are supplied to a pygame application via the Event Queue.

The Event Queue is used to collect together events as they happen. For example, let us assume that a user clicks on the mouse twice and a key twice before a program has a chance to process them; then there will be four events in the Event Queue as shown below:



The application can then obtain an iterable from the event queue and process through the events in turn. While the program is processing these events further events may occur and will be added to the Event Queue. When the program has finished processing the initial collection of events it can obtain the next set of events to process.

One significant advantage of this approach is that no events are ever lost; that is if the user clicks the mouse twice while the program is processing a previous set of events; they will be recorded and added to the event queue. Another advantage is that the events will be presented to the program in the order that they occurred.

The `pygame.event.get()` function will read all the events currently on the Event Queue (removing them from the event queue). The method returns an `EventList` which is an iterable list of the events read. Each event can then be processed in turn. For example:

```
for event in pygame.event.get():
    if event.type == pygame.QUIT:
        print('Received Quit Event:')
    elif event.type == pygame.MOUSEBUTTONDOWN:
        print('Received Mouse Event')
    elif event.type == pygame.KEYDOWN:
        print('Received KeyDown Event')
```

In the above code snippet an `EventList` is obtained from the Event Queue containing the current set of events. The for loop then processes each event in turn checking the type and printing an appropriate message.

You can use this approach to trigger appropriate behaviour such as moving an image around the screen or calculating the players score etc. However, be aware that if this behaviour takes too long it can make the game difficult to play (although the examples in this chapter and the next are simple enough that this is not a problem).

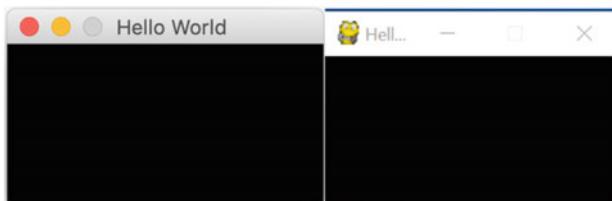
12.4 A First pygame Application

We are now at the point where we can put together what we have looked at so far and create a simple pygame application.

It is common to create a hello world style program when using a new programming language or using a new application framework etc. The intention is that the core elements of the language or framework are explored in order to generate the most basic form of an application using the language or framework. We will therefore implement the most basic application possible using pygame.

The application we will create will display a pygame window, with a ‘Hello World’ title. We will then be able to quit the game. Although technically speaking this isn’t a game, it does possess the basic architecture of a pygame application.

The simple `HelloWorld` game will initialise pygame and the graphical display. It will then have a main game playing loop that will continue until the user selects to quit the application. It will then shut down pygame. The display created by the program is shown below for both Mac and Windows operating systems:



To quit the program click on the exit button for the windowing system you are using.

The simple HelloWorld *game* is given below:

```
import pygame

def main():
    print('Starting Game')

    print('Initialising pygame')
    pygame.init()  # Required by every pygame application

    print('Initialising HelloWorldGame')
    pygame.display.set_mode((200, 100))
    pygame.display.set_caption('Hello World')

    print('Update display')
    pygame.display.update()

    print('Starting main Game Playing Loop')
    running = True
    while running:
        for event in pygame.event.get():
            if event.type == pygame.QUIT:
                print('Received Quit Event:', event)
                running = False

    print('Game Over')
    pygame.quit()

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

There are several key steps highlighted by this example, these steps are:

1. **Import pygame.** pygame is of course not one of the default modules available within Python. You must first import pygame into your code. The `import pygame` statement imports the pygame module into your code and makes the functions and classes in pygame available to you (note the capitalisation - pygame is not the same module name as PyGame). It is also common to find that programs import
 - `from pygame.locals import *`
 - This adds several constants and functions into the namespace of your program. In this very simple example we have not needed to do this.
2. **Initialise pygame.** Almost every pygame module needs to be initialised in some way and the simplest way to do this is to call `pygame.init()`. This will do what is required to set the pygame environment up for use. If you forget to call this function you will typically get an error message such as `pygame.error: video system not initialised` (or something similar). If you get such a

method check to see that you have called `pygame.init()`. Note that you can initialise individual pygame modules (for example the `pygame.font` module can be initialised using `pygame.font.init()`) if required. However `pygame.init()` is the most commonly used approach to setting up pygame.

3. **Set up the display.** Once you have initialised the pygame framework you can setup the display. In the above code example, the display is set up using the `pygame.display.set_mode()` function. This function takes a tuple specifying the size of the window to be created (in this case 200 pixels wide by 100 pixels high). Note that if you try and invoke this function by passing in two parameters instead of a tuple, then you will get an error. This function returns the drawing surface or screen/window that can be used to display items within the game such as icons, messages, shapes etc. As our example is so simple we do not bother saving it into a variable. However, anything more complex than this will need to do so. We also set the window/frame's caption (or title). This is displayed in the title bar of the window.
4. **Render the display.** We now call the `pygame.display.update()` function. This function causes the current details of the display to be drawn. At the moment this is a blank window. However, it is common in games to perform a series of updates to the display in the background and then when the program is ready to update the display to call this function. This batches a series of updates and causes the display to be refreshed. In a complex display it is possible to indicate which parts of the display need to be redrawn rather than redrawing the whole window. This is done by passing a parameter into the `update()` function to indicate the rectangle to be redrawn. However, our example is so simple we are ok with redrawing the whole window and therefore we do not need to pass any parameters to the function.
5. **Main game playing loop.** It is common to have a main game playing loop that drives the processing of user inputs, modifies the state of the game and updates the display. This is represented above by the `while running:` loop. The local variable `running` is initialised to `True`. This means that the `while` loop ensures that the game continues until the user selects to quit the game at which point the `running` variable is set to `False` which causes the loop to exit. In many cases this loop will call `update()` to refresh the display. The above example does not do this as nothing is changed in the display. However the example developed later in this chapter will illustrate this idea.
6. **Monitor for events that drive the game.** As mentioned earlier the event queue is used to allow user inputs to be queued and then processed by the game. In the simple example shown above this is represented by a `for` loop that receives events using `pygame.event.get()` and then checking to see if the event is a `pygame.QUIT` event. If it is, then it sets the `running` flag to `False`. Which will cause the main `while` loop of the game to terminate.
7. **Quit pygame once finished.** In pygame any module that has an `init()` function also has an equivalent `quit()` function that can be used to perform any cleanup operations. As we called `init()` on the `pygame` module at the

start of our program we will therefore need to call `pygame.quit()` at the end of the program to ensure everything is tidied up appropriately.

The output generated from a sample run of this program is given below:

```
pygame 1.9.6
Hello from the pygame community.
https://www.pygame.org/contribute.html
Starting Game
Initialising pygame
Initialising HelloWorldGame
Update display
Starting main Game Playing Loop
Received Quit Event: <Event(12-Quit {})>
Game Over
```

12.5 Further Concepts

There are very many facilities in pygame that go beyond what we can cover in this book, however a few of the more common are discussed below.

Surfaces are a hierarchy. The top level Display Surface may contain other surfaces that may be used to draw images or text. In turn containers such as Panels may render surfaces to display images or text etc.

Other types of surface. The primary Display Surface is not the only surface in pygame. For example, when an image, such as a PNG or JPEG image is loaded into a game then it is rendered onto a surface. This surface can then be displayed within another surface such as the Display Surface. This means that anything you can do to the Display Surface you can do with any other surface such as draw on it, put text on it, colour it, add another icon onto the surface etc.

Fonts. The `pygame.font.Font` object is used to create a `Font` that can be used to render text onto a surface. The `render` method returns a surface with the text rendered on it that can be displayed within another surface such as the Display Surface. Note that you cannot write text onto an existing surface you must always obtain a new surface (using `render`) and then add that to an existing surface. The text can only be displayed in a single line and the surface holding the text will be of the dimensions required to render the text. For example:

```
text_font = pygame.font.Font('freesansbold.ttf', 18)
text_surface = text_font.render('Hello World', antialias=True,
color=BLUE)
```

This creates a new `Font` object using the specified font with the specified font size (in this case 18). It will then render the string ‘Hello World’ on to a new surface using the specified font and font size in Blue. Specifying that `antialias` is True indicates that we would like to smooth the edges of the text on the screen.

Rectangles (or Rects). The `pygame.Rect` class is an object used to represent rectangular coordinates. A `Rect` can be created from a combination of the top left corner coordinates plus a width and height. For flexibility many functions that expect a `Rect` object can also be given a *Rectlike* list; this is a list that contains the data necessary to create a `Rect` object. Rects are very useful in a pygame Game as they can be used to define the borders of a game object. This means that they can be used within games to detect if two objects have collided. This is made particularly easy because the `Rect` class provides several collision detection methods:

- `pygame.Rect.contains()` test if one rectangle is inside another
- `pygame.Rect.collidepoint()` test if a point is inside a rectangle
- `pygame.Rect.colliderect()` test if two rectangles overlap
- `pygame.Rect.collidelist()` test if one rectangle in a list intersects
- `pygame.Rect.collidelistall()` test if all rectangles in a list intersect
- `pygame.Rect.collidedict()` test if one rectangle in a dictionary intersects
- `pygame.Rect.collidedictall()` test if all rectangles in a dictionary intersect

The class also provides several other utility methods such as `move()` which moves the rectangle and `inflate()` which can grow or shrink the rectangles size.

Drawing shapes. The `pygame.draw` module has numerous functions that can be used to draw lines and shapes onto a surface, for example:

```
pygame.draw.rect(display_surface, BLUE, [x, y, WIDTH, HEIGHT])
```

This will draw a filled blue rectangle (the default) onto the display surface. The rectangle will be located at the location indicated by `x` and `y` (on the surface). This indicates the top left hand corner of the rectangle. The width and height of the rectangle indicate its size. Note that these dimensions are defined within a list which is a structure referred to as being rect like (see below). If you do not want a filled rectangle (i.e. You just want the outline) then you can use the optional `width` parameter to indicate the thickness of the outer edge. Other methods available include:

- `pygame.draw.polygon()` draw a shape with any number of sides
- `pygame.draw.circle()` draw a circle around a point
- `pygame.draw.ellipse()` draw a round shape inside a rectangle
- `pygame.draw.arc()` draw a partial section of an ellipse
- `pygame.draw.line()` draw a straight line segment
- `pygame.draw.lines()` draw multiple contiguous line segments
- `pygame.draw.aaline()` draw fine antialiased lines
- `pygame.draw.aalines()` draw a connected sequence of antialiased lines

Images. The `pygame.image` module contains functions for loading, saving and transforming images. When an image is loaded into pygame, it is represented by a Surface object. This means that it is possible to draw, manipulate and process an image in exactly the same way as any other surface which provides a great deal of flexibility.

At a minimum the module only supports loading uncompressed BMP images but usually also supports JPEG, PNG, GIF (non-animated), BMP, TIFF as well as other formats. However, it only supports a limited set of formats when saving images; these are BMP, TGA, PNG and JPEG.

An image can be loaded from a file using:

```
image_surface = pygame.image.load(filename).convert()
```

This will load the image from the specified file onto a surface.

One thing you might wonder at is the use of the `convert()` method on the object returned from the `pygame.image.load()` function. This function returns a Surface that is used to display the image contained in the file. We call the method `convert()` on this Surface, not to convert the image from a particular file format (such as PNG, or JPEG) instead this method is used to convert the pixel format used by the Surface. If the pixel format used by the Surface is not the same as the display format, then it will need to be converted on the fly each time the image is displayed on the screen; this can be a fairly time consuming (and unnecessary) process. We therefore do this once when the image is loaded which means that it should not hinder runtime performance and may improve performance significantly on some systems.

Once you have a surface containing an image it can be rendered onto another surface, such as the display surface using the `Surface.blit()` method. For example:

```
display_surface.blit(image_surface, (x, y))
```

Note that the position argument is a tuple specifying the x and y coordinates to the image on the display surface.

Strictly speaking the `blit()` method draws one surface (the source surface) onto another surface at the destination coordinates. Thus the target surface does not need to be the top level display surface.

Clock. A `Clock` object is an object that can be used to track time. In particular it can be used to define the frame rate for the game. That is the number of frames rendered per second. This is done using the `Clock.tick()` method. This method should be called once (and only once) per frame. If you pass the optional `framerate` argument to the `tick()` the function, then pygame will ensure that

the games refresh rate is slower then the the given ticks per second. This can be used to help limit the runtime speed of a game. By calling `clock.tick(30)` once per frame, the program will never run at more than 30 frames per second.

12.6 A More Interactive pygame Application

The first pygame application we looked at earlier just displayed a window with the caption ‘Hello World’. We can now extend this a little by playing with some of the features we have looked at above.

The new application will add some mouse event handling. This will allow us to pick up the location of the mouse when the user clicked on the window and draw a small blue box at that point.

If the user clicks the mouse multiple times we will get multiple blue boxes being drawn. This is shown below.



This is still not much of a game but does make the pygame application more interactive.

The program used to generate this application is presented below:

```
import pygame

FRAME_REFRESH_RATE = 30
BLUE = (0, 0, 255)
BACKGROUND = (255, 255, 255) # White
WIDTH = 10
HEIGHT = 10

def main():
    print('Initialising PyGame')
    pygame.init() # Required by every PyGame application
```

```
print('Initialising Box Game')
display_surface = pygame.display.set_mode((400, 300))
pygame.display.set_caption('Box Game')
print('Update display')
pygame.display.update()
print('Setup the Clock')
clock = pygame.time.Clock()
# Clear the screen of current contents
display_surface.fill(BACKGROUND)

print('Starting main Game Playing Loop')
running = True
while running:
    for event in pygame.event.get():
        if event.type == pygame.QUIT:
            print('Received Quit Event:', event)
            running = False
        elif event.type == pygame.MOUSEBUTTONDOWN:
            print('Received Mouse Event', event)
            x, y = event.pos
            pygame.draw.rect(display_surface, BLUE, [x, y,
WIDTH, HEIGHT])

            # Update the display
            pygame.display.update()
    # Defines the frame rate - the number of frames per
second
    # Should be called once per frame (but only once)
    clock.tick(FRAME_REFRESH_RATE)

print('Game Over')
# Now tidy up and quit Python
pygame.quit()

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

Note that we now need to record the display surface in a local variable so that we can use it to draw the blue rectangles. We also need to call the `pygame.display.update()` function each time round the main while loop so that the new rectangles we have drawn as part of the event processing for loop are displayed to the user.

We also set the frame rate each time round the main while loop. This should happen once per frame (but only once) and uses the `clock` object initialised at the start of the program.

12.7 Alternative Approach to Processing Input Devices

There are actually two ways in which inputs from a device such as a mouse, joystick or the keyboard can be processed. One approach is the *Event* based model described earlier. The other approach is the *State* based approach.

Although the Event based approach has many advantages it has two disadvantages:

- Each event represents a single action and continuous actions are not explicitly represented. Thus if the user presses both the X key and the Z key then this will generate two events and it will be up to the program to determine that they have been pressed at the same time.
- It is also up to the program to determine that the user is still pressing a key (by noting that no KEYUP event has occurred).
- Both of these are possible but can be error prone.

An alternative approach is to use the *State* based approach. In the state based approach the program can directly check the state of a input device (such as a key or mouse or keyboard). For example, you can use `pygame.key.get_pressed()` which returns the state of all the keys. This can be used to determine if a specific key is being pressed at this moment in time. For example, `pygame.key.get_pressed() [pygame.K_SPACE]` can be used to check to see if the space bar is being pressed.

This can be used to determine what action to take. If you keep checking that the key is pressed then you can keep performing the associated action. This can be very useful for continues actions in a game such as moving an object etc.

However, if the user presses a key and then releases it before the program checks the state of the keyboard then that input will be missed.

12.8 pygame Modules

There are numerous modules provided as part of pygame as well as associated libraries. Some of the core modules are listed below:

- `pygame.display` This module is used to control the display window or screen. It provides facilities to initialise and shutdown the display module. It can be used to initialise a window or screen. It can also be used to cause a window or screen to refresh etc.

- `pygame.event` This module manages events and the event queue. For example `pygame.event.get()` retrieves events from the event queue, `pygame.event.poll()` gets a single event from the queue and `pygame.event.peek()` tests to see if there are any event types on the queue.
- `pygame.draw` The draw module is used to draw simple shapes onto a Surface. For example, it provides functions for drawing a rectangle (`pygame.draw.rect`), a polygon, a circle, an ellipse, a line etc.
- `pygame.font` The font module is used to create and render TrueType fonts into a new Surface object. Most of the features associated with fonts are supported by the `pygame.font.Font` class. Free standing module functions allow the module to be initialised and shutdown, plus functions to access fonts such as `pygame.font.get_fonts()` which provides a list of the currently available fonts.
- `pygame.image` This module allows images to be saved and loaded. Note that images are loaded into a Surface object (there is no Image class unlike many other GUI oriented frameworks).
- `pygame.joystick` The joystick module provides the Joystick object and several supporting functions. These can be used for interacting with joysticks, gamepads and trackballs.
- `pygame.key` This module provides support for working with inputs from the keyboard. This allows the input keys to be obtained and modifier keys (such as Control and Shift) to be identified. It also allows the approach to repeating keys to be specified.
- `pygame.mouse` This module provides facilities for working with mouse input such as obtaining the current mouse position, the state of mouse buttons as well as the image to use for the mouse.
- `pygame.time` This is the pygame module for managing timing within a game. It provides the `pygame.time.Clock` class that can be used to track time.

12.9 Online Resources

There is a great deal of information available on pygame including:

- <https://www.pygame.org> The pygame home page.
- <http://www.libsdl.org/> SDL (Simple Directmedia Layer) documentation.
- <news://gmane.comp.python.pygame> The official pygame news group.

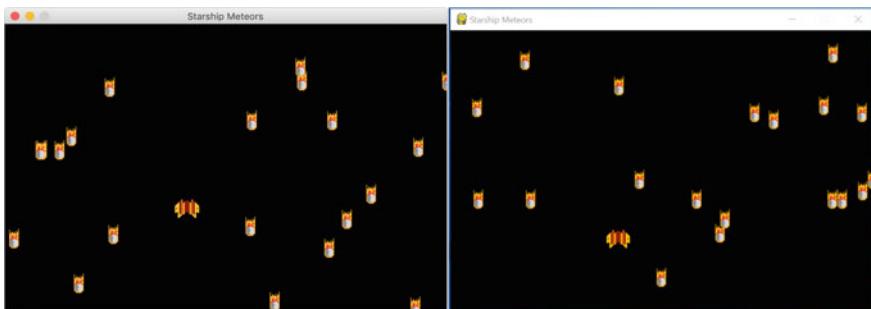
Chapter 13

StarshipMeteors pygame



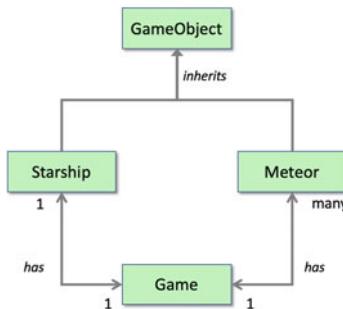
13.1 Creating a Spaceship Game

In this chapter we will create a game in which you pilot a starship through a field of meteors. The longer you play the game the larger the number of meteors you will encounter. A typical display from the game is shown below for a Apple Mac and a Windows PC:



We will implement several classes to represent the entities within the game. Using classes is not a required way to implement a game and it should be noted that many developers avoid the use of classes. However, using a class allows data associated with an object within the game to be maintained in one place; it also simplifies the creation of multiple instances of the same object (such as the meteors) within the game.

The classes and their relationships are shown below:



This diagram shows that the `Starship` and `Meteor` classes will extend a class called `GameObject`.

In turn it also shows that the `Game` has a 1:1 relationship with the `Starship` class. That is the `Game` holds a reference to one `Starship` and in turn the `starship` holds a single reference back to the `Game`.

In contrast the `Game` has a 1 to many relationship with the `Meteor` class. That is the `Game` object holds references to many `Meteors` and each `Meteor` holds a reference back to the single `Game` object.

13.2 The Main Game Class

The first class we will look at will be the `Game` class itself.

The `Game` class will hold the list of meteors and the starship as well as the main game playing loop.

It will also initialise the main window display (for example by setting the size and the caption of the window).

In this case we will store the display surface returned by the `pygame.display.set_mode()` function in an attribute of the `Game` object called `display_surface`. This is because we will need to use it later on to display the starship and the meteors.

We will also hold onto an instance of the `pygame.time.Clock()` class that we will use to set the frame rate each time round the main game playing while loop.

The basic framework of our game is shown below; this listing provides the basic `Game` class and the main method that will launch the game. The game also defines three global *constants* that will be used to define the frame refresh rate and the size of the display.

```
import pygame

# Set up Global 'constants'
FRAME_REFRESH_RATE = 30

DISPLAY_WIDTH = 600
DISPLAY_HEIGHT = 400

class Game:
    """ Represents the game itself and game playing
    loop """

    def __init__(self):
        print('Initialising PyGame')
        pygame.init()
        # Set up the display
        self.display_surface =
            pygame.display.set_mode((DISPLAY_WIDTH, DISPLAY_HEIGHT))
        pygame.display.set_caption('Starship Meteors')
        # Used for timing within the program.
        self.clock = pygame.time.Clock()

    def play(self):
        is_running = True

        # Main game playing Loop
        while is_running:
            # Work out what the user wants to do
            for event in pygame.event.get():
                if event.type == pygame.QUIT:
                    is_running = False
                elif event.type == pygame.KEYDOWN:
                    if event.key == pygame.K_q:
                        is_running = False

            # Update the display
            pygame.display.update()

            # Defines the frame rate
            self.clock.tick(FRAME_REFRESH_RATE)

        # Let pygame shutdown gracefully
        pygame.quit()

    def main():
        print('Starting Game')
        game = Game()
        game.play()
        print('Game Over')

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

The main `play()` method of the `Game` class has a loop that will continue until the user selects to quit the game. They can do this in one of two ways, either by pressing the ‘q’ key (represented by the `event.key K_q`) or by clicking on the window close button. In either case these events are picked up in the main event processing for loop within the main while loop method.

If the user does not want to quit the game then the display is updated (refreshed) and then the `clock.tick()` (or frame) rate is set.

When the user selects to quit the game then the main while loop is terminated (the `is_running` flag is set to `False`) and the `pygame.quit()` method is called to shut down pygame.

At the moment this not a very interactive game as it does not do anything except allow the user to quit. In the next section we will add in behaviour that will allow us to display the space ship within the display.

13.3 The GameObject Class

The `GameObject` class defines three methods:

The `load_image()` method can be used to load an image to be used to visually represent the specific type of game object. The method then uses the width and height of the image to define the width and height of the game object.

The `rect()` method returns a rectangle representing the current area used by the game object on the underlying drawing surface. This differs from the images own `rect()` which is not related to the location of the game object on the underlying surface. Rects are very useful for comparing the location of one object with another (for example when determining if a collision has occurred).

The `draw()` method draws the `GameObjects`’ image onto the `display_surface` held by the game using the `GameObjects` current `x` and `y` coordinates. It can be overridden by subclasses if they wish to be drawn in a different way.

The code for the `GameObject` class is presented below:

```
class GameObject:

    def load_image(self, filename):
        self.image = pygame.image.load(filename).convert()
        self.width = self.image.get_width()
        self.height = self.image.get_height()

    def rect(self):
        """ Generates a rectangle representing the objects
location
and dimensions """

```

```
    return pygame.Rect(self.x, self.y, self.width,  
self.height)  
  
def draw(self):  
    """ draw the game object at the  
    current x, y coordinates """  
    self.game.display_surface.blit(self.image, (self.x,  
self.y))
```

The GameObject class is directly extended by the Starship class and the Meteor class.

Currently there are only two types of game elements, the starship and the meteors; but this could be extended in future to planets, comets, shooting stars etc.

13.4 Displaying the Starship

The human player of this game will control a starship that can be moved around the display.

The Starship will be represented by an instance of the class Starship. This class will extend the GameObject class that holds common behaviours for any type of element that is represented within the game.

The Starship class defines its own `__init__()` method that takes a reference to the game that the starship is part of. This initialisation method sets the initial starting location of the Starship as half the width of the display for the x coordinate and the display height minus 40 for the y coordinate (this gives a bit of a buffer before the end of the screen). It then uses the `load_image()` method from the GameObject parent class to load the image to be used to represent the Starship. This is held in a file called `starship.png`. For the moment we will leave the Starship class as it is (however we will return to this class so that we can make it into a movable object in the next section).

The current version of the Starship class is given below:

```
class Starship(GameObject):  
    """ Represents a starship """  
  
def __init__(self, game):  
    self.game = game  
    self.x = DISPLAY_WIDTH / 2  
    self.y = DISPLAY_HEIGHT - 40  
    self.load_image('starship.png')
```

In the Game class we will now add a line to the `__init__()` method to initialise the Starship object. This line is:

```
# Set up the starship
self.starship = Starship(self)
```

We will also add a line to the main while loop within the `play()` method just before we refresh the display. This line will call the `draw()` method on the starship object:

```
# Draw the starship
self.starship.draw()
```

This will have the effect of drawing the starship onto the windows drawing surface in the background before the display is refreshed.

When we now run this version of the StarshipMeteor game we now see the Starship in the display:



Of course at the moment the starship does not move; but we will address that in the next section.

13.5 Moving the Spaceship

We want to be able to move the Starship about within the bounds of the display screen.

To do this we need to change the starships x and y coordinates in response to the user pressing various keys.

We will use the arrow keys to move up and down the screen or to the left or right of the screen. To do this we will define *four* methods within the Starship class; these methods will move the starship up, down, left and right etc.

The updated Starship class is shown below:

```
class Starship(GameObject):
    """ Represents a starship"""

    def __init__(self, game):
        self.game = game
        self.x = DISPLAY_WIDTH / 2
        self.y = DISPLAY_HEIGHT - 40
        self.load_image('starship.png')

    def move_right(self):
        """ moves the starship right across the screen """
        self.x = self.x + STARSHIP_SPEED
        if self.x + self.width > DISPLAY_WIDTH:
            self.x = DISPLAY_WIDTH - self.width

    def move_left(self):
        """ Move the starship left across the screen """
        self.x = self.x - STARSHIP_SPEED
        if self.x < 0:
            self.x = 0

    def move_up(self):
        """ Move the starship up the screen """
        self.y = self.y - STARSHIP_SPEED
        if self.y < 0:
            self.y = 0

    def move_down(self):
        """ Move the starship down the screen """
        self.y = self.y + STARSHIP_SPEED
        if self.y + self.height > DISPLAY_HEIGHT:
            self.y = DISPLAY_HEIGHT - self.height

    def __str__(self):
        return 'Starship(' + str(self.x) + ', ' + str(self.y) +
               ')'
```

This version of the Starship class defines the various move methods. These methods use a new *global* value STARSHIP_SPEED to determine how far and how fast the Starship moves. If you want to change the speed that the Starship moves then you can change this global value.

Depending upon the direction intended we will need to modify either the x or y coordinate of the Starship.

- If the starship moves to the left then the x coordinate is reduced by STARSHIP_SPEED,
- if it moves to the right then the x coordinate is increased by STARSHIP_SPEED,
- in turn if the Starship moves up the screen then the y coordinate is decremented by STARSHIP_SPEED,

- but if it moves down the screen then the y coordinate is increased by STARSHIP_SPEED.

Of course we do not want our Starship to fly off the edge of the screen and so a test must be made to see if it has reached the boundaries of the screen. Thus tests are made to see if the x or y values have gone below Zero or above the DISPLAY_WIDTH or DISPLAY_HEIGHT values. If any of these conditions are met then the x or y values are reset to an appropriate default.

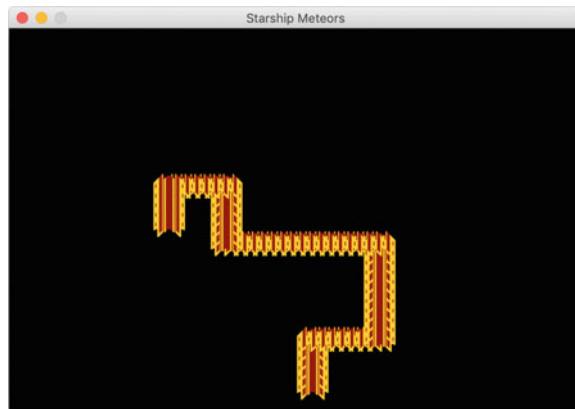
We can now use these methods with player input. This player input will indicate the direction that the player wants to move the Starship. As we are using the left, right, up and down arrow keys for this we can extend the event processing loop that we have already defined for the main game playing loop. As with the letter q, the event keys are prefixed by the letter K and an underbar, but this time the keys are named K_LEFT, K_RIGHT, K_UP and K_DOWN.

When one of these keys is pressed then we will call the appropriate move method on the starship object already held by the Game object.

The main event processing for loop is now:

```
# Work out what the user wants to do
for event in pygame.event.get():
    if event.type == pygame.QUIT:
        is_running = False
    elif event.type == pygame.KEYDOWN:
        # Check to see which key is pressed
        if event.key == pygame.K_RIGHT:
            # Right arrow key has been pressed
            # move the player right
            self.starship.move_right()
        elif event.key == pygame.K_LEFT:
            # Left arrow has been pressed
            # move the player left
            self.starship.move_left()
        elif event.key == pygame.K_UP:
            self.starship.move_up()
        elif event.key == pygame.K_DOWN:
            self.starship.move_down()
        elif event.key == pygame.K_q:
            is_running = False
```

However, we are not quite finished. If we try and run this version of the program we will get a trail of Starships drawn across the screen; for example:



The problem is that we are redrawing the starship at a different position; but the previous image is still present.

We now have two choices one is to merely fill the whole screen with black; effectively hiding anything that has been drawn so far; or alternatively we could just draw over the area used by the previous image position. Which approach is adopted depends on the particular scenario represented by your game. As we will have a lot of meteors on the screen once we have added them; the easiest option is to overwrite everything on the screen before redrawing the starship. We will therefore add the following line:

```
# Clear the screen of current contents  
self.display_surface.fill(BACKGROUND)
```

This line is added just before we draw the Starship within the main game playing while loop.

Now when we move the Starship the old image is removed before we draw the new image:



One point to note is that we have also defined another global value BACKGROUND used to hold the background colour of the game playing surface. This is set to black as shown below:

```
# Define default RGB colours
BACKGROUND = (0, 0, 0)
```

If you want to use a different background colour then change this global value.

13.6 Adding a Meteor Class

The Meteor class will also be a subclass of the GameObject class. However, it will only provide a move_down() method rather than the variety of move methods of the Starship.

It will also need to have a random starting x coordinate so that when a meteor is added to the game its starting position will vary. This random position can be generated using the random.randint() function using a value between 0 and the width of the drawing surface. The meteor will also start at the top of the screen so will have a different initial y coordinate to the Starship. Finally, we also want our meteors to have different speeds; this can be another random number between 1 and some specified maximum meteor speed.

To support these we need to add random to the modules being imported and define several new global values, for example:

```
import pygame, random

INITIAL_METEOR_Y_LOCATION = 10
MAX_METEOR_SPEED = 5
```

We can now define the Meteor class:

```
class Meteor(GameObject):
    """ represents a meteor in the game """
    def __init__(self, game):
        self.game = game
        self.x = random.randint(0, DISPLAY_WIDTH)
        self.y = INITIAL_METEOR_Y_LOCATION
        self.speed = random.randint(1, MAX_METEOR_SPEED)
        self.load_image('meteor.png')

    def move_down(self):
        """ Move the meteor down the screen """
        self.y = self.y + self.speed
        if self.y > DISPLAY_HEIGHT:
            self.y = 5

    def __str__(self):
        return 'Meteor(' + str(self.x) + ', ' + str(self.y) +
')'
```

The `__init__()` method for the `Meteor` class has the same steps as the `Starship`; the difference is that the `x` coordinate and the `speed` are randomly generated. The image used for the `Meteor` is also different as it is ‘`meteor.png`’.

We have also implemented a `move_down()` method. This is essentially the same as the `Starships move_down()`.

Note that at this point we could create a subclass of `GameObject` called `MoveableGameObject` (which extends `GameObject`) and push the move operations up into that class and have the `Meteor` and `Starship` classes extend that class. However we don’t really want to allow meteors to move just anywhere on the screen.

We can now add the meteors to the `Game` class. We will add a new global value to indicate the number of initial meteors in the game:

```
INITIAL_NUMBER_OF_METEORS = 8
```

Next we will initialise a new attribute for the `Game` class that will hold a list of `Meteors`. We will use a list here as we want to increase the number of meteors as the game progresses.

To make this process easy we will use a list comprehension which allows a `for` loop to run with the results of an expression captured by the list:

```
# Set up meteors
self.meteors = [Meteor(self) for _ in range(0,
INITIAL_NUMBER_OF_METEORS)]
```

We now have a list of meteors that need to be displayed. We thus need to update the `while` loop of the `play()` method to draw not only the starship but also all the meteors:

```
# Draw the meteors and the starship
self.starship.draw()
for meteor in self.meteors:
    meteor.draw()
```

The end result is that a set of meteor objects are created at random starting locations across the top of the screen:



13.7 Moving the Meteors

We now want to be able to move the meteors down the screen so that the Starship has some objects to avoid.

We can do this very easily as we have already implemented a `move_down()` method in the `Meteor` class. We therefore only need to add a for loop to the main game playing while loop that will move all the meteors. For example:

```
# Move the Meteors
for meteor in self.meteors:
    meteor.move_down()
```

This can be added after the event processing for loop and before the screen is refreshed/redrawn or updated.

Now when we run the game the meteors move and the player can navigate the Starship between the falling meteors.



13.8 Identifying a Collision

At the moment the game will play for ever as there is no end state and no attempt to identify if a Starship has collided with a meteor.

We can add Meteor/Starship collision detection using PyGame Rects. As mentioned in the last chapter a `Rect` is a PyGame class used to represent rectangular coordinates. It is particularly useful as the `pygame.Rect` class provides several collision detection methods that can be used to test if one rectangle (or point) is inside another rectangle. We can therefore use one of the methods to test if the rectangle around the Starship intersects with any of the rectangles around the Meteors.

The `GameObject` class already provides a method `rect()` that will return a `Rect` object representing the objects' current rectangle with respect to the drawing surface (essentially the box around the object representing its location on the screen).

Thus we can write a collision detection method for the `Game` class using the `GameObject` generated `rects` and the `Rect` class `colliderect()` method:

```
def _check_for_collision(self):
    """ Checks to see if any of the meteors have collided with
    the starship """
    result = False
    for meteor in self.meteors:
        if self.starship.rect().colliderect(meteor.rect()):
            result = True
            break
    return result
```

Note that we have followed the convention here of preceding the method name with an underbar indicating that this method should be considered private to the class. It should therefore never be called by anything outside of the `Game` class. This convention is defined in PEP 8 (Python Enhancement Proposal) but is not enforced by the language.

We can now use this method in the main `while` loop of the game to check for a collision:

```
# Check to see if a meteor has hit the ship
if self._check_for_collision():
    starship_collided = True
```

This code snippet also introduces a new local variable `starship_collided`. We will initially set this to `False` and is another condition under which the main game playing while loop will terminate:

```
is_running = True
starship_collided = False

# Main game playing Loop
while is_running and not starship_collided:
```

Thus the game playing loop will terminate if the user selects to quit or if the starship collides with a meteor.

13.9 Identifying a Win

We currently have a way to loose the game but we don't have a way to win the game! However, we want the player to be able to win the game by surviving for a specified period of time. We could represent this with a timer of some sort. However, in our case we will represent it as a specific number of cycles of the main game playing loop. If the player survives for this number of cycles then they have won. For example:

```
# See if the player has won
if cycle_count == MAX_NUMBER_OF_CYCLES:
    print('WINNER!')
    break
```

In this case a message is printed out stating that the player won and then the main game playing loop is terminated (using the `break` statement).

The `MAX_NUMBER_OF_CYCLES` global value can be set as appropriate, for example:

```
MAX_NUMBER_OF_CYCLES = 1000
```

13.10 Increasing the Number of Meteors

We could leave the game as it is at this point, as it is now possible to win or loose the game. However, there are a few things that can be easily added that will enhance the game playing experience. One of these is to increase the number of Meteors on the screen making it harder as the game progresses.

We can do this using a `NEW_METEOR_CYCLE_INTERVAL`.

```
NEW_METEOR_CYCLE_INTERVAL = 40
```

When this interval is reached we can add a new Meteor to the list of current Meteors; it will then be automatically drawn by the Game class. For example:

```
# Determine if new meteors should be added
if cycle_count % NEW_METEOR_CYCLE_INTERVAL == 0:
    self.meteors.append(Meteor(self))
```

Now every NEW_METEOR_CYCLE_INTERVAL another meteor will be added at a random x coordinate to the game.

13.11 Pausing the Game

Another feature that many games have is the ability to pause the game. This can be easily added by monitoring for a pause key (this could be the letter p represented by the event_key pygame.K_p). When this is pressed the game could be paused until the key is pressed again.

The pause operation can be implemented as a method `_pause()` that will consume all events until the appropriate key is pressed. For example:

```
def _pause(self):
    paused = True
    while paused:
        for event in pygame.event.get():
            if event.type == pygame.KEYDOWN:
                if event.key == pygame.K_p:
                    paused = False
                    break
```

In this method the outer while loop will loop until the paused local variable is set to False. This only happens when the ‘p’ key is pressed. The `break` after the statement setting `paused` to `False` ensures that the inner `for` loop is terminated allowing the outer `while` loop to check the value of `paused` and terminate.

The `_pause()` method can be invoked during the game playing cycle by monitoring for the ‘p’ key within the event for loop and calling the `_pause()` method from there:

```
elif event.key == pygame.K_p:
    self._pause()
```

Note that again we have indicated that we don’t expect the `_pause()` method to be called from outside the game by prefixing the method name with an underbar (‘_’).

13.12 Displaying the Game Over Message

PyGame does not come with an easy way of creating a popup dialog box to display messages such as ‘You Won’; or ‘You Lost’ which is why we have used print statements so far. However, we could use a GUI framework such as wxPython to do this or we could display a message on the display surface to indicate whether the player has won or lost.

We can display a message on the display surface using the `pygame.font.Font` class. This can be used to create a `Font` object that can be rendered onto a surface that can be displayed onto the main display surface.

We can therefore add a method `_display_message()` to the `Game` class that can be used to display appropriate messages:

```
def _display_message(self, message):
    """ Displays a message to the user on the screen """
    print(message)
    text_font = pygame.font.Font('freesansbold.ttf', 48)
    text_surface = text_font.render(message, True, BLUE, WHITE)
    text_rectangle = text_surface.get_rect()
    text_rectangle.center = (DISPLAY_WIDTH / 2,
    DISPLAY_HEIGHT / 2)
    self.display_surface.fill(WHITE)
    self.display_surface.blit(text_surface, text_rectangle)
```

Again the leading underbar in the method name indicates that it should not be called from outside the `Game` class.

We can now modify the main loop such that appropriate messages are displayed to the user, for example:

```
# Check to see if a meteor has hit the ship
if self._check_for_collision():
    starship_collided = True
    self._display_message('Collision: Game Over')
```

The result of the above code being run when a collision occurs is shown below:



13.13 The StarshipMeteors Game

The complete listing for the final version of the StarshipMeteors game is given below:

```
import pygame, random, time

FRAME_REFRESH_RATE = 30

DISPLAY_WIDTH = 600
DISPLAY_HEIGHT = 400
WHITE = (255, 255, 255)
BACKGROUND = (0, 0, 0)

INITIAL_METEOR_Y_LOCATION = 10
INITIAL_NUMBER_OF_METEORS = 8
MAX_METEOR_SPEED = 5
STARSHIP_SPEED = 10
MAX_NUMBER_OF_CYCLES = 1000
NEW_METEOR_CYCLE_INTERVAL = 40
```

```
class GameObject:

    def load_image(self, filename):
        self.image = pygame.image.load(filename).convert()
        self.width = self.image.get_width()
        self.height = self.image.get_height()

    def rect(self):
        """ Generates a rectangle representing the objects
location
        and dimensions """
        return pygame.Rect(self.x, self.y, self.width,
self.height)

    def draw(self):
        """ draw the game object at the
current x, y coordinates """
        self.game.display_surface.blit(self.image, (self.x,
self.y))

class Starship(GameObject):
    """ Represents a starship"""

    def __init__(self, game):
        self.game = game
        self.x = DISPLAY_WIDTH / 2
        self.y = DISPLAY_HEIGHT - 40
        self.load_image('starship.png')

    def move_right(self):
        """ moves the starship right across the screen """
        self.x = self.x + STARSHIP_SPEED
        if self.x + self.width > DISPLAY_WIDTH:
            self.x = DISPLAY_WIDTH - self.width

    def move_left(self):
        """ Move the starship left across the screen """
        self.x = self.x - STARSHIP_SPEED
        if self.x < 0:
            self.x = 0

    def move_up(self):
        """ Move the starship up the screen """
        self.y = self.y - STARSHIP_SPEED
        if self.y < 0:
            self.y = 0

    def move_down(self):
        """ Move the starship down the screen """
        self.y = self.y + STARSHIP_SPEED
        if self.y + self.height > DISPLAY_HEIGHT:
```

```
        self.y = DISPLAY_HEIGHT - self.height

    def __str__(self):
        return 'Starship(' + str(self.x) + ', ' + str(self.y) +
    ')\n'

class Meteor(GameObject):
    """ represents a meteor in the game """

    def __init__(self, game):
        self.game = game
        self.x = random.randint(0, DISPLAY_WIDTH)
        self.y = INITIAL_METEOR_Y_LOCATION
        self.speed = random.randint(1, MAX_METEOR_SPEED)
        self.load_image('meteor.png')

    def move_down(self):
        """ Move the meteor down the screen """
        self.y = self.y + self.speed
        if self.y > DISPLAY_HEIGHT:
            self.y = 5

    def __str__(self):
        return 'Meteor(' + str(self.x) + ', ' + str(self.y) +
    ')\n'

class Game:
    """ Represents the game itself, holds the main game playing
loop """

    def __init__(self):
        pygame.init()
        # Set up the display
        self.display_surface =
pygame.display.set_mode((DISPLAY_WIDTH, DISPLAY_HEIGHT))
        pygame.display.set_caption('Starship Meteors')
        # Used for timing within the program.
        self.clock = pygame.time.Clock()
        # Set up the starship
        self.starship = Starship(self)
        # Set up meteors
        self.meteors = [Meteor(self) for _ in range(0,
INITIAL_NUMBER_OF_METEORS)]

    def _check_for_collision(self):
        """ Checks to see if any of the meteors have collided
with the starship """
        result = False
        for meteor in self.meteors:
            if self.starship.rect().colliderect(meteor.rect()):
                result = True
```

```
        break
    return result

def _display_message(self, message):
    """ Displays a message to the user on the screen """
    text_font = pygame.font.Font('freesansbold.ttf', 48)
    text_surface = text_font.render(message, True, BLUE,
WHITE)
    text_rectangle = text_surface.get_rect()
    text_rectangle.center = (DISPLAY_WIDTH / 2,
DISPLAY_HEIGHT / 2)
    self.display_surface.fill(WHITE)
    self.display_surface.blit(text_surface, text_rectangle)

def _pause(self):
    paused = True
    while paused:
        for event in pygame.event.get():
            if event.type == pygame.KEYDOWN:
                if event.key == pygame.K_p:
                    paused = False
                    break

def play(self):
    is_running = True
    starship_collided = False
    cycle_count = 0

    # Main game playing Loop
    while is_running and not starship_collided:
        # Indicates how many times the main game loop has
been run
        cycle_count += 1

        # See if the player has won
        if cycle_count == MAX_NUMBER_OF_CYCLES:
            self._display_message('WINNER!')
            break

        # Work out what the user wants to do
        for event in pygame.event.get():
            if event.type == pygame.QUIT:
                is_running = False
            elif event.type == pygame.KEYDOWN:
                # Check to see which key is pressed
                if event.key == pygame.K_RIGHT:
                    # Right arrow key has been pressed
                    # move the player right
                    self.starship.move_right()
                elif event.key == pygame.K_LEFT:
                    # Left arrow has been pressed
```

```
# move the player left
    self.starship.move_left()
elif event.key == pygame.K_UP:
    self.starship.move_up()
elif event.key == pygame.K_DOWN:
    self.starship.move_down()
elif event.key == pygame.K_p:
    self._pause()
elif event.key == pygame.K_q:
    is_running = False

# Move the Meteors
for meteor in self.meteors:
    meteor.move_down()

# Clear the screen of current contents
self.display_surface.fill(BACKGROUND)

# Draw the meteors and the starship
self.starship.draw()
for meteor in self.meteors:
    meteor.draw()

# Check to see if a meteor has hit the ship
if self._check_for_collision():
    starship_collided = True
    self._display_message('Collision: Game Over')

# Determine if new meteors should be added
if cycle_count % NEW_METEOR_CYCLE_INTERVAL == 0:
    self.meteors.append(Meteor(self))

# Update the display
pygame.display.update()

# Defines the frame rate. The number is number of
frames per
# second. Should be called once per frame (but only
once)
self.clock.tick(FRAME_REFRESH_RATE)

time.sleep(1)
# Let pygame shutdown gracefully
pygame.quit()

def main():
    print('Starting Game')
    game = Game()
    game.play()
    print('Game Over')
    if __name__ == '__main__':
        main()
```

13.14 Online Resources

There is a great deal of information available on PyGame including:

- <https://www.pygame.org> The PyGame home page.
- <https://www.pygame.org/docs/tut/PygameIntro.html> PyGame tutorial.
- <https://www.python.org/dev/peps/pep-0008/> PEP8 Style Guide for Python Code.

13.15 Exercises

Using the example presented in this chapter add the following:

- Provide a score counter. This could be based on the number of cycles the player survives or the number of meteors that restart from the top of the screen etc.
- Add another type of GameObject, this could be a shooting star that moves across the screen horizontally; perhaps using an random starting y coordinate.
- Allow the game difficulty to be specified at the start. This could affect the number of initial meteors, the maximum speed of a meteor, the number of shooting stars etc.

Part III

Testing

Chapter 14

Introduction to Testing



14.1 Introduction

This chapter considers the different types of tests that you might want to perform with the systems you develop in Python. It also introduces Test Driven Development.

14.2 Types of Testing

There are at least two ways of thinking about testing:

1. It is the process of executing a program with the intent of finding errors/bugs (see Glenford Myers, *The Art of Software Testing*).
2. It is a process used to establish that software components fulfil the requirements identified for them, that is that they do what they are supposed to do.

These two aspects of testing tend to have been emphasised at different points in the software lifecycle. Error Testing is an intrinsic part of the development process, and an increasing emphasis is being placed on making testing a central part of software development (see Test Driven Development).

It should be noted that it is extremely difficult—and in many cases impossible—to prove that software *works* and is completely *error free*. The fact that a set of tests finds no defects does not prove that the software is error-free. ‘Absence of evidence is not evidence of absence!’. This was discussed in the late 1960s and early 1970s by Dijkstra and can be summarised as:

Testing shows the presence, not the absence of bugs

Testing to establish that software components fulfil their contract involves checking operations against their requirements. Although this does happen at

development time, it forms a major part of Quality Assurance (QA) and User Acceptance testing. It should be noted that with the advent of Test-Driven Development, the emphasis on testing against requirements during development has become significantly higher.

There are of course many other aspects to testing, for example, Performance Testing which identifies how a system will perform as various factors that affect that system change. For example, as the number of concurrent requests increase, as the number of processors used by the underlying hardware changes, as the size of the database grows etc.

However you view testing, the more testing applied to a system the higher the level of confidence that the system will work as required.

14.3 What Should Be Tested?

An interesting question is ‘What aspects of your software system should be subject to testing?’.

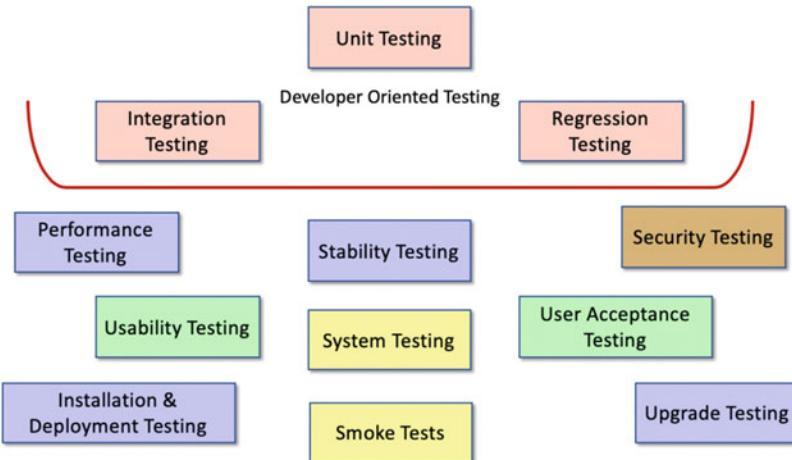
In general, anything that is repeatable should be subject to formal (and ideally automated) testing. This includes (but is not limited to):

- The build process for all technologies involved.
- The deployment process to all platforms under consideration.
- The installation process for all runtime environments.
- The upgrade process for all supported versions (if appropriate).
- The performance of the system/servers as loads increase.
- The stability for systems that must run for any period of time (e.g. 24 × 7 systems).
- The backup processes.
- The security of the system.
- The recovery ability of the system on failure.
- The functionality of the system.
- The integrity of the system.

Notice that only the last two of the above list might be what is commonly considered areas that would be subject to testing. However, to ensure the quality of the system under consideration, all of the above are relevant. In fact, testing should cover all aspects of the software development lifecycle and not just the QA phase. During requirements gathering testing is the process of looking for missing or ambiguous requirements. During this phase consideration should also be made with regard to how the overall requirements will be tested, in the final software system.

Test planning should also look at all aspects of the software under test for functionality, usability, legal compliance, conformance to regulatory constraints, security, performance, availability, resilience, etc. Testing should be driven by the need to identify and reduce risk.

14.4 Testing Software Systems



As indicated above there are a number of different types of testing that are commonly used within industry. These types are:

- **Unit Testing**, which is used to verify the behaviour of individual components.
- **Integration Testing** that tests that when individual components are combined together to provide higher-level functional units, that the combination of the units operates appropriately.
- **Regression Testing**. When new components are added to a system, or existing components are changed, it is necessary to verify that the new functionality does not break any existing functionality. Such testing is known as Regression Testing.
- **Performance Testing** is used to ensure that the systems' performance is as required and, within the design parameters, and is able to scale as utilisation increases.
- **Stability Testing** represents a style of testing which attempts to simulate system operation over an extended period of time. For example, for a online shopping application that is expected to be up and running 24 × 7 a stability test might ensure that with an average load that the system can indeed run 24 hours a day for 7 days a week.

- **Security Testing** ensures that access to the system is controlled appropriately given the requirements. For example, for an online shopping system there may be different security requirements depending upon whether you are browsing the store, purchasing some products or maintaining the product catalogue.
- **Usability Testing** which may be performed by a specialist usability group and may involve filming users while they use the system.
- **System Testing** validates that the system as a whole actually meets the user requirements and conforms to required application integrity.
- **User Acceptance Testing** is a form of user oriented testing where users confirm that the system does and behaves in the way they expect.
- **Installation, Deployment and Upgrade Testing**. These three types of testing validate that a system can be installed and deployed appropriate including any upgrade processes that may be required.
- **Smoke Tests** used to check that the core elements of a large system operate correctly. They can typically be run quickly and in a fraction of the time taken to run the full system tests.

Key testing approaches are discussed in the remainder of this section.

14.4.1 Unit Testing

A unit can be as small as a single function or as large as a subsystem but typically is a class, object, self-contained library (API) or web page.

By looking at a small self-contained component an extensive set of tests can be developed to exercise the defined requirements and functionality of the unit.

Unit testing typically follows a *white box* approach, (also called *Glass Box* or *Structural* testing), where the testing utilizes knowledge and understanding of the code and its structure, rather than just its interface (which is known as the *black box* approach).

In *white box* testing, test coverage is measured by the number of code paths that have been tested. The goal in unit testing is to provide 100% coverage: to exercise every instruction, all sides of each logical branch, all called objects, handling of all data structures, normal and abnormal termination of all loops etc. Of course this may not always be possible but it is a goal that should be aimed for. Many automated test tools will include a code coverage measure so that you are aware of how much of your code has been exercised by any given set of tests.

Unit Testing is almost always automated—there are many tools to help with this, perhaps the best-known being the xUnit family of test frameworks such as JUnit for Java and PyUnit for Python. The framework allows developers to:

- focus on testing the unit,
- simulate data or results from calling another unit (representative good and bad results),

- create data driven tests for maximum flexibility and repeatability,
- rely on *mock* objects that represent elements outside the unit that it must interact with.

Having the tests automated means that they can be run frequently, at the very least after initial development and after each change that affects the unit.

Once confidence is established in the correct functioning of one unit, developers can then use it to help test other units with which it interfaces, forming larger units that can also be unit tested or, as the scale gets larger, put through Integration Testing.

14.4.2 *Integration Testing*

Integration testing is where several units (or modules) are brought together to be tested as an entity in their own right. Typically, integration testing aims to ensure that modules interact correctly and the individual unit developers have interpreted the requirements in a consistent manner.

An integrated set of modules can be treated as a unit and unit tested in much the same way as the constituent modules, but usually working at a “higher” level of functionality. Integration testing is the intermediate stage between unit testing and full system testing.

Therefore, integration testing focuses on the interaction between two or more units to make sure that those units work together successfully and appropriately. Such testing is typically conducted from the bottom up but may also be conducted top down using mocks or stubs to represent called or calling functions. An important point to note is that you should not aim to test everything together at once (so called *Big Bang* testing) as it is more difficult to isolate bugs in order that they can be rectified. This is why it is more common to find that integration testing has been performed in a bottom up style.

14.4.3 *System Testing*

System Testing aims to validate that the combination of all the modules, units, data, installation, configuration etc. operates appropriately and meets the requirements specified for the whole system. Testing the system has a whole typically involves testing the top most functionality or behaviours of the system. Such Behaviour Based testing often involves end users and other stakeholders who are less technical. To support such tests a range of technologies have evolved that allow a more *English* style for test descriptions. This style of testing can be used as part of the requirements gathering process and can lead to a Behaviour Driven Development (BDD) process. The Python module `pytest-bdd` provides a BDD style extension to the core `pytest` framework.

14.4.4 Installation/Upgrade Testing

Installation testing is the testing of full, partial or upgrade install processes. It also validates that the installation and transition software needed to move to the new release for the product is functioning properly. Typically, it

- verifies that the software may be completely uninstalled through its back-out process.
- determines what files are added, changed or deleted on the hardware on which the program was installed.
- determines whether any other programs on the hardware are affected by the new software that has been installed.
- determines whether the software installs and operates properly on all hardware platforms and operating systems that it is supposed to work on.

14.4.5 Smoke Tests

A smoke test is a test or suite of tests designed to verify that the fundamentals of the system work. Smoke tests may be run against a new deployment or a patched deployment in order to verify that the installation performs well enough to justify further testing. Failure to pass a smoke test would halt any further testing until the smoke tests pass. The name derives from the early days of electronics: If a device began to smoke after it was powered on, testers knew that there was no point in testing it further. For software technologies, the advantages of performing smoke tests include:

- Smoke tests are often automated and standardised from one build to another.
- Because smoke tests validate things that are expected to work, when they fail it is usually an indication that something fundamental has gone wrong (the wrong version of a library has been used) or that a new build has introduced a bug into core aspects of the system.
- If a system is built daily, it should be smoke tested daily.
- It will be necessary to periodically add to the smoke tests as new functionality is added to the system.

14.5 Automating Testing

The actual way in which tests are written and executed needs careful consideration. In general, we wish to automate as much of the testing process as is possible as this makes it easy to run the tests and also ensures not only that all tests are run but that

they are run in the same way each time. In addition, once an automated test is set up it will typically be quicker to re-run that automated test than to manually repeat a series of tests. However, not all of the features of a system can be easily tested via an automated test tool and in some cases the physical environment may make it hard to automate tests.

Typically, most unit testing is automated and most acceptance testing is manual. You will also need to decide which forms of testing must take place. Most software projects should have unit testing, integration testing, system testing and acceptance testing as a necessary requirement. Not all projects will implement performance or stability testing, but you should be careful about omitting any stage of testing and be sure it is not applicable.

14.6 Test Driven Development

Test Driven Development (or TDD) is a development technique whereby developers write test cases *before* they write any implementation code. The tests thus drive or dictate the code that is developed. The implementation only provides as much functionality as is required to pass the test and thus the tests act as a specification of *what* the code does (and some argue that the tests are thus part of that specification and provide documentation of what the system is capable of).

TDD has the benefit that as tests must be written first, there are always a set of tests available to perform unit, integration, regression testing etc. This is good as developers can find that writing tests and maintaining tests is boring and of less interest than the actual code itself and thus put less emphasis into the testing regime than might be desirable. TDD encourages, and indeed requires, that developers maintain an exhaustive set of repeatable tests and that those tests are developed to the same quality and standards as the main body of code.

There are three rules of TDD as defined by Robert Martin, these are:

1. You are not allowed to write any production code unless it is to make a failing unit test pass
2. You are not allowed to write any more of a unit test than is sufficient to fail; and compilation failures are failures
3. You are not allowed to write any more production code than is sufficient to pass the one failing unit test.

This leads to the TDD cycle described in the next section.

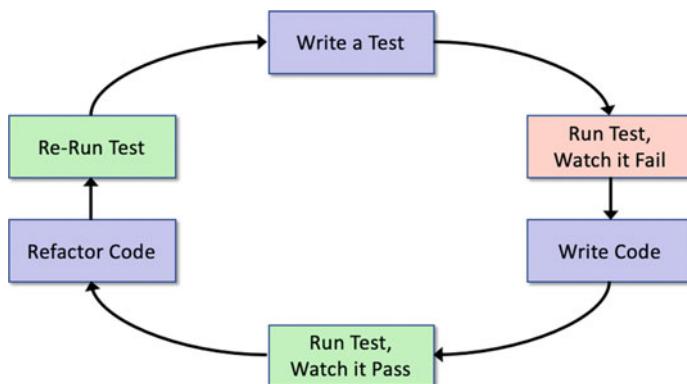
14.6.1 The TDD Cycle

There is a cycle to development when working in a TDD manner. The shortest form of this cycle is the TDD mantra:

Red / Green / Refactor

Which relates to the unit testing suite of tools where it is possible to write a unit test. Within tools such as PyCharm, when you run a pyunit or pytest test a Test View is shown with Red indicating that a test failed or Green indicating that the test passed. Hence Red/Green, in other words write the test and let it fail, then implement the code to ensure it passes. The last part of this mantra is *Refactor* which indicates once you have it working make the code cleaner, better, fitter by Refactoring it. Refactoring is the process by which the behaviour of the system is not changed but the implementation is altered to improve it.

The full TDD cycle is shown by the following diagram which highlights the test first approach of TDD:



The TDD mantra can be seen in the TDD cycle that is shown above and described in more detail below:

1. Write a single test.
2. Run the test and see it **fail**.
3. Implement *just enough* code to get the test to pass.
4. Run the test and see it **pass**.
5. **Refactor** for clarity and deal with any issue of reuse etc.
6. Repeat for next test.

14.6.2 *Test Complexity*

The aim is to strive for simplicity in all that you do within TDD. Thus, you write a test that fails, then do just enough to make that test pass (but no more). Then you refactor the implementation code (that is change the internals of the unit under test) to improve the code base. You continue to do this until all the functionality for a unit has been completed. In terms of each test, you should again strive for simplicity with each test only testing one thing with only a single assertion per test (although this is the subject of a lot of debate within the TDD world).

14.6.3 *Refactoring*

The emphasis on refactoring within TDD makes it more than just testing or Test First Development. This focus on refactoring is really a focus on (re)design and incremental improvement. The tests provide the specification of what is needed as well as the verification that existing behaviour is maintained, but refactoring leads to better design software. Thus, without refactoring TDD is not TDD!

14.7 Design for Testability

Testability has a number of facets

- Configurability. Set up the object under test to an appropriate configuration for the test
- Controllability. Control the input (and internal state)
- Observability. Observe its output
- Verifiability. That we can verify that output in an appropriate manner.

14.7.1 *Testability Rules of Thumb*

If you cannot test code then change it so that you can!

If your code is difficult to validate then change it so that it isn't!

Only one concrete class should be tested per Unit test and then *Mock the Rest*!

If your code is hard to reconfigure to work with Mocks then make it so that your code can use Mocks!

Design your code for testability!

14.8 Online Resources

See the following online resources for more information on testing and Test Driven Development (TDD).

- https://www.test-institute.org/Introduction_To_Software_Testing.php Introduction to Software Testing.
- https://en.wikibooks.org/wiki/Introduction_to_Software_Engineering/Testing Introduction to software Testing wiki book.
- https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Test-driven_development Test Driven Development wikipedia page.
- <http://agiledata.org/essays/tdd.html> an introduction to Test Driven Development.
- <https://medium.freecodecamp.org/learning-to-test-with-python-997ace2d8abe> a simple introduction to TDD with Python.
- <http://butunclebob.com/ArticleS.UncleBob.TheThreeRulesOfTdd> Robert Martins three rules for TDD.
- <http://butunclebob.com/ArticleS.UncleBob.TheBowlingGameKata> The Bowling Game Kata which presents a worked example of how TDD can be used to create a Ten Pin Bowls scoring keeping application.

14.9 Book Resources

- *The Art of Software Testing*, G. J. Myers, C. Sandler and T. Badgett, John Wiley & Sons, 3rd Edition (Dec 2011), 1118031962.

Chapter 15

PyTest Testing Framework



15.1 Introduction

There are several testing frameworks available for Python, although only one, unittest comes as part of the typical Python installation. Typical libraries include Unit test, (which is available within the Python distribution by default) and PyTest.

In this chapter we will look at PyTest and how it can be used to write unit tests in Python for both functions and classes.

15.2 What Is PyTest?

PyTest is a testing library for Python; it is currently one of the most popular Python testing libraries (others include unittest and doctest). PyTest can be used for various levels of testing, although its most common application is as a unit testing framework. It is also often used as a testing framework within a TDD based development project. In fact, it is used by Mozilla and Dropbox as their Python testing framework.

PyTest offers a large number of features and great flexibility in how tests are written and in how set up behaviour is defined. It automatically finds test based on naming conventions and can be easily integrated into a range of editors and IDEs including PyCharm.

15.3 Setting Up PyTest

You will probably need to set up PyTest so that you can use it from within your environment. If you are using the PyCharm editor, then you will need to add the PyTest module to the current PyCharm project and tell PyCharm that you want to use PyTest to run all tests for you.

15.4 A Simple PyTest Example

Something to Test

To be able to explore PyTest we first need something to test; we will therefore define a simple Calculator class. The calculator keeps a running total of the operations performed; it allows a new value to be set and then this value can be added to, or subtracted from, that accumulated total.

```
class Calculator:  
    def __init__(self):  
        self.current = 0  
        self.total = 0  
  
    def set(self, value):  
        self.current = value  
  
    def add(self):  
        self.total += self.current  
  
    def sub(self):  
        self.total -= self.current  
  
    def total(self):  
        return self.total
```

Save this class into a file called `calculator.py`.

Writing a Test

We will now create a very simple PyTest unit test for our Calculator class. This test will be defined in a class called `test_calculator.py`.

You will need to *import* the calculator class we wrote above into your `test_calculator.py` file (remember each file is a module in Python).

The exact `import` statement will depend on where you placed the calculator file relative to the test class. In this case the two files are both in the same directory and so we can write:

```
from calculator import Calculator
```

We will now define a test, the test should be pre-fixed with `test_` for PyTest to find them. In fact PyTest uses several conventions to find tests, which are:

- Search for `test_*.py` or `*_test.py` files.
- From those files, collect test items:
 - `test_prefix` test functions,
 - `test_prefix` test methods inside `Test` prefixed test classes (without an `__init__` method).

Note that we keep test files and the files containing the code to be tested separate; indeed in many cases they are kept in different directory structures. This means that there is not chance of developers accidentally using tests in production code etc.

Now we will add to the file a function that defines a test. We will call the function `test_add_one`; it needs to start with `test_` due to the above convention. However, we have tried to make the rest of the function name descriptive, so that its clear what it is testing. The function definition is given below:

```
from calculator import Calculator

def test_add_one():
    calc = Calculator()
    calc.set(1)
    calc.add()
    assert calc.total == 1
```

The test function creates a new instance of the `Calculator` class and then calls several methods on it; to set up the value to add, then the call to the `add()` method itself etc.

The final part of the test is the assertion. The `assert` verifies that the behaviour of the calculator is as expected. The PyTest `assert` statement works out what is being tested and what it should do with the result—including adding information to be added to a test run report. It avoids the need to have to learn a load of `assertSomething` type methods (unlike some other testing frameworks).

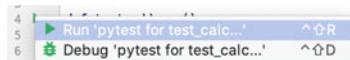
Note that a test without an assertion is *not* a test; i.e. it does not test anything.

Many IDEs provide direct support for testing frameworks including PyCharm. For example, PyCharm will now detect that you have written a function with an `assert` statement in it and add a *Run Test* icon to the grey area to the left of the

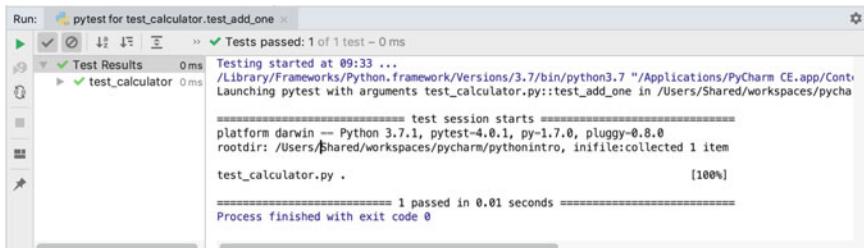
editor. This can be seen in the following picture where a green arrow has been added at line 4; this is the ‘Run Test’ button:

```
calculator.py x test_calculator.py x
1  from pythonintro.calculator import Calculator
2
3
4 > def test_add_one():
5     calc = Calculator()
6     calc.set(1)
7     calc.add()
8     assert calc.total == 1
9
```

The developer can click on the green arrow to run the test. They will then be presented with the *Run* menu that is preconfigured to use PyTest for you:



If the developer now selects the Run option; this will use the PyTest runner to execute the test and collect information about what happened and present it in a PyTest output view at the bottom of the IDE:



Here you can see a tree in the left-hand panel that currently holds the one test defined in the `test_calculator.py` file. This tree shows whether tests have passed or failed. In this case we have a green tick showing that the test passed.

To the right of this tree is the main output panel which shows the results of running the tests. In this case it shows that PyTest ran only one test and that this was the `test_add_one` test which was defined in `test_calculator.py` and that 1 test passed.

If you now change the assertion in the test to check to see that the result is 0 the test will fail. When run, the IDE display will update accordingly.

The tree in the left-hand pane now shows the test as failed while the right-hand pane provides detailed information about the test that failed including where in the test the failed assertion was defined. This is very helpful when trying to debug test failures.

```
Run: pytest for test_calculator.py::test_add_one
Test Results 0 ms
  Test Results 0 ms
    > test_calculator 0 ms
      Launching pytest with arguments test_calculator.py::test_add_one in /Users/Shared/worksheets/pycha
      ===== test session starts =====
      platform darwin -- Python 3.7.1, pytest-4.6.1, py-1.7.0, pluggy-0.8.0
      rootdir: /Users/Shared/worksheets/pycha/pythonintro, inifile:collected 1 item
      test_calculator.py F
      test_calculator.py::test_add_one
      E [0]
      Expected: 0
      Actual: 1
      -> click to see differences
      def test_add_one():
          calc = Calculator()
          calc.set(1)
          calc.add(1)
      >     assert calc.total == 0
      E     assert 1 == 0
      E     + where 1 == <pythonintro.calculator.Calculator object at 0x10b0455c18>.total
      test_calculator.py[B: AssertionWarning] [100%]
      ===== FAILURES =====
      test_add_one
      def test_add_one():
          calc = Calculator()
          calc.set(1)
          calc.add(1)
      >     assert calc.total == 0
      E     assert 1 == 0
      E     + where 1 == <pythonintro.calculator.Calculator object at 0x10b0455c18>.total
      test_calculator.py[B: AssertionWarning]
      ===== 1 failed in 0.03 seconds =====
      Process finished with exit code 0
```

15.5 Working with PyTest

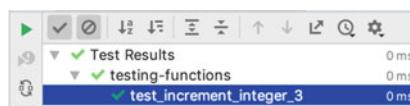
We can test *standalone* functions as well as classes using PyTest. For example, given the function `increment` below (which merely adds one to any number passed into it):

```
def increment(x):
    return x + 1
```

We can write a PyTest test for this as follows:

```
def test_increment_integer_3():
    assert increment(3) == 4
```

The only real difference is that we have not had to make an instance of a class:



Organising Tests

Tests can be grouped together into one or more files; PyTest will search for all files following the naming convention (file names that either start or end with ‘`test`’) in specified locations:

- If no arguments are specified when PyTest is run then the search for suitably named test files starts from the `testpaths` environment variable (if configured) or the current directory. Alternatively, command line arguments can be used in any combination of directories or filenames etc.

- PyTest will recursively search down into sub directories, unless they match `norecursedirs` environment variable.
- In those directories, it will search for files that match the naming conventions `test_*.py` or `*_test.py` files.

Tests can also be arranged within test files into Test classes. Using test classes can be helpful in grouping tests together and managing the setup and tear down behaviours of separate groups of tests. However, the same effect can be achieved by separating the tests relating to different functions or classes into different files.

Test Fixtures

It is not uncommon to need to run some behaviour before or after each test or indeed before or after a group of tests. Such behaviours are defined within what is commonly known as test fixtures.

We can add specific code to run:

- at the beginning and end of a test class module of test code (`setup_module/teardown_module`)
- at the beginning and end of a test class (`setup_class/teardown_class`) or using the alternate style of the class level fixtures (`setup/teardown`)
- before and after a test function call (`setup_function/teardown_function`)
- before and after a test method call (`setup_method/teardown_method`)

To illustrate why we might use a fixture, let us expand our `Calculator` test:

```
def test_initial_value():
    calc = Calculator()
    assert calc.total == 0

def test_add_one():
    calc = Calculator()
    calc.set(1)
    calc.add()
    assert calc.total == 1

def test_subtract_one():
    calc = Calculator()
    calc.set(1)
    calc.sub()
    assert calc.total == -1

def test_add_one_and_one():
    calc = Calculator()
    calc.set(1)
    calc.add()
    calc.set(1)
    calc.add()
    assert calc.total == 2
```

We now have four tests to run (we could go further but this is enough for now).

One of the issues with this set of tests is that we have repeated the creation of the Calculator object at the start of each test. While this is not a problem in itself it does result in duplicated code and the possibility of future issues in terms of maintenance if we want to change the way a calculator is created. It may also not be as efficient as reusing the Calculator object for each test.

We can however, define a fixture that can be run before each individual test function is executed. To do this we will write a new function and use the `pytest.fixture` decorator on that function. This marks the function as being special and that it can be used as a fixture on an individual function.

Functions that require the fixture should accept a reference to the fixture as an argument to the individual test function. For example, for a test to accept a fixture called `calculator`; it should have an argument with the fixture name, i.e. `calculator`. This name can then be used to access the object returned. This is illustrated below:

```
import pytest
from calculator import Calculator

@pytest.fixture
def calculator():
    """Returns a Calculator instance"""
    return Calculator()

def test_initial_value(calculator):
    assert calculator.total == 0

def test_add_one(calculator):
    calculator.set(1)
    calculator.add()
    assert calculator.total == 1

def test_subtract_one(calculator):
    calculator.set(1)
    calculator.sub()
    assert calculator.total == -1

def test_add_one_and_one(calculator):
    calculator.set(1)
    calculator.add()
    calculator.set(1)
    calculator.add()
    assert calculator.total == 2
```

In the above code, each of the test functions accepts the calculator fixture that is used to instantiate the Calculator object. We have therefore *de-duplicated* our code; there is now only one piece of code that defines how a calculator object should be created for our tests. Note each test is supplied with a completely new instance of the Calculator object; there is therefore no chance of one test impacting on another test.

It is also considered good practice to add a *docstring* to your fixtures as we have done above. This is because PyTest can produce a list of all fixtures available along with their docstrings. From the command line this is done using:

```
> pytest fixtures
```

The PyTest fixtures can be applied to functions (as above), classes, modules, packages or sessions. The scope of a fixture can be indicated via the (optional) scope parameter to the fixture decorator. The default is “function” which is why we did not need to specify anything above. The scope determines at what point a fixture should be run. For example, a fixture with ‘session’ scope will be run once for the test session, a fixture with module scope will be run once for the module (that is the fixture and anything it generates will be shared across all tests in the current module), a fixture with class scope indicates a fixture that is run for each new instance of a test class created etc.

Another parameter to the fixture decorator is autouse which if set to True will activate the fixture for all tests that can see it. If it is set to False (which is the default) then an explicit reference in a test function (or method etc.) is required to activate the fixture.

If we add some additional fixtures to our tests we can see when they are run:

```
import pytest
from calculator import Calculator

@pytest.fixture(scope='session', autouse=True)
def session_scope_fixture():
    print('session_scope_fixture')

@pytest.fixture(scope='module', autouse=True)
def module_scope_fixture():
    print('module_scope_fixture')

@pytest.fixture(scope='class', autouse=True)
def class_scope_fixture():
    print('class_scope_fixture')

@pytest.fixture
def calculator():
    """Returns a Calculator instance"""
    print('calculator fixture')
    return Calculator()
```

```
def test_initial_value(calculator):
    assert calculator.total == 0

def test_add_one(calculator):
    calculator.set(1)
    calculator.add()
    assert calculator.total == 1

def test_subtract_one(calculator):
    calculator.set(1)
    calculator.sub()
    assert calculator.total == -1

def test_add_one_and_one(calculator):
    calculator.set(1)
    calculator.add()
    calculator.set(1)
    calculator.add()
    assert calculator.total == 2
```

If we run this version of the tests, then the output shows when the various fixtures are run:

```
session_scope_fixture
module_scope_fixture
class_scope_fixture
calculator fixture
.class_scope_fixture
calculator fixture
.class_scope_fixture
calculator fixture
.class_scope_fixture
calculator fixture
```

Note that higher scoped fixtures are instantiated first.

15.6 Parameterised Tests

One common requirement of a test to run the same tests multiple times with several different input values. This can greatly reduce the number of tests that must be defined. Such tests are referred to as parametrised tests; with the parameter values for the test specified using the `@pytest.mark.parametrize` decorator.

`@pytest.mark.parametrize` decorator.

```
@pytest.mark.parametrize('input1,input2,expected', [
    (3, 1, 4),
    (3, 2, 5),
])
def test_calculator_add_operation(calculator, input1,
    input2, expected):
    calculator.set(input1)
    calculator.add()
    calculator.set(input2)
    calculator.add()
    assert calculator.total == expected
```

This illustrates setting up a parametrised test for the Calculator in which two input values are added together and compared with the expected result. Note that the parameters are named in the decorator and then a list of tuples is used to define the values to be used for the parameters. In this case the `test_calculator_add_operation` will be run two passing in 3, 1 and 4 and then passing in 3, 2 and 5 for the parameters `input1`, `input2` and `expected` respectively.

Testing for Exceptions

You can write tests that verify that an exception was raised. This is useful as testing negative behaviour is as important as testing positive behaviour. For example, we might want to verify that a particular exception is raised when we attempt to withdraw money from a bank account which will take us over our overdraft limit.

To verify the presence of an exception in PyTest use the `with` statement and `pytest.raises`. This is a *context manager* that will verify on exit that the specified exception was raised. It is used as follows:

```
with pytest.raises(accounts.BalanceError):
    current_account.withdraw(200.0)
```

Ignoring Tests

In some cases it is useful to write a test for functionality that has not yet been implemented; this may be to ensure that the test is not forgotten or because it helps to document what the item under test should do. However, if the test is run then the test suite as a whole will fail because the test is running against behaviour that has yet to be written.

One way to address this problem is to decorate a test with the `@pytest.mark.skip` decorator:

```
@pytest.mark.skip(reason='not implemented yet')
def test_calculator_multiply(calculator):
    calculator.multiply(2, 3)
    assert calculator.total == 6
```

This indicates that PyTest should record the presence of the test but should not try to execute it. PyTest will then note that the test was skipped, for example in PyCharm this is shown using a circle with a line through it.

▼ Ø Test Results		0 ms
▼ Ø	test_calculator	0 ms
✓	test_initial_value	0 ms
✓	test_add_one	0 ms
✓	test_subtract_one	0 ms
✓	test_add_one_and_one	0 ms
▶	✓ test_calculator_add_operation	0 ms
Ø	test_calculator_multiply	0 ms

It is generally considered best practice to provide a reason why the test has been skipped so that it is easier to track. This information is also available when PyTest skips the test:



15.7 Online Resources

See the following online resources for information on PyTest:

- <http://pythontesting.net/framework/PyTest/PyTest-introduction/PyTest-introduction>.
- <https://github.com/pluralsight/intro-to-PyTest> An example based introduction to PyTest.
- <https://docs.pytest.org/en/latest/PyTest> home page.
- <https://docs.pytest.org/en/latest/#documentation> PyTest documentation.

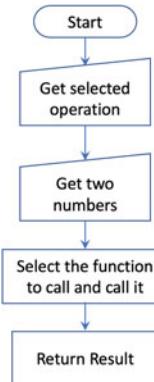
15.8 Exercises

Create a simple `Calculator` class that can be used for testing purposes. This simple calculator can be used to add, subtract, multiple and divide numbers.

This will be a purely command driven application that will allow the user to specify

- the operation to perform and
- the two numbers to use with that operation.

The `Calculator` object will then return a result. The same object can be used to repeat this sequence of steps. This general behaviour of the `Calculator` is illustrated below in flow chart form:



You should also provide a memory function that allows the current result to be added to or subtracted from the current memory total. It should also be possible to retrieve the value in memory and clear the memory.

Next write a PyTest set of tests for the `Calculator` class.

Think about what tests you need to write; remember you can't write tests for every value that might be used for an operation; but consider the boundaries, 0, -1, 1, -10, +10 etc.

Of course you also need to consider the cumulative effect of the behaviour of the memory feature of the calculator; that is multiple memory adds or memory subtractions and combinations of these.

As you identify tests you may find that you have to update your implementation of the `Calculator` class. Have you taken into account all input options, for example dividing by zero—what should happen in these situations.

Chapter 16

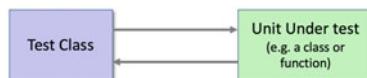
Mocking for Testing



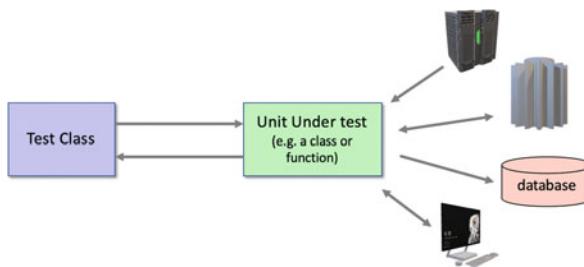
16.1 Introduction

Testing software systems is not an easy thing to do; the functions, objects, methods etc. That are involved in any program can be complex things in their own right. In many cases they depend on and interact with other functions, methods and objects; very few functions and methods operate in isolation. Thus the success or failure of a function or method or the overall state of an object is dependent on other program elements.

However, in general it is a lot easier to test a single *unit* in isolation rather than to test it as part of a larger more complex system. For example, let us take a Python class as a single *unit* to be tested. If we can test this class on its own we only have to take into account the state of the classes object and the behaviour defined for the class when writing our test and determining appropriate outcomes.



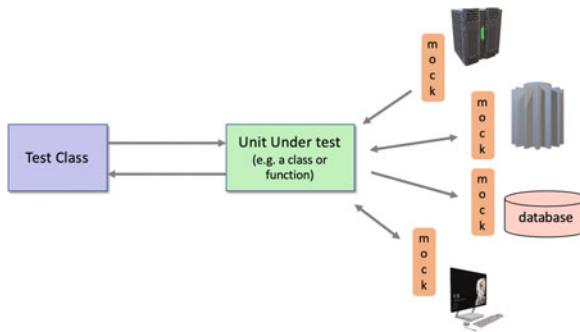
However, if that class interacts with external systems such as external services, databases, third party software, data sources etc. Then the testing process becomes more complex:



It may now be necessary to verify data updates made to the database, or information sent to a remote service etc. to confirm that the operation of a class's object is correct. This makes not only the software being tested more complex but it also makes the tests themselves more complex. This means that there is greater chance that the test will fail, that the tests will contain bugs or issues themselves and that the test will be harder for someone to understand and maintain. Thus a common objective when writing unit tests or subsystem tests is to be able to test elements/units in isolation.

The question is how to do this when a function or method relies on other elements?

The key to decoupling functions, methods and objects from other program or system elements is to use mocks. These mocks can be used to decouple one object from another, one function from another and one system from another; thereby simplifying the testing environment. These mocks are only intended to be used for testing purposes, for example the above scenario could be simplified by mocking out each of the external systems as shown below:



Mocking is not a Python specific concept and there are many mocking libraries available for many different languages. However, in this chapter we will be focussing on the `unites.mock` library which has been part of the standard Python distribution since Python 3.3.

16.2 Why Mock?

A useful first question to consider with regard to mocking, in software testing, is 'Why mock?'. That is, why bother with the concept of a mock in the first place; why not test with the *real thing*?

There are several answers to this, some of which are discussed below:

Testing in isolation is easier. As mentioned in the introduction, testing a unit (whether that is a class, a function, a module etc.) is easier in isolation than when dependent on external classes, functions, modules etc.

The real thing is not available. In many cases it is necessary to mock out part of a system or an interface to another system because the *real thing* is just not available. This could be for several reasons including that it has not been developed yet. In the natural course of software development some parts of a system are likely to be developed and ready for testing before other parts. If one part relies on another part for some element of its operation then the system that is not yet available can be mocked out. In other situations the development team or test team may not have access to the *real thing*. This may because it is only available within a production context. For example, if a software development house is developing one subsystem it may not have access to another subsystem as it is proprietary and only accessible once the software has been deployed within the client organisation.

Real elements can be time consuming. We want our tests to run as quickly as possible and certainly within a Continuous Integration (CI) environment we want them to run fast enough that we can repeatedly test a system throughout the day. In some situations the *real thing* may take a significant amount of time to process the test scenario. As we want to test our own code we may not be worried about whether a system outside of our control operates correctly or not (at least at this level of testing; it may still be a concern for integration and system testing). We can therefore improve the response times of our tests if we mock out the real system and replace it with a mock that provides much faster response times (possibly because it uses canned responses).

The real thing takes time to set up. In a Continuous Integration (CI) environment, new builds of a system are regularly and repeatedly tested (for example whenever a change is made to their codebase). In such situations it may be necessary to configure and deploy the final system to a suitable environment to perform appropriate tests. If an external system is time consuming to configure, deploy and initialise it may be more effective to mock that system out.

Difficult to emulate certain situations. It can be difficult within a test scenario to emulate specific situations. These situations are often related to error or exceptional circumstances that should never happen within a correctly functioning environment. However, it may well be necessary to validate that if such a situation does occur, then the software can deal with that scenario. If these scenarios are related to how external (the unit under test) system fail or operate incorrectly then it may be necessary to mock out these systems to be able to generate the scenarios.

We want repeatable tests. By their very nature when you run a test you either want it to pass or fail each time it is run with the same inputs. You certainly do not want tests that pass sometimes and fail other times. This means that there is no confidence in the tests and people often start ignoring failed tests. This situation can

happen if the data provided by systems that a test depends on do not supply repeatable data. This can happen for several different reason but a common cause is because they return real data. Such real data may be subject to change, for example consider a system that uses a data feed for the current exchange rate between funds and dollars. If the associated test confirms that a trade when priced in dollars is correctly converted to funds using the current exchange rate then that test is likely to generate a different result every time it is run. In this situation it would lie better to mock out the current exchange rate service so that a fixed/known exchange rate is used.

The Real System is not reliable enough. In some cases the real system may not be reliable enough itself to allow for repeatable tests.

The Real System may not allow tests to be repeated. Finally, the real system may not allow tests to be easily repeated. For example, a test which involves lodging a trade for a certain number of IBM shares with an Trade Order management system may not allow that trade, with those shares, for that customer to be run several times (as it would then appear to be multiple trades). However, for the purposes of testing we may want to test submitting such a trade in multipel different scenarios, multiple times. It may therefore be necessary to mock out the real Order Management System so that such tests can be written.

16.3 What Is Mocking?

The previous section gave several reasons to use mocks; the next thing to consider then is what is a mock?

Mocks, including mock functions, methods and mock objects are things that:

- Possess the same *interface* as the real thing, whether they are mock functions, methods or whole objects. They thus take the same range and types of parameters and return similar information using similar types.
- Define behaviour that in some way represents/mimics real exemplar behaviour but typically in very controlled ways. This behaviour may be hard coed, may really on a set of rules or simplified behaviour; may be very simplistic or quiet sophisticated in its own right.

They thus emulate the real system and from outside of the mock may actually appear to be the real system.

In many cases the term mock is used to cover a range of different ways in which the real thing can be emulated; each type of mock has its own characteristics. It is therefore useful to distinguish the different types of mocks as this can help determine the style of mock to be adopted in a particular test situation.

The are different types of Mock including:

- **Test Stubs.** A test stub is typically a hand coded function, method or object used for testing purposes. The behaviour implemented by a test stub may represent a limited sub set of the functionality of the real thing.
- **Fakes.** Fakes typically provide addition functionality compared with a Test Stub. Fakes may be considered to be a test specific version of the real thing, such as an in memory database used for testing rather than the real database. Such Fakes typically still have some limitations on their functionality, for example when the tests are terminated all data is purged from the in memory database rather than stored permanently on disk.
- **Autogenerated Test Mocks.** These are typically generated automatically using a supporting framework. As part of the set up of the test the expectations associated with the test mock. These expectations may specify the results to return for specific inputs as well as whether the test mock was called etc.
- **Test Mock Spy.** If we are testing a particular unit and it returns the correct result we might decided that we do not need to consider the internal behaviour of the unit. However, it is common to want to confirm that the test mock was invoked in the ay we expected. This helps verify the internal behaviour of the unit under test. This can be done using a test mock spy. Such a test mock records how many times it was called and what the parameters used where (as well as other information). The test can then interrogate the test mock to validate that it was invoked as expected/as many times as expected/with the correct parameters etc.

16.4 Common Mocking Framework Concepts

As has been mentioned there are several mocking frameworks around for not only Python but other languages such as Java, C# and Scala etc. All of these frameworks have a common core behaviour. This behaviour allows a mock function, method or object to be created based on the *interface* presented by the real thing. Of course unlike languages such as C# and Java Python does not have a formal interface concept; however this does not stop the mocking framework from still using the same idea.

In general once a mock has been created it is possible to define how that mock should appear to behave; in general this involves specifying the return result to use for a function or method. It is also possible to verify that the mock has been invoked as expected with the parameters expected.

The actual mock can be added to a test or a set of tests either programmatically or via some form of decorator. In either case for the duration of the test the mock will be used instead of the real thing.

Assertions can then be used to verify the results returned by the unit under test while mock specific methods are typically used to verify (spy on) the methods defined on the mock.

16.5 Mocking Frameworks for Python

Due to Python's dynamic nature it is well suited to the construction of mock functions, methods and objects. In fact there are several widely used mocking frameworks available for Python including:

- **unittest.mock** The `unittest.mock` (included in the Python distribution from Python 3.3 onwards). This is the default mocking library provided with Python for creating mock objects in Python tests.
- **pymox** This is a widely used mocking framework. It is an open source framework and has a more complete set of facilities for enforcing the interface of a mocked class.
- **Mocktest** This is another popular mocking framework. It has its own DSL (Domain Specific Language) to support mocking and a wide set of expectation matching behaviour for mock objects.

In the remainder of this chapter we will focus on the `unittest.mock` library as it is provided as part of the standard Python distribution.

16.6 The `unittest.mock` Library

The standard Python mocking library is the `unittest.mock` library. It has been included in the standard Python distribution since Python 3.3 and provides a simple way to define mocks for unit tests.

The key to the `unittest.mock` library is the `Mock` class and its subclass `MagicMock`. `Mock` and `MagicMock` objects can be used to *mock* functions, methods and even whole classes. These mock objects can have canned responses defined so that when they are involved by the unit under test they will respond appropriately. Existing objects can also have attributes or individual methods mocked allowing an object to be tested with a known state and specified behaviour.

To make it easy to work with mock objects, the library provides the `@unittest.mock.patch()` decorator. This decorator can be used to replace real functions and objects with mock instances. The function behind the decorator can also be used as a context manager allowing it to be used in `with-as` statements providing for fine grained control over the scope of the mock if required.

16.6.1 Mock and Magic Mock Classes

The `unittest.mock` library provides the `Mock` class and the `MagicMock` class. The `Mock` class is the base class for mock objects. The `MagicMock` class is a subclass of the `Mock` class. It is called the `MagicMock` class as it provides default implementations for several magic method such as `__len__()`, `__str__()`, and `__iter__()`.

As a simple example consider the following class to be tested:

```
class SomeClass():

    def _hidden_method(self):
        return 0

    def public_method(self, x):
        return self.hidden_method() + x
```

This class defines two methods; one is intended as part of the public interface of the class (`the public_method()`) and one it intended only for internal or private use (`the _hidden_method()`). Notice that the hidden method uses the convention of preceding its name by an underbar ('`_`').

Let us assume that we wish to test the behaviour of the `public_method()` and want to mock out the `_hidden_method()`.

We can do this by writing a test that will create a mock object and use this in place of the `real _hidden_method()`. We could probably use either the `Mock` class or the `MagicMock` class for this; however due to the additional functionality provided by the `MagicMock` class it is common practice to use that class. We will therefore do the same.

The test to be created will be defined within a method within a test class. The names of the test method and the test class are by convention descriptive and thus will describe what is being tested, for example:

```
from unittest.mock import *
from unittest import TestCase
from unittest import main

class test_SomeClass_public_interface(TestCase):

    def test_public_method(self):
        test_object = SomeClass()
        # Set up canned response on mock method
        test_object._hidden_method = MagicMock(name =
'hiddenn_method')
        test_object._hidden_method.return_value = 10
        # Test the object
        result = test_object.public_method(5)
        self.assertEqual(15, result, 'return value from
public_method incorrect')
```

In this case note that the class being tested is instantiated first. The `MagicMock` is then instantiated and assigned to the name of the method to be mocked. This in effect replaces that method for the `test_object`. The `MagicMock`. The `MagicMock` object is given a name as this helps with treating any issues in the report generated by the unites framework. Following this the canned response from the mock version of the `_hidden_method()` is defined; it will always return the value 10.

At this point we have set up the mock to be used for the test and are now ready to run the test. This is done in the next line where the `public_method()` is called on the `test_object` with the parameter 5. The result is then stored.

The test then validates the result to ensure that it is correct; i.e. that the returned value is 15.

Although this is a very simple example it illustrates how a method can be mocked out using the `MagicMock` class.

16.6.2 The Patchers

The `unittest.mock.patch()`, `unittest.mock.patch.object()` and `unittest.patch.dict()` decorators can be used to simplify the creation of mock objects.

- The `patch` decorator takes a target for the patch and returns a `MagicMock` object in its place. It can be used as a `TestCase` method or class decorator. As a class decorator it decorates each test method in the class automatically. It can also be used as a context manager via the `with` and `with-as` statements.
- The `patch.object` decorator can be provided with either two or three arguments. When given three arguments it will replace the object to be patched, with a mock for the given attribute/method name. When given two arguments the object to be patched is given a default `MagicMock` object for the specified attribute/function.
- The `patch.dict` decorator patches a dictionary or dictionary like object.

For example, we can rewrite the example presented in the previous section using the `@patch.object` decorator to provides the mock object for the `_hidden_method()` (it returns a `MagicMock` linked to `SomeClass`):

```
class test_SomeClass_public_interface(TestCase):  
  
    @patch.object(SomeClass, '_hidden_method')  
    def test_public_method(self, mock_method):  
        # Set up canned response  
        mock_method.return_value = 10  
        # Create object to be tested  
        test_object = SomeClass()  
        result = test_object.public_method(5)  
        self.assertEqual(15, result, 'return value from  
public method incorrect')
```

In the above code the `_hidden_method()` is replaced with a mock version for `SomeClass` within the `test_public_method()` method. Note that the mock version of the method is passed in as a parameter to the test method so that the canned response can be specified.

You can also use the `@patch()` decorator to mock a function from a module. For example, given some external module with a function `api_call`, we can mock that function out using the `@patch()` decorator:

```
@patch('external_module.api_call')  
def test_some_func(self, mock_api_call):
```

This uses `patch()` as a decorator and passed the target object's path. The target path was '`external_module.api_call`' which consists of the module name and the function to mock.

16.6.3 Mocking Returned Objects

In the examples looked at so far the results returned from the mock functions or methods have been simple integers. However, in some cases the returned values must themselves be mocked as the real system would return a complex object with multiple attributes and methods.

The following example uses a `MagicMock` object to represent an object returned from a mocked function. This object has two attributes, one is a response code and the other is a JSON string. JSON stands for the JavaScript Object Notation and is a commonly used format in web services.

```

import external_module

from unittest.mock import *

from unittest import TestCase
from unittest import main
import json

def some_func():
    # Calls out to external API - which we want to mock
    response = external_module.api_call()
    return response

class test_some_func_calling_api(TestCase):

class test_some_func_calling_api(TestCase):

    @patch('external_module.api_call')
    def test_some_func(self, mock_api_call):
        # Sets up mock version of api_call
        mock_api_call.return_value = MagicMock(status_code=200,
                                                response=json.dumps({'key': 'value'}))
        # Calls some_func() that calls the (mock) api_call()
        function
        result = some_func()
        # Check that the result returned from some_func() is
        what was expected
        self.assertEqual(result.status_code, 200, "returned
status code is not 200")
        self.assertEqual(result.response, '{"key": "value"}',
                        "response JSON incorrect")

```

In this example the function being tested is `some_func()` but `some_func()` calls out to the mocked function `external_module.api_call()`. This mocked function returns a `MagicMock` object with a pre-specified `status_code` and `response`. The assertions then validate that the object returned by `some_func()` contains the correct status code and response.

16.6.4 Validating Mocks Have Been Called

Using `unittest.mock` it is possible to validate that a mocked function or method was called appropriately using `assert_called()`, `assert_called_with()` or `assert_called_once_with()` depending on whether the function takes parameters or not.

The following version of the `test_some_func_with_params()` test method verifies that the mock `api_call()` function was called with the correct parameter.

```
@patch('external_module.api_call_with_param')
def test_some_func_with_param(self, mock_api_call):
    # Sets up mock version of api_call
    mock_api_call.return_value = MagicMock(status_code=200,
response=json.dumps({'age': '23'}))
    result = some_func_with_param('Phoebe')
    # Check result returned from some_func() is what was
expected
    self.assertEqual(result.response, '{age": "23"}', 'JSON
result incorrect')
    # Verify that the mock_api_call was called with the correct
params

    mock_api_call.api_call_with_param.assert_called_with('Phoebe')
```

If we wished to validate that it had only been called once we could use the `assert_called_once_with()` method.

16.7 Mock and MagicMock Usage

16.7.1 Naming Your Mocks

It can be useful to give your mocks a name. The name is used when the mock appears in test failure messages. The name is also propagated to attributes or methods of the mock:

```
mock = MagicMock(name='foo')
```

16.7.2 Mock Classes

As well as mocking an individual method on a class it is possible to mock a whole class. This is done by providing the `patch()` decorator with the name of the class to patch (with no named attribute/method). In this case the while class is replaced by a `MagicMock` object. You must then specify how that class should behave.

```
import people

from unittest.mock import *
from unittest import TestCase
from unittest import main

class MyTest(TestCase):

    @patch('people.Person')
    def test_one(self, MockPerson):
        self.assertIsInstance(people.Person, MockPerson)
        instance = MockPerson.return_value
        instance.calculate_pay.return_value = 250.0
        payroll = people.Payroll()
        result = payroll.generate_payslip(instance)
        self.assertEqual('You earned 250.0', result, 'payslip
incorrect')
```

In this example the `people.Person` class has been mocked out. This class has a method `calculate_pay()` which is being mocked here. The `Payroll` class has a method `generate_payslip()` that expects to be given a `Person` object. It then uses the information provided by the person objects `calculate_pay()` method to generate the string returned by the `generate_payslip()` method.

16.7.3 Attributes on Mock Classes

Attributes on a mock object can be easily defined, for example if we want to set an attribute on a mock object then we can just assign a value to the attribute:

```
import people
from unittest.mock import *
from unittest import TestCase

class MyTest(TestCase):

    @patch('people.Person')
    def test_one(self, MockPerson):
        self.assertIsInstance(people.Person, MockPerson)
        instance = MockPerson.return_value
        instance.age = 24
        instance.name = 'Adam'
        self.assertEqual(24, instance.age, 'age incorrect')
        self.assertEqual('Adam', instance.name, 'name
incorrect')
```

In this case the attribute `age` and `name` have been added to the mock instance of the `people.Person` class.

If the attribute itself needs to be a mock object then all that is required is to assign a `MagicMock` (or `Mock`) object to that attribute:

```
instance.address = MagicMock(name='Address')
```

16.7.4 Mocking Constants

It is very easy to mock out a constant; this can be done using the `@patch()` decorator and proving the name of the constant and the new value to use. This value can be a literal value such as 42 or 'Hello' or it can be a mock object itself (such as a `MagicMock` object). For example:

```
@patch('mymodule.MAX_COUNT', 10)
def test_something(self):
    # Test can now use mymodule.MAX_COUNT
```

16.7.5 Mocking Properties

It is also possible to mock Python properties. This is done again using the `@patch` decorator but using the `unittest.mock.PropertyMock` class and the `new_callable` parameter. For example:

```
@patch('mymodule.Car.wheels', new_callable=mock.PropertyMock)
def test_some_property(self, mock_wheels):
    mock_wheels.return_value = 6
    # Rest of test method
```

16.7.6 Raising Exceptions with Mocks

A very useful attribute that can be specified when a mock object is created is the `side_effect`. If you set this to an exception class or instance then the exception will be raised when the mock is called, for example:

```
mock = Mock(side_effect=Exception('Boom!'))
mock()
```

This will result in the `Exception` being raised when the `mock()` is invoked.

16.7.7 Applying Patch to Every Test Method

If you want to mock out something for every test in a test class then you can decorate the whole class rather than each individual method. The effect of decorating the class is that the patch will be automatically applied to all test methods in the class (i.e. To all methods starting with the word ‘test’). For example:

```
import people

from unittest.mock import *
from unittest import TestCase
from unittest import main

@patch('people.Person')
class MyTest(TestCase):

    def test_one(self, MockPerson):
        self.assertEqual(people.Person, MockPerson)

    def test_two(self, MockSomeClass):
        self.assertEqual(people.Person, MockSomeClass)

    def do_something(self):
        return 'something'
```

In the above test class, the tests `test_one` and `test_two` are supplied with the mock version of the `Person` class. However the `do_something()` method is not affected.

16.7.8 Using Patch as a Context Manager

The `patch` function can be used as a *context manager*. This gives fine grained control over the scope of the mock object.

In the following example the the `test_one()` method contains a `with-as` statement that we used to patch (mock) the person class as `MockPerson`. This mock class is only available within the `with-as` statement.

```
import people

from unittest.mock import *
from unittest import TestCase
from unittest import main

class MyTest(TestCase):

    def test_one(self):
        with patch('people.Person') as MockPerson:
            self.assertIsInstance(people.Person, MockPerson)
            instance = MockPerson.return_value
            instance.calculate_pay.return_value = 250.0
            payroll = people.Payroll()
            result = payroll.generate_payslip(instance)
            self.assertEqual('You earned 250.0', result,
                             'payslip incorrect')
```

16.8 Mock Where You Use It

The most common error made by people using the `unittest.mock` library is mocking in the wrong place. The rule is that you must mock out where you are going to use it; or to put it another way you must always mock the real thing where it is imported into, not where it's imported from.

16.9 Patch Order Issues

It is possible to have multiple `patch` decorators on a test method. However, the order in which you define the `patch` decorators is significant. The key to understanding what the order should be is to work backwards so that when the mocks are passed into the test method they are presented to the right parameters. For example:

```
@patch('mymodule.sys')
@patch('mymodule.os')
@patch('mymodule.os.path')
def test_something(self,
                  mock_os_path,
                  mock_os,
                  mock_sys):
    # The rest of the test method
```

Notice that the last patch's mock is passed into the second parameter passed to the `test_something()` method (`self` is the first parameter to all methods). In turn the first patch's mock is passed into the last parameter. Thus the mocks are passed into the test method in the reverse order to that which they are defined in.

16.10 How Many Mocks?

An interesting question to consider is how many mocks should you use per test?

This is the subject of a lot of debate within the software testing community. The general rules of thumb around this topic are given below, however it should be borne in mind that these are guidelines rather than hard and fast rules.

- **Avoid more than 2 or 3 mocks per test.** You should avoid more than 2–3 mocks as the mocks themselves get harder to manage. Many also consider that if you need more than 2–3 mocks per test then there are probably some underlying design issues that need to be considered. For example, if you are testing a Python class then that class may have too many dependencies. Alternatively the class may have too many responsibilities and should be broken down into several independent classes; each with a distinct responsibility. Another cause might be that the class's behaviour may not be encapsulated enough and that you are allowing other elements to interact with the class in more informal ways (i.e. The interface between the class and other elements is not clean/exploit enough). The result is that it may be necessary to refactor your class before progressing with your development and testing.
- **Only Mock your Nearest Neighbour.** You should only ever mock your nearest neighbour whether that is a function, method or object. You should try to avoid mocking dependencies of dependencies. If you find yourself doing this then it will become harder to configure, maintain, understand and develop. It is also increasingly likely that you are testing the mocks rather than your own function, method or class.

16.11 Mocking Considerations

The following provide some rules of thumb to consider when using mocks with your tests:

- **Don't over mock**—if you do then you can end up just testing the mocks themselves.

- **Decide what to mock**, typical examples of what to mock include those elements that are not yet available, those elements that are not by default repeatable (such as live data feeds) or those elements of the system that are time consuming or complex.
- **Decide where to mock** such as the interfaces for the unit under test. You want to test the unit so any interface it has with another system, function, class might be a candidate for a mock.
- **Decide when to mock** so that you can determine the boundaries for the test.
- **Decide how you will implement your mocks**. For example you need to consider which mocking framework(s) you will use or how to mock larger components such as a database.

16.12 Online Resources

There is a great deal of information available on how to mock, when to mock and what mock libraries to use, however the following provides useful starting points for Python mocking:

- <https://docs.python.org/3/library/unittest.mock.html> The Python Standard Library documentation on the unittest.mock library.
- <https://docs.python.org/3/library/unittest.mock-examples.html> A set of examples you can use to explore mocking using unites.mock.
- <https://pymox.readthedocs.io/en/latest/index.html> Pymox is an alternative open source mock object framework for Python.
- <http://gfxmonk.net/dist/doc/mocktest/doc> mocktest its yet another mocking library for Python.

16.13 Exercises

One of the reasons for mocking is to ensure that tests are repeatable. In this exercise we will mock out the use of a random number generate to ensure that our tests can be easily repeated.

The following program generates a deck of cards and randomly picks a card from the deck:

```
import random

def create_suite(suite):
    return [ (i, suite) for i in range(1, 14) ]

def pick_a_card(deck):
    print('You picked')
    position = random.randint(0, 52)
    print(deck[position][0], "of", deck[position][1])
    return (deck[position])

# Set up the data
hearts = create_suite('hearts')
spades = create_suite('spades')
diamonds = create_suite('diamonds')
clubs = create_suite('clubs')

# Make the deck of cards
deck = hearts + spades + diamonds + clubs

# Randomly pick from the deck of cards
card = pick_a_card(deck)
```

Each time the program is run a different card is picked, for example in two consecutive runs the following output is obtained:

```
You picked
13 of clubs
You picked
1 of hearts
```

We now want to write a test for the `pick_a_card()` function. You should mock out the `random.randint()` function to do this.

Part IV

File Input/Output

Chapter 17

Introduction to Files, Paths and IO



17.1 Introduction

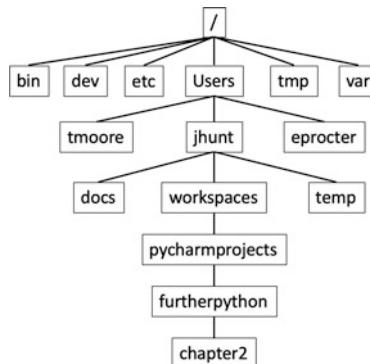
The operating system is a critical part of any computer systems. It is comprised of elements that manage the processes that run on the CPU, how memory is utilised and managed, how peripheral devices are used (such as printers and scanners), it allows the computer system to communicate with other systems and it also provide support for the file system used.

The File System allows programs to permanently store data. This data can then be retrieved by applications at a later date; potentially after the whole computer has been shut down and restarted.

The File Management System is responsible for managing the creation, access and modification of the long term storage of data in files.

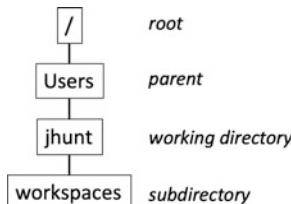
This data may be stored locally or remotely on disks, tapes, DVD drives, USB drives etc.

Although this was not always the case; most modern operating systems organise files into a hierarchical structure, usually in the form of an inverted tree. For example in the following diagram the root of the directory structure is shown as '/'. This `root` directory holds six subdirectories. In turn the `Users` subdirectory holds 3 further directories and so on:



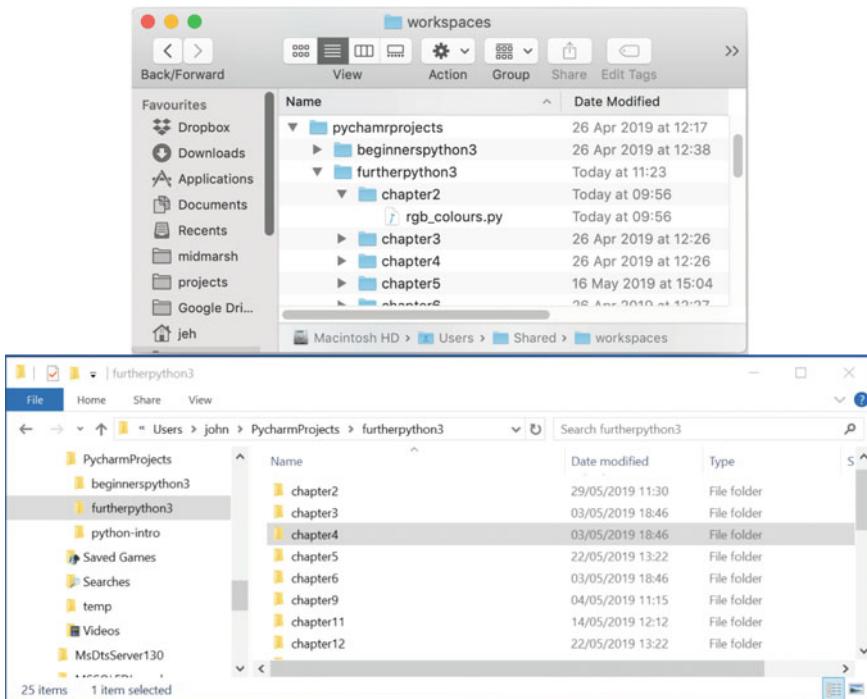
Each file is contained within a directory (also known as a folder on some operating systems such as Windows). A directory can hold zero or more files and zero or more directories.

For any given directory there are relationships with other directories as shown below for the directory `jhunt`:



The `root` directory is the starting point for the hierarchical directory tree structure. A child directory of a given directory is known as a `subdirectory`. The directory that holds the given directory is known as the `parent directory`. At any one time, the directory within which the program or user is currently working, is known as the `current working directory`.

A user or a program can move around this directory structure as required. To do this the user can typically either issue a series of commands at a terminal or command window. Such as `cd` to change directory or `pwd` to print the working directory. Alternatively Graphical User Interfaces (GUIs) to operating systems usually include some form of file manager application that allows a user to view the file structure in terms of a tree. The Finder program for the Mac is shown below with a tree structure displayed for a `pycharmprojects` directory. A similar view is also presented for the Windows Explorer program.



17.2 File Attributes

A file will have a set of attributes associated with it such as the date that it was created, the date it was last updated/modified, how large the file is etc. It will also typically have an attribute indicating who the owner of the file is. This may be the creator of the file; however the ownership of a file can be changed either from the command line or through the GUI interface. For example, on Linux and Mac OS X the command `chown` can be used to change the file ownership.

It can also have other attributes which indicate who can read, write or execute the file. In Unix style systems (such as Linux and Mac OS X) these access rights can be specified for the file owner, for the group that the file is associated with and for all other users.

The file owner can have rights specified for reading, writing and executing a file. These are usually represented by the symbols ‘r’, ‘w’ and ‘x’ respectively. For example the following uses the symbolic notation associated with Unix files and indicates that the file owner is allowed to read, write and execute a file:

```
-rwx----
```

Here the first dash is left blank as it is to do with special files (or directories), then the next set of three characters represent the permissions for the owner, the following set of three the permissions for all other users. As this example has `rwx` in

the first group of three characters this indicates that the user can read ‘r’, write ‘w’ and execute ‘x’ the file. However the next six characters are all dashes indicating that the group and all other users cannot access the file at all.

The group that a file belongs to is a group that can have any number of users as members. A member of the group will have the access rights as indicated by the group settings on the file. As for the owner of a file these can be to read, write or execute the file. For example, if group members are allowed to read and execute a file, then this would be shown using the symbolic notation as:

```
-----r-x---
```

Now this example indicates that only members of the group can read and execute the file; note that group members cannot write the file (they therefore cannot modify the file).

If a user is not the owner of a file, nor a member of the group that the file is part of, then their access rights are in the ‘everyone else’ category. Again this category can have read, write or execute permissions. For example, using the symbolic notation, if all users can read the file but are not able to do anything else, then this would be shown as:

```
-----r--
```

Of course a file can mix the above permissions together, so that an owner may be allowed to read, write and execute a file, the group may be able to read and execute the file but all other users can only read the file. This would be shown as:

```
-rwxr-xr--
```

In addition to the symbolic notation there is also a numeric notation that is used with Unix style systems. The numeric notation uses three digits to represent the permissions. Each of the three *rightmost* digits represents a different component of the permissions: owner, group, and others.

Each of these digits is the sum of its component bits in the binary numeral system. As a result, specific bits add to the sum as it is represented by a numeral:

- The read bit adds 4 to its total (in binary 100),
- The write bit adds 2 to its total (in binary 010), and
- The execute bit adds 1 to its total (in binary 001).
- This the following symbolic notations can be represented by an equivalent numeric notation:

Symbolic notation	Numeric notation	Meaning
rwx---	0700	Read, write, and execute only for owner
-rwxrwx--	0770	Read, write, and execute for owner and group
-rwxrwxrwx	0777	Read, write, and execute for owner, group and others

Directories have similar attributes and access rights to files. For example, the following symbolic notation indicates that a directory (indicated by the ‘d’) has read and execute permissions for the directory owner and for the group. Other users cannot access this directory:

```
dr-xr-x---
```

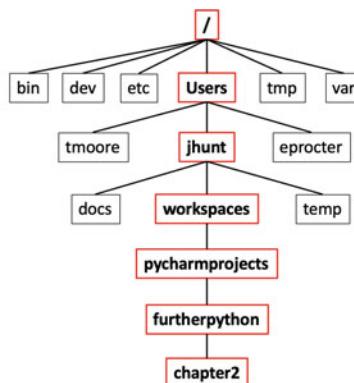
The permissions associated with a file or directory can be changed either using a command from a terminal or command window (such as chmod which is used to modify the permissions associated with a file or directory) or interactively using the file explorer style tool.

17.3 Paths

A path is a particular combination of directories that can lead to a specific subdirectory or file.

This concept is important as Unix/Linux/Max OS X and Windows file systems represent an inverted tree of directories and files.. It is thus important to be able to uniquely reference locations with the tree.

For example, in the following diagram the path /Users/jhunt/workspaces/pycharmprojects/furtherpython/chapter2 is highlighted:



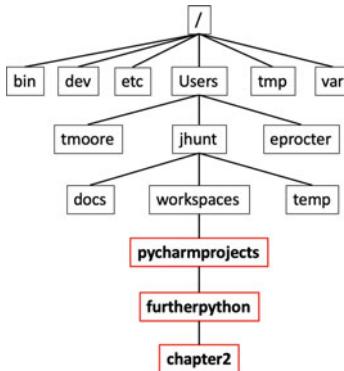
Path: /Users/jhunt/workspaces/pycharmprojects/furtherpython/chapter2

A path may be absolute or relative. An absolute path is one which provides a complete sequence of directories from the root of the file system to a specific subdirectory or file.

A relative path provides a sequence from the current working directory to a particular subdirectory or file.

The absolute path will work wherever a program or user is currently located within the directory tree. However, a relative path may only be relevant in a specific location.

For example, in the following diagram, the relative path `pycharmprojects/furtherpython/chapter2` is only meaningful relative to the directory `workspaces`:



Relative path: `pycharmprojects/furtherpython/chapter2`

Note that an absolute path starts from the root directory (represented by '/') whereas a relative path starts from a particular subdirectory (such as `pycharmprojects`).

17.4 File Input/Output

File Input/Output (often just referred to as File I/O) involves reading and writing data to and from files. The data being written can be in different formats.

For example a common format used in Unix/Linux and Windows systems is the ASCII text format. The ASCII format (or American Standard Code for Information Interchange) is a set of codes that represent various characters that is widely used by operating systems. The following table illustrates some of the ASCII character codes and what they represent:

Decimal code	Character	Meaning
42	*	Asterisk
43	+	Plus
48	0	Zero
49	1	One
50	2	Two
51	3	Three
65	A	Uppercase A
66	B	Uppercase B
67	C	Uppercase C
68	D	Uppercase D

(continued)

(continued)

Decimal code	Character	Meaning
97	a	Lowercase a
98	b	Lowercase b
99	c	Lowercase c
100	d	Lowercase d

ASCII is a very useful format to use for text files as they can be read by a wide range of editors and browsers. These editors and browsers make it very easy to create human readable files. However, programming languages such as Python often use a different set of character encodings such as a Unicode character encoding (such as UTF-8). Unicode is another standard for representing characters using various codes. Unicode encoding systems offer a wider range of possible character encodings than ASCII, for example the latest version of Unicode in May 2019, Unicode 12.1, contains a repertoire of 137,994 characters covering 150 modern and historic scripts, as well as multiple symbol sets and emojis.

However, this means that it can be necessary to translate ASCII into Unicode (e.g. UTF-8) and vice versa when reading and writing ASCII files in Python.

Another option is to use a binary format for data in a file. The advantage of using binary data is that there is little or no translation required from the internal representation of the data used in the Python program into the format stored in the file. It is also often more concise than an equivalent ASCII format and it is quicker for a program to read and write and takes up less disk space etc. However, the down side of a binary format is that it is not in an easily human readable format. It may also be difficult for other programs, particularly those written in other programming languages such as Java or C#, to read the data in the files.

17.5 Sequential Access Versus Random Access

Data can be read from (or indeed written to) a file either sequentially or via a random access approach.

Sequential access to data in a file means that the program reads (or writes) data to a file sequentially, starting at the beginning of a file and processing the data an item at a time until the end of the file is reached. The read process only ever moves forward and only to the next item of data to read.

Random Access to a data file means that the program can read (or write) data anywhere into the file at any time. That is the program can position itself at a particular point in the file (or rather a pointer can be positioned within the file) and it can then start to read (or write) at that point. If it is reading then it will read the next data item relative to the pointer rather than the start of the file. If it is writing data then it will write data from that point rather than at the end of the file. If there is already data at that point in the file then it will be over written. This type of access is

also known as Direct Access as the computer program needs to know where the data is stored within the file and thus goes directly to that location for the data. In some cases the location of the data is recorded in an index and thus is also known as indexed access.

Sequential file access has advantages when a program needs to access information in the same order each time the data is read. It is also faster to read or write all the data sequentially than via direct access as there is no need to move the file pointer around.

Random access files however are more flexible as data does not need to be written or read in the order in which it is obtained. It is also possible to jump to just the location of the data required and read that data (rather than needing to sequentially read through all the data to find the data items of interest).

17.6 Files and I/O in Python

In the remainder of this section of the book we will explore the basic facilities provided for reading and writing files in Python. We will also look at the underlying streams model for file I/O. After this we will explore the widely used CSV and Excel file formats and libraries available to support those. This section concludes by exploring the Regular Expression facilities in Python. While this last topic is not strictly part of file I/O it is often used to parse data read from files to screen out unwanted information.

17.7 Online Resources

See the following online resources for information on the topics in this chapter:

- <https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/ASCII> Wikipedia page on ASCII.
- <https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Unicode> Wikipedia page on Unicode.
- <https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/UTF-8> Wikipedia page on UTF-8.

Chapter 18

Reading and Writing Files



18.1 Introduction

Reading data from and writing data to a file is very common within many programs. Python provides a large amount of support for working with files of various types. This chapter introduces you to the core file IO functionality in Python.

18.2 Obtaining References to Files

Reading from, and writing to, text files in Python is relatively straightforward. The built in `open()` function creates a file object for you that you can use to read and/or write data from and/or to a file.

The function requires as a minimum the name of the file you want to work with.

Optionally you can specify the access mode (e.g. read, write, append etc.). If you do not specify a mode then the file is open in read-only mode. You can also specify whether you want the interactions with the file to be buffered which can improve performance by grouping data reads together.

The syntax for the `open()` function is

```
file_object = open(file_name, access_mode, buffering)
```

Where

- `file_name` indicates the file to be accessed.
- `access_mode` The `access_mode` determines the mode in which the file is to be opened, i.e. read, write, append, etc. A complete list of possible values is given below in the table. This is an optional parameter and the default file access mode is `read (r)`.

- **buffering** If the buffering value is set to 0, no buffering takes place. If the buffering value is 1, line buffering is performed while accessing a file.

The `access_mode` values are given in the following table.

Mode	Description
r	Opens a file for reading only. The file pointer is placed at the beginning of the file. This is the default mode
rb	Opens a file for reading only in binary format. The file pointer is placed at the beginning of the file. This is the default mode
r+	Opens a file for both reading and writing. The file pointer placed at the beginning of the file
rb+	Opens a file for both reading and writing in binary format. The file pointer placed at the beginning of the file
w	Opens a file for writing only. Overwrites the file if the file exists. If the file does not exist, creates a new file for writing
wb	Opens a file for writing only in binary format. Overwrites the file if the file exists. If the file does not exist, creates a new file for writing
w+	Opens a file for both writing and reading. Overwrites the existing file if the file exists. If the file does not exist, creates a new file for reading and writing
wb+	Opens a file for both writing and reading in binary format. Overwrites the existing file if the file exists. If the file does not exist, creates a new file for reading and writing
a	Opens a file for appending. The file pointer is at the end of the file if the file exists. That is, the file is in the append mode. If the file does not exist, it creates a new file for writing
ab	Opens a file for appending in binary format. The file pointer is at the end of the file if the file exists. That is, the file is in the append mode. If the file does not exist, it creates a new file for writing
a+	Opens a file for both appending and reading. The file pointer is at the end of the file if the file exists. The file opens in the append mode. If the file does not exist, it creates a new file for reading and writing
ab+	Opens a file for both appending and reading in binary format. The file pointer is at the end of the file if the file exists. The file opens in the append mode. If the file does not exist, it creates a new file for reading and writing

The file object itself has several useful attributes such as

- `file.closed` returns True if the file has been closed (can no longer be accessed because the `close()` method has been called on it).
- `file.mode` returns the access mode with which the file was opened.
- `file.name` The name of the file.

The `file.close()` method is used to close the file once you have finished with it. This will flush any unwritten information to the file (this may occur because of buffering) and will close the reference from the file object to the actual underlying operating system file. This is important to do as leaving a reference to a file open can cause problems in larger applications as typically there are only a certain number of file references possible at one time and over a long period of time these

may all be used up resulting in future errors being thrown as files can no longer be opened.

The following short code snippet illustrates the above ideas:

```
file = open('myfile.txt', 'r+')
print('file.name:', file.name)
print('file.closed:', file.closed)
print('file.mode:', file.mode)
file.close()
print('file.closed now:', file.closed)
```

The output from this is:

```
file.name: myfile.txt
file.closed: False
file.mode: r+
file.closed now: True
```

18.3 Reading Files

Of course, having set up a file object we want to be able to either access the contents of the file or write data to that file (or do both). Reading data from a text file is supported by the `read()`, `readline()` and `readlines()` methods:

- The `read()` method This method will return the entire contents of the file as a single string.
- The `readline()` method reads the next line of text from a file. It returns all the text on one line up to and including the newline character. It can be used to read a file a line at a time.
- The `readlines()` method returns a list of all the lines in a file, where each item of the list represents a single line.

Note that once you have read some text from a file using one of the above operations then that line is not read again. Thus using `readlines()` would result in a further `readlines()` returning an empty list whatever the contents of the file.

The following illustrates using the `readlines()` method to read all the text in a text file into a program and then print each line out in turn:

```
file = open('myfile.txt', 'r')
lines = file.readlines()
for line in lines:
    print(line, end=' ')
file.close()
```

Notice that within the `for` loop we have indicated to the `print` function that we want the end character to be `' '` rather than a newline; this is because the line string already possesses the newline character read from the file.

18.4 File Contents Iteration

As suggested by the previous example; it is very common to want to process the contents of a file one line at a time. In fact Python makes this extremely easy by making the file object support iteration. File iteration accesses each line in the file and makes that line available to the `for` loop. We can therefore write:

```
file = open('myfile.txt', 'r')
for line in file:
    print(line, end='')
file.close()
```

It is also possible to use the *list comprehension* to provide a very concise way to load and process lines in a file into a list. It is similar to the effect of `readlines()` but we are now able to pre-process the data before creating the list:

```
file = open('myfile.txt', 'r')
lines = [line.upper() for line in file]
file.close()
print(lines)
```

18.5 Writing Data to Files

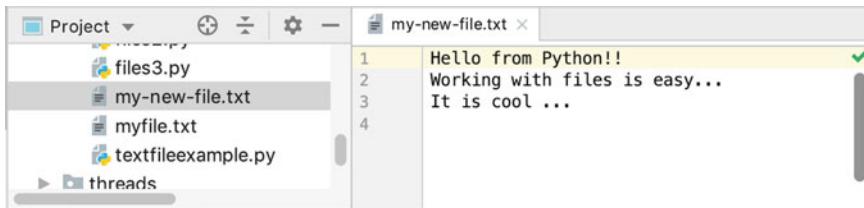
Writing a string to a file is supported by the `write()` method. Of course, the file object we create must have an access mode that allows writing (such as `'w'`). Note that the `write` method *does not* add a newline character (represented as `'\n'`) to the end of the string—you must do this manually.

An example short program to write a text file is given below:

```
print('Writing file')
f = open('my-new-file.txt', 'w')
f.write('Hello from Python!!\n')
f.write('Working with files is easy...\\n')
f.write('It is cool ...\\n')
f.close()
```

This creates a new file called `my-new-file.txt`. It then writes three strings to the file each with a newline character on the end; it then closes the file.

The effect of this is to create a new file called `myfile.txt` with three lines in it:



18.6 Using Files and with Statements

Like several other types where it is important to shut down resources; the `file` object class implements the *Context Manager Protocol* and thus can be used with the `with` statement. It is therefore common to write code that will open a file using the `with` as structure thus ensuring that the file will be closed when the block of code is finished with, for example:

```
with open('my-new-file.txt', 'r') as f:  
    lines = file.readlines()  
    for line in lines:  
        print(line, end='')
```

18.7 The Fileinput Module

In some situations, you may need to read the input from several files in one go. You could do this by opening each file independently and then reading the contents and appending that contents to a list etc. However, this is a common enough requirement that the `fileinput` module provides a function `fileinput.input()` that can take a list of files and treat all the files as a single input significantly simplifying this process, for example:

```
with fileinput.input(files=('spam.txt', 'eggs.txt')) as f:  
    for line in f:  
        process(line)
```

Features provided by the `fileinput` module include

- Return the name of the file currently being read.
- Return the integer “file descriptor” for the current file.
- Return the cumulative line number of the line that has just been read.
- Return the line number in the current file. Before the first line has been read this returns 0.
- A boolean function that indicates if the current line just read is the first line of its file

Some of these are illustrated below:

```
with fileinput.input(files=['textfile1.txt',
    'textfile2.txt']) as f:
    line = f.readline()
    print('f.filename():', f.filename())
    print('f.isfirstline():', f.isfirstline())
    print('f.lineno():', f.lineno())
    print('f.filelineno():', f.filelineno())
    for line in f:
        print(line, end='')
```

18.8 Renaming Files

A file can be renamed using the `os.rename()` function. This function takes two arguments, the current filename and the new filename. It is part of the Python `os` module which provides methods that can be used to perform a range of file-processing operations (such as renaming a file). To use the module, you will first need to import it. An example of using the `rename` function is given below:

```
import os
os.rename('myfileoriginalname.txt', 'myfilenewname.txt')
```

18.9 Deleting Files

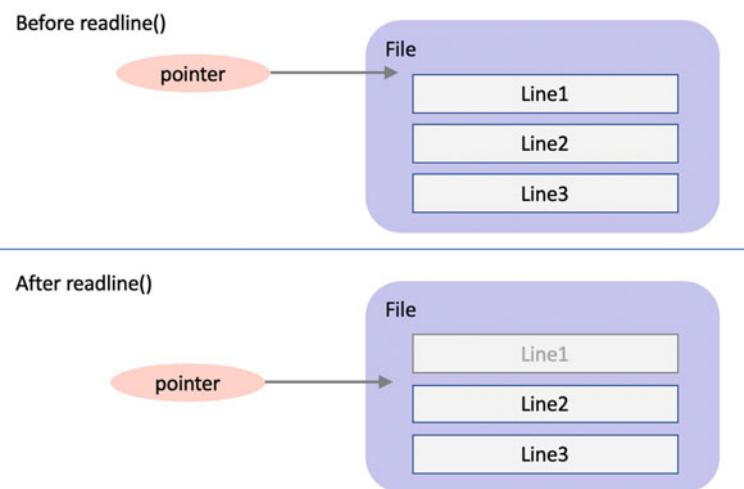
A file can be deleted using the `os.remove()` method. This method deletes the file specified by the filename passed to it. Again, it is part of the `os` module and therefore this must be imported first:

```
import os
os.remove('somefilename.txt')
```

18.10 Random Access Files

All the examples presented so far suggest that files are accessed sequentially, with the first line read before the second and so on. Although this is (probably) the most common approach it is not the only approach supported by Python; it is also possible to use a random-access approach to the contents within a file.

To understand the idea of random file access it is useful to understand that we can maintain a pointer into a file to indicate where we are in that file in terms of reading or writing data. Before anything is read from a file the pointer is before the beginning of the file and reading the first line of text would for example, advance the point to the start of the second line in the file etc. This idea is illustrated below:



When randomly accessing the contents of a file the programmer manually moves the pointer to the location required and reads or writes text relative to that pointer. This means that they can move around in the file reading and writing data.

The random-access aspect of a file is provided by the `seek` method of the file object:

- `file.seek(offset, whence)` this method determines where the next read or write operation (depending on the mode used in the `open()` call) takes place.

In the above the `offset` parameter indicates the position of the read/ write pointer within the file. The move can also be forwards or backwards (represented by a negative offset).

The optional `whence` parameter indicates where the offset is relative to. The values used for `whence` are:

- 0 indicates that the offset is relative to start of file (the default).
- 1 means that the offset is relative to the current pointer position.
- 2 indicates the offset is relative to end of file.

Thus, we can move the pointer to a position relative to the start of the file, to the end of the file, or to the current position.

For example, in the following sample code we create a new text file and write a set of characters into that file. At this point the pointer is positioned after the ‘z’ in the file. However, we then use `seek()` to move the point to the 10th character in the file and now write ‘Hello’, next we reposition the pointer to the 6th character in the file and write out ‘BOO’. We then close the file. Finally, we read all the lines from the file using a `with` statement and the `open()` function and from this we will see that the text in the file is now abcdef~~Hello~~**BOOjHELLO**pqrstuvwxyz:

```
f = open('text.txt', 'w')
f.write('abcdefghijklmnopqrstuvwxyz\n')
f.seek(10,0)
f.write('HELLO')
f.seek(6, 0)
f.write ('BOO')
f.close()
with open('text.txt', 'r') as f:
    for line in f:
        print(line, end='')
```

18.11 Directories

Both Unix like systems and Windows operating systems are hierarchical structures comprising directories and files. The `os` module has several functions that can help with creating, removing and altering directories. These include:

- `mkdir()` This function is used to create a directory, it takes the name of the directory to create as a parameter. If the directory already exists `FileExistsError` is raised.
- `chdir()` This function can be used to change the current working directory. This is the directory that the application will read from/ write to by default.
- `getcwd()` This function returns a string representing the name of the current working directory.
- `rmdir()` This function is used to remove/ delete a directory. It takes the name of the directory to delete as a parameter.
- `listdir()` This function returns a list containing the names of the entries in the directory specified as a parameter to the function (if no name is given the current directory is used).

A simple example illustrates the use of some of these functions is given below:

```
import os
print('os.getcwd(:', os.getcwd())
print('List contents of directory')
print(os.listdir())
print('Create mydir')
os.mkdir('mydir')
print('List the updated contents of directory')
print(os.listdir())
print('Change into mydir directory')
os.chdir('mydir')
print('os.getcwd(:', os.getcwd())
print('Change back to parent directory')
os.chdir('..')
print('os.getcwd(:', os.getcwd())
print('Remove mydir directory')
os.rmdir('mydir')
print('List the resulting contents of directory')
print(os.listdir())
```

Note that ‘..’ is a short hand for the parent directory of the current directory and ‘.’ is short hand for the current directory.

An example of the type of output generated by this program for a specific set up on a Mac is given below:

```
os.getcwd():
/Users/Shared/workspaces/pycharm/pythonintro/textfiles
List contents of directory
['my-new-file.txt', 'myfile.txt', 'textfile1.txt',
'textfile2.txt']
Create mydir
List the updated contents of directory
['my-new-file.txt', 'myfile.txt', 'textfile1.txt',
'textfile2.txt', 'mydir']
Change into mydir directory
os.getcwd():
/Users/Shared/workspaces/pycharm/pythonintro/textfiles/mydir
Change back to parent directory
os.getcwd():
/Users/Shared/workspaces/pycharm/pythonintro/textfiles
Remove mydir directory
List the resulting contents of directory
['my-new-file.txt', 'myfile.txt', 'textfile1.txt',
'textfile2.txt']
```

18.12 Temporary Files

During the execution of many applications it may be necessary to create a temporary file that will be created at one point and deleted before the application finishes. It is of course possible to manage such temporary files yourself however, the `tempfile` module provides a range of facilities to simplify the creation and management of these temporary files.

Within the `tempfile` module `TemporaryFile`, `NamedTemporaryFile`, `TemporaryDirectory`, and `SpoooledTemporaryFile` are high-level file objects which provide automatic cleanup of temporary files and directories. These objects implement the *Context Manager Protocol*.

The `tempfile` module also provides the lower-level function `mks temp()` and `mkd temp()` that can be used to create temporary files that require the developer to management them and delete them at an appropriate time.

The high-level feature for the `tempfile` module are:

- `TemporaryFile(mode='w+b')` Return an anonymous file-like object that can be used as a temporary storage area. On completion of the managed context (via a `with` statement) or destruction of the file object, the temporary file will be removed from the filesystem. Note that by default all data is written to the temporary file in binary format which is generally more efficient.
- `NamedTemporaryFile(mode='w+b')` This function operates exactly as `TemporaryFile()` does, except that the file has a visible name in the file system.
- `SpoooledTemporaryFile(max_size=0, mode='w+b')` This function operates exactly as `TemporaryFile()` does, except that data is spooled in memory until the file size exceeds `max_size`, or until the file's `fileno()` method is called, at which point the contents are written to disk and operation proceeds as with `TemporaryFile()`.
- `TemporaryDirectory(suffix=None, prefix=None, dir=None)` This function creates a temporary directory. On completion of the context or destruction of the temporary directory object the newly created temporary directory and all its contents are removed from the filesystem.

The lower level functions include:

- `mks temp()` Creates a temporary file that is only readable or writable by the user who created it.
- `mkd temp()` Creates a temporary directory. The directory is readable, writable, and searchable only by the creating user ID.
- `gettempdir()` Return the name of the directory used for temporary files. This defines the default value for the default temporary directory to be used with the other functions in this module.

An example of using the `TemporaryFile` function is given below. This code imports the `tempfile` module then prints out the default directory used for

temporary files. It then creates a `TemporaryFile` object and prints its name and mode (the default mode is binary but for this example we have overwritten this so that plain text is used). We have then written a line to the file. Using `seek` we are repositioning ourselves at the start of the file and then reading the line we have just written.

```
import tempfile

print('tempfile.gettempdir():', tempfile.gettempdir())
temp = tempfile.TemporaryFile('w+')
print('temp.name:', temp.name)
print('temp.mode:', temp.mode)
temp.write('Hello world!')
temp.seek(0)
line = temp.readline()
print('line:', line)
```

The output from this when run on an Apple Mac is:

```
tempfile.gettempdir():
/var/folders/6n/8nrnt9f93pn66ypg9s5dq8y80000gn/T
temp.name: 4
temp.mode: w+
line: Hello world!
```

Note that the file name is ‘4’ and that the temporary directory is not a meaningful name!

18.13 Working with Paths

The `pathlib` module provides a set of classes representing filesystem paths; that is paths through the hierarchy of directories and files within an operating systems file structure. It was introduced in Python 3.4. The core class in this module is the `Path` class.

A `Path` object is useful because it provides operations that allow you to manipulate and manage the path to a file or directory. The `Path` class also replicates some of the operations available from the `os` module (such as `mkdir`, `rename` and `rmdir`) which means that it is not necessary to work directly with the `os` module.

A path object is created using the `Path` constructor function; this function actually returns a specific type of `Path` depending on the type of operating system being used such as a `WindowsPath` or a `PosixPath` (for Unix style systems).

The Path() constructor takes the path to create for example ‘D:/mydir’ (on Windows) or ‘/Users/user1/mydir’ on a Mac or ‘/var/temp’ on Linux etc.

You can then use several different methods on the Path object to obtain information about the path such as:

- exists() returns True or False depending on whether the path points to an existing file or directory.
- is_dir() returns True if the path points to a directory. False if it references a file. False is also returned if the path does not exist.
- is_file() returns True if the path points to a file, it returns False if the path does not exist or the path references a directory.
- absolute() A Path object is considered absolute if it has both a root and (if appropriate) a drive.
- is_absolute() returns a Boolean value indicating whether the Path is absolute or not.

An example of using some of these methods is given below:

```
from pathlib import Path
print('Create Path object for current directory')
p = Path('.')
print('p:', p)
print('p.exists():', p.exists())
print('p.is_dir():', p.is_dir())
print('p.is_file():', p.is_file())
print('p.absolute():', p.absolute())
```

Sample output produced by this code snippet is:

```
Create Path object for current directory
p: .
p.exists(): True
p.is_dir(): True
p.is_file(): False
p.absolute():
/Users/Shared/worksheets/pycharm/pythonintro/textfiles
```

There are also several methods on the Path class that can be used to create and remove directories and files such as:

- mkdir() is used to create a directory path if it does not exist. If the path already exists, then a FileExistsError is raised.
- rmdir() remove this directory; the directory must be empty otherwise an error will be raised.

- `rename(target)` rename this file or directory to the given target.
- `unlink()` removes the file referenced by the path object.
- `joinpath(*other)` appends elements to the path object e.g. `path.joinpath('/temp')`.
- `with_name(new_name)` return a new path object with the name changed.
- The `'/'` operator can also be used to create new path objects from existing paths for example `path/ 'test' / 'output'` which would append the directories `test` and `out` to the path object.

Two Path class methods can be used to obtain path objects representing key directories such as the current working directory (the directory the program is logically in at that point) and the home directory of the user running the program:

- `Path.cwd()` return a new path object representing the current directory.
- `Path.home()` return a new path object representing the user's home directory.

An example using several of the above features is given below. This example obtains a path object representing the current working directory and then appends 'text' to this. The result path object is then checked to see if the path exists (on the computer running the program), assuming that the path does not exist it is created and the `exists()` method is rerun.

```
p = Path.cwd()
print('Set up new directory')
newdir = p / 'test'
print('Check to see if newdir exists')
print('newdir.exists():', newdir.exists())
print('Create new dir')
newdir.mkdir()
print('newdir.exists():', newdir.exists())
```

The effect of creating the directory can be seen in the output:

```
Set up new directory
Check to see if newdir exists
newdir.exists(): False
Create new dir
newdir.exists(): True
```

A very useful method in the Path object is the `glob(pattern)` method. This method returns all elements within the path that meet the pattern specified.

For example `path.glob('* .py')` will return all the files ending .py within the current path.

Note that ‘**/* .py’ would indicate the current directory and any sub directory. For example, the following code will return all files where the file name ends with ‘.txt’ for a given path:

```
print('-' * 10)

for file in path.glob('*.*txt'):
    print('file:', file)

print('-' * 10)
```

An example of the output generated by this code is:

```
-----
file: my-new-file.txt
file: myfile.txt
file: textfile1.txt
file: textfile2.txt
-----
```

Paths that reference a file can also be used to read and write data to that file. For example the `open()` method can be used to open a file that by default allows a file to be read:

- `open(mode='r')` this can be used to open the file referenced by the path object.

This is used below to read the contents of a file a line at a time (note that `with as` statement is used here to ensure that the file represented by the `Path` is closed):

```
p = Path('mytext.txt')
with p.open() as f:
    print(f.readline())
```

However, there are also some high-level methods available that allow you to easily write data to a file or read data from a file. These include the `Path` methods `write_text` and `read_text` methods:

- `write_text(data)` opens the file pointed to in text mode and writes the data to it and then closes the file.
- `read_text()` opens the file in read mode, reads the text and closes the file; it then returns the contents of the file as a string.

These are used below

```
dir = Path('./test')
print('Create new file')
newfile = dir / 'text.txt'
print('Write some text to file')
newfile.write_text('Hello Python World!')
print('Read the text back again')
print(newfile.read_text())
print('Remove the file')
newfile.unlink()
```

Which generates the following output:

```
Create new file
Write some text to file
Read the text back again
Hello Python World!
Remove the file
```

18.14 Online Resources

See the following online resources for information on the topics in this chapter:

- <https://docs.python.org/3/tutorial/inputoutput.html> for the Python Standard Tutorial on file input and output.
- <https://pymotw.com/3/os.path/index.html> for platform independent manipulation of filenames.
- <https://pymotw.com/3/pathlib/index.html> for information filesystem Path objects.
- <https://pymotw.com/3/glob/index.html> for filename pattern matching using glob.
- <https://pymotw.com/3/tempfile/index.html> for temporary file system objects.
- <https://pymotw.com/3/gzip/index.html> for information on reading and writing GNU Zip files.

18.15 Exercise

The aim of this exercise is to explore the creation of, and access to, the contents of a file.

You should write two programs, these programs are outlined below:

1. Create a program that will write todays date into a file – the name of the file can be hard coded or supplied by the user. You can use the `datetime.today()`

- function to obtain the current date and time. You can use the `str()` function to convert this date time object into a string so that it can be written out to a file.
2. Create a second program to reload the date from the file and convert the string into a date object. You can use the `datetime.strptime()` function to convert a string into a date time object (see <https://docs.python.org/3/library/datetime.html#datetime.datetime.strptime> for documentation on this function). This functions takes a string containing a date and time in it and a second string which defines the format expected. If you use the approach outlined in step 1 above to write the string out to a file then you should find that the following defines an appropriate format to parse the `date_str` so that a date time object can be created:

```
datetime_object = datetime.strptime(date_str, '%Y-%m-%d  
%H:%M:%S.%f')
```

Chapter 19

Stream IO



19.1 Introduction

In this chapter we will explore the Stream I/O model that underpins the way in which data is read from and written to data sources and sinks. One example of a data source or sink is a file but another might be a byte array.

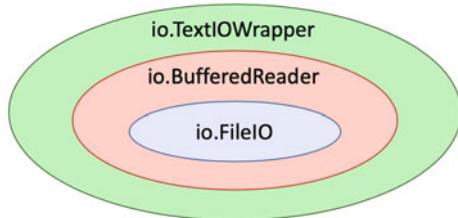
This model is actually what sits underneath the file access mechanisms discussed in the previous chapter.

It is not actually necessary to understand this model to be able to read and write data to and from a file, however in some situations it is useful to have an understanding of this model so that you can modify the default behaviour when necessary.

The remainder of this chapter first introduces the Stream model, discusses Python streams in general and then presents the classes provided by Python. It then considers what is the actual effect of using the `open()` function presented in the last chapter.

19.2 What is a Stream?

Streams are objects which serve as sources or sinks of data. At first this concept can seem a bit strange. The easiest way to think of a stream is as a conduit of data flowing from or into a pool. Some streams read data straight from the “source of the data” and some streams read data from other streams. These latter streams then do some “useful” processing of the data such as converting the raw data into a specific format. The following figure illustrates this idea.



In the above figure the initial `FileIO` stream reads raw data from the actual data source (in this case a file). The `BufferedReader` then buffers the data reading process for efficiency. Finally the `TextIOWrapper` handles string encoding; that is it converts strings from the typical ASCII representation used in a file into the internal representation used by Python (which uses Unicode).

You might ask at this point why have a streams model at all; after all we read and wrote data to files without needing to know about streams in the last chapter? The answer is that a stream can read or write data to or from a source of data rather than just from a file. Of course a file can be a source of data but so can a socket, a pipe, a string, a web service etc. It is therefore a more flexible data I/O model.

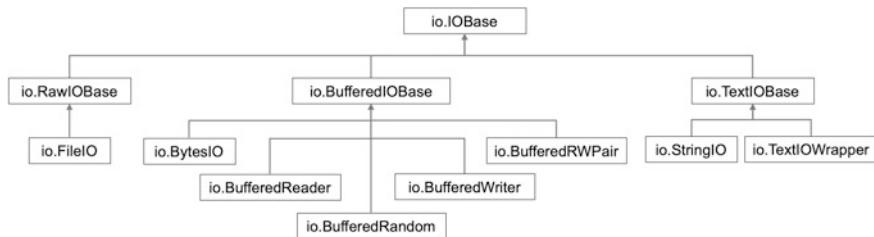
19.3 Python Streams

The Python `io` module provides Python's main facilities for dealing with data input and output. There are three main types of input/output these are text I/O, binary I/O and raw I/O. These categories can be used with various types of data source/sinks.

Whatever the category, each concrete stream can have a number of properties such as being *read-only*, *write-only* or *read-write*. It can also support sequential access or random access depending on the nature of the underlying data sink. For example, reading data from a socket or pipe is inherently sequential whereas reading data from a file can be performed sequentially or via a random access approach.

Whichever stream is used however, they are aware of the type of data they can process. For example, attempting to supply a string to a binary write-only stream will raise a `TypeError`. As indeed will presenting binary data to a text stream etc.

As suggested by this there are a number of different types of stream provided by the Python `io` module and some of these are presented below:



The abstract `IOBase` class is at the root of the stream IO class hierarchy. Below this class are stream classes for unbuffered and buffered IO and for text oriented IO.

19.4 IOBase

This is the abstract base class for all I/O stream classes. The class provides many abstract methods that subclasses will need to implement.

The `IOBase` class (and its subclasses) all support the iterator protocol. This means that an `IOBase` object (or an object of a subclass) can iterate over the input data from the underling stream.

`IOBase` also implements the Context Manager Protocol and therefore it can be used with the `with` and `with-as` statements.

The `IOBase` class defines a core set of methods and attributes including:

- `close()` flush and close the stream.
- `closed` an attribute indicating whether the stream is closed.
- `flush()` flush the write buffer of the stream if applicable.
- `readable()` returns True if the stream can be read from.
- `readline(size=-1)` return a line from the stream. If size is specified at most size bytes will be read.
- `readline(hint=-1)` read a list of lines. If hint is specified then it is used to control the number of lines read.
- `seek(offset[, whence])` This method moves the current the stream position/pointer to the given offset. The meaning of the offset depends on the whence parameter. The default value for whence is `SEEK_SET`.
- `SEEK_SET` or 0: seek from the start of the stream (the default); offset must either be a number returned by `TextIOBase.tell()`, or zero. Any other offset value produces undefined behaviour.
- `SEEK_CUR` or 1: “seek” to the current position; offset must be zero, which is a no-operation (all other values are unsupported).
- `SEEK_END` or 2: seek to the end of the stream; offset must be zero (all other values are unsupported).

- `seekable()` does the stream support `seek()`.
- `tell()` return the current stream position/pointer.
- `writeable()` returns true if data can be written to the stream.
- `writelines(lines)` write a list of lines to the stream.

19.5 Raw IO/UnBuffered IO Classes

Raw IO or unbuffered IO is provided by the `RawIOBase` and `FileIO` classes.

RawIOBase This class is a subclass of `IOBase` and is the base class for raw binary (aka unbuffered) I/O. Raw binary I/O typically provides low-level access to an underlying OS device or API, and does not try to encapsulate it in high-level primitives (this is the responsibility of the Buffered I/O and Text I/O classes that can wrap a raw I/O stream). The class adds methods such as:

- `read(size=-1)` This method reads up to size bytes from the stream and returns them. If size is unspecified or -1 then all available bytes are read.
- `readall()` This method reads and returns all available bytes within the stream.
- `readint(b)` This method reads the bytes in the stream into a pre-allocated, writable bytes-like object b (e.g. into a byte array). It returns the number of bytes read.
- `write(b)` This method writes the data provided by b (a bytes -like object such as a byte array) into the underlying raw stream.

FileIO The `FileIO` class represents a raw unbuffered binary IO stream linked to an operating system level file. When the `FileIO` class is instantiated it can be given a file name and the mode (such as ‘r’ or ‘w’ etc.). It can also be given a flag to indicate whether the file descriptor associated with the underlying OS level file should be closed or not.

This class is used for the low-level reading of binary data and is at the heart of all file oriented data access (although it is often wrapped by another stream such as a buffered reader or writer).

19.6 Binary IO/Buffered IO Classes

Binary IO aka Buffered IO is a filter stream that wraps a lower level `RawIOBase` stream (such as a `FileIO` stream). The classes implementing buffered IO all extend the `BufferedIOBase` class and are:

BufferedReader When reading data from this object, a larger amount of data may be requested from the underlying raw stream, and kept in an internal buffer. The buffered data can then be returned directly on subsequent reads.

BufferedWriter When writing to this object, data is normally placed into an internal buffer. The buffer will be written out to the underlying RawIOBase object under various conditions, including:

- when the buffer gets too small for all pending data;
- when `flush()` is called;
- when the `BufferedWriter` object is closed or destroyed.

BufferedRandom A buffered interface to random access streams. It supports `seek()` and `tell()` functionality.

BufferedRWPair A buffered I/O object combining two unidirectional RawIOBase objects – one readable, the other writeable—into a single bidirectional endpoint.

Each of the above classes wrap a lower level byte oriented stream class such as the `io.FileIO` class, for example:

```
f = io.FileIO('data.dat')
br = io.BufferedReader(f)
print(br.read())
```

This allows data in the form of bytes to be read from the file ‘data.dat’. You can of course also read data from a different source, such as an in memory `BytesIO` object:

```
binary_stream_from_file =
    io.BufferedReader(io.BytesIO(b'starship.png'))
bytes = binary_stream_from_file.read(4)
print(bytes)
```

In this example the data is read from the `BytesIO` object by the `BufferedReader`. The `read()` method is then used to read the first 4 bytes, the output is:

```
b'star'
```

Note the ‘b’ in front of both the string ‘starship.png’ and the result ‘star’. This indicates that the string literal should become a bytes literal in Python 3. Bytes literals are always prefixed with ‘b’ or ‘B’; they produce an instance of the `bytes` type instead of the `str` type. They may only contain ASCII characters.

The operations supported by buffered streams include, for reading:

- `peek(n)` return up to n bytes of data without advancing the stream pointer. The number of bytes returned may be less or more than requested depending on the amount of data available.
- `read(n)` return n bytes of data as bytes, if n is not supplied (or is negative) the read all available data.
- `readl(n)` read up to n bytes of data using a single call on the raw data stream.

The operations supported by buffered writers include:

- `write(bytes)` writes the bytes-like data and returns the number of bytes written.
- `flush()` This method forces the bytes held in the buffer into the raw stream.

19.7 Text Stream Classes

The text stream classes are the `TextIOBase` class and its two subclasses `TextIOWrapper` and `StringIO`.

TextIOBase This is the root class for all Text Stream classes. It provides a character and line based interface to Stream I/O. This class provides several additional methods to that defined in its parent class:

- `read(size=-1)` This method will return at most size characters from the stream as a single string. If size is negative or None, it will read all remaining data.
- `readline(size=-1)` This method will return a string representing the current line (up to a newline or the end of the data whichever comes first). If the stream is already at EOF, an empty string is returned. If size is specified, at most size characters will be read.
- `seek(offset, [, whence])` change the stream position/pointer by the specified offset. The optional whence parameter indicates where the seek should start from:
 - SEEK_SET or 0: (the default) seek from the start of the stream.
 - SEEK_CUR or 1: seek to the current position; offset must be zero, which is a no-operation.
 - SEEK_END or 2: seek to the end of the stream; offset must be zero.
- `tell()` Returns the current stream position/pointer as an opaque number. The number does not usually represent a number of bytes in the underlying binary storage.
- `write(s)` This method will write the string s to the stream and return the number of characters written.

TextIOWrapper. This is a buffered text stream that wraps a buffered binary stream and is a direct subclass of `TextIOBase`. When a `TextIOWrapper` is created there are a range of options available to control its behaviour:

```
io.TextIOWrapper(buffer, encoding=None, errors=None, newline=None,
                 line_buffering=False, write_through=False)
```

Where

- `buffer` is the buffered binary stream.
- `encoding` represents the text encoding used such as UTF-8.
- `errors` defines the error handling policy such as `strict` or `ignore`.
- `newline` controls how line endings are handled for example should they be ignored (`None`) or represented as a linefeed, carriage return or a newline/carriage return etc.
- `line_buffering` if `True` then `flush()` is implied when a call to write contains a newline character or a carriage return.
- `write_through` if `True` then a call to write is guaranteed not to be buffered.

The `TextIOWrapper` is wrapped around a lower level binary buffered I/O stream, for example:

```
f = io.FileIO('data.txt')
br = io.BufferedReader(f)
text_stream = io.TextIOWrapper(br, 'utf-8')
```

StringIO This is an in memory stream for text I/O. The initial value of the buffer held by the `StringIO` object can be provided when the instance is created, for example:

```
in_memory_text_stream = io.StringIO('to be or not to be that is
the question')
print('in_memory_text_stream', in_memory_text_stream)
print(in_memory_text_stream.getvalue())
in_memory_text_stream.close()
```

This generates:

```
in_memory_text_stream <_io.StringIO object at 0x10fdfaee8>
to be or not to be that is the question
```

Note that the underlying buffer (represented by the string passed into the `StringIO` instance) is discarded when the `close()` method is called.

The `getvalue()` method returns a string containing the entire contents of the buffer. If it is called after the stream was closed then an error is generated.

19.8 Stream Properties

It is possible to query a stream to determine what types of operations it supports. This can be done using the `readable()`, `seekable()` and `writeable()` methods. For example:

```
f = io.FileIO('myfile.txt')
br = io.BufferedReader(f)
text_stream = io.TextIOWrapper(br, encoding='utf-8')

print('text_stream', text_stream)
print('text_stream.readable()', text_stream.readable())
print('text_stream.seekable()', text_stream.seekable())
print('text_stream.writeable()', text_stream.writable())

text_stream.close()
```

The output from this code snippet is:

```
text_stream <_io.TextIOWrapper name='myfile.txt' encoding='utf-8'>
text_stream.readable(): True
text_stream.seekable(): True
text_stream.writeable(): False
```

19.9 Closing Streams

All opened streams must be closed. However, you can close the top level stream and this will automatically close lower level streams, for example:

```
f = io.FileIO('data.txt')
br = io.BufferedReader(f)
text_stream = io.TextIOWrapper(br, 'utf-8')
print(text_stream.read())
text_stream.close()
```

19.10 Returning to the open() Function

If streams are so good then why don't you use them all the time? Well actually in Python 3 you do! The core open function (and indeed the `io.open()` function) both return a stream object. The actual type of object returned depends on the file mode specified, whether buffering is being used etc. For example:

```

import io

# Text stream
f1 = open('myfile.txt', mode='r', encoding='utf-8')
print(f1)

# Binary IO aka Buffered IO
f2 = open('myfile.dat', mode='rb')
print(f2)

f3 = open('myfile.dat', mode='wb')
print(f3)

# Raw IO aka Unbufferedf IO
f4 = open('starship.png', mode='rb', buffering=0)
print(f4)

```

When this short example is run the output is:

```

<_io.TextIOWrapper name='myfile.txt' mode='r' encoding='utf-8'>
<_io.BufferedReader name='myfile.dat'>
<_io.BufferedWriter name='myfile.dat'>
<_io.FileIO name='starship.png' mode='rb' closefd=True>

```

As you can see from the output, four different types of object have been returned from the `open()` function. The first is a `TextIOWrapper`, the second a `BufferedReader`, the third a `BufferedWriter` and the final one is a `FileIO` object. This reflects the differences in the parameters passed into the `open()` function. For example, `f1` references a `io.TextIOWrapper` because it must encode (convert) the input text into Unicode using the UTF-8 encoding scheme. While `f2` holds a `io.BufferedReader` because the mode indicates that we want to read binary data while `f3` holds a `io.BufferedWriter` because the mode used indicates we want to write binary data. The final call to `open` returns a `FileIO` because we have indicated that we do not want to buffer the data and thus we can use the lowest level of stream object.

In general the following rules are applied to determine the type of object returned based on the modes and encoding specified:

Class	mode	Buffering
FileIO	binary	no
BufferedReader	'rb'	yes
BufferedWriter	'wb'	yes
BufferedRandom	'rb+' 'wb+' 'ab+'	yes
TextIOWrapper	Any text	yes

Note that not all mode combinations make sense and thus some combinations will generate an error.

In general you don't therefore need to worry about which stream you are using or what that stream does; not least because all the streams extend the `IOWrapper` class and thus have a common set of methods and attributes.

However, it is useful to understand the implications of what you are doing so that you can make better informed choices. For example, binary streams (that do less processing) are faster than Unicode oriented streams that must convert from ASCII into Unicode.

Also understanding the role of streams in Input and Output can also allow you to change the source and destination of data without needing to re-write the whole of your application. You can thus use a file or `stdin` for testing and a socket for reading data in production.

19.11 Online Resources

See the following online resources for information on the topics in this chapter:

- <https://docs.python.org/3/library/io.html>. This provides the Python Standard Library guide to the core tools available for working with streams.

19.12 Exercise

Use the underlying streams model to create an application that will write binary data to a file. You can use the ‘`b`’ prefix to create a binary literal to be written, for example `b 'Hello World'`.

Next create another application to reload the binary data from the file and print it out.

Chapter 20

Working with CSV Files



20.1 Introduction

This chapter introduces a module that supports the generation of CSV (or Comma Separated Values) files.

20.2 CSV Files

The CSV (Comma Separated Values) format is the most common import and export format for spreadsheets and databases. However, CSV is not a precise standard with multiple different applications having different conventions and specific standards.

The Python `csv` module implements classes to read and write tabular data in CSV format. As part of this it supports the concept of a dialect which is a CSV format used by a specific application or suite of programs, for example, it supports an Excel dialect.

This allows programmers to say, “write this data in the format preferred by Excel,” or “read data from this file which was generated by Excel,” without knowing the precise details of the CSV format used by Excel.

Programmers can also describe the CSV dialects understood by other applications or define their own special-purpose CSV dialects.

The `csv` module provides a range of functions including:

- `csv.reader(csvfile, dialect='excel', **fmtparams)` Returns a reader object which will iterate over lines in the given csvfile. An optional dialect parameter can be given. This may be an instance of a subclass of the `Dialect` class or one of the strings returned by the `list_dialects()` function. The other optional fmtparams keyword arguments can be given to override individual formatting parameters in the current dialect.

- `csv.writer(csvfile, dialect='excel', **fmtparams)` Returns a writer object responsible for converting the user's data into delimited strings on the given csvfile. An optional dialect parameter provided. The fmtparams keyword arguments can be given to override individual formatting parameters in the current dialect.
- `csv.list_dialects()` Return the names of all registered dialects. For example on a Mac OS X the default list of dialects is ['excel', 'excel-tab', 'unix'].

20.2.1 The CSV Writer Class

A CSV Writer is obtained from the `csv.writer()` function. The csvwriter supports two methods used to write data to the CSV file:

- `csvwriter.writerow(row)` Write the row parameter to the writer's file object, formatted according to the current dialect.
- `csvwriter.writerows(rows)` Write all elements in rows (an iterable of row objects as described above) to the writer's file object, formatted according to the current dialect.
- Writer objects also have the following public attribute:
- `csvwriter.dialect` A read-only description of the dialect in use by the writer.

The following program illustrates a simple use of the `csv` module which creates a file called `sample.csv`.

As we have not specified a dialect, the default 'excel' dialect will be used. The `writerow()` method is used to write each comma separate list of strings to the CSV file.

```
print('Creating CSV file')
with open('sample.csv', 'w', newline='') as csvfile:
    writer = csv.writer(csvfile)
    writer.writerow(['She Loves You', 'Sept 1963'])
    writer.writerow(['I Want to Hold Your Hand', 'Dec 1963'])
    writer.writerow(['Cant Buy Me Love', 'Apr 1964'])
    writer.writerow(['A Hard Days Night', 'July 1964'])
```

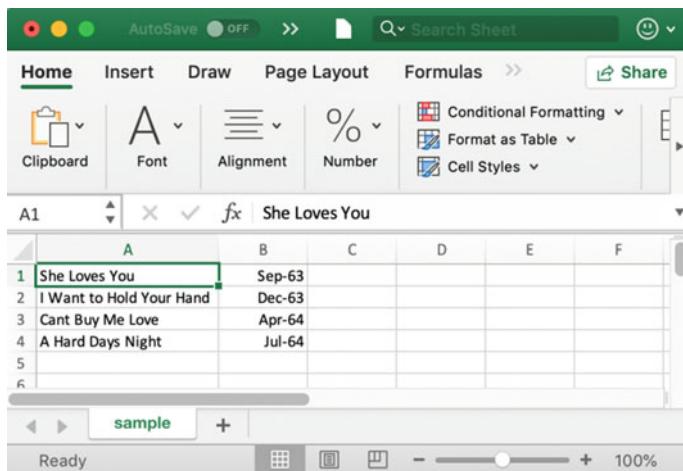
The resulting file can be viewed as shown below:



The screenshot shows a CSV file named "sample.csv" with four rows of data. The first column contains row numbers 1, 2, 3, and 4. The second column contains the song titles and their release dates. The text in the second column is color-coded: "She Loves You" and "Sept 1963" are green, "I Want to Hold Your Hand" and "Dec 1963" are blue, "Cant Buy Me Love" and "Apr 1964" are red, and "A Hard Days Night" and "July 1964" are purple.

	sample.csv
1	She Loves You, Sept 1963
2	I Want to Hold Your Hand, Dec 1963
3	Cant Buy Me Love, Apr 1964
4	A Hard Days Night, July 1964

However, as it is a CSV file, we can also open it in Excel:



20.2.2 The CSV Reader Class

A CSV Reader object is obtained from the `csv.reader()` function. It implements the iteration protocol.

If a csv reader object is used with a `for` loop then each time round the loop it supplies the next *row* from the CSV file as a list, parsed according to the current CSV dialect.

Reader objects also have the following public attributes:

- `csvreader.dialect` A read-only description of the dialect in use by the parser.
- `csvreader.line_num` The number of lines read from the source iterator. This is not the same as the number of records returned, as records can span multiple lines.

The following provides a very simple example of reading a CSV file using a csv reader object:

```
print('Starting to read csv file')
with open('sample.csv', newline='') as csvfile:
    reader = csv.reader(csvfile)
    for row in reader:
        print(*row, sep=', ', )

print('Done Reading')
```

The output from this program, based on the sample.csv file created earlier is:

```
Starting to read csv file
She Loves You, Sept 1963
I Want to Hold Your Hand, Dec 1963
Cant Buy Me Love, Apr 1964
A Hard Days Night, July 1964
Done Reading
```

20.2.3 The CSV DictWriter Class

In many cases the first row of a CSV file contains a set of names (or keys) that define the fields within the rest of the CSV. That is the first row gives meaning to the columns and the data held in the rest of the CSV file. It is therefore very useful to capture this information and to structure the data written to a CSV file or loaded from a CSV file based on the keys in the first row.

The `csv.DictWriter` returns an object that can be used to write values into the CSV file based on the use of such named columns. The file to be used with the `DictWriter` is provided when the class is instantiated.

```
import csv

with open('names.csv', 'w', newline='') as csvfile:
    fieldnames = ['first_name', 'last_name', 'result']
    writer = csv.DictWriter(csvfile, fieldnames=fieldnames)
    writer.writeheader()
    writer.writerow({'first_name': 'John',
                    'last_name': 'Smith',
                    'result' : 54})
    writer.writerow({'first_name': 'Jane',
                    'last_name': 'Lewis',
                    'result': 63})
    writer.writerow({'first_name': 'Chris',
                    'last_name': 'Davies',
                    'result' : 72})
```

Note that when the `DictWriter` is created a list of the keys must be provided that are used for the columns in the CSV file.

The method `writeheader()` is then used to write the header row out to the CSV file.

The method `writerow()` takes a dictionary object that has keys based on the keys defined for the `DictWriter`. These are then used to write data out to the CSV (note the order of the keys in the dictionary is not important).

In the above example code the result of this is that a new file called `names.csv` is created which can be opened in Excel:

Of course, as this is a CSV file it can also be opened in a plain text editor as well.

	A	B	C	D
1	first_name	last_name	result	
2	John	Smith	54	
3	Jane	Lewis	63	
4	Chris	Davies	72	
5				

20.2.4 The CSV DictReader Class

As well as the `csv.DictWriter` there is a `csv.DictReader`. The file to be used with the `DictReader` is provided when the class is instantiated. As with the `DictWriter` the `DictWriter` class takes a list of keys used to define the columns in the CSV file. If the headings to be used for the first row can be provided although this is optional (if a set of keys are not provided, then the values in the first row of the CSV file will be used as the fieldnames).

The `DictReader` class provides several useful features including the `fieldnames` property that contains a list of the keys/headings for the CSV file as defined by the first row of the file.

The `DictReader` class also implements the *iteration* protocol and thus it can be used in a for loop in which each row (after the first row) is returned in turn as a dictionary. The dictionary object representing each row can then be used to access each column value based on the keys defined in the first row.

An example is shown below for the CSV file created earlier:

```
import csv

print('Starting to read dict CSV example')

with open('names.csv', newline='') as csvfile:
    reader = csv.DictReader(csvfile)
    for heading in reader.fieldnames:
        print(heading, end=' ')
    print('\n-----')
    for row in reader:
        print(row['first_name'], row['last_name'],
              row['result'])
    print('Done')
```

This generates the following output:

```
Starting to read dict CSV example
first_name last_name result
-----
John Smith 54
Jane Lewis 63
Chris Davies 72
Done
```

20.3 Online Resources

See the following online resources for information on the topics in this chapter:

- <https://docs.python.org/3/library/csv.html> for the Python Standard documentation on CSV file reading and writing.
- <https://pymotw.com/3/csv/index.html> for the Python Module of the Week page on CSV files.
- <https://pythonprogramming.net/reading-csv-files-python-3> for a tutorial on reading CSV files.

20.4 Exercises

In this exercise you will create a CSV file based on a set of transactions stored in a current account.

1. To do this first define a new `Account` class to represent a type of bank account.
2. When the class is instantiated you should provide the account number, the name of the account holder, an opening balance and the type of account (which can be a string representing 'current', 'deposit' or 'investment' etc.). This means that there must be an `__init__` method and you will need to store the data within the object.
3. Provide three instance methods for the `Account`; `deposit(amount)`, `withdraw(amount)` and `get_balance()`. The behaviour of these methods should be as expected, `deposit` will increase the balance, `withdraw` will decrease the balance and `get_balance()` returns the current balance.

Your `Account` class should also keep a history of the transactions it is involved in.

A *Transaction* is a record of a deposit or withdrawal along with an amount. Note that the initial amount in an account can be treated as an initial deposit.

The history could be implemented as a *list* containing an ordered sequence to transactions. A Transaction itself could be defined by a class with an action (deposit or withdrawal) and an amount.

Each time a withdrawal or a deposit is made a new transaction record should be added to a transaction history list.

Next provide a function (which could be called something like `write_account_transactions_to_csv()`) that can take an account and then write each of the transactions it holds out to a CSV file, with each transaction type and the transaction amount separated by a comma.

The following sample application illustrates how this function might be used:

```
print('Starting')
acc = accounts.CurrentAccount('123', 'John', 10.05, 100.0)
acc.deposit(23.45)
acc.withdraw(12.33)

print('Writing Account Transactions')
write_account_transaction_to_csv('accounts.csv', acc)

print('Done')
```

The contents of the CSV file would then be:

CSV accounts.csv ×	
1	transaction_type,amount
2	deposit,10.05
3	deposit,23.45
4	withdraw,12.33

Chapter 21

Working with Excel Files



21.1 Introduction

This chapter introduces the `openpyxl` module that can be used when working with Excel files. Excel is a software application developed by Microsoft that allows users to work with spreadsheets. It is a very widely used tool and files using the Excel file format are commonly encountered within many organisations. It is in effect the industry standard for spreadsheets and as such is a very useful tool to have in the developers toolbox.

21.2 Excel Files

Although CSV files are a convenient and simple way to handle data; it is very common to need to be able to read or write Excel files directly. To this end there are several libraries available in Python for this purpose. One widely used library is the *OpenPyXL* library. This library was originally written to support access to Excel 2010 files. It is an open source project and is well documented.

The OpenPyXL library provides facilities for

- reading and writing Excel workbooks,
- creating/accessing Excel worksheets,
- creating Excel formulas,
- creating graphs (with support from additional modules).

As *OpenPyXL* is not part of the standard Python distribution you will need to install the library yourself using a tool such as Anaconda or pip (e.g. `pip install openpyxl`). Alternatively, if you are using PyCharm you will be able to add the OpenPyXL library to your project.

21.3 The Openpyxl. Workbook Class

The key element in the OpenPyXL library is the `Workbook` class. This can be imported from the module:

```
from openpyxl import Workbook
```

A new instance of the (in memory) `Workbook` can be created using the `Workbook` class (note at this point it is purely a structure within the Python program and must be saved before an actual Excel file is created).

```
wb = Workbook()
```

21.4 The Openpyxl. WorkSheet Objects

A workbook is always created with at least one worksheet. You can get hold of the currently active worksheet using the `Workbook.active` property:

```
ws = wb.active
```

You can create additional worksheets using the workbooks' `create_sheet()` method:

```
ws = wb.create_sheet('Mysheet')
```

You can access or update the title of the worksheet using the `title` property:

```
ws.title = 'New Title'
```

The background colour of the tab holding this title is white by default. You can change this providing an RRGGBB colour code to the `worksheet.sheet_properties.tabColor` attribute, for example:

```
ws.sheet_properties.tabColor = "1072BA"
```

21.5 Working with Cells

It is possible to access the cells within a worksheet. A cell can be accessed directly as keys on the worksheet, for example:

```
ws['A1'] = 42
```

or

```
cell = ws['A1']
```

This returns a cell object; you can obtain the value of the cell using the value property, for example

```
print(cell.value)
```

There is also the Worksheet.cell() method. This provides access to cells using row and column notation:

```
d = ws.cell(row=4, column=2, value=10)
```

A row of values can also be added at the current position within the Excel file using append:

```
ws.append([1, 2, 3])
```

This will add a row to the Excel file containing 1, 2, and 3.

Ranges of cells can be accessed using slicing:

```
cell_range = ws['A1':'C2']
```

Ranges of rows or columns can also be obtained:

```
col = ws['C']
col_range = ws['C:D']
row10 = ws[10]
row_range = ws[5:10]
```

The value of a cell can also be an Excel formula such as

```
ws['A3'] = '=SUM(A1, A2)'
```

A workbook is actually only a structure in memory; it must be saved to a file for permanent storage. These workbooks can be saved using the save() method. This method takes a filename and writes the Workbook out in Excel format.

```
workbook = Workbook()
...
workbook.save('balances.xlsx')
```

21.6 Sample Excel File Creation Application

The following simple application creates a Workbook with two worksheets. It also contains a simple Excel formula that sums the values held in to other cells:

```
from openpyxl import Workbook

def main():
    print('Starting Write Excel Example with openPyXL')

    workbook = Workbook()
    # Get the current active worksheet
    ws = workbook.active
    ws.title = 'my worksheet'
    ws.sheet_properties.tabColor = '1072BA'

    ws['A1'] = 42
    ws['A2'] = 12
    ws['A3'] = '=SUM(A1, A2)'

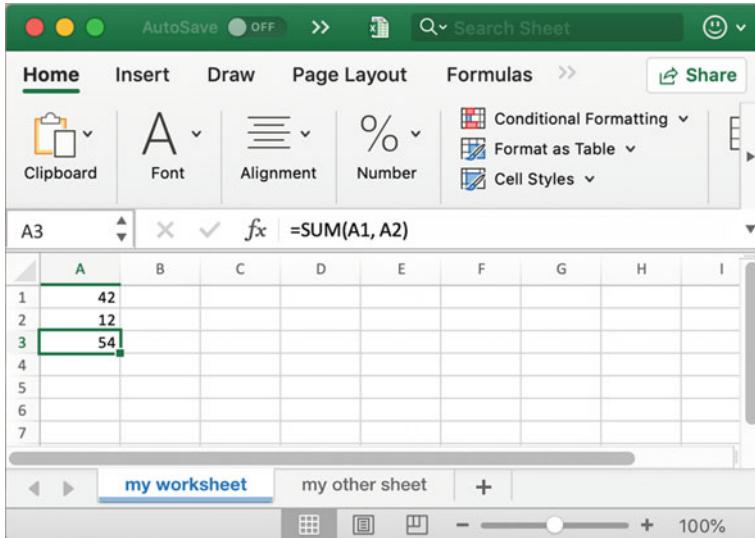
    ws2 = workbook.create_sheet(title='my other sheet')
    ws2['A1'] = 3.42
    ws2.append([1, 2, 3])
    ws2.cell(column=2, row=1, value=15)

    workbook.save('sample.xlsx')

    print('Done Write Excel Example')

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

The Excel file generated from this can be viewed in Excel as shown below:



21.7 Loading a Workbook from an Excel File

Of course, in many cases it is necessary not just to create Excel files for data export but also to import data from an existing Excel file. This can be done using the OpenPyXL `load_workbook()` function. This function opens the specified Excel file (in read only mode by default) and returns a Workbook object.

```
from openpyxl import load_workbook

workbook = load_workbook(filename='sample.xlsx')
```

You can now access a list of sheets, their names, obtain the currently active sheet etc. using properties provided by the `workbook` object:

- `workbook.active` returns the active worksheet object.
- `workbook.sheetnames` returns the names (strings) of the worksheets in this workbook.
- `workbook.worksheets` returns a list of worksheet objects.

The following sample application reads the Excel file created earlier in this chapter:

```
from openpyxl import load_workbook

def main():
    print('Starting reading Excel file using openPyXL')

    workbook = load_workbook(filename='sample.xlsx')
    print(workbook.active)
    print(workbook.sheetnames)
    print(workbook.worksheets)

    print('-' * 10)
    ws = workbook['my worksheet']
    print(ws['A1'])
    print(ws['A1'].value)
    print(ws['A2'].value)
    print(ws['A3'].value)

    print('-' * 10)
    for sheet in workbook:
        print(sheet.title)

    print('-' * 10)
    cell_range = ws['A1':'A3']
    for cell in cell_range:
        print(cell[0].value)
    print('-' * 10)
```

```
print('Finished reading Excel file using openPyXL')

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

The output from this application is illustrated below:

```
Starting reading Excel file using openPyXL
<Worksheet "my worksheet">
['my worksheet', 'my other sheet']
[<Worksheet "my worksheet">, <Worksheet "my other sheet">]
-----
<Cell 'my worksheet'.A1>
42
12
=SUM(A1, A2)
-----
my worksheet
my other sheet
-----
42
12
=SUM(A1, A2)
-----
Finished reading Excel file using openPyXL
```

21.8 Online Resources

See the following online resources for information on the topics in this chapter:

- <https://openpyxl.readthedocs.io/en/stable> for documentation on the OpenPyXL Python to Excel library.

21.9 Exercises

Using the Account class that you created in the last chapter; write the account transaction information to an Excel file instead of a CSV file.

To do this create a function called `write_account_transaction_to_excel()` that takes the name of the Excel file and the account to store. The function should then write the data to the file using the excel format.

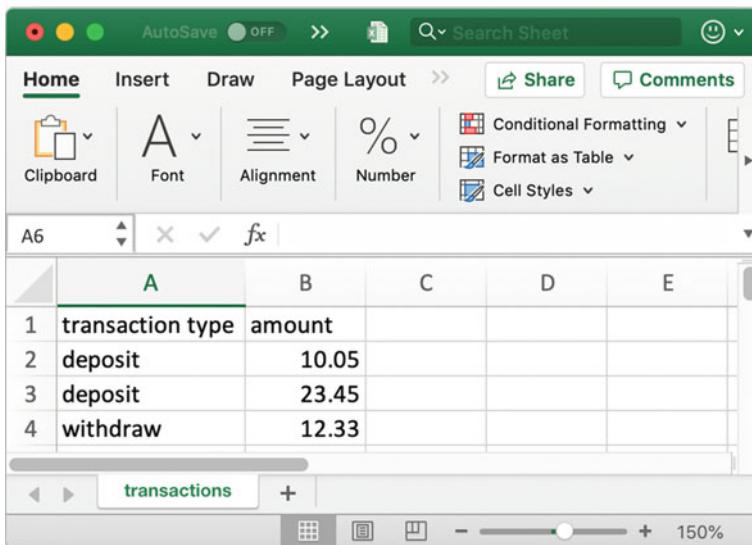
The following sample application illustrates how this function might be used:

```
print('Starting')
acc = accounts.CurrentAccount('123', 'John', 10.05, 100.0)
acc.deposit(23.45)
acc.withdraw(12.33)

print('Writing Account Transactions')
write_account_transaction_to_excel('accounts.xlsx', acc)

print('Done')
```

The contents of the Excel file would then be:



A screenshot of a Microsoft Excel spreadsheet titled "transactions". The table has columns labeled "transaction type" and "amount". The data rows are:

	A	B	C	D	E
1	transaction type	amount			
2	deposit	10.05			
3	deposit	23.45			
4	withdraw	12.33			

Chapter 22

Regular Expressions in Python



22.1 Introduction

Regular Expression are a very powerful way of processing text while looking for recurring patterns; they are often used with data held in plain text files (such as log files), CSV files as well as Excel files. This chapter introduces regular expressions, discusses the syntax used to define a regular expression pattern and presents the Python `re` module and its use.

22.2 What Are Regular Expressions?

A Regular Expression (also known as a *regex* or even just *re*) is a sequence of characters (letters, numbers and special characters) that form a pattern that can be used to search text to see if that text contains sequences of characters that match the pattern.

For example, you might have a pattern defined as three characters followed by three numbers. This pattern could be used to look for such a pattern in other strings. Thus, the following strings either match (or contain) this pattern or they do not:

Abc123	Matches the pattern
A123A	Does not match the pattern
123AAA	Does not match the pattern

Regular Expression are very widely used for finding information in files, for example

- finding all lines in a log file associated with a specific user or a specific operation,
- for validating input such as checking that a string is a valid email address or postcode/ZIP code etc.

Support for Regular Expressions is wide spread within programming languages such as Java, C#, PHP and particularly Perl. Python is no exception and has the built-in module `re` (as well as additional third-party modules) that support Regular Expressions.

22.3 Regular Expression Patterns

You can define a regular expression pattern using any ASCII character or number. Thus, the string ‘John’ can be used to define a regex pattern that can be used to match any other string that contains the characters ‘J’, ‘o’, ‘h’, ‘n’. Thus each of the following strings will match this pattern:

- ‘John Hunt’
- ‘John Jones’
- ‘Andrew John Smith’
- ‘Mary Helen John’
- ‘John John John’
- ‘I am going to visit the John’
- ‘I once saw a film by John Wayne’

But the following strings would not match the pattern:

- ‘Jon Davies’ in this case because the spelling of John is different.
- ‘john williams’ in this case because the capital J does not match the lowercase j.
- ‘David James’ in this case because the string does not contain the string John!

Regular expressions (*regexs*) use special characters to allow more complex patterns to be described. For example, we can use the special characters ‘[]’ to define a set of characters that can match. For example, if we want to indicate that the J may be a capital or a lower-case letter then we can write ‘[Jj]’—this indicates that either ‘J’ or ‘j’ can match the first.

- [Jj]ohn—this states that the pattern starts with either a capital J or a lowercase j followed by ‘ohn’.

Now both ‘john williams’ and ‘John Williams’ will match this regex pattern.

22.3.1 Pattern Metacharacters

There are several special characters (often referred to as metacharacters) that have a specific meaning within a *regex* pattern, these are listed in the following table:

Character	Description	Example
[]	A set of characters	[a-d] characters in the sequence ‘a’ to ‘d’
\	Indicates a special sequence (can also be used to escape special characters)	‘\d’ indicates the character should be an integer
.	Any character with the exception of the newline character	‘J.hn’ indicates that there can be any character after the ‘J’ and before the ‘h’
^	Indicates a string must start with the following pattern	“^hello” indicates the string must start with ‘hello’
\$	Indicates a string must end with the preceding pattern	“world\$” indicates the string must end with ‘world’
*	Zero or more occurrences of the preceding pattern	“Python*” indicates we are looking for zero or more times Python is in a string
+	One or more occurrences of preceding pattern	“info+” indicates that we must find info in the string at least once
?	Indicates zero or 1 occurrences of the preceding pattern	“john?” indicates zero or one instances of the ‘John’
{}	Exactly the specified number of occurrences	“John{3}” this indicates we expect to see the ‘John’ in the string three times. “X{1,2}” indicates that there can be one or two Xs next to each other in the string
	Either or	“True OK” indicates we are looking for either True or OK
()	Groups together a regular expression; you can then apply another operator to the whole group	“(abc xyz){2}” indicates that we are looking for the string abc or xyz repeated twice

22.3.2 Special Sequences

A special sequence is a combination of a ‘\’ (backslash) followed by a character combination which then has a special meaning. The following table lists the common special sequences used in Regular Expressions:

Sequence	Description	Example
\A	Returns a match if the following characters are at the beginning of the string	“\AThe” must start with ‘The’
\b	Returns a match where the specified characters are at the beginning or at the end of a word	“\bon” or “on\b” indicates a string must start or end with ‘on’
\B	Indicates that the following characters must be present in a string but not at the start (or at the end) of a word	r”\Bon” or r”on\B” must not start or end with ‘on’
\d	Returns a match where the string contains digits (numbers from 0–9)	“\d”
\D	Returns a match where the string DOES NOT contain digits	“\D”
\s	Returns a match where the string contains a white space character	“\s ~ ”
\S	Returns a match where the string DOES NOT contain a white space character	“\S”
\w	Returns a match where the string contains any word characters (characters from a to Z, digits from 0–9, and the underscore _ character)	“\w”
\W	Returns a match where the string DOES NOT contain any word characters	“\W”
\Z	Returns a match if the following characters are present at the end of the string	“Hunt\Z”

22.3.3 Sets

A set is a sequence of characters inside a pair of square brackets which have specific meanings. The following table provides some examples.

Set	Description
[jeh]	Returns a match where one of the specified characters (j, e or h) are present
[a-x]	Returns a match for any lower-case character, alphabetically between a and x
[^zxc]	Returns a match for any character EXCEPT z, x and c
[0123]	Returns a match where any of the specified digits (0, 1, 2, or 3) are present
[0-9]	Returns a match for any digit between 0 and 9
[0-9][0-9]	Returns a match for any two-digit numbers from 00 and 99
[a-zA-Z]	Returns a match for any character alphabetically between a and z or A and Z

22.4 The Python re Module

The Python `re` module is the built-in module provided by Python for working with Regular Expressions.

You might also like to examine the third party `regex` module (see <https://pypi.org/project/regex>) which is backwards compatible with the default `re` module but provides additional functionality.

22.5 Working with Python Regular Expressions

22.5.1 Using Raw Strings

An important point to note about many of the strings used to define the regular expression patterns is that they are preceded by an ‘`r`’ for example `r' /bin/sh$'`.

The ‘`r`’ before the string indicates that the string should be treated as a *raw* string.

A raw string is a Python string in which all characters are treated as exactly that; individual characters. It means that backslash (‘\’) is treated as a literal character rather than as a special character that is used to *escape* the next character.

For example, in a standard string ‘`\n`’ is treated as a special character representing a newline, thus if we wrote the following:

```
s = 'Hello \n world'  
print(s)
```

We will get as output:

```
Hello  
World
```

However, if we prefix the string with an ‘`r`’ then we are telling Python to treat it as a raw string. For example:

```
s = r'Hello \n world'  
print(s)
```

The output is now

```
Hello \n world
```

This is important for regular expression as characters such as backslash (‘\’) are used within patterns to have a special regular expression meaning and thus we do not want Python to process them in the normal way.

22.5.2 Simple Example

The following simple Python program illustrates the basic use of the `re` module. It is necessary to import the `re` module before you can use it.

```
import re

text1 = 'john williams'
pattern = '[Jj]ohn'
print('looking in', text1, 'for the pattern', pattern)

if re.search(pattern, text1):
    print('Match has been found')
```

When this program is run, we get the following output:

```
looking in john williams for the pattern [Jj]ohn
Match has been found
```

If we look at the code, we can see that the string that we are examining contains ‘john williams’ and that the pattern used with this string indicates that we are looking for a sequence of ‘J’ or ‘j’ followed by ‘ohn’. To perform this test we use the `re.search()` function passing the regex pattern, and the text to test, as parameters. This function returns either `None` (which is taken as meaning *False* by the `If` statement) or a `Match Object` (which always has a Boolean value of *True*). As of course ‘john’ at the start of `text1` does match the pattern, the `re.search()` function returns a match object and we see the ‘Match has been found’ message is printed out.

Both the `Match` object and `search()` method will be described in more detail below; however, this short program illustrates the basic operation of a Regular Expression.

22.5.3 The Match Object

Match objects are returned by the `search()` and `match()` functions.

They always have a boolean value of *True*.

The functions `match()` and `search()` return `None` when there is no match and a `Match object` when a match is found. It is therefore possible to use a `match object` with an `if` statement:

```
import re

match = re.search(pattern, string)
if match:
    process(match)
```

Match objects support a range of methods and attributes including:

- `match.re` The regular expression object whose `match()` or `search()` method produced this match instance.
- `match.string` The string passed to `match()` or `search()`.
- `match.start([group]) / match.end([group])` Return the indices of the start and end of the substring matched by group.
- `match.group()` returns the part of the string where there was a match.

22.5.4 *The search() Function*

The `search()` function searches the string for a match, and returns a Match object if there is a match. The signature of the function is:

```
re.search(pattern, string, flags=0)
```

The meaning of the parameters are:

- `pattern` this is the regular expression pattern to be used in the matching process.
- `string` this is the string to be searched.
- `flags` these (optional) flags can be used to modify the operation of the search.

The `re` module defines a set of flags (or indicators) that can be used to indicate any optional behaviours associated with the pattern. These flags include:

Flag	Description
<code>re.IGNORECASE</code>	Performs case-insensitive matching
<code>re.LOCAL</code>	Interprets words according to the current locale. This interpretation affects the alphabetic group (<code>\w</code> and <code>\W</code>), as well as word boundary behavior(<code>\b</code> and <code>\B</code>)
<code>re.MULTILINE</code>	Makes <code>\$</code> match the end of a line (not just the end of the string) and makes <code>^</code> match the start of any line (not just the start of the string)
<code>re.DOTALL</code>	Makes a period (dot) match any character, including a newline
<code>re.UNICODE</code>	Interprets letters according to the Unicode character set. This flag affects the behavior of <code>\w</code> , <code>\W</code> , <code>\b</code> , <code>\B</code>
<code>re.VERBOSE</code>	Ignores whitespace within the pattern (except inside a set <code>[]</code> or when escaped by a backslash) and treats unescaped <code>#</code> as a comment marker

If there is more than one match, only the first occurrence of the match will be returned:

```
import re

line1 = 'The price is 23.55'
containsIntegers = r'\d+'

if re.search(containsIntegers, line1):
    print('Line 1 contains an integer')
else:
    print('Line 1 does not contain an integer')
```

In this case the output is

```
Line 1 contains an integer
```

Another example of using the `search()` function is given below. In this case the pattern to look for defines three alternative strings (that is the string must contain either Beatles, Adele or Gorillaz):

```
import re

# Alternative words
music = r'Beatles|Adele|Gorillaz'
request = 'Play some Adele'

if re.search(music, request):
    print('Set Fire to the Rain')
else:
    print('No Adele Available')
```

In this case we generate the output:

```
Set Fire to the Rain
```

22.5.5 *The `match()` Function*

This function attempts to match a regular expression pattern at the beginning of a string. The signature of this function is given below:

```
re.match(pattern, string, flags=0)
```

The parameters are:

- `pattern` this is the regular expression to be matched.
- `string` this is the string to be searched.
- `flags` modifier flags that can be used.

The `re.match()` function returns a `Match` object on success, `None` on failure.

22.5.6 *The Difference Between Matching and Searching*

Python offers two different primitive operations based on regular expressions:

- `match()` checks for a match only at the beginning of the string,
- `search()` checks for a match anywhere in the string.

22.5.7 *The.findall() Function*

The `.findall()` function returns a list containing all matches. The signature of this function is:

```
re.findall(pattern, string, flags=0)
```

This function returns all non-overlapping matches of `pattern` in `string`, as a list of strings.

The `string` is scanned left-to-right, and matches are returned in the order found. If one or more groups are present in the pattern, then a list of groups is returned; this will be a list of tuples if the pattern has more than one group. If no matches are found, an empty list is returned.

An example of using the `.findall()` function is given below. This example looks for a substring starting with two letters and followed by ‘ai’ and a single character. It is applied to a sentence and returns only the sub string ‘Spain’ and ‘plain’.

```
import re

str = 'The rain in Spain stays mainly on the plain'
results = re.findall('[a-zA-Z]{2}ai.', str)
print(results)
for s in results:
    print(s)
```

The output from this program is

```
[ 'Spain', 'plain' ]
Spain
plain
```

22.5.8 *The finditer() Function*

This function returns an iterator yielding matched objects for the regular expression pattern in the string supplied. The signature for this function is:

```
re.finditer(pattern, string, flags=0)
```

The string is scanned left-to-right, and matches are returned in the order found. Empty matches are included in the result. Flags can be used to modify the matches.

22.5.9 *The split() Function*

The split() function returns a list where the string has been split at each match. The syntax of the split() function is

```
re.split(pattern, string, maxsplit=0, flags=0)
```

The result is to split a string by the occurrences of pattern. If capturing parentheses are used in the regular expression pattern, then the text of all groups in the pattern are also returned as part of the resulting list. If maxsplit is nonzero, at most maxsplit splits occur, and the remainder of the string is returned as the final element of the list. Flags can again be used to modify the matches.

```
import re

str = 'It was a hot summer night'
x = re.split('\s', str)
print(x)
```

The output is

```
['It', 'was', 'a', 'hot', 'summer', 'night']
```

22.5.10 *The sub() Function*

The `sub()` function replaces occurrences of the regular expression pattern in the string with the `repl` string.

```
re.sub(pattern, repl, string, max=0)
```

This method replaces all occurrences of the regular expression pattern in string with `repl`, substituting all occurrences unless `max` is provided. This method returns the modified string.

```
import re

pattern = '(England|Wales|Scotland)'
input = 'England for football, Wales for Rugby and Scotland for
the Highland games'
print(re.sub(pattern, 'England', input))
```

Which generates:

```
England for football, England for Rugby and England for the
Highland games
```

You can control the number of replacements by specifying the `count` parameter:

The following code replaces the first 2 occurrences:

```
import re

pattern = '(England|Wales|Scotland)'
input = 'England for football, Wales for Rugby and Scotland for
the Highland games'

x = re.sub(pattern, 'Wales', input, 2)
print(x)
```

which produces

```
Wales for football, Wales for Rugby and Scotland for the
Highland games
```

You can also find out how many substitutions were made using the `subn()` function. This function returns the new string and the number of substitutions in a tuple:

```
import re

pattern = '(England|Wales|Scotland)'
input = 'England for football, Wales for Rugby and Scotland for
the Highland games'

print(re.subn(pattern, 'Scotland', input ))
```

The output from this is:

```
('Scotland for football, Scotland for Rugby and Scotland for
the Highland games', 3)
```

22.5.11 *The compile() Function*

Most regular expression operations are available as both module-level functions (as described above) and as methods on a compiled regular expression object.

The module-level functions are typically simplified or standardised ways to use the compiled regular expression. In many cases these functions are sufficient but if finer grained control is required then a compiled regular expression may be used.

```
re.compile(pattern, flags=0)
```

The `compile()` function compiles a regular expression pattern into a regular expression object, which can be used for matching using its `match()`, `search()` and other methods as described below.

The expression's behaviour can be modified by specifying a `flags` value. V

The statements:

```
prog = re.compile(pattern)
result = prog.match(string)
```

are equivalent to

```
result = re.match(pattern, string)
```

but using `re.compile()` and saving the resulting regular expression object for reuse is more efficient when the expression will be used several times in a single program.

Compiled regular expression objects support the following methods and attributes:

- `Pattern.search(string, pos, endpos)` Scan through `string` looking for the first location where this regular expression produces a match and return a corresponding `Match` object. Return `None` if no position in the string

matches the pattern. Starting at pos if provided and ending at endpos if this is provided (otherwise process the whole string).

- `Pattern.match(string, pos, endpos)` If zero or more characters at the *beginning* of *string* match this regular expression, return a corresponding match object. Return `None` if the string does not match the pattern. The `pos` and `endpos` are optional and specify the start and end positions within which to search.
- `Pattern.split(string, maxsplit = 0)` Identical to the `split()` function, using the compiled pattern.
- `Pattern.findall(string[, pos[, endpos]])` Similar to the `findall()` function, but also accepts optional `pos` and `endpos` parameters that limit the search region like for `search()`.
- `Pattern.finditer(string[, pos[, endpos]])` Similar to the `finditer()` function, but also accepts optional `pos` and `endpos` parameters that limit the search region like for `search()`.
- `Pattern.sub(repl, string, count = 0)` Identical to the `sub()` function, using the compiled pattern.
- `Pattern.subn(repl, string, count = 0)` Identical to the `subn()` function, using the compiled pattern.
- `Pattern.pattern` the pattern string from which the pattern object was compiled.

An example of using the `compile()` function is given below. The pattern to be compiled is defined as containing 1 or more digits (0 to 9):

```
import re

line1 = 'The price is 23.55'
containsIntegers = r'\d+'
rePattern = re.compile(containsIntegers)

matchLine1 = rePattern.search(line1)
if matchLine1:
    print('Line 1 contains a number')
else:
    print('Line 1 does not contain a number')
```

The compiled pattern can then be used to apply methods such as `search()` to a specific string (in this case held in `line1`). The output generated by this is:

```
Line 1 contains a number
```

Of course the compiler pattern object supports a range of methods in addition to `search()` as illustrated by the `split` method:

```
p = re.compile(r'\w+')
s = '20 High Street'
print(p.split(s))
```

The output from this is

```
['20', 'High', 'Street']
```

22.6 Online Resources

See the Python Standard Library documentation for:

- <https://docs.python.org/3/howto/regex.html> Standard Library regular expression how to.
- <https://pymotw.com/3/re/index.html> the Python Module of the Week page for the `re` module.

Other online resources include

- <https://regexone.com> An introduction to regular expressions.
- <https://www.regular-expressions.info/tutorial.html> a regular expressions tutorial.
- <https://www.regular-expressions.info/quickstart.html> regular expressions quick start.
- <https://pypi.org/project/regex> A well known third party regular expression module that extends the functionality offered by the builtin `re` module.

22.7 Exercises

Write a Python function to verify that a given string only contains letters (upper case or lower case) and numbers. Thus spaces and underbars ('_') are not allowed. An example of the use of this function might be:

```
print(contains_only_characters_and_numbers('John')) # True
print(contains_only_characters_and_numbers('John_Hunt')) # False
print(contains_only_characters_and_numbers('42')) # True
print(contains_only_characters_and_numbers('John42')) # True
print(contains_only_characters_and_numbers('John 42')) # False
```

Write a function to verify a UK Postcode format (call it `verify_postcode`). The format of a Postcode is two letters followed by 1 or 2 numbers, followed by a

space, followed by one or two numbers and finally two letters. An Example of a postcode is SY23 4ZZ another postcode might be BB1 3PO and finally we might have AA1 56NN (note this is a simplification of the UK Postcode system but is suitable for our purposes).

Using the output from this function you should be able to run the following test code:

```
# True
print("verify_postcode('SY23 3AA'):", verify_postcode('SY23
33AA'))
# True
print("verify_postcode('SY23 4ZZ'):", verify_postcode('SY23
4ZZ'))
# True
print("verify_postcode('BB1 3PO'):", verify_postcode('BB1
3PO'))
# False
print("verify_postcode('AA111 NN56'):", verify_postcode('AA111
NN56'))
# True
print("verify_postcode('AA1 56NN'):", verify_postcode('AA1
56NN'))
# False
print("verify_postcode('AA156NN'):", verify_postcode('AA156NN'))
# False
print("verify_postcode('AA NN'):", verify_postcode('AA NN'))
```

Write a function that will extract the value held between two strings or characters such as '<' and '>'. The function should take three parameters, the start character, the end character and the string to process. For example, the following code snippet:

```
print(extract_values('<', '>', '<John>'))
print(extract_values('<', '>', '<42>'))
print(extract_values('<', '>', '<John 42>'))
print(extract_values('<', '>', 'The <town> was in the
<valley>'))
```

Should generate output such as:

```
[ 'John' ]
[ '42' ]
[ 'John 42' ]
[ 'town', 'valley' ]
```

Part V

Database Access

Chapter 23

Introduction to Databases



23.1 Introduction

There are several different types of database system in common use today including Object databases, NoSQL databases and (probably the most common) Relational Databases. This chapter focusses on Relational Databases as typified by database systems such as Oracle, Microsoft SQL Server and MySQL. The database we will use in this book is MySQL.

23.2 What Is a Database?

A database is essentially a way to store and retrieve data.

Typically, there is some form of query language used with the database to help select the information to retrieve such as SQL or Structured Query Language.

In most cases there is a structure defined that is used to hold the data (although this is not true of the newer NoSQL or non-relational unstructured databases such as CouchDB or MongoDB).

In a Relational Database the data is held in tables, where the *columns* define the properties or attributes of the data and each *row* defines the actual values being held, for example:

attribute					
	id	name	surname	subject	email
row	cs_18	Phoebe	Cooke	Animation	pc@my.com
	cs_21	Gryff	Jones	Games	gj@my.com
	cs_27	Adam	Fosh	Music	af@my.com
	cs_29	Jasmine	Smith	Games	js@my.com

students

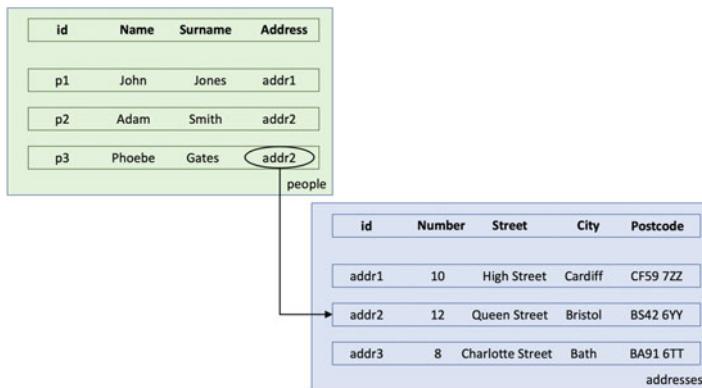
In this diagram there is a table called `students`; it is being used to hold information about students attending a meeting. The table has 5 attributes (or columns) defined for `id`, `name`, `surname`, `subject` and `email`.

In this case, the `id` is probably what is known as a *primary key*. The primary key is a property that is used to uniquely identify the student row; it cannot be omitted and must be unique (within the table). Obviously names and subjects may well be duplicated as there may be more than one student studying *Animation* or *Games* and students may have the same first name or surname. It is probable that the email column is also unique as students probably don't share an email address but again this may not necessarily be the case.

You might at this point wonder why the data in a Relational Database is called *relational* and not tables or tabular? The reason is because of a topic known as relational algebra that underpins Relational Database theory. Relational Algebra takes its name from the mathematical concept known as a *relation*. However, for the purposes of this chapter you don't need to worry about this and just need to remember that data is held in tables.

23.2.1 Data Relationships

When the data held in one table has a link or relationship to data held in another table then an index or key is used to link the values in one table to another. This is illustrated below for a table of `addresses` and a table of `people` who live in that address. This shows for example, that 'Phoebe Gates' lives at address 'addr2' which is 12 Queen Street, Bristol, BS42 6YY.



This is an example of a many to one (often written as many:1) relationship; that is there are many people who can live at one address (in the above Adam Smith also lives at address ‘addr2’). In Relational Databases there can be several different types of relationship such as:

- **one:one** where only one row in one table references one and only one row in another table. An example of a one to one relationship might be from a person to an order for a unique piece of jewellery.
- **one:many** this is the same as the above address example, however in this case the direction of the relationship is reversed (that is to say that one address in the *addresses* table can reference multiple persons in the *people* table).
- **many:many** This is where many rows in one table may reference many rows in a second table. For example, many students may take a particular class and a student may take many classes. This relationship usually involves an intermediate (join) table to hold the associations between the rows.

23.2.2 The Database Schema

The structure of a Relational Database is defined using a Data Definition Language or Data Description Language (a DDL).

Typically, the syntax of such a language is limited to the semantics (meaning) required to define the structure of the tables. This structure is known as the database schema. Typically, the DDL has commands such as CREATE TABLE, DROP TABLE (to delete a table) and ALTER TABLE (to modify the structure of an existing table).

Many tools provided with a database allow you to define the structure of the database without getting too bound up in the syntax of the DDL; however, it is useful to be aware of it and to understand that the database can be created in this way. For example, we will use the MySQL database in this chapter. The MySQL

Workbench is a tool that allows you to work with MySQL databases to manage and query the data held within a particular database instance. For references for MySQL and the MySQL Workbench see the links at the end of this chapter.

As an example, within the MySQL Workbench we can create a new table using a menu option on a database:



Using this we can interactively define the columns that will comprise the table:

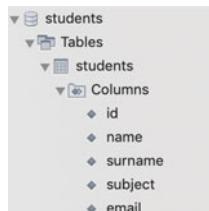
Here each column name, its type and whether it is the primary key (PK), not empty (or Not Null NN) or unique (UQ) have been specified. When the changes are applied, the tool also shows you the DDL that will be used to create the database:

```

1  CREATE TABLE `students`.`students` (
2    `id` INT NOT NULL,
3    `name` VARCHAR(45) NOT NULL,
4    `surname` VARCHAR(45) NOT NULL,
5    `subject` VARCHAR(45) NOT NULL,
6    `email` VARCHAR(45) NOT NULL,
7    PRIMARY KEY (`id`),
8    UNIQUE INDEX `email_UNIQUE`(`email` ASC);
9

```

When this is applied a new table is created in the database as shown below:



The tool also allows us to populate data into the table; this is done by entering data into a grid and hitting apply as shown below:

Result Grid					Filter Rows:	Search	Edit:
id	name	surname	subject	email			
cs_18	Phoebe	Cooke	Animation	pc@my.com			

students 1

23.3 SQL and Databases

We can now use query languages to identify and return data held in the database often using specific criteria.

For example, let us say we want to return all the people who have the surname Jones from the following table:

id	name	surname	subject	email
cs_18	Phoebe	Cooke	Animation	pc@my.com
cs_21	Gryff	Jones	Games	gj@my.com
cs_27	Adam	Fosh	Music	af@my.com
cs_29	Jasmine	Smith	Games	js@my.com
cs_31	Tom	Jones	Music	tj@my.com

student_table

We can do this by specifying that data should be returned where the surname equals ‘Jones’; in SQL this would look like:

```
SELECT * FROM students where surname='Jones' ;
```

The above SELECT statement states that all the properties (columns or attributes) in a row in the table students are to be returned where the surname equals ‘Jones’. The result is that two rows are returned:

id	name	surname	subject	email
2	Gryff	Jones	Games	gj@my.com
5	Tom	Jones	Music	tj@my.com

Note we need to specify the table we are interested in and what data we want to return (the ‘*’ after the select indicated we want all the data). If we were only interested in their first names then we could use:

```
SELECT name FROM students where surname='Jones' ;
```

This would return only the names of the students:

name
Gryff
Tom

23.4 Data Manipulation Language

Data can also be inserted into a table or existing data in a table can be updated. This is done using the Data Manipulation Language (DML).

For example, to insert data into a table we merely need to write an INSERT SQL statement providing the values to be added and how they map to the columns in the table:

```
INSERT INTO 'students' ('id', 'name', 'surname', 'subject',
'email') VALUES ('6', 'James', 'Andrews', 'Games',
'ja@my.com');
```

This would add the row 6 to the table `students` with the result that the table would now have an additional row:

id	name	surname	subject	email
1	Phoebe	Cooke	Animation	pc@my.com
2	Gryff	Jones	Games	gj@my.com
3	Adam	Fosh	Music	af@my.com
4	Jasmine	Smith	Games	js@my.com
5	Tom	Jones	Music	tj@my.com
6	James	Andrews	Games	ja@my.com

Updating an existing row is a little more complicated as it is first necessary to identify the row to be updated and then the data to modify. Thus an UPDATE statement includes a where clause to ensure the correct row is modified:

```
UPDATE 'students' SET 'email'='grj@my.com' WHERE 'id'='2';
```

The effect of this code is that the second row in the `students` table is modified with the new email address:

id	name	surname	subject	email
1	Phoebe	Cooke	Animation	pc@my.com
2	Gryff	Jones	Games	grj@my.com
3	Adam	Fosh	Music	af@my.com
4	Jasmine	Smith	Games	js@my.com
5	Tom	Jones	Music	tj@my.com
6	James	Andrews	Games	ja@my.com

23.5 Transactions in Databases

Another important concept within a database is that of a Transaction. A Transaction represents a unit of work performed within a database management system (or similar system) against a database instance, and is independent of any other transaction.

Transactions in a database environment have two main purposes

- To provide a unit of work that allows recovery from failures and keeps a database consistent even in cases of system failure, when execution stops (completely or partially). This is because either all the operations within a transaction are performed or none of them are. Thus, if one operation causes an error then all the changes being made by the transaction thus far are rolled back and none of them will have been made.
- To provide isolation between programs accessing a database concurrently. This means that the work being done by one program will not interact with another programs work.

A database transaction, by definition, must be atomic, consistent, isolated and durable:

- **Atomic** This indicates that a transaction represents an atomic unit of work; that is either all the operations in the transaction are performed or none of them are performed.
- **Consistent** Once completed the transaction must leave the data in a consistent state with any data constraints met (such as a row in one table must not reference an non-existent row in another table in a one to many relationship etc.).
- **Isolated** This relates to the changes being made by concurrent transactions; these changes must be isolated from each other. That is, one transaction cannot see the changes being made by another transaction until the second transaction completes and all changes are permanently saved into the database.
- **Durable** This means that once a transaction completes then the changes it has made are permanently stored into the database (until some future transaction modifies that data).

Database practitioners often refer to these properties of database transactions using the acronym ACID (for Atomic, Consistent, Isolated, Durable).

Not all databases support transactions although all commercial, production quality databases such as Oracle, Microsoft SQL Server and MySQL, do support transactions.

23.6 Further Reading

If you want to know more about databases and database management systems here are some online resources:

- <https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Database> which is the wikipedia entry for databases and thus acts as a useful quick reference and jumping off point for other material.
- https://en.wikibooks.org/wiki/Introduction_to_Computer_Information_Systems/Database which provides a short introduction to databases.
- <https://www.techopedia.com/6/28832/enterprise/databases/introduction-to-databases> another useful starting point for delving deeper into databases.
- https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Object_database for information on Object databases.
- <https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/NoSQL> for an introduction to No SQL or non relational databases.
- <https://www.mysql.com/> for the MySQL Database.
- <https://dev.mysql.com/downloads/workbench> The MySQL Workbench home page.
- <https://www.mongodb.com/> for the home page of the MongoDB site.
- <http://couchdb.apache.org/> for the Apache Couch Database.

If you want to explore the subject of database design (that is design of the tables and links between tables in a database) then these references may help:

- https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Database_design the wikipedia entry for database design.
- <https://www.udemy.com/cwdatabase-design-introduction/> which covers most of the core ideas within database design.
- <http://en.tekstenuitleg.net/articles/software/database-design-tutorial/intro.html> which provides another tutorial that covers most of the core elements of database design.

If you wish to explore SQL more then see:

- <https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/SQL> the wikipedia site for SQL
- https://www.w3schools.com/sql/sql_intro.asp which is the W3 school material on SQL and as such an excellent resource.
- <https://www.codecademy.com/learn/learn-sql> which is a codecademy site for SQL.

Chapter 24

Python DB-API



24.1 Accessing a Database from Python

The standard for accessing a database in Python is the Python DB-API. This specifies a set of standard interfaces for modules that wish to allow Python to access a specific database. The standard is described in PEP 249 (<https://www.python.org/dev/peps/pep-0249>)—a PEP is a Python Enhancement Proposal.

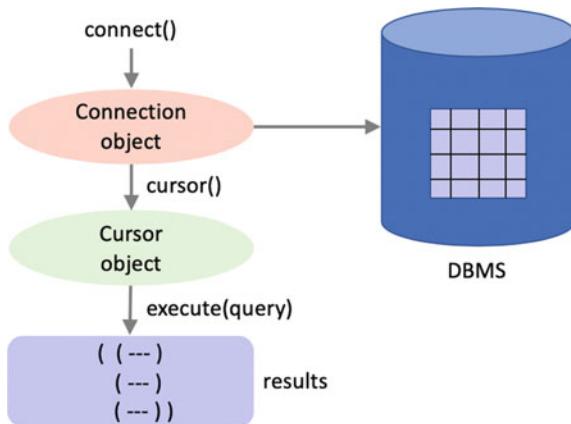
Almost all Python database access modules adhere to this standard. This means that if you are moving from one database to another, or attempting to port a Python program from one database to another, then the APIs you encounter should be very similar (although the SQL processed by different database can also differ). There are modules available for most common databases such as MySQL, Oracle, Microsoft SQL Server etc.

24.2 The DB-API

There are several key elements to the DB-API these are:

- **The connect function.** The `connect()` function that is used to connect to a database and returns a Connection Object.
- **Connection Objects.** Within the DB-API access to a database is achieved through connection objects. These connection objects provide access to cursor objects.
- **Cursor objects** are used to execute SQL statements on the database.
- **The result of an execution.** These are the results that can be fetched as a sequence of sequences (such a tuple of tuples). The standard can thus be used to select, insert or update information in the database.

These elements are illustrated below:



The standard specifies a set of functions and objects to be used to connect to a database. These include the `connection` function, the `Connection Object` and the `Cursor object`.

The above elements are described in more detail below.

24.2.1 The Connect Function

The connection function is defined as:

- `connect(parameters...)`

It is used to make the initial connection to the database. The connection returns a `Connection Object`. The parameters required by the `connection` function are database dependent.

24.2.2 The Connection Object

The `Connection Object` is returned by the `connect()` function. The `Connection object` provides several methods including:

- `close()` used to close the connection once you no longer need it. The connection will be unusable from this point onwards.
- `commit()` used to commit a pending transaction.

- `rollback()` used to rollback all the changes made to the database since the last transaction commit (optional as not all databases provide transaction support).
- `cursor()` returns a new `Cursor` object to use with the connection.

24.2.3 *The Cursor Object*

The `Cursor` object is returned from the `connection.cursor()` method. A `Cursor` Object represents a database cursor, which is used to manage the context of a fetch operation or the execution of a database command. Cursors support a variety of attributes and methods:

- `cursor.execute(operation, parameters)` Prepare and execute a database operation (such as a query statement or an update command). Parameters may be provided as a sequence or mapping and will be bound to variables in the operation. Variables are specified in a database-specific notation.
- `cursor.rowcount` a read-only attribute providing the number of rows that the last `cursor.execute()` call returned (for select style statements) or affected (for update or insert style statements).
- `cursor.description` a read only attribute providing information on the columns present in any results returned from a `SELECT` operation.
- `cursor.close()` closes the cursor. From this point on the cursor will not be usable.

In addition, the `Cursor` object also provides several fetch style methods. These methods are used to return the results of a database query. The data returned is made up of a sequence of sequences (such as a tuple of tuples) where each inner sequence represents a single row returned by the `SELECT` statement. The fetch methods defined by the standard are:

- `cursor.fetchone()` Fetch the next row of a query result set, returning a single sequence, or `None` when no more data is available.
- `cursor.fetchall()` Fetch all (remaining) rows of a query result, returning them as a sequence of sequences.
- `cursor.fetchmany(size)` Fetch the next set of rows of a query result, returning a sequence of sequences (e.g. a tuple of tuples). An empty sequence is returned when no more rows are available. The number of rows to fetch per call is specified by the parameter.

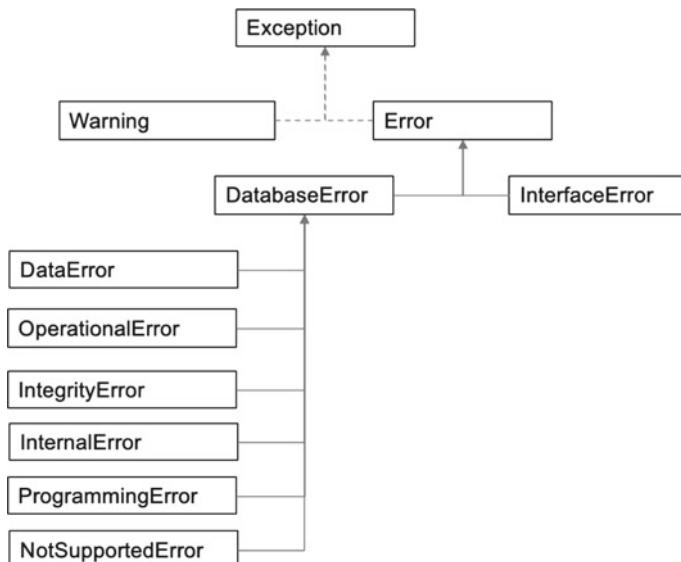
24.2.4 Mappings from Database Types to Python Types

The DB-API standard also specifies a set of mappings from the types used in a database to the types used in Python. For a full listing see the DB-API standard itself but the key mappings include:

<code>Date(year, month, day)</code>	Represents a database date
<code>Time(hour, minute, second)</code>	Represents a time database value
<code>Timestamp(year, month, day, hour, minute, second)</code>	Holds a database time stamp value
<code>String</code>	Used to represent string like database data (such as VARCHARs)

24.2.5 Generating Errors

The standard also specifies a set of Exceptions that can be thrown in different situations. These are presented below and in the following table:



The above diagram illustrates the inheritance hierarchy for the errors and warning associated with the standard. Note that the DB-API `Warning` and `Error` both extend the `Exception` class from standard Python; however, depending on the specific implementation there may be one or more additional classes in the hierarchy between these classes. For example, in the PyMySQL module there is a

`MySQLError` class that extends `Exception` and is then extended by both `Warning` and `Error`.

Also note that `Warning` and `Error` have no relationship with each other. This is because `Warnings` are not considered `Errors` and thus have a separate class hierarchies. However, the `Error` is the root class for all database `Error` classes.

A description of each `Warning` or `Error` class is provided below.

<code>Warning</code>	Used to warn of issues such as data truncations during inserting, etc.
<code>Error</code>	The base class of all other error exceptions
<code>InterfaceError</code>	Exception raised for errors that are related to the database interface rather than the database itself
<code>DatabaseError</code>	Exception raised for errors that are related to the database
<code>DataError</code>	Exception raised for errors that are due to problems with the data such as division by zero, numeric value out of range, etc.
<code>OperationalError</code>	Exception raised for errors that are related to the database's operation and not necessarily under the control of the programmer, e.g. an unexpected disconnect occurs, etc.
<code>IntegrityError</code>	Exception raised when the relational integrity of the database is affected
<code>InternalError</code>	Exception raised when the database encounters an internal error, e.g. the cursor is not valid anymore, the transaction is out of sync, etc.
<code>ProgrammingError</code>	Exception raised for programming errors, e.g. table not found, syntax error in the SQL statement, wrong number of parameters specified, etc.
<code>NotSupportedError</code>	Exception raised in case a method or database API was used which is not supported by the database, e.g. requesting a <code>.rollback()</code> on a connection that does not support transactions or has transactions turned off

24.2.6 Row Descriptions

The `Cursor` object has an attribute `description` that provides a sequence of sequences; each sub sequence provides a description of one of the attributes of the data returned by a `SELECT` statement. The sequence describing the attribute is made up of up to seven items, these include:

- `name` representing the name of the attribute,
- `type_code` which indicates what Python type this attribute has been mapped to,
- `display_size` the size used to display the attribute,
- `internal_size` the size used internally to represent the value,

- `precision` if a real numeric value the precision supported by the attribute,
- `scale` indicates the scale of the attribute,
- `null_ok` this indicates whether null values are acceptable for this attribute.

The first two items (`name` and `type_code`) are mandatory, the other five are optional and are set to `None` if no meaningful values can be provided.

24.3 Transactions in PyMySQL

Transactions are managed in PyMySQL via the database connection object. This object provides the following method:

- `connection.commit()` this causes the current transaction to commit all the changes made permanently to the database. A new transaction is then started.
- `connection.rollback()` this causes all changes that have been made so far (but not permanently stored into the database i.e. Not committed) to be removed. A new transaction is then started.

The standard does not specify how a database interface should manage turning on and off transaction (not least because not all databases support transactions). However, MySQL does support transactions and can work in two modes; one supports the use of transactions as already described; the other uses an *auto commit* mode. In auto commit mode each command sent to the database (whether a `SELECT` statement or an `INSERT/UPDATE` statement) is treated as an independent transaction and any changes are automatically committed at the end of the statement. This *auto commit* mode can be turned on in PyMySQL using:

- `connection.autocommit(True)` turn on autocommit (`False` to turn off auto commit which is the default).

Other associated methods include

- `connection.get_autocommit()` which returns a boolean indicating whether auto commit is turned on or not.
- `connection.begin()` to explicitly begin a new transaction.

24.4 Online Resources

See the following online resources for more information on the Python Database API:

- <https://www.python.org/dev/peps/pep-0249/> Python Database API Specification V2.0.
- <https://wiki.python.org/moin/DatabaseProgramming> Database Programming in Python.
- <https://docs.python-guide.org/scenarios/db/> Databases and Python.

Chapter 25

PyMySQL Module



25.1 The PyMySQL Module

The PyMySQL module provides access to a MySQL database from Python. It implements the Python DB-API v 2.0. This module is a pure Python database interface implementation meaning that it is portable across different operating systems; this is notable because some database interface modules are merely wrappers around other (native) implementations that may or may not be available on different operating systems. For example, a native Linux based database interface module may not be available for the Windows operating system. If you are never going to switch between different operating systems, then this is not a problem of course.

To use the PyMySQL module you will need to install it on your computer. This will involve using a tool such as Anaconda or adding it to your PyCharm project. You can also use pip to install it:

```
> pip install PyMySQL
```

25.2 Working with the PyMySQL Module

To use the PyMySQL module to access a database you will need to follow these steps.

1. Import the module.
2. Make a connection to the host machine running the database and to the database you are using.
3. Obtain a cursor object from the connection object.
4. Execute some SQL using the `cursor.execute()` method.

5. Fetch the result(s) of the SQL using the cursor object (e.g. `fetchall`, `fetchmany` or `fetchone`).
6. Close the database connection.

These steps are essentially boiler plate, code that is you will use them whenever you access a database via PyMySQL (or indeed any DB-API compliant module).

We will take each of these steps in turn.

25.2.1 Importing the Module

As the PyMySQL module is not one of the built-in modules provided by default with Python you will need to import the module into your code, for example using

```
import pymysql
```

Be careful with the case used here as the module name is `pymysql` in the code (if you try to import PyMySQL Python will not find it!).

25.2.2 Connect to the Database

Each database module will have their own specifics for connecting to the database server; these usually involve specifying the machine that the database is running on (as databases can be quiet resource intensive, they are often run on a separate physical computer), the user to use for the connection and any security information required such as a password and the database instance to connect to. In most cases a database is looked after by a database management system (a DBMS) that can manage multiple database instances and it is therefore necessary to specify which database instance you are interested in.

For MySQL, the MySQL database server is a DBMS that can indeed look after multiple database instances. The `pymysql.connect` function thus requires the following information when connecting to the database is:

- The name of the machine hosting the MySQL database server e.g. `dbserver.mydomain.com`. If you want to connect to the same machine as your Python program is running on, then you can use `localhost`. This is a special name reserved for the local machine and avoids you needing to worry about the name of your local computer.
- The *user name* to use for the connection. Most databases limit access to their databases to named *users*. These are not necessary users such as humans that log into a system but rather entities that are allowed to connect to the database and perform certain operations. For example, one user may only be able to read data in the database where as another user is allowed to insert new data into the

database. These users are authenticated by requiring them to provide a password.

- The password for the user.
- The database instance to connect to. As mentioned in the previous chapter a Database Management System (DMS) can manage multiple database instances and thus it is necessary to say which database instance you are interested in.

For example:

```
# Open database connection
connection =
pymysql.connect('localhost', 'username', 'password', 'uni-
database')
```

In this case the machine we are connecting to is ‘localhost’ (that is the same machine as the Python program itself is running on), the user is represented by ‘username’ and ‘password’ and the database instance of interest is called ‘uni-database’.

This returns a Connection object as per the DB-API standard.

25.2.3 *Obtaining the Cursor Object*

You can obtain the cursor object from the connection using the `cursor()` method:

```
# prepare a cursor object using cursor() method
cursor = connection.cursor()
```

25.2.4 *Using the Cursor Object*

Once you have obtained the cursor object you can use it to execute an SQL query or a DML insert, update or delete statement. The following example uses a simple select statement to select all the attributes in the students table for all rows currently stored in the students table:

```
# execute SQL query using execute() method.
cursor.execute('SELECT * FROM students')
```

Note that this method executes the SELECT statement but does not return the set of results directly. Instead the execute method returns an integer indicating the number of rows either affected by the modification or returned as part of the query. In the case of a SELECT statement the number returned can be used to determine which type of fetch method to use.

25.2.5 Obtaining Information About the Results

The Cursor Object can also be used to obtain information about the results to be fetched such as how many rows there are in the results and what the type is of each attribute in the results:

- `cursor.rowcount()` this is a *read-only* property that indicates the number of rows returned for a SELECT statement or rows affected for a UPDATE or INSERT statement.
- `cursor.description()` this is a read-only property that provides a description of each attribute in the results set. Each description provides the name of the attribute and an indication of the type (via a `type_code`) as well as further information on whether the value can be null or not and for numbers scale, precision and size information.

An example of using these two properties is given below:

```
print('cursor.rowcount', cursor.rowcount)
print('cursor.description', cursor.description)
```

A sample of the output generated by these lines is given below:

```
cursor.rowcount 6
cursor.description (('id', 3, None, 11, 11, 0, False),
('name', 253, None, 180, 180, 0, False), ('surname', 253,
None, 180, 180, 0, False), ('subject', 253, None, 180, 180,
0, False), ('email', 253, None, 180, 180, 0, False))
```

25.2.6 Fetching Results

Now that a successful SELECT statement has been run against the database, we can *fetch* the results. The results are returned as a tuple of tuples. As mentioned in the last chapter there are several different fetch options available including `fetchone()`, `fetchmany(size)` and `fetchall()`. In the following example we use the `fetchall()` option as we know that there are only up to six rows that can be returned.

```
# Fetch all the rows and then iterate over the data
data = cursor.fetchall()
for row in data:
    print('row:', row)
```

In this case we loop through each tuple within the data collection and print that row out. However, we could just as easily have extracted the information in the tuple

into individual elements. These elements could then be used to construct an object that could then be processed within an application, for example:

```
for row in data:  
    id, name, surname, subject, email = row  
    student = Student(id, name, surname, subject, email)  
    print(student)
```

25.2.7 Close the Connection

Once you have finished with the database connection it should be closed.

```
# disconnect from server  
connection.close()
```

25.3 Complete PyMySQL Query Example

A complete listing illustrating connecting up to the database, running a SELECT statement and printing out the results using a Student class is given below:

```
import pymysql  
  
class Student:  
    def __init__(self, id, name, surname, subject, email):  
        self.id = id  
        self.name = name  
        self.surname = surname  
        self.subject = subject  
        self.email = email  
  
    def __str__(self):  
        return 'Student[' + str(id) + '] ' + name + ' ' +  
               surname + ' - ' + subject + ' ' + email  
  
# Open database connection  
connection = pymysql.connect('localhost',  
                            'user',  
                            'password',  
                            'uni-database')  
  
# prepare a cursor object using cursor() method  
cursor = connection.cursor()
```

```
# execute SQL query using execute() method.
cursor.execute('SELECT * FROM students')
print('cursor.rowcount', cursor.rowcount)
print('cursor.description', cursor.description)

# Fetch all the rows and then iterate over the data
data = cursor.fetchall()
for row in data:
    student_id, name, surname, subject, email = row
    student = Student(student_id, name, surname, subject,
email)
    print(student)

# disconnect from server
connection.close()
```

The output from this program, for the database created in the last chapter is shown here:

```
cursor.rowcount 6
cursor.description (('id', 3, None, 11, 11, 0, False),
('name', 253, None, 180, 180, 0, False), ('surname', 253,
None, 180, 180, 0, False), ('subject', 253, None, 180, 180,
0, False), ('email', 253, None, 180, 180, 0, False))
Student[1] Phoebe Cooke - Animation pc@my.com
Student[2] Gryff Jones - Games grj@my.com
Student[3] Adam Fosh - Music af@my.com
Student[4] Jasmine Smith - Games js@my.com
Student[5] Tom Jones - Music tj@my.com
Student[6] James Andrews - Games ja@my.com
```

25.4 Inserting Data to the Database

As well as reading data from a database many applications also need to add new data to the database. This is done via the DML (Data Manipulation Language) INSERT statement. The process for this is very similar to running a query against the database using a SELECT statement; that is, you need to make a connection, obtain a cursor object and execute the statement. The one difference here is that you do not need to fetch the results.

```

import pymysql

# Open database connection
connection = pymysql.connect('localhost', 'user', 'password', 'uni-database')

# prepare a cursor object using cursor() method
cursor = connection.cursor()
try:
    # Execute INSERT command
    cursor.execute("INSERT INTO students (id, name, surname,
subject, email) VALUES (7, 'Denise', 'Byrne', 'History',
'db@my.com')")
    # Commit the changes to the database
    connection.commit()
except:
    # Something went wrong
    # rollback the changes
    connection.rollback()

# Close the database connection
connection.close()

```

The result of running this code is that the database is updated with a seventh row for ‘Denise Byrne’. This can be seen in the MySQL Workbench if we look at the contents of the students table:

Result Grid					
	id	name	surname	subject	email
1	Phoebe	Cooke	Animation	pc@my.com	
2	Gryff	Jones	Games	grj@my.com	
3	Adam	Fosh	Music	af@my.com	
4	Jasmine	Smith	Games	js@my.com	
5	Tom	Jones	Music	tj@my.com	
6	James	Andrews	Games	ja@my.com	
7	Denise	Byrne	History	db@my.com	

There are a couple of points to note about this code example. The first is that we have used the double quotes around the string defining the INSERT command—this is because a double quotes string allows us to include single quotes within that string. This is necessary as we need to quote any string values passed to the database (such as ‘Denise’).

The second thing to note is that by default the PyMySQL database interface requires the programmer to decide when to commit or rollback a transaction. A transaction was introduced in the last chapter as an atomic unit of work that must either be completed or as a whole or rollback so that no changes are made. However, the way in which we indicate that a transaction is completed is by calling

the `commit()` method on the database connection. In turn we can indicate that we want to rollback the current transaction by calling `rollback()`. In either case, once the method has been invoked a new transaction is started for any further database activity.

In the above code we have used a `try` block to ensure that if everything succeeds, we will commit the changes made, but if an exception is thrown (of any kind) we will rollback the transaction—this is a common pattern.

25.5 Updating Data in the Database

If we are able to insert new data into the database, we may also want to update the data in a database, for example to correct some information. This is done using the `UPDATE` statement which must indicate which existing row is being updated as well as what the new data should be.

```
import pymysql
# Open database connection
connection = pymysql.connect('localhost',
                             'user',
                             'password',
                             'uni-database')

# prepare a cursor object using cursor() method
cursor = connection.cursor()
try:
    # Execute UPDATE command
    cursor.execute("UPDATE students SET email =
'denise@my.com' WHERE id = 7")
    # Commit the changes to the database
    connection.commit()
except:
    # rollback the changes if an exception / error
    connection.rollback()

# Close the database connection
connection.close()
```

In this example we are updating the student with id 7 such that their email address will be changed to ‘denise@my.com’. This can be verified by examining the contents of the `students` table in the MySQL Workbench:

Result Grid				
Filter Rows: <input type="text"/> Search				
Edit: Export/Import:				
id	name	surname	subject	email
1	Phoebe	Cooke	Animation	pc@my.com
2	Gryff	Jones	Games	grj@my.com
3	Adam	Fosh	Music	af@my.com
4	Jasmine	Smith	Games	js@my.com
5	Tom	Jones	Music	tj@my.com
6	James	Andrews	Games	ja@my.com
7	Denise	Byrne	History	denise@my.com

25.6 Deleting Data in the Database

Finally, it is also possible to delete data from a database, for example if a student leaves their course. This follows the same format as the previous two examples with the difference that the `DELETE` statement is used instead:

```
import pymysql

# Open database connection
connection = pymysql.connect('localhost',
                             'user',
                             'password',
                             'uni-database')

# prepare a cursor object using cursor() method
cursor = connection.cursor()
try:
    # Execute DELETE command
    cursor.execute("DELETE FROM students WHERE id = 7")
    # Commit the changes to the database
    connection.commit()
except:
    # rollback the changes if an exception / error
    connection.rollback()

# Close the database connection
connection.close()
```

In this case we have deleted the student with id 7. We can see that again in the MySQL Workbench by examining the contents of the `students` table after this code has run:

Result Grid		Filter Rows:	Search	Edit:	
	id	name	surname	subject	email
▶	1	Phoebe	Cooke	Animation	pc@my.com
	2	Gryff	Jones	Games	grj@my.com
	3	Adam	Fosh	Music	af@my.com
	4	Jasmine	Smith	Games	js@my.com
	5	Tom	Jones	Music	tj@my.com
	6	James	Andrews	Games	ja@my.com

25.7 Creating Tables

It is not just data that you can add to a database; if you wish you can programmatically create new tables to be used with an application. This process follows exactly the same pattern as those used for INSERT, UPDATE and DELETE. The only difference is that the command sent to the database contains a CREATE statement with a description of the table to be created. This is illustrated below:

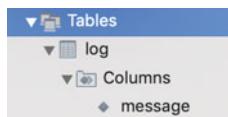
```
import pymysql

# Open database connection
connection = pymysql.connect('localhost',
                             'user',
                             'password',
                             'uni-database')

# prepare a cursor object using cursor() method
cursor = connection.cursor()
try:
    # Execute CREATE command
    cursor.execute("CREATE TABLE log (message VARCHAR(100)
NOT NULL)")
    # Commit the changes to the database
    connection.commit()
except:
    # rollback the changes if an exception / error
    connection.rollback()

# Close the database connection
connection.close()
```

This creates a new table log within the uni-database; this can be seen by looking at the tables listed for the uni-database within the MySQL Workbench.



25.8 Online Resources

See the following online resources for more information on the Python Database API:

- <https://pymysql.readthedocs.io/en/latest/> PyMySQL Documentation site.
- <https://github.com/PyMySQL/PyMySQL> Git hub repository for the PyMySQL library.

25.9 Exercises

In this exercise you will create a database and tables based on a set of transactions stored in a current account. You can use the account class you created in the CSV and Excel chapter for this.

You will need two tables, one for the account information and one for the transaction history.

The primary key of the account information table can be used as the foreign key for the *transaction history* table.

Then write a function that takes an Account object and populates the tables with the appropriate data.

To create the account information table you might use the following DDL:

```
CREATE TABLE acc_info (idacc_info INT NOT NULL, name  
VARCHAR(255) NOT NULL, PRIMARY KEY (idacc_info))
```

While for the transactions table you might use:

```
CREATE TABLE transactions (idtransactions INT NOT NULL, type  
VARCHAR(45) NOT NULL, amount VARCHAR(45) NOT NULL, account INT  
NOT NULL, PRIMARY KEY (idtransactions))"
```

Remember to be careful with integers and decimals if you are creating an SQL string such as:

```
statement = "INSERT into transactions (idtransactions, type,  
amount, account) VALUES (" + str(id) + ", '" + action + "', " +  
str(amount) + ", " + str(account_number) + ")"
```

Part VI

Logging

Chapter 26

Introduction to Logging



26.1 Introduction

Many programming languages have common logging libraries including Java and C# and of course Python also has a logging module. Indeed the Python logging module has been part of the built in modules since Python 2.3.

This chapter discusses why you should add logging to your programs, what you should (and should not) log and why just using the `print()` function is not sufficient.

26.2 Why Log?

Logging is typically a key aspect of any production application; this is because it is important to provide appropriate information to allow future investigation following some event or issue in such applications. These investigations include:

- **Diagnosing failures;** that is why did an application fail/crash.
- **Identifying unusual or unexpected behaviour;** which might not cause the application to fail but which may leave it in an unexpected state or where data may be corrupted etc.
- **Identifying performance or capacity issues;** in such situations the application is performing as expected by it is not meeting some non-functional requirements associated with the speed at which it is operating or its ability to scale as the amount of data or the number of users grows.
- **Dealing with attempted malicious behaviour** in which some outside agent is attempting to affect the behaviour of the system or to acquire information which they should not have access to etc. This could happen for example, if you are creating a Python web application and a user tries to hack into your web server.

- **Regulatory or legal compliance.** In some cases records of program execution may be required for regulatory or legal reasons. This is particularly true of the financial sector where records must be kept for many years in case there is a need to investigate the organisations' or individuals' behaviour.

26.3 What Is the Purpose of Logging?

In general there are therefore two general reason to log what an application is doing during it operation:

- For diagnostic purposes so that recorded events/steps can be used to analyse the behaviour of the system when something goes wrong.
- Auditing purposes that allow for later analysis of the behaviour of the system for business, legal or regulatory purposes. For example, in this case to determine who did what with what and when.

Without such logged information it is impossible *after the event* to know what happened. For example, if all you know is that an application crashed (unexpectedly stopped executing) how can you determine what state the application was in, what functions, methods etc. were being executed and which statements run?

Remember that although a developer may have been using an IDE to run their applications during development and may possibly been using the debugging facilities available that allow you to see what functions or methods, statements and even variable values are place; this is not how most production systems are run. In general a production Python system will be run either from a command line or possibly through a short cut (on a Windows box) to simplify running the program. All the user will know is that something failed or that the behaviour they expected didn't occur—if in fact they are aware of any issue at all!

Logs are therefore key to *after the event* analysis of failures, unexpected behaviour or for analysis of the operation of the system for business reasons.

26.4 What Should You Log?

One question that you might be considering at this point is ‘what information should I log?’.

An application should log enough information so that post event investigators can understand what was happening, when and where. In general this means that you will want to log the time of the log message, the module/filename, function name or method name executing, potentially the log level being used (see later) and in some cases the parameter values/state of the environment, program or class involved.

In many cases developers log the entry (and to a lesser extent) the exit from a function or method. However, it may also be useful to log what happens at branch points within a function or method so that the logic of the application can be followed.

All applications should log all errors/exceptions. Although care is needed to ensure that this is done appropriately. For example if an exception is caught and then re thrown several times it is not necessary to log it every time it is caught. Indeed doing this can make the log files much larger, cause confusion when the problem is being investigated and result in unnecessary overheads. One common approach is to log an exception where it is first raised and caught and not to log it after that.

26.5 What Not to Log

The follow on question to consider is ‘what information should I not log?’.

One general area not to log is any personal or sensitive information including any information that can be used to identify an individual. This sort of information is known as PII or *Personally Identification Information*.

Such information includes

- user ids and passwords,
- email addresses,
- date of birth, birth place,
- personally identifiable financial information such as bank account details, credit card details etc.,
- biometric information,
- medical/health information,
- government issued personal information such as passport details, drivers license number, social security numbers, National Insurance numbers etc.,
- official organisational information such as professional registrations and membership numbers,
- physical addresses, phone (land-line) numbers, mobile phone numbers,
- verification elated information such as mother’s maiden name, pets’ names, high school, first school, favourite film, etc.,
- it also increasing includes online information relating to social media such as Facebook or LinkedIn accounts.

All of the above is sensitive information and much of it can be used to identify an individual; none of this information should be logged directly.

That does not mean that you cannot and shouldn’t log that a user logged in; you may well need to do that. However, the information should at least be obfuscated and should not include any information not required. For example you may record that a user represented by some id attempted to log in at a specific time and whether they were successful or not. However, you should not log their password and may

not log the actual userid—instead you may log an id that can be used to map to their actual userid.

You should also be careful about directly logging data input too an application directly into a log file. One way in which a malicious agent can attack an application (particularly a web application) is by attempting to send very large amounts of data to it (as part of a field or as a parameter to an operation). If the application blindly logs all data submitted to it, then the log files can fill up very quickly. This can result in the file store being used by the application filling up and causing potential problems for all software using the same file store. This form of attack is known as a log (or log file) injection attack and is well documented (see https://www.owasp.org/index.php/Log_Injection which is part of the well respected Open Web Application Security Project).

Another point to note is that it is not merely enough to log an error. This is not error handling; logging an error does not mean you have handled it; only that you have noted it. An application should still decide how it should manage the error or exception.

In general you should also aim for empty logs in a production system; that is only information that needs to be logged in a production system should be logged (often information about errors, exceptions or other unexpected behaviour). However, during testing much more detail is required so that the execution of the system should be followed. It should therefore be possible to select how much information is logged depending on the environment the code is running in (that is within a test environment or within a production environment).

A final point to note is that it is important to log information to the correct place. Many applications (and organisations) log general information to one log file, errors and exceptions to another and security information to a third. It is therefore important to know where your log information is being sent and not to send information to the wrong log.

26.6 Why Not Just Use Print?

Assuming that you want to log information in your application then next question is how should you do that? Through this book we have been using the Python print() function to print out information that indicates results generated by our code but also at times what is happening with a function or a method etc.

Thus we need to consider whether using the print() function the best way to log information.

In actual fact, using print() to log information in a production system is almost never the right answer, this is for several reasons:

- The print() function by default writes strings out to the standard output (stdout) or standard error output (stderr) which by default directs output to the console/terminal. For example, when you run an application within an IDE, the output is

displayed in the Console window. If you run an application from the command line then the output is directed back to that command/terminal window. Both of these are fine during development, but what if the program is not run from a command window, perhaps instead it is started up by the operating system automatically (as is typical of numerous services such as a print service or a web server). In this case there is no terminal/console window to send the data to; instead the data is just lost. As it happens the stdout and stderr output streams can be directed to a file (or files). However, this is typically done when the program is launched and may be easily omitted. In addition there is only the option of sending all stdout to a specific file or all error output to the stderr.

- Another issue with using the `print()` function is that all calls to `print` will be output. When using most loggers it is possible to specify the *log level* required. These different log levels allow different amounts of information to be generated depending upon the scenario. For example, in a well tested reliable production system we may only want error related or critical information to be logged. This will reduce the amount of information we are collecting and reduce any performance impact introduced by logging into the application. However, during testing phases we may want a far more detailed level of logging.
- In other situations we may wish to change the log level being used for a running production system without needing to modify the actual code (as this has the potential to introduce errors into the code). Instead we would like to have the facility to externally change the way in which the logging system behaves, for example through a configuration file. This allows system administrators to modify the amount and the detail of the information being logged. It typically also allows the designation of the log information to be changed.
- Finally, when using the `print()` function a developer can use whatever format they like, they can include a timestamp on the message or not, they can include the module or function/method name or not they can include parameters of not. Using a logging system usually standardises the information generated along with the log message. Thus all log messages will have (or not have) a timestamp, or all messages will include (or not include) information on the function or method in which they were generated etc.

26.7 Online Resources

For further information on logging see the following:

- https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Log_file A wikipedia page on logging.
- <https://www.codeproject.com/Articles/42354/The-Art-of-Logging> An interesting article on the art of logging.
- www.owasp.org/index.php The Open Web Application Security Project (OWASP).

Chapter 27

Logging in Python

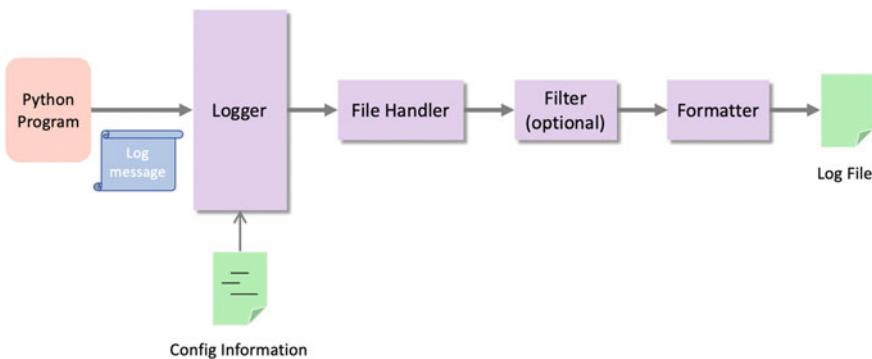


27.1 The Logging Module

Python has included a built-in logging module since Python 2.3. This module, the logging module, defines functions and classes which implement a flexible logging framework that can be used in any Python application/script or in Python libraries/modules.

Although different logging frameworks differ in the specific details of what they offer; almost all offer the same core elements (although different names are sometimes used). The Python logging module is no different and the core elements that make up the logging framework and its processing pipeline are shown below (note that a very similar diagram could be drawn for logging frameworks in Java, Scala, C++ etc.).

The following diagram illustrates a Python program that uses the built-in Python logging framework to log messages to a file.



The core elements of the logging framework (some of which are optional) are shown above and described below:

- **Log Message** This is the message to be logged from the application.
- **Logger** Provides the programmers entry point/interface to the logging system. The Logger class provides a variety of methods that can be used to log messages at different levels.
- **Handler** Handlers determine where to send a log message, default handlers include file handlers that send messages to a file and HTTP handlers that send messages to a web server.
- **Filter** This is an optional element in the logging pipeline. They can be used to further filter the information to be logged providing fine grained control of which log messages are actually output (for example to a log file).
- **Formatter** These are used to format the log message as required. This may involve adding timestamps, module and function/method information etc. to the original log message.
- **Configuration Information** The logger (and associated handlers, filters and formatters) can be configured either programmatically in Python or through configuration files. These configuration files can be written using key-value pairs or in a YAML file (which is a simple mark up language). YAML stands for Yet Another Markup Language!

It is worth noting that much of the logging framework is hidden from the developer who really only sees the logger; the remainder of the logging pipeline is either configured by default or via log configuration information typically in the form of a log configuration file.

27.2 The Logger

The Logger provides the programmers interface to the logging pipeline.

A Logger object is obtained from the `getLogger()` function defined in the logging module. The following code snippet illustrates acquiring the default logger and using it to log an error message. Note that the logging module must be imported:

```
import logging

logger = logging.getLogger()

logger.error('This should be used with something unexpected')
```

The output from this short application is logged to the console as this is the default configuration:

```
This should be used with something unexpected
```

27.3 Controlling the Amount of Information Logged

Log messages are actually associated with a log level. These log levels are intended to indicate the severity of the message being logged. There are six different log levels associated with the Python logging framework, these are:

- **NOTSET** At this level no logging takes place and logging is effectively turned off.
- **DEBUG** This level is intended to provide detailed information, typically of interest when a developer is diagnosing a bug or issues within an application.
- **INFO** This level is expected to provide less detail than the DEBUG log level as it is expected to provide information that can be used to confirm that the application is working as expected.
- **WARNING** This is used to provide information on an unexpected event or an indication of some likely problem that a developer or system administration might wish to investigate further.
- **ERROR** This is used to provide information on some serious issue or problem that the application has not been able to deal with and that is likely to mean that the application cannot function correctly.
- **CRITICAL** This is the highest level of issue and is reserved for critical situations such as ones in which the program can no longer continue executing.

The log levels are relative to one another and defined in a hierarchy. Each log level has a numeric value associated with it as shown below (although you should never need to use the numbers). Thus INFO is a higher log level than DEBUG, in turn ERROR is a higher log level than WARNING, INFO, DEBUG etc.



CRITICAL	50
ERROR	40
WARNING	30
INFO	20
DEBUG	10
NOTSET	0

Increasing log levels

Associated with the log level that a message is logged with, a logger also has a log level associated with it. The logger will process all messages that are at the loggers log level or above that level. Thus if a logger has a log level of WARNING then it will log all messages logged using the warning, error and critical log levels.

Generally speaking, an application will not use the DEBUG level in a production system. This is usually considered inappropriate as it is only intended for debug scenarios. The INFO level may be considered appropriate for a production system although it is likely to produce large amounts of information as it typically traces the execution of functions and methods. If an application has been well tested and verified then it is only really warnings and errors which should occur/be of concern. It is therefore not uncommon to default to the WARNING level for production

systems (indeed this is why the default log level is set to WARNING within the Python logging system).

If we now look at the following code that obtains the default logger object and then uses several different logger methods, we can see the effect of the log levels on the output:

```
import logging

logger = logging.getLogger()

logger.debug('This is to help with debugging')
logger.info('This is just for information')
logger.warning('This is a warning!')
logger.error('This should be used with something unexpected')
logger.critical('Something serious')
```

The default log level is set to *warning*, and thus only messages logged at the warning level or above will be printed out:

```
This is a warning!
This should be used with something unexpected
Something serious
```

As can be seen from this, the messages logged at the debug and info level have been ignored.

However, the Logger object allows us to change the log level programmatically using the `setLevel()` method, for example `logger.setLevel(logging.DEBUG)` or via the `logging.basicConfig(level = logging.DEBUG)` function; both of these will set the logging level to DEBUG. Note that the log level must be set before the logger is obtained.

If we add one of the above approaches to setting the log level to the previous program we will change the amount of log information generated:

```
import logging

logging.basicConfig(level=logging.DEBUG)
logger = logging.getLogger()

logger.warning('This is a warning!')
logger.info('This is just for information')
logger.debug('This is to help with debugging')
logger.error('This should be used with something unexpected')
logger.critical('Something serious')
```

This will now output all the log messages as debug is the lowest logging level. We can of course turn off logging by setting the log level to NOTSET

```
logger.setLevel(logging.NOTSET)
```

Alternatively you can set the Loggers disabled attribute to True:

```
logging.Logger.disabled = True
```

27.4 Logger Methods

The Logger class provides a number of methods that can be used to control what is logged including:

- `setLevel(level)` Sets this loggers log level.
- `getEffectiveLevel()` Returns this loggers log level.
- `isEnabledFor(level)` Checks to see if this logger is enabled for the log level specified.
- `debug(message)` logs messages at the debug level.
- `info(message)` logs messages at the info level.
- `warning(message)` logs messages at the warning level.
- `error(message)` logs messages at the error level.
- `critical(message)` logs messages at the critical level.
- `exception(message)` This method logs a message at the error level. However, it can only be used within an exception handler and includes a stack trace of any associated exception, for example:

```
import logging

logger = logging.getLogger()

try:
    print('starting')
    x = 1 / 0
    print(x)
except:
    logger.exception('an exception message')

print('Done')
```

- `log(level, message)` logs messages at the log level specified as the first parameter.

In addition there are several methods that are used to manage handlers and filters:

- `addFilter(filter)` This method adds the specified filter filter to this logger.
- `removeFilter(filter)` The specified filter is removed from this logger object.
- `addHandler(handler)` The specified handler is added to this logger.
- `removeHandler(handler)` Removes the specified handler from this logger.

27.5 Default Logger

A default (or *root*) logger is always available from the logging framework.

This logger can be accessed via the functions defined in the `logging` module. These functions allow messages to be logged at different levels using methods such as `info()`, `error()`, `warning()` but without the need to obtain a reference to a logger object first. For example:

```
import logging

# Set the root logger level
logging.basicConfig(level=logging.DEBUG)

# Use root (default) logger
logging.debug('This is to help with debugging')
logging.info('This is just for information')
logging.warning('This is a warning!')
logging.error('This should be used with something unexpected')
logging.critical('Something serious')
```

This example sets the logging level for the root or default logger to DEBUG (the default is WARNING). It then uses the default logger to generate a range of log messages at different levels (from DEBUG up to CRITICAL). The output from this program is given below:

```
DEBUG:root:This is to help with debugging
INFO:root:This is just for information
WARNING:root:This is a warning!
ERROR:root:This should be used with something unexpected
CRITICAL:root:Something serious
```

Note that the format used by default with the root logger prints the log level, the name of the logger generating the output and the message. From this you can see that it is the root logger that is generating the output.

27.6 Module Level Loggers

Most modules will not use the root logger to log information, instead they will use a *named* or *module level* logger. Such a logger can be configured independently of the root logger. This allows developers to turn on logging just for a module rather than for a whole application. This can be useful if a developer wishes to investigate an issue that is located within a single module.

Previous code examples in this chapter have used the `getLogger()` function with no parameters to obtain a logger object, for example:

```
logger = logging.getLogger()
```

This is really just another way of obtaining a reference to the root logger which is used by the stand alone logging functions such as `logging.info()`, `logging.debug()` function, thus:

```
logging.warning('my warning')
```

and

```
logger = logging.getLogger()  
logger.warning('my warning')
```

Have exactly the same effect; the only difference is that the first version involves less code.

However, it is also possible to create a *named* logger. This is a separate logger object that has its own name and can potentially have its own log level, handlers and formatters etc. To obtain a named logger pass a *name* string into the `getLogger()` method:

```
logger1 = logging.getLogger('my logger')
```

This returns a logger object with the name ‘my logger’. Note that this may be a brand new logger object, however if any other code within the current system has previously requested a logger called ‘my logger’ then that logger object will be returned to the current code. Thus multiple calls to `getLogger()` with the same name will always return a reference to the same Logger object.

It is common practice to use the name of the module as the name of the logger; as only one module with a specific name should exist within any specific system. The name of the module does not need to be hard coded as it can be obtained using the `__name__` module attribute, it is thus common to see:

```
logger2 = logging.getLogger(__name__)
```

We can see the effect of each of these statements by printing out each logger:

```
logger = logging.getLogger()
print('Root logger:', logger)

logger1 = logging.getLogger('my logger')
print('Named logger:', logger1)

logger2 = logging.getLogger(__name__)
print('Module logger:', logger2)
```

When the above code is run the output is:

```
Root logger: <RootLogger root (WARNING)>
Named logger: <Logger my logger (WARNING)>
Module logger: <Logger __main__ (WARNING)>
```

This shows that each logger has their own name (the code was run in the main module and thus the module name was `__main__`) and all three loggers have an effective log level of WARNING (which is the default).

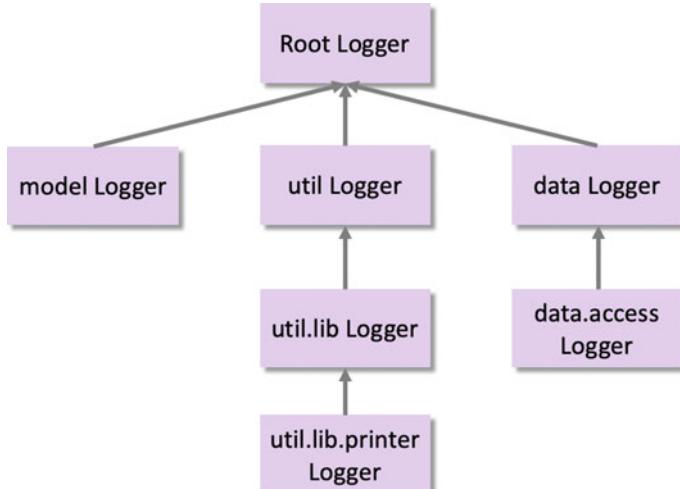
27.7 Logger Hierarchy

There is in fact a hierarchy of loggers with the root logger at the top of this hierarchy.

All *named* loggers are below the root logger.

The name of a logger can actually be a period-separated hierarchical value such as `util`, `util.lib` and `util.lib.printer`. Loggers that are further down the hierarchy are children of loggers further up the logger hierarchy.

For example given a logger called `lib`, then it will be below the `root` logger but above the logger with the name `util.lib`. This logger will in turn be above the logger called `util.lib.printer`. This is illustrated in the following diagram:



The logger name hierarchy is analogous to the Python package hierarchy, and identical to it if you organise your loggers on a per-module basis using the recommended construction `logging.getLogger(__name__)`.

This hierarchy is important when considering the log level. If a log level has not been set for the current logger then it will look to its parent to see if that logger has a log level set. If it does that will be the log level used. This search back up the logger hierarchy will continue until either an explicit log level is found or the root logger is encountered which has a default log level of WARNING.

This is useful as it is not necessary to explicitly set the log level for every logger object used in an application. Instead it is only necessary to set the root log level (or for a module hierarchy an appropriate point in the module hierarchy). This can then be overridden where specifically required.

27.8 Formatters

There are two levels at which you can format the messages logged, these are within the log message passed to a logging method (such as `info()` or `warn()`) and via the top level configuration that indicates what additional information may be added to the individual log message.

27.8.1 *Formatting Log Messages*

The log message can have control characters that indicate what values should be placed within the message, for example:

```
logger.warning('%s is set to %d', 'count', 42)
```

This indicates that the format string expects to be given a string and a number. The parameters to be substituted into the format string follow the format string as a comma separated list of values.

27.8.2 *Formatting Log Output*

The logging pipeline can be configured to incorporate standard information with each log message. This can be done globally for all handlers. It is also possible to programmatically set a specific formatter on an individual handler; this is discussed in the next section.

To globally set the output format for log messages use the `logging.basicConfig()` function using the named parameter `format`.

The format parameter takes a string that can contain LogRecord attributes organised as you see fit. There is a comprehensive list of LogRecord attributes which can be referenced at <https://docs.python.org/3/library/logging.html#logrecord-attributes>. The key ones are:

- args a tuple listing the arguments used to call the associated function or method.
- asctime indicates the time that the log message was created.
- filename the name of the file containing the log statement.
- module the module name (the name portion of the filename).
- funcName the name of the function or method containing the log statement.
- levelname the log level of the log statement.
- message the log message itself as provided to the log method.

The effect of some of these are illustrated below.

```
import logging

logging.basicConfig(format='%(asctime)s %(message)s',
level=logging.DEBUG)

logger = logging.getLogger(__name__)

def do_something():
    logger.debug('This is to help with debugging')
    logger.info('This is just for information')
    logger.warning('This is a warning!')
    logger.error('This should be used with something
unexpected')
    logger.critical('Something serious')

do_something()
```

The above program generates the following log statements:

```
2019-02-20 16:50:34,084 This is to help with debugging
2019-02-20 16:50:34,084 This is just for information
2019-02-20 16:50:34,085 This is a warning!
2019-02-20 16:50:34,085 This should be used with something
unexpected
2019-02-20 16:50:34,085 Something serious
```

However, it might be useful to know the log level associated with the log statements, as well as the function that the log statements were called from. It is possible to obtain this information by changing the format string passed to the `logging.basicConfig()` function:

```
logging.basicConfig(format='%(asctime)s[%(levelname)s]  
%(funcName)s: %(message)s', level=logging.DEBUG)
```

Which will now generate the output within log level information and the function involved:

```
2019-02-20 16:54:16,250[DEBUG] do_something: This is to help  
with debugging  
2019-02-20 16:54:16,250[INFO] do_something: This is just for  
information  
2019-02-20 16:54:16,250[WARNING] do_something: This is a  
warning!  
2019-02-20 16:54:16,250[ERROR] do_something: This should be  
used with something unexpected  
2019-02-20 16:54:16,250[CRITICAL] do_something: Something  
serious
```

We can even control the format of the date time information associated with the log statement using the `datefmt` parameter of the `logging.basicConfig()` function:

```
logging.basicConfig(format='%(asctime)s %(message)s',  
datefmt='%m/%d/%Y %I:%M:%S %p', level=logging.DEBUG)
```

This format string uses the formatting options used by the `datetime.strptime()` function (see <https://docs.python.org/3/library/datetime.html#strftime-strptime-behavior>) for information on the control characters, in this case

- `%m`—Month as a zero-padded decimal number e.g. 01, 11, 12.
- `%d`—Day of the month as a zero-padded decimal number e.g. 01, 12 etc.
- `%Y`—Year with century as a decimal number e.g. 2020.
- `%I`—Hour (12-h clock) as a zero-padded decimal number e.g. 01, 10 etc.
- `%M`—Minute as a zero-padded decimal number e.g. 0, 01, 59 etc.
- `%S`—Second as a zero-padded decimal number e.g. 00, 01, 59 etc.
- `%p`—Either AM or PM.

Thus the output generated using the above `datefmt` string is:

```
02/20/2019 05:05:18 PM This is to help with debugging  
02/20/2019 05:05:18 PM This is just for information  
02/20/2019 05:05:18 PM This is a warning!  
02/20/2019 05:05:18 PM This should be used with something  
unexpected  
02/20/2019 05:05:18 PM Something serious
```

To set a formatter on an individual handler see the next section.

27.9 Online Resources

For further information on the Python logging framework see the following:

- <https://docs.python.org/3/library/logging.html> The standard library documentation on the logging facilities in Python.
- <https://docs.python.org/3/howto/logging.html> A how to guide on logging from the Python standard library documentation.
- <https://pymotw.com/3/logging/index.html> Python Module of the Week logging page.

27.10 Exercises

This exercise will involve adding logging to the `Account` class you have been working on in this book.

You should add log methods to each of the methods in the class using either the `debug` or `info` methods. You should also obtain a module logger for the account classes.

Chapter 28

Advanced Logging



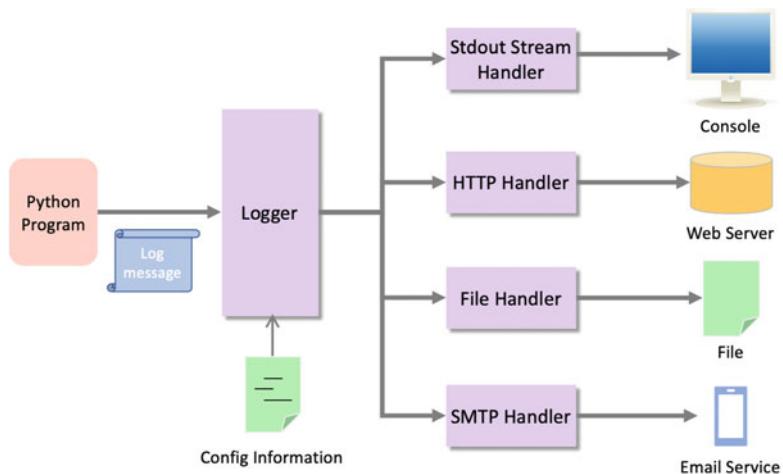
28.1 Introduction

In this chapter we go further into the configuration and modification of the Python logging module. In particular we will look at Handlers (used to determine the destination fo log messages), Filters which can be used by Handlers to provide finer grained control of log output and logger configuration files. We conclude the chapter by considering performance issues associated with logging.

28.2 Handlers

Within the logging pipeline, it ia handlers that send the log message to their final destination.

By default the handler is set up to direct output to the console/terminal associated with the running program. However, this can be changed to send the log messages to a file, to an email service, to a web server etc. Or indeed to any combination of these as there can be multiple handlers configured for a logger. This is shown in the diagram below:



In the above diagram the logger has been configured to send all log messages to four different handlers which allow a log message to be written to the console, to a web server to a file and to an email service. Such a behaviour may be required because:

- The web server will allow developers access to a web interface that allows them to see the log files even if they do not have permission to access a production server.
- The log file ensures that all the log data is permanently stored in a file within the file store.
- An email message may be sent to a notification system so that someone will be notified that there is an issue to be investigated.
- The console may still be available to the system administrators who may wish to look at the log messages generated.

The Python logging framework comes with several different handlers as suggested above and listed below:

- `logging.StreamHandler` sends messages to outputs such as `stdout`, `stderr` etc.
- `logging.FileHandler` sends log messages to files. There are several varieties of File Handler in addition to the basic `FileHandler`, these include the `logging.handlers.RotatingFileHandler` (which will rotate log files based on a maximum file size) and `logging.handlers.TimeRotatingFileHandler` (which rotates the log file at specified time intervals e.g. daily).
- `logging.handlers.SocketHandler` which sends messages to a TCP/IP socket where it can be received by a TCP Server.
- `logging.handlers.SMTPHandler` that sends messages by the SMTP (Simple Mail Transfer Protocol) to a email server.
- `logging.handlers.SysLogHandler` that sends log messages to a Unix `syslog` program.

- `logging.handlers.NTEventLogHandler` that sends message to a Windows event log.
- `logging.handlers.HTTPHandler` which sends messages to a HTTP server.
- `logging.NullHandler` that does nothing with error messages. This is often used by library developers who want to include logging in their applications but expect developers to set up an appropriate handler when they use the library.

All of these handlers can be configured programmatically or via a configuration file.

28.2.1 Setting the Root Output Handler

The following example, uses the `logging.basicConfig()` function to set up the root logger to use a `FileHandler` that will write the log messages to a file called ‘example.log’:

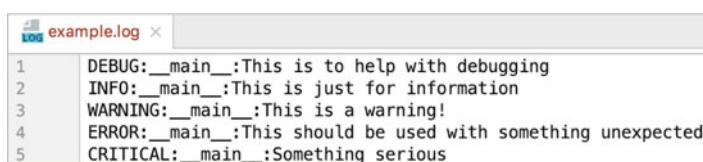
```
import logging

# Sets a file handler on the root logger to
# save log messages to the example.log file
logging.basicConfig(filename='example.log', level=logging.DEBUG)

# If no handler is explicitly set on the name logger
# it will delegate the messages to the parent logger to handle
logger = logging.getLogger(__name__)

logger.debug('This is to help with debugging' )
logger.info('This is just for information' )
logger.warning('This is a warning!' )
logger.error('This should be used with something unexpected' )
logger.critical('Something serious' )
```

Note that if no handler is specified for a named logger then it delegates output to the parent (in this case the root) logger. The file generated for the above program is shown below:



A screenshot of a terminal window titled "example.log". The window contains the following log entries:

```
1 DEBUG:_main_:This is to help with debugging
2 INFO:_main_:This is just for information
3 WARNING:_main_:This is a warning!
4 ERROR:_main_:This should be used with something unexpected
5 CRITICAL:_main_:Something serious
```

As can be seen from this the default formatter is now configured for a FileHandler. This FileHandler adds the log message level before the log message itself.

28.2.2 Programmatically Setting the Handler

It is also possible to programmatically create a handler and set it for the logger. This is done by instantiating one of the existing handler classes (or by subclassing an existing handler such as the root Handler class or the FileHandler etc.). The instantiated handler can then be added as a handler to the logger (remember the logger can have multiple handlers this is why the method is called addHandler() rather than something such as setHandler).

An example of explicitly setting the FileHandler for a logger is given below:

```
import logging

# Empty basic config turns off default console handler
logging.basicConfig()

logger = logging.getLogger(__name__)
logger.setLevel(logging.DEBUG)

# create file handler which logs to the specified file
file_handler = logging.FileHandler('detailed.log')

# Add the handler to the Logger
logger.addHandler(file_handler)

# 'application' code
def do_something():
    logger.debug('debug message')
    logger.info('info message')
    logger.warning('warn message')
    logger.error('error message')
    logger.critical('critical message')

logger.info('Starting')
do_something()
logger.info('Done')
```

The result of running this code is that a log file is created with the logged messages:

1	Starting
2	debug message
3	info message
4	warn message
5	error message
6	critical message
7	Done

Given that this is a lot more code than using the `basicConfig()` function; the question here might be ‘Why bother?’. The answer is two fold:

- You can have different handlers for different loggers rather than setting the handler to be used centrally.
- Each handler can have its own format set so that logging to a file has a different format to logging to the console.

We can set the format for the handler by instantiating the `logging.Formatter` class with an appropriate format string. The formatter object can then be applied to a handler using the `setFormatter()` method on the handler object.

For example, we can modify the above code to include a formatter that is then set on the file handler as shown below.

```
# create file handler which logs to the specified file
file_handler = logging.FileHandler('detailed.log')

# Create formatter for the file_handler
formatter = logging.Formatter('%(asctime)s - %(funcName)s - \
%(message)s')
file_handler.setFormatter(formatter)

logger.addHandler(file_handler)
```

The log file now generated is modified such that each message includes a time stamp, the function name (or module if at the module level) as well as the log message itself.

1	2019-02-21 09:53:49,160 - <module> - Starting
2	2019-02-21 09:53:49,160 - do_something - debug message
3	2019-02-21 09:53:49,160 - do_something - info message
4	2019-02-21 09:53:49,160 - do_something - warn message
5	2019-02-21 09:53:49,160 - do_something - error message
6	2019-02-21 09:53:49,160 - do_something - critical message
7	2019-02-21 09:53:49,160 - <module> - Done

28.2.3 Multiple Handlers

As suggested in the previous section we can create multiple handlers to send log messages to different locations; for example from the console, to files and even email servers. The following program illustrates setting up both a *file handler* and a *console handler* for a module level logger.

To do this we create two handlers the `file_handler` and the `console_handler`. As a side effect we can also give them different log levels and different formatters. In this case the `file_handler` inherits the log level of the logger itself (which is `DEBUG`) while the `console_handler` has its log level set explicitly at `WARNING`. This means different amounts of information will be logged to the log file than the console output.

We have also set different formatters on each handler; in this case the log file handler's formatter provides more information than the console handlers formatter.

Both handlers are then added to the logger before it is used.

```
# Multiple Handlers and formatters
import logging

# Set up the default root logger to do nothing
logging.basicConfig(handlers=[logging.NullHandler()])

# Obtain the module level logger and set level to DEBUG
logger = logging.getLogger(__name__)
logger.setLevel(logging.DEBUG)

# Create file handler
file_handler = logging.FileHandler('detailed.log')

# Create console handler with a higher log level
console_handler = logging.StreamHandler()
console_handler.setLevel(logging.WARNING)

# Create formatter for the file handler
fh_formatter = logging.Formatter('%(asctime)s [%(levelname)s] %(%name)s.%(%funcName)s: %(message)s',
                                 datefmt='%m-%d-%Y %I:%M:%S %p')
file_handler.setFormatter(fh_formatter)
```

```

# Create formatter for the console handler
console_formatter = logging.Formatter('%(asctime)s -
%(funcName)s - %(message)s')
console_handler.setFormatter(console_formatter)

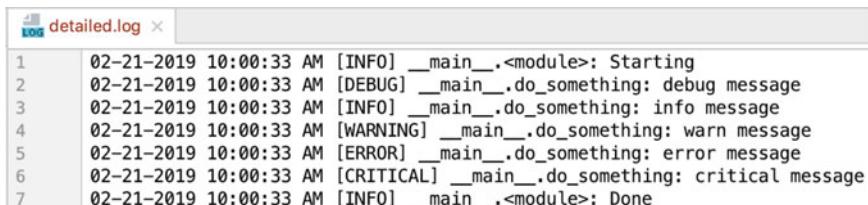
# Add the handlers to logger
logger.addHandler(console_handler)
logger.addHandler(file_handler)

# 'application' code
def do_something():
    logger.debug('debug message')
    logger.info('info message')
    logger.warning('warn message')
    logger.error('error message')
    logger.critical('critical message')

logger.info('Starting')
do_something()
logger.info('Done')

```

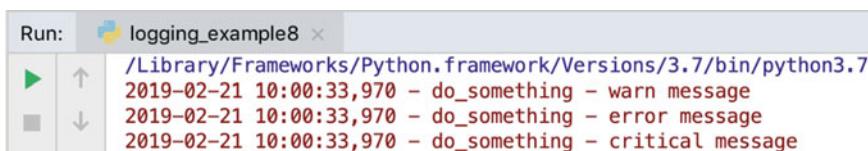
The output from this program is now split between the log file and the console out, as shown below:



```

LOG detailed.log ×
1 02-21-2019 10:00:33 AM [INFO] __main__.<module>: Starting
2 02-21-2019 10:00:33 AM [DEBUG] __main__.do_something: debug message
3 02-21-2019 10:00:33 AM [INFO] __main__.do_something: info message
4 02-21-2019 10:00:33 AM [WARNING] __main__.do_something: warn message
5 02-21-2019 10:00:33 AM [ERROR] __main__.do_something: error message
6 02-21-2019 10:00:33 AM [CRITICAL] __main__.do_something: critical message
7 02-21-2019 10:00:33 AM [INFO] __main__.<module>: Done

```



```

Run: .logging_example8 ×
▶ 2019-02-21 10:00:33,970 - do_something - warn message
2019-02-21 10:00:33,970 - do_something - error message
2019-02-21 10:00:33,970 - do_something - critical message

```

28.3 Filters

Filters can be used by Handlers to provide finer grained control of the log output. A filter can be added to a logger using the `logger.addFilter()` method. A Filter can be created by extending the `logging.Filter` class and

implementing the `filter()` method. This method takes a log record. This log record can be validated to determine if the record should be output or not. If it should be output then `True` is returned, if the record should be ignored `False` should be returned.

In the following example, a filter called `MyFilter` is defined that will filter out all log messages containing the string ‘John’. It is added as a filter to the logger and then two log messages are generated.

```
import logging

class MyFilter(logging.Filter):

    def filter(self, record):
        if 'John' in record.msg:
            return False
        else:
            return True

logging.basicConfig(format='%(asctime)s %(message)s',
level=logging.DEBUG)

logger = logging.getLogger()
logger.addFilter(MyFilter())

logger.debug('This is to help with debugging')
logger.info('This is information on John')
```

The output shows that only the log message that does not contain the string ‘John’ is output:

```
2019-02-20 17:23:22,650 This is to help with debugging
```

28.4 Logger Configuration

All the examples so far in this chapter have used programmatic configuration of the logging framework. This is certainly feasible as the examples show, but it does require a code change if you wish to alter the logging level for any particular logger, or to change where a particular handler is routing the log messages.

For most production systems a better solution is to use an external configuration file which is loaded when the application is run and is used to dynamically configure the logging framework. This allows system administrators and others to change the log level, the log destination, the log format etc. without needing to change the code.

The logging configuration file can be written using several standard formats from JSON (the Java Script Object Notation), to YAML (Yet Another Markup Language) format, or as a set of key-value pairs in a .conf file. For further information on the different options available see the Python logging module documentation.

In this book we will briefly explore the YAML file format used to configure loggers.

```
version: 1
formatters:
    myformatter:
        format: '%(asctime)s [%(levelname)s] %(name)s.%(funcName)s:
%(message)s'
handlers:
    console:
        class: logging.StreamHandler
        level: DEBUG
        formatter: myformatter
        stream: ext://sys.stdout
loggers:
    myLogger:
        level: DEBUG
        handlers: [console]
        propagate: no
root:
    level: ERROR
    handlers: [console]
```

The above YAML code is stored in a file called `logging.conf.yaml`; however you can call this file anything that is meaningful.

The YAML file always starts with a version number. This is an integer value representing the YAML schema version (currently this can only be the value 1). All other keys in the file are optional, they include:

- *formatters*—this lists one or more formatters; each formatter has a name which acts as a key and then a format value which is a string defining the format of a log message.
- *filters*—this is a list of filter names and a set of filter definitions.
- *handlers*—this is a list of named handlers. Each handler definition is made up of a set of key value pairs where the keys define the class used for the filter (mandatory), the log level of the filter (optional), the formatter to use with the handler (optional) and a list of filters to apply (optional).
- *loggers*—provides one or more named loggers. Each logger can indicate the log level (optional) and a list of handlers (optional). The `propagate` option can be used to stop messages propagating to a parent logger (by setting it to `False`).
- *root*—this is the configuration for the root logger.

This file can be loaded into a Python application using the PyYAML module. This provides a YAML parser that can load a YAML file as a dictionary structure that can be passed to the `logging.config.dictConfig()` function. As this is a file it must be opened and closed to ensure that the resource is handled appropriately; it is therefore best managed using the `with-as` statement as shown below:

```
with open('logging.config.yaml', 'r') as f:
    config = yaml.safe_load(f.read())
    logging.config.dictConfig(config)
```

This will open the YAML file in read-only mode and close it when the two statements have been executed. This snippet is used in the following application that loads the logger configuration from the YAML file:

```
import logging
import logging.config
import yaml

with open('logging.config.yaml', 'r') as f:
    config = yaml.safe_load(f.read())
    logging.config.dictConfig(config)

logger = logging.getLogger('myLogger')

# 'application' code
def do_something():
    logger.debug('debug message')
    logger.info('info message')
    logger.warning('warn message')
    logger.error('error message')
    logger.critical('critical message')

logger.info('Starting')
do_something()
logger.info('Done')
```

The output from this using the earlier YAML file is:

```
2019-02-21 16:20:46,466 [INFO] myLogger.<module>: Starting
2019-02-21 16:20:46,466 [DEBUG] myLogger.do_something: debug
message
2019-02-21 16:20:46,466 [INFO] myLogger.do_something: info
message
2019-02-21 16:20:46,466 [WARNING] myLogger.do_something: warn
message
2019-02-21 16:20:46,466 [ERROR] myLogger.do_something: error
message
2019-02-21 16:20:46,466 [CRITICAL] myLogger.do_something:
critical message
2019-02-21 16:20:46,466 [INFO] myLogger.<module>: Done
```

28.5 Performance Considerations

Performance when logging should always be a consideration. In general you should aim to avoid performing any unnecessary work when logging is disabled (or disabled for the level being used). This may seem obvious but it can occur in several unexpected ways.

One example is string concatenation. If a message to be logged involves string concatenation; then that string concatenation will always be performed when a log method is being invoked. For example:

```
logger.debug('Count: ' + count + ', total: ' + total)
```

This will always result in the string being generated for count and total before the call is made to the debug function; even if the debug level is not turned on. However using a format string will avoid this. The formatting involved will only be performed if the string is to be used in a log message. You should therefore always use string formatting to populate log messages. For exmaple:

```
logger.debug('Count: %d, total: %d', count, 42)
```

Another potential optimisation is to use the `logger.isEnabledFor(level)` method as a guard against running the log statement. This can be useful in situations where an associated operation must be performed to support the logging operation and this operation is expensive. For example:

```
if logger.isEnabledFor(logging.DEBUG):
    logger.debug('Message with %s, %s', expensive_func1(),
                expensive_func2())
```

Now the two expensive functions will only be executed if the DEBUG log level is set.

28.6 Exercises

Using the logging you added to the Account class in the last chapter, you should load the log configuration information from a YAML file similar to that used in this chapter.

This should be loaded into the application program used to drive the account classes.

Part VII

Concurrency and Parallelism

Chapter 29

Introduction to Concurrency and Parallelism



29.1 Introduction

In this chapter we will introduce the concepts of concurrency and parallelism. We will also briefly consider the related topic of distribution. After this we will consider process synchronisation, why object oriented approaches are well suited to concurrency and parallelism before finishing with a short discussion of threads versus processes.

29.2 Concurrency

Concurrency is defined by the dictionary as

two or more events or circumstances happening or existing at the same time.

In Computer Science concurrency refers to the ability of different parts or units of a program, algorithm or problem to be *executed at the same time*, potentially on multiple processors or multiple cores.

Here a processor refers to the central processing unit (or CPU) or a computer while core refers to the idea that a CPU chip can have multiple cores or processors on it.

Originally a CPU chip had a single core. That is the CPU chip had a single processing unit on it. However, over time, to increase computer performance, hardware manufacturers added additional *cores* or processing units to chips. Thus a dual-core CPU chip has two processing units while a quad-core CPU chip has four processing units. This means that as far as the operating system of the computer is concerned, it has multiple CPUs on which it can run programs.

Running processing at the same time, on multiple CPUs, can substantially improve the overall performance of an application.

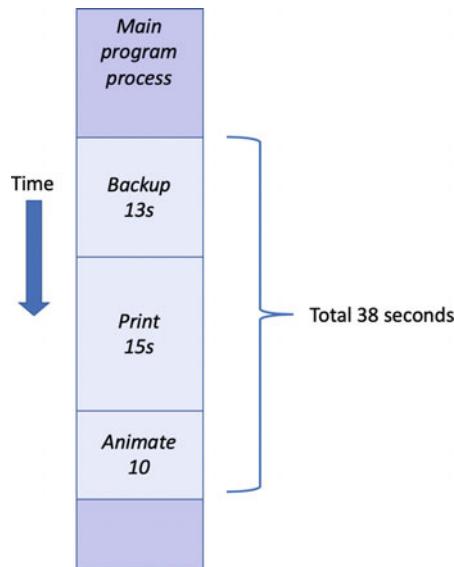
For example, let us assume that we have a program that will call three independent functions, these functions are:

- make a backup of the current data held by the program,
- print the data currently held by the program,
- run an animation using the current data.

Let us assume that these functions run sequentially, with the following timings:

- the *backup* function takes 13 s,
- the *print* function takes 15 s,
- the *animation* function takes 10 s.

This would result in a total of 38 s to perform all three operations. This is illustrated graphically below:

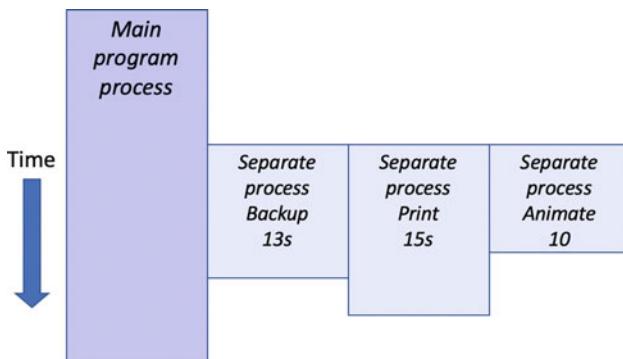


However, the three functions are all completely *independent* of each other. That is they do not rely on each other for any results or behaviour; they do not need one of the other functions to complete before they can complete etc. Thus we can run each function *concurrently*.

If the underlying operating system and program language being used support multiple processes, then we can potentially run each function in a separate process at the same time and obtain a significant speed up in overall execution time.

If the application starts all three functions at the same time, then the maximum time before the main process can continue will be 15s, as that is the time taken by the longest function to execute. However, the main program may be able to continue as soon as all three functions are started as it also does not depend on the

results from any of the functions; thus the delay may be negligible (although there will typically be some small delay as each process is set up). This is shown graphically below:



29.3 Parallelism

A distinction is often made in Computer Science between *concurrency* and *parallelism*.

In *concurrency*, separate independent tasks are performed potentially at the same time.

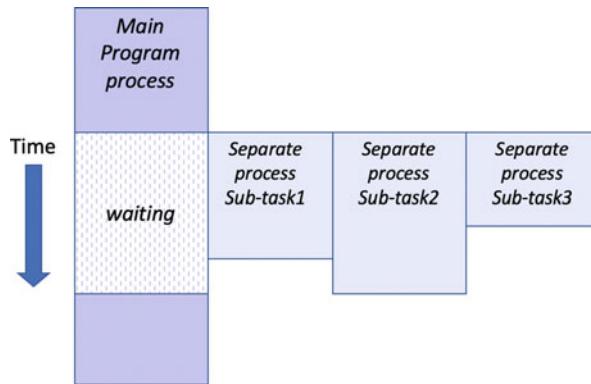
In *parallelism*, a large complex task is broken down into a set of *subtasks*. The subtasks represent part of the overall problem. Each subtask can be executed at the same time. Typically it is necessary to combine the results of the subtasks together to generate an overall result. These subtasks are also very similar if not functionally exactly the same (although in general each subtask invocation will have been supplied with different data).

Thus parallelism is when *multiple copies* of the same functionality are run at the same time, but on different data.

Some examples of where parallelism can be applied include:

- **A web search engine.** Such a system may look at many, many web pages. Each time it does so it must send a request to the appropriate web site, receive the result and process the data obtained. These steps are the same whether it is the BBC web site, Microsoft's web site or the web site of Cambridge University. Thus the requests can be run sequentially or in parallel.
- **Image Processing.** A large image may be broken down into slices so that each slice can be analysed in parallel.

The following diagram illustrates the basic idea behind parallelism; a main program fires off three subtasks each of which runs in parallel. The main program then waits for all the subtasks to complete before combining together the results from the subtasks before it can continue.



29.4 Distribution

When implementing a concurrent or parallel solution, where the resulting processes run is typically an implementation detail. Conceptually these processes could run on the same processor, physical machine or on a remote or distributed machine. As such distribution, in which problems are solved or processes executed by sharing the work across multiple physical machines, is often related to concurrency and parallelism.

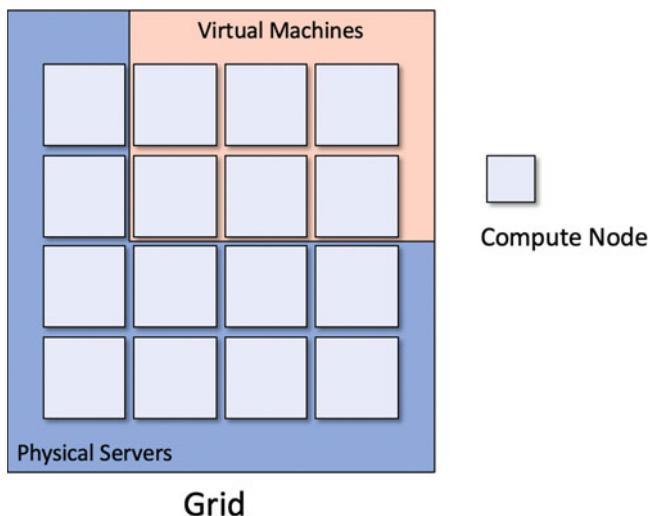
However, there is no requirement to distribute work across physical machines, indeed in doing so extra work is usually involved.

To distribute work to a remote machine, data and in many cases code, must be transferred and made available to the remote machine. This can result in significant delays in running the code remotely and may offset any potential performance advantages of using a physically separate computer. As a result many concurrent/parallel technologies default to executing code in a separate process on the same machine.

29.5 Grid Computing

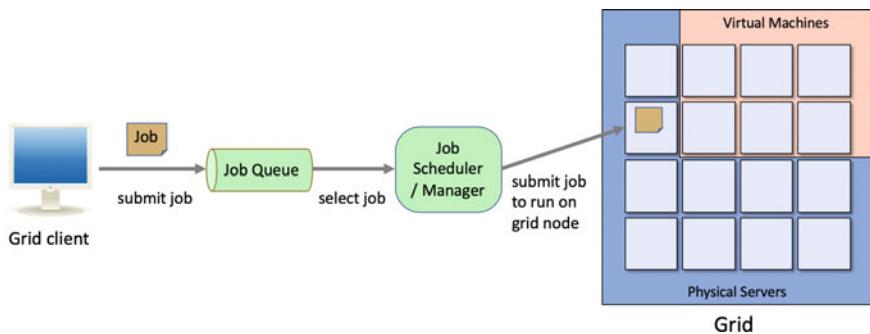
Grid Computing is based on the use of a network of loosely coupled computers, in which each computer can have a job submitted to it, which it will run to completion before returning a result.

In many cases the grid is made up of a *heterogeneous* set of computers (rather than all computers being the same) and may be geographically dispersed. These computers may be comprised of both physical computers and virtual machines.



A *Virtual Machine* is a piece of software that emulates a whole computer and runs on some underlying hardware that is shared with other virtual machines. Each Virtual Machine thinks it is the only computer on the hardware; however the virtual machines all share the resources of the physical computer. Multiple virtual machines can thus run simultaneously on the same physical computer. Each virtual machine provides its own virtual hardware, including CPUs, memory, hard drives, network interfaces and other devices. The virtual hardware is then mapped to the real hardware on the physical machine which saves costs by reducing the need for physical hardware systems along with the associated maintenance costs, as well as reducing the power and cooling demands of multiple computers.

Within a grid, software is used to manage the grid nodes and to submit jobs to those nodes. Such software will receive the jobs to perform (programs to run and information about the environment such as libraries to use) from clients of the grid. These jobs are typically added to a job queue before a job scheduler submits them to a node within the grid. When any results are generated by the job they are collected from the node and returned to the client. This is illustrated below:



The use of grids can make distributing concurrent/parallel processes amongst a set of physical and virtual machines much easier.

29.6 Concurrency and Synchronisation

Concurrency relates to executing multiple tasks at the same time. In many cases these tasks are not related to each other such as printing a document and refreshing the User Interface. In these cases, the separate tasks are completely independent and can execute at the same time without any interaction.

In other situations multiple concurrent tasks need to interact; for example, where one or more tasks produce data and one or more other tasks consume that data. This is often referred to as a *producer-consumer* relationship. In other situations, all parallel processes must have reached the same point before some other behaviour is executed.

Another situation that can occur is where we want to ensure that only one concurrent task executes a piece of sensitive code at a time; this code must therefore be protected from concurrent access.

Concurrent and parallel libraries need to provide facilities that allow for such synchronisation to occur.

29.7 Object Orientation and Concurrency

The concepts behind object-oriented programming lend themselves particularly well to the concepts associated with concurrency. For example, a system can be described as a set of discrete objects communicating with one another when necessary. In Python, only one object may execute at any one moment in time within a single interpreter. However, conceptually at least, there is no reason why this restriction should be enforced. The basic concepts behind object orientation still hold, even if each object executes within a separate independent process.

Traditionally a message send is treated like a procedural call, in which the calling object's execution is blocked until a response is returned. However, we can extend this model quite simply to view each object as a concurrently executable program, with activity starting when the object is created and continuing even when a message is sent to another object (unless the response is required for further processing). In this model, there may be very many (concurrent) objects executing at the same time. Of course, this introduces issues associated with resource allocation, etc. but no more so than in any concurrent system.

One implication of the concurrent object model is that objects are larger than in the traditional single execution thread approach, because of the overhead of having each object as a separate thread of execution. Overheads such as the need for a scheduler to handle these execution threads and resource allocation mechanisms means that it is not feasible to have integers, characters, etc. as separate processes.

29.8 Threads V Processes

As part of this discussion it is useful to understand what is meant by a process. A process is an instance of a computer program that is being executed by the operating system. Any process has three key elements; the program being executed, the data used by that program (such as the variables used by the program) and the state of the process (also known as the execution context of the program).

A (Python) Thread is a preemptive lightweight process.

A Thread is considered to be *pre-emptive* because every thread has a chance to run as the main thread at some point. When a thread gets to execute then it will execute until

- completion,
- until it is waiting for some form of I/O (Input/Output),
- sleeps for a period of time,
- it has run for 15 ms (the current threshold in Python 3).

If the thread has not completed when one of the above situations occurs, then it will give up being the executing thread and another thread will be run instead. This means that one thread can be interrupted in the middle of performing a series of related steps.

A thread is considered a *lightweight* process because it does not possess its own address space and it is not treated as a separate entity by the host operating system. Instead, it exists within a single machine process using the same address space.

It is useful to get a clear idea of the difference between a thread (running within a single machine process) and a multi-process system that uses separate processes on the underlying hardware.

29.9 Some Terminology

The world of concurrent programming is full of terminology that you may not be familiar with. Some of those terms and concepts are outlined below:

- **Asynchronous versus Synchronous invocations.** Most of the method, function or procedure invocations you will have seen in programming represent synchronous invocations. A synchronous method or function call is one which blocks the calling code from executing until it returns. Such calls are typically within a single thread of execution. Asynchronous calls are ones where the flow of control immediately returns to the callee and the caller is able to execute in its own thread of execution. Allowing both the caller and the call to continue processing.
- **Non-Blocking versus Blocking code.** Blocking code is a term used to describe the code running in one thread of execution, waiting for some activity to complete which causes one or more separate threads of execution to also be delayed. For example, if one thread is the producer of some data and other threads are the consumers of that data, then the consumer threads cannot continue until the producer generates the data for them to consume. In contrast, non-blocking means that no thread is able to indefinitely delay others.
- **Concurrent versus Parallel code.** Concurrent code and parallel code are similar, but different in one significant aspect. Concurrency indicates that two or more activities are both making progress even though they might not be executing at the same point in time. This is typically achieved by continuously swapping competing processes between execution and non-execution. This process is repeated until at least one of the threads of execution (Threads) has completed their task. This may occur because two threads are sharing the same physical processor with each being given a short time period in which to progress before the other gets a short time period to progress. The two threads are said to be sharing the processing time using a technique known as time slicing. Parallelism on the other hand implies that there are multiple processors available allowing each thread to execute on their own processor simultaneously.

29.10 Online Resources

See the following online resources for information on the topics in this chapter:

- [https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Concurrency_\(computer_science\)](https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Concurrency_(computer_science)) Wikipedia page on concurrency.
- https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Virtual_machine Wikipedia page on Virtual Machines.

- https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Parallel_computing Wikipedia page on parallelism.
- <http://tutorials.jenkov.com/java-concurrency/concurrency-vs-parallelism.html> Concurrency versus Parallelism tutorial.
- <https://www.redbooks.ibm.com/redbooks/pdfs/sg246778.pdf> IBM Red Book on an Introduction to Grid Computing.

Chapter 30

Threading



30.1 Introduction

Threading is one of the ways in which Python allows you to write programs that multitask; that is *appearing* to do more than one thing at a time.

This chapter presents the `threading` module and uses a short example to illustrate how these features can be used.

30.2 Threads

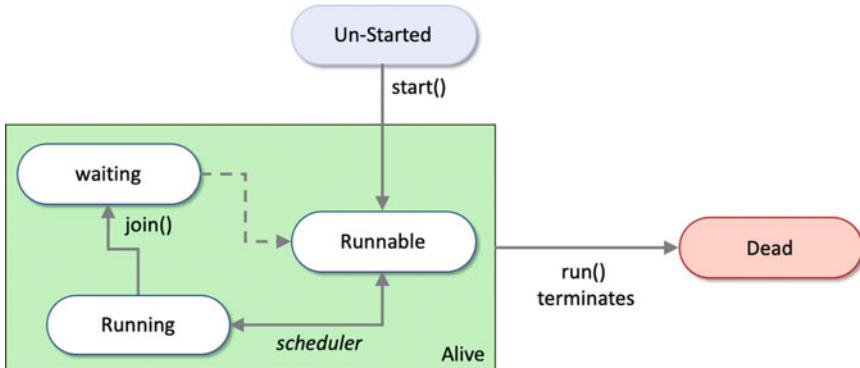
In Python the `Thread` class from the `threading` module represents an activity that is run in a separate thread of execution within a single process. These threads of execution are lightweight, pre-emptive execution threads. A thread is *lightweight* because it does not possess its own address space and it is not treated as a separate entity by the host operating system; it is not a process. Instead, it exists within a single machine process using the same address space as other threads.

30.3 Thread States

When a thread object is first created it exists, but it is not yet runnable; it must be started. Once it has been started it is then runnable; that is, it is eligible to be scheduled for execution. It may switch back and forth between running and being runnable under the control of the scheduler. The scheduler is responsible for managing multiple threads that all wish to grab some execution time.

A thread object remains runnable or running until its `run()` method terminates; at which point it has finished its execution and it is now dead. All states between

un-started and dead are considered to indicate that the Thread is alive (and therefore may run at some point). This is shown below:



A Thread may also be in the *waiting* state; for example, when it is waiting for another thread to finish its work before continuing (possibly because it needs the results produced by that thread to continue). This can be achieved using the `join()` method and is also illustrated above. Once the second thread completes the waiting thread will again become runnable.

The thread which is currently executing is termed the *active* thread.

There are a few points to note about thread states:

- A thread is considered to be alive unless its `run()` method terminates after which it can be considered dead.
- A *live* thread can be running, runnable, waiting, etc.
- The *runnable* state indicates that the thread can be executed by the processor, but it is not currently executing. This is because an equal or higher priority process is already executing, and the thread must wait until the processor becomes free. Thus the diagram shows that the scheduler can move a thread between the running and runnable state. In fact, this could happen many times as the thread executes for a while, is then removed from the processor by the scheduler and added to the waiting queue, before being returned to the processor again at a later date.

30.4 Creating a Thread

There are two ways in which to initiate a new thread of execution:

- Pass a reference to a callable object (such as a function or method) into the Thread class constructor. This reference acts as the target for the Thread to execute.

- Create a subclass of the `Thread` class and redefine the `run()` method to perform the set of actions that the thread is intended to do.

We will look at both approaches.

As a thread is an object, it can be treated just like any other object: it can be sent messages, it can have instance variables and it can provide methods. Thus, the multi-threaded aspects of Python all conform to the object-oriented model. This greatly simplifies the creation of multi-threaded systems as well as the maintainability and clarity of the resulting software.

Once a new instance of a thread is created, it must be started. Before it is started, it cannot run, although it exists.

30.5 Instantiating the Thread Class

The `Thread` class can be found in the `threading` module and therefore must be imported prior to use. The class `Thread` defines a single constructor that takes up to six optional arguments:

```
class threading.Thread(group=None,
                      target=None,
                      name=None,
                      args=(),
                      kwargs={},
                      daemon=None)
```

The `Thread` constructor should *always* be called using *keyword* arguments; the meaning of these arguments is:

- `group` should be `None`; reserved for future extension when a `ThreadGroup` class is implemented.
- `target` is the callable object to be invoked by the `run()` method. Defaults to `None`, meaning nothing is called.
- `name` is the thread name. By default, a unique name is constructed of the form “`Thread-N`” where `N` is an integer.
- `args` is the argument tuple for the target invocation. Defaults to `()`. If a single argument is provided the tuple is not required. If multiple arguments are provided then each argument is an element within the tuple.
- `kwargs` is a dictionary of keyword arguments for the target invocation. Defaults to `{}`.
- `daemon` indicates whether this thread runs as a daemon thread or not. If not `None`, `daemon` explicitly sets whether the thread is daemonic. If `None` (the default), the daemonic property is inherited from the current thread.

Once a Thread is created it must be started to become eligible for execution using the Thread.start() method.

The following illustrates a very simple program that creates a Thread that will run the simple_worker() function:

```
from threading import Thread

def simple_worker():
    print('hello')

# Create a new thread and start it
# The thread will run the function simple_worker
t1 = Thread(target=simple_worker)
t1.start()
```

In this example, the thread t1 will execute the function simple_worker. The main code will be executed by the *main* thread that is present when the program starts; there are thus two threads used in the above program; *main* and *t1*.

30.6 The Thread Class

The Thread class defines all the facilities required to create an object that can execute within its own lightweight process. The key methods are:

- `start()` Start the thread's activity. It must be called at *most* once per thread object. It arranges for the object's `run()` method to be invoked in a separate thread of control. This method will raise a `RuntimeError` if called more than once on the same thread object.
- `run()` Method representing the thread's activity. You may override this method in a subclass. The standard `run()` method invokes the callable object passed to the object's constructor as the target argument, if any, with positional and keyword arguments taken from the `args` and `kwargs` arguments, respectively. You should *not* call this method directly.
- `join(timeout = None)` Wait until the thread sent this message terminates. This blocks the calling thread until the thread whose `join()` method is called terminates. When the `timeout` argument is present and not `None`, it should be a floating-point number specifying a timeout for the operation in seconds (or fractions thereof). A thread can be `join()`d many times.
- `name` A string used for identification purposes only. It has no semantics. Multiple threads may be given the same name. The initial name is set by the constructor. Giving a thread a name can be useful for debugging purposes.
- `ident` The 'thread identifier' of this thread or `None` if the thread has not been started. This is a nonzero integer.

- `is_alive()` Return whether the thread is alive. This method returns `True` just before the `run()` method starts until just after the `run()` method terminates. The module function `threading.enumerate()` returns a list of all alive threads.
- `daemon` A boolean value indicating whether this thread is a daemon thread (`True`) or not (`False`). This must be set before `start()` is called, otherwise a `RuntimeError` is raised. Its default value is inherited from the creating thread. The entire Python program exits when no alive non-daemon threads are left.

An example illustrating using some of these methods is given below:

```
from threading import Thread

def simple_worker():
    print('hello')

t1 = Thread(target=simple_worker)
t1.start()

print(t1.getName())
print(t1.ident)
print(t1.is_alive())
```

This produces:

```
hello
Thread-1
123145441955840
True
```

The `join()` method can cause one thread to wait for another to complete. For example, if we want the `main` thread to wait until a thread completes before it prints the done message; then we can make it *join* at that thread:

```
from threading import Thread
from time import sleep

def worker():
    for i in range(0, 10):
        print('.', end='', flush=True)
        sleep(1)

print('Starting')

# Create read object with reference to worker function
t = Thread(target=worker)
# Start the thread object
```

```
t.start()  
# Wait for the thread to complete  
  
t.join()  
  
print('\nDone')
```

Now the ‘Done’ message should not be printed out until after the worker thread has finished as shown below:

```
Starting  
.....  
Done
```

30.7 The Threading Module Functions

There are a set of `threading` module functions which support working with threads; these functions include:

- `threading.active_count()` Return the number of `Thread` objects currently alive. The returned count is equal to the length of the list returned by `enumerate()`.
- `threading.current_thread()` Return the current `Thread` object, corresponding to the caller’s thread of control. If the caller’s thread of control was not created through the `threading` module, a dummy thread object with limited functionality is returned.
- `threading.get_ident()` Return the ‘thread identifier’ of the current thread. This is a nonzero integer. Thread identifiers may be recycled when a thread exits and another thread is created.
- `threading.enumerate()` Return a list of all `Thread` objects currently alive. The list includes daemon threads, dummy thread objects created by `current_thread()` and the *main* thread. It excludes terminated threads and threads that have not yet been started.
- `threading.main_thread()` Return the *main* `Thread` object.

30.8 Passing Arguments to a Thread

Many functions expect to be given a set of parameter values when they are run; these arguments still need to be passed to the function when they are run via a separate thread. These parameters can be passed to the function to be executed via the `args` parameter, for example:

```

from threading import Thread
from time import sleep

def worker(msg):
    for i in range(0, 10):
        print(msg, end='', flush=True)
        sleep(1)

print('Starting')
t1 = Thread(target=worker, args='A')
t2 = Thread(target=worker, args='B')
t3 = Thread(target=worker, args='C')
t1.start()
t2.start()
t3.start()

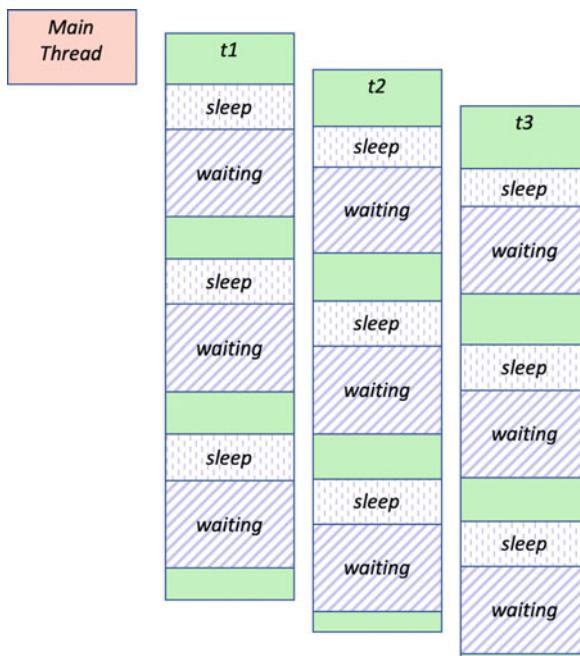
print('Done')

```

In this example, the `worker` function takes a message to be printed 10 times within a loop. Inside the loop the thread will print the message and then sleep for a second. This allows other threads to be executed as the `Thread` must wait for the sleep timeout to finish before again becoming runnable.

Three threads `t1`, `t2` and `t3` are then created each with a different message. Note that the `worker()` function can be reused with each `Thread` as each invocation of the function will have its own parameter values passed to it.

The three threads are then started. This means that at this point there is the *main* thread, and three worker threads that are *Runnable* (although only one thread will run at a time). The three worker threads each run the `worker()` function printing out either the letter A, B or C ten times. This means that once started each thread will print out a string, sleep for 1 s and then wait until it is selected to run again, this is illustrated in the following diagram:



The output generated by this program is illustrated below:

```
Starting
ABCDone
ABCACBABCABCBAABCABCABCAC
```

Notice that the *main* thread is finished after the worker threads have only printed out a single letter each; however as long as there is at least one *non-daemon* thread running the program will not terminate; as none of these threads are marked as a daemon thread the program continues until the last thread has finished printing out the tenth of its letters.

Also notice how each of the threads gets a chance to run on the processor before it sleeps again; thus we can see the letters A, B and C all mixed in together.

30.9 Extending the Thread Class

The second approach to creating a Thread mentioned earlier was to subclass the Thread class. To do this you must

1. Define a new subclass of Thread.
2. Override the `run()` method.
3. Define a new `__init__()` method that calls the parent class `__init__()` method to pass the required parameters up to the Thread class constructor.

This is illustrated below where the WorkerThread class passes the name, target and daemon parameters up to the Thread super class constructor.

```
from threading import Thread
from time import sleep

class WorkerThread(Thread):
    def __init__(self, daemon=None, target=None, name=None):
        super().__init__(daemon=daemon, target=target,
                         name=name)
    def run(self):
        for i in range(0, 10):
            print('.' , end='', flush=True)
            sleep(1)
```

Once you have done this you can create an instance of the new WorkerThread class and then start that instance.

```
print('Starting')
t = WorkerThread()
t.start()
print('\nDone')
```

The output from this is:

```
Starting  
.  
Done  
.....
```

Note that it is common to call any subclasses of the `Thread` class, `SomethingThread`, to make it clear that it is a subclass of the `Thread` class and should be treated as if it was a `Thread` (which of course it is).

30.10 Daemon Threads

A thread can be marked as a *daemon* thread by setting the `daemon` property to true either in the constructor or later via the accessor property.

For example:

```
from threading import Thread  
from time import sleep  
  
def worker(msg):  
    for i in range(0, 10):  
        print(msg, end=' ', flush=True)  
        sleep(1)  
  
    print('Starting')  
  
    # Create a daemon thread  
    d = Thread(daemon=True, target=worker, args='C')  
    d.start()  
  
    sleep(5)  
    print('Done')
```

This creates a background daemon thread that will run the function `worker()`. Such threads are often used for house keeping tasks (such as background data backups etc.).

As mentioned above a daemon thread is not enough on its own to keep the current program from terminating. This means that the daemon thread will keep looping until the main thread finishes. As the main thread sleeps for 5 s that allows the daemon thread to print out about 5 strings before the main thread terminates. This is illustrated by the output below:

```
Starting  
CCCCCDone
```

30.11 Naming Threads

Threads can be named; which can be very useful when debugging an application with multiple threads.

In the following example, three threads have been created; two have been explicitly given a name related to what they are doing while the middle one has been left with the default name. We then start all three threads and use the `threading.enumerate()` function to loop through all the currently live threads printing out their names:

```
import threading
from threading import Thread
from time import sleep

def worker(msg):
    for i in range(0, 10):
        print(msg, end=' ', flush=True)
        sleep(1)

t1 = Thread(name='worker', target=worker, args='A')
t2 = Thread(target=worker, args='B') # use default name e.g.
Thread-1
d = Thread(daemon = True, name='daemon', target=worker,
args='C')

t1.start()
t2.start()
d.start()

print()
for t in threading.enumerate():
    print(t.getName())
```

The output from this program is given blow:

```
ABC
MainThread
worker
Thread-1
daemon
ABCACBACBACBAABCCBACBACBA
```

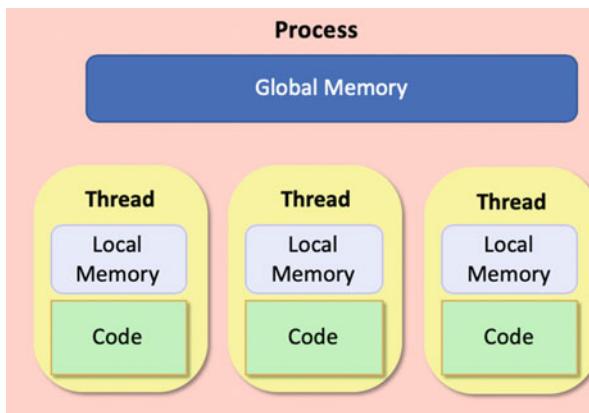
As you can see in addition to the worker thread and the daemon thread there is a `MainThread` (that initiates the whole program) and `Thread-1` which is the thread referenced by the variable `t2` and uses the default thread name.

30.12 Thread Local Data

In some situations each Thread requires its own copy of the data it is working with; this means that the shared (heap) memory is difficult to use as it is inherently shared between all threads.

To overcome this Python provides a concept known as *Thread-Local* data.

Thread-local data is data whose values are associated with a thread rather than with the shared memory. This idea is illustrated below:



To create thread-local data it is only necessary to create an instance of `threading.local` (or a subclass of this) and store attributes into it. The instances will be thread specific; meaning that one thread will not see the values stored by another thread.

For example:

```
from threading import Thread, local, currentThread
from random import randint

def show_value(data):
    try:
        val = data.value
    except AttributeError:
        print(currentThread().name, ' - No value yet')
    else:
        print(currentThread().name, ' - value =', val)

def worker(data):
    show_value(data)
    data.value = randint(1, 100)
    show_value(data)

print(currentThread().name, ' - Starting')
local_data = local()
show_value(local_data)
```

```

for i in range(2):
    t = Thread(name='W' + str(i),
               target=worker, args=[local_data])
    t.start()

show_value(local_data)
print(currentThread().name, ' - Done')

```

The output from this is

```

MainThread - Starting
MainThread - No value yet
W0 - No value yet
W0 - value = 20
W1 - No value yet
W1 - value = 90
MainThread - No value yet
MainThread - Done

```

The example presented above defines two functions.

- The first function attempts to access a value in the thread local data object. If the value is not present an exception is raised (`AttributeError`). The `show_value()` function catches the exception or successfully processes the data.
- The worker function calls `show_value()` twice, once before it sets a value in the local data object and once after. As this function will be run by separate threads the `currentThread` name is printed by the `show_value()` function.

The main function creates a local data object using the `local()` function from the threading library. It then calls `show_value()` itself. Next it creates two threads to execute the worker function in passing the `local_data` object into them; each thread is then started. Finally, it calls `show_value()` again.

As can be seen from the output one thread cannot see the data set by another thread in the `local_data` object (even when the attribute name is the same).

30.13 Timers

The `Timer` class represents an action (or task) to run after a certain amount of time has elapsed. The `Timer` class is a subclass of `Thread` and as such also functions as an example of creating custom threads.

Timers are started, as with threads, by calling their `start()` method. The timer can be stopped (before its action has begun) by calling the `cancel()` method. The interval the timer will wait before executing its action may not be exactly the same as the interval specified by the user as another thread may be running when the timer wishes to start.

The signature of the `Timer` class constructor is:

```
Timer(interval, function, args = None, kwargs = None)
```

An example of using the `Timer` class is given below:

```
from threading import Timer

def hello():
    print('hello')

print('Starting')
t = Timer(5, hello)
t.start()

print('Done')
```

In this case the `Timer` will run the `hello` function after an initial delay of 5 s.

30.14 The Global Interpreter Lock

The Global Interpreter Lock (or the GIL) is a *global lock* within the underlying CPython interpreter that was designed to avoid potential deadlocks between multiple tasks. It is designed to protect access to Python objects by preventing multiple threads from executing at the same time.

For the most part you do not need to worry about the GIL as it is at a lower level than the programs you will be writing.

However, it is worth noting that the GIL is controversial because it prevents multithreaded Python programs from taking full advantage of multiprocessor systems in certain situations.

This is because in order to execute a thread must obtain the GIL and only one thread at a time can hold the GIL (that is the lock it represents). This means that Python acts like a single CPU machine; only one thing can run at a time. A Thread will only give up the GIL if it sleeps, has to wait for something (such as some I/O)

or it has held the GIL for a certain amount of time. If the maximum time that a thread can hold the GIL has been met the scheduler will release the GIL from that thread (resulting it stopping execution and now having to wait until it has the GIL returned to it) and will select another thread to gain the GIL and start to execute.

It is thus impossible for standard Python threads to take advantage of the multiple CPUs typically available on modern computer hardware.

One solution to this is to use the Python `multiprocessing` library described in the next chapter.

30.15 Online Resources

See the following online resources for information on the topics in this chapter:

- <https://docs.python.org/3/library/threading.html> The Python standard Library documentation on Threading.
- <https://pymotw.com/3/threading/> The Python Module of the Week page on Threading.
- <https://pythonprogramming.net/threading-tutorial-python/> Tutorial on Python's Threading module.

30.16 Exercise

Create a function called `printer()` that takes a message and a maximum value to use for a period to sleep.

Within the function create a loop that iterates 10 times. Within the loop

- generate a random number from 0 to the max period specified and then sleep for that period of time. You can use the `random.randint()` function for this.
- Once the sleep period has finished print out the message passed into the function.
- Then loop again until this has been repeated 10 times.

Now create five threads to run five invocations of the function you produced above and start all five threads. Each thread should have a different `max_sleep` time.

An example program to run the `printer` function five times via a set of Threads is given below:

```
t1 = Thread(target=printer, args=( 'A' , 10 ))
t2 = Thread(target=printer, args=( 'B' , 5 ))
t3 = Thread(target=printer, args=( 'C' , 15 ))
t4 = Thread(target=printer, args=( 'D' , 7 ))
t5 = Thread(target=printer, args=( 'E' , 2 ))
t1.start()
```

```
t2.start()  
t3.start()  
t4.start()  
t5.start()
```

An example of the sort of output this could generate is given below:

```
BAEAEABEDAEAEBEDCECBEEEADCDBBDABCADBBDABADCDCDCCCC
```

Chapter 31

Multiprocessing



31.1 Introduction

The multiprocessing library supports the generation of separate (operating system level) processes to execute behaviour (such as functions or methods) using an API that is similar to the Threading API presented in the last chapter.

It can be used to avoid the limitation introduced by the Global Interpreter Lock (the GIL) by using separate operating system processes rather than lightweight threads (which run within a single process).

This means that the multiprocessing library allows developers to fully exploit the multiple processor environment of modern computer hardware which typically has multiple processor cores allowing multiple operations/behaviours to run in parallel; this can be very significant for data analytics, image processing, animation and games applications.

The multiprocessing library also introduces some new features, most notably the `Pool` object for parallelising execution of a callable object (e.g. functions and methods) that has no equivalent within the Threading API.

31.2 The Process Class

The `Process` class is the multiprocessing library's equivalent to the `Thread` class in the `threading` library. It can be used to run a callable object such as a function in a separate process. To do this it is necessary to create a new instance of the `Process` class and then call the `start()` method on it. Methods such as `join()` are also available so that one process can wait for another process to complete before continuing etc.

The main difference is that when a new `Process` is created it runs within a separate process on the underlying operating systems (such as Window, Linux or

Mac OS). In contrast a Thread runs within the same process as the original program. This means that the process is managed and executed directly by the operating system on one of the processors that are part of the underlying computer hardware.

The up side of this is that you are able to exploit the underlying parallelism inherent in the physical computer hardware. The downside is that a Process takes more work to set up than the lighter weight Threads.

The constructor for the Process class provides the same set of arguments as the Thread class, namely:

```
class multiprocessing.Process(group=None,
                             target=None,
                             name=None,
                             args=(),
                             kwargs={},
                             daemon=None)
```

- group should always be None; it exists solely for compatibility with the Threading API.
- target is the callable object to be invoked by the run() method. It defaults to None, meaning nothing is called.
- name is the process name.
- args is the argument tuple for the target invocation.
- kwargs is a dictionary of keyword arguments for the target invocation.
- daemon argument sets the process daemon flag to True or False. If None (the default), this flag will be inherited from the creating process.

As with the Thread class, the Process constructor should *always* be called using *keyword* arguments.

The Process class also provides a similar set of methods to the Thread class

- start() Start the process's activity. This must be called at *most once* per process object. It arranges for the object's run() method to be invoked in a separate process.
- join([timeout]) If the optional argument timeout is None (the default), the method blocks until the joined process terminates. If timeout is a positive number, it blocks at most timeout seconds. Note that the method returns None if its process terminates or if the method times out.

- `is_alive()` Return whether the process is alive. Roughly, a process object is alive from the moment the `start()` method returns until the child process terminates.

The process class also has several attributes:

- `name` The process's name. The name is a string used for identification purposes only. It has no semantics. Multiple processes may be given the same name. It can be useful for debugging purposes.
- `daemon` The process's daemon flag, a boolean value. This must be set before `start()` is called. The default value is inherited from the creating process. When a process exits, it attempts to terminate all of its daemonic child processes. Note that a daemonic process is not allowed to create child processes.
- `pid` Return the process ID. Before the process is spawned, this will be `None`.
- `exitcode` The process exit code. This will be `None` if the process has not yet terminated. A negative value `-N` indicates that the child was terminated by signal `N`.

In addition to these methods and attributes, the `Process` class also defines additional process related methods including:

- `terminate()` Terminate the process.
- `kill()` Same as `terminate()` except that on Unix the SIGKILL signal is used instead of the SIGTERM signal.
- `close()` Close the `Process` object, releasing all resources associated with it. `ValueError` is raised if the underlying process is still running. Once `close()` returns successfully, most of the other methods and attributes of the `Process` object will raise a `ValueError`.

31.3 Working with the Process Class

The following simple program creates three `Process` objects; each runs the function `worker()`, with the string arguments `A`, `B` and `C` respectively. These three process objects are then started using the `start()` method.

```
from multiprocessing import Process
from time import sleep

def worker(msg):
    for i in range(0, 10):
        print(msg, end='', flush=True)
        sleep(1)

print('Starting')

t2 = Process(target=worker, args='A')
t3 = Process(target=worker, args='B')
t4 = Process(target=worker, args='C')

t2.start()
t3.start()
t4.start()

print('Done')
```

It is essentially the same as the equivalent program for threads but with the `Process` class being used instead of the `Thread` class.

The output from this application is given below:

```
Starting
Done
ABCABCABCABCABCABCACBACBACB
```

The main difference between the `Thread` and `Process` versions is that the `Process` version runs the `worker` function in separate processes whereas in the `Thread` version all the `Threads` share the same process.

31.4 Alternative Ways to Start a Process

When the `start()` method is called on a `Process`, three different approaches to starting the underlying process are available. These approaches can be set using the `multiprocessing.set_start_method()` which takes a string indicating the approach to use. The actual process initiation mechanisms available depend on the underlying operating system:

- ‘spawn’ The parent process starts a fresh Python interpreter process. The child process will only inherit those resources necessary to run the process objects `run()` method. In particular, unnecessary file descriptors and handles from the

parent process will not be inherited. Starting a process using this method is rather slow compared to using fork or forkserver. Available on Unix and Windows. This is the default on Windows.

- ‘fork’ The parent process uses `os.fork()` to fork the Python interpreter. The child process, when it begins, is effectively identical to the parent process. All resources of the parent are inherited by the child process. Available only on Unix type operating systems. This is the default on Unix, Linux and Mac OS.
- ‘forkserver’ In this case a server process is started. From then on, whenever a new process is needed, the parent process connects to the server and requests that it fork a new process. The fork server process is single threaded so it is safe for it to use `os.fork()`. No unnecessary resources are inherited. Available on Unix style platforms which support passing file descriptors over Unix pipes.

The `set_start_method()` should be used to set the start method (and this should only be set once within a program).

This is illustrated below, where the *spawn* start method is specified:

```
from multiprocessing import Process
from multiprocessing import set_start_method
from time import sleep
import os

def worker(msg):
    print('module name:', __name__)
    print('parent process:', os.getppid())
    print('process id:', os.getpid())
    for i in range(0, 10):
        print(msg, end='', flush=True)
        sleep(1)

def main():
    print('Starting')
    print('Root application process id:', os.getpid())
    set_start_method('spawn')
    t = Process(target=worker, args='A')
    t.start()

    print('Done')

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

The output from this is shown below:

```
Starting
Root application process id: 6281
Done
```

```
module name: __main__
parent process: 6281
process id: 6283
AAAAAAAAAA
```

Note that the parent process and current process ids are printed out for the `worker()` function, while the `main()` method prints out only its own id. This shows that the `main` application process id is the same as the worker process parents' id.

Alternatively, it is possible to use the `get_context()` method to obtain a context object. Context objects have the same API as the `multiprocessing` module and allow you to use multiple start methods in the same program, for example:

```
ctx = multiprocessing.get_context('spawn')
q = ctx.Queue()
p = ctx.Process(target = foo, args = (q,))
```

31.5 Using a Pool

Creating Processes is expensive in terms of computer resources. It would therefore be useful to be able to reuse processes within an application. The `Pool` class provides such reusable processes.

The `Pool` class represents a pool of worker processes that can be used to perform a set of concurrent, parallel operations. The `Pool` provides methods which allow tasks to be offloaded to these worker processes.

The `Pool` class provides a constructor which takes a number of arguments:

```
class multiprocessing.pool.Pool(processes,
                                 initializer, initargs,
                                 maxtasksperchild,
                                 context)
```

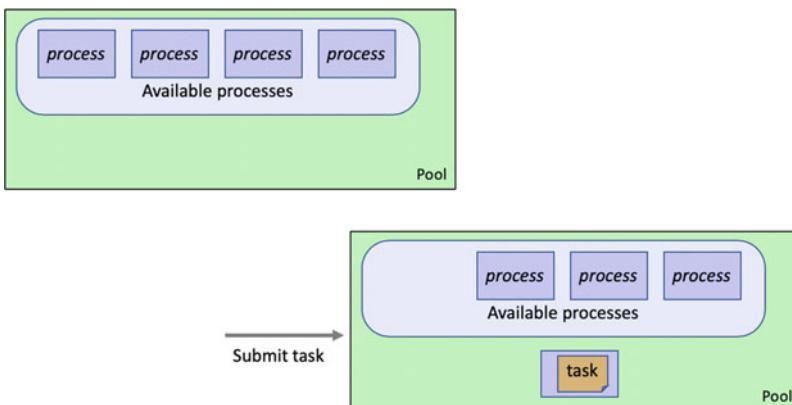
These represent:

- `processes` is the number of worker processes to use. If `processes` is `None` then the number returned by `os.cpu_count()` is used.
- `initializer` If `initializer` is not `None` then each worker process will call `initializer(*initargs)` when it starts.
- `maxtasksperchild` is the number of tasks a worker process can complete before it will exit and be replaced with a fresh worker process, to enable unused resources to be freed. The default `maxtasksperchild` is `None`, which means worker processes will live as long as the pool.

- context can be used to specify the context used for starting the worker processes. Usually a pool is created using the function `multiprocessing.Pool()`. Alternatively the pool can be created using the `Pool()` method of a context object.

The `Pool` class provides a range of methods that can be used to submit work to the worker processes managed by the pool. Note that the methods of the `Pool` object should only be called by the process which created the pool.

The following diagram illustrates the effect of submitting some work or task to the pool. From the list of available processes, one process is selected and the task is passed to the process. The process will then execute the task. On completion any results are returned and the process is returned to the available list. If when a task is submitted to the pool there are no available processes then the task will be added to a wait queue until such time as a process is available to handle the task.



The simplest of the methods provided by the `Pool` for work submission is the `map` method:

```
pool.map(func, iterable, chunksize=None)
```

This method returns a list of the results obtained by executing the function in parallel against each of the items in the `iterable` parameter.

- The `func` parameter is the callable object to be executed (such as a function or a method).
- The `iteratable` is used to pass in any parameters to the function.
- This method chops the iterable into a number of chunks which it submits to the process pool as separate tasks. The (approximate) size of these chunks can be specified by setting `chunksize` to a positive integer. The method blocks until the result is ready.

The following sample program illustrates the basic use of the Pool and the map () method.

```
from multiprocessing import Pool

def worker(x):
    print('In worker with: ', x)
    return x * x

def main():
    with Pool(processes=4) as pool:
        print(pool.map(worker, [0, 1, 2, 3, 4, 5]))

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

Note that the Pool object must be closed once you have finished with it; we are therefore using the ‘with as’ statement described earlier in this book to handle the Pool resource cleanly (it will ensure the Pool is closed when the block of code within the with as statement is completed).

The output from this program is

```
In worker with: 0
In worker with: 1
In worker with: 2
In worker with: 3
In worker with: 4
In worker with: 5
[0, 1, 4, 9, 16, 25]
```

As can be seen from this output the map () function is used to run six different instances of the worker () function with the values provided by the list of integers. Each instance is executed by a *worker* process managed by the Pool.

However, note that the Pool only has 4 worker processes, this means that the last two instances of the worker function must wait until two of the worker Processes have finished the work they are doing and can be reused. This can act as a way of throttling, or controlling, how much work is done in parallel.

A variant on the map () method is the imap_unordered() method. This method also applies a given function to an iterable but does not attempt to maintain the order of the results. The results are accessible via the iterable returned by the function. This may improve the performance of the resulting program.

The following program modified the worker () function to return its result rather than print it. These results are then accessible by iterating over them as they are produced via a for loop:

```
from multiprocessing import Pool

def worker(x):
    print('In worker with: ', x)
    return x * x

def main():
    with Pool(processes=4) as pool:
        for result in pool imap_unordered(worker,
                                            [0, 1, 2, 3, 4, 5]):
            print(result)

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

As the new method obtains results as soon as they are available, the order in which the results are returned may be different, as shown below:

```
In worker with: 0
In worker with: 1
In worker with: 3
In worker with: 2
In worker with: 4
In worker with: 5
0
1
9
16
4
25
```

A further method available on the `Pool` class is the `Pool.apply_async()` method. This method allows operations/functions to be executed asynchronously allowing the method calls to return immediately. That is as soon as the method call is made, control is returned to the calling code which can continue immediately. Any results to be collected from the asynchronous operations can be obtained either by providing a callback function or by using the blocking `get()` method to obtain a result.

Two examples are shown below, the first uses the blocking `get()` method. This method will wait until a result is available before continuing. The second approach uses a *callback* function. The callback function is called when a result is available; the result is passed into the function.

```

from multiprocessing import Pool

def collect_results(result):
    print('In collect_results: ', result)

def worker(x):
    print('In worker with: ', x)
    return x * x

def main():
    with Pool(processes=2) as pool:
        # get based example
        res = pool.apply_async(worker, [6])
        print('Result from async: ', res.get(timeout=1))

    with Pool(processes=2) as pool:
        # callback based example
        pool.apply_async(worker, args=[4],
                        callback=collect_results)

if __name__ == '__main__':
    main()

```

The output from this is:

```

In worker with: 6
Result from async: 36
In worker with: 4
In collect_results: 16

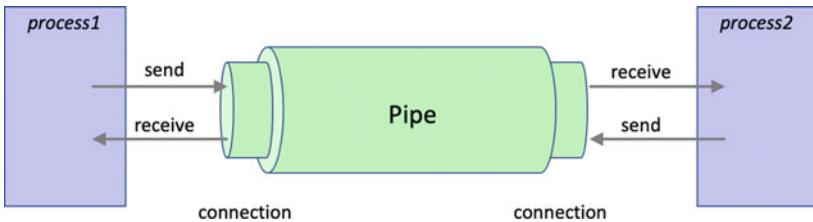
```

31.6 Exchanging Data Between Processes

In some situations it is necessary for two processes to exchange data. However, the two process objects do not share memory as they are running in separate operating system level *processes*. To get around this the multiprocessing library provides the `Pipe()` function.

The `Pipe()` function returns a pair of `connection.Connection` objects connected by a pipe which by default is duplex (two-way).

The two connection objects returned by `Pipe()` represent the two ends of the pipe. Each connection object has `send()` and `recv()` methods (among others). This allows one process to send data via the `send()` method of one end of the connection object. In turn a second process can receive that data via the `receive()` method of the other connection object. This is illustrated below:



Once a program has finished with a connection it should be closed using `close()`.

The following program illustrates how pipe connections are used:

```

from multiprocessing import Process, Pipe
from time import sleep

def worker(conn):
    print('Worker - started now sleeping for 1 second')
    sleep(1)
    print('Worker - sending data via Pipe')
    conn.send('hello')
    print('Worker - closing worker end of connection')
    conn.close()

def main():
    print('Main - Starting, creating the Pipe')
    main_connection, worker_connection = Pipe()
    print('Main - Setting up the process')
    p = Process(target=worker, args=[worker_connection])
    print('Main - Starting the process')
    p.start()
    print('Main - Wait for a response from the child process')
    print(main_connection.recv())
    print('Main - closing parent process end of connection')
    main_connection.close()
    print('Main - Done')

if __name__ == '__main__':
    main()

```

The output from this Pipe example is:

```

Main - Starting, creating the Pipe
Main - Setting up the process
Main - Starting the process
Main - Wait for a response from the child process
Worker - started now sleeping for 1 second
Worker - sending data via Pipe
Worker - closing worker end of connection
hello

```

```
Main - closing parent process end of connection
Main - Done
```

Note that data in a pipe may become corrupted if two processes try to read from or write to the same end of the pipe at the same time. However, there is no risk of corruption from processes using different ends of the pipe at the same time.

31.7 Sharing State Between Processes

In general, if it can be avoided, then you should not share state between separate processes. However, if it is unavoidable then the `multiprocessing` library provides two ways in which state (data) can be shared, these are Shared Memory (as supported by `multiprocessing.Value` and `multiprocessing.Array`) and Server Process.

31.7.1 Process Shared Memory

Data can be stored in a shared memory map using a `multiprocessing.Value` or `multiprocessing.Array`. This data can be accessed by multiple processes.

The constructor for the `multiprocessing.Value` type is:

```
multiprocessing.Value
(typecode_or_type, *args, lock = True)
```

Where:

- `typecode_or_type` determines the type of the returned object: it is either a `ctypes` type or a one character typecode. For example, ‘d’ indicates a double precision float and ‘i’ indicates a signed integer.
- `*args` is passed on to the constructor for the type.
- `lock` If `lock` is `True` (the default) then a new recursive lock object is created to synchronise access to the value. If `lock` is `False` then access to the returned object will not be automatically protected by a lock, so it will not necessarily be *process-safe*.

The constructor for `multiprocessing.Array` is

```
multiprocessing.Array
multiprocessing.Array(typecode_or_type,
                      size_or_initializer,
                      lock=True)
```

Where:

- `typecode_or_type` determines the type of the elements of the returned array.
- `size_or_initializer` If `size_or_initializer` is an integer, then it determines the length of the array, and the array will be initially zeroed. Otherwise, `size_or_initializer` is a sequence which is used to initialise the array and whose length determines the length of the array.
- If `lock` is `True` (the default) then a new lock object is created to synchronise access to the value. If `lock` is `False` then access to the returned object will not be automatically protected by a lock, so it will not necessarily be “process-safe”.

An example using both the `Value` and `Array` type is given below:

```
from multiprocessing import Process, Value, Array

def worker(n, a):
    n.value = 3.1415927
    for i in range(len(a)):
        a[i] = -a[i]

def main():
    print('Starting')
    num = Value('d', 0.0)
    arr = Array('i', range(10))
    p = Process(target=worker, args=(num, arr))
    p.start()
    p.join()
    print(num.value)
    print(*arr)
    print('Done')

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

31.8 Online Resources

See the following online resources for information on multiprocessing:

- <https://docs.python.org/3/library/multiprocessing.html> The Python standard Library documentation on MultiProcessing.
- <https://pymotw.com/3/multiprocessing> The Python Module of the Week page on MultiProcessing.
- <https://pythonprogramming.net/multiprocessing-python-intermediate-python-tutorial> Tutorial on Python’s MultiProcessing module.

31.9 Exercises

Write a program that can find the factorial of any given number. For example, find the factorial of the number 5 (often written as $5!$) which is $1 * 2 * 3 * 4 * 5$ and equals 120.

The factorial is not defined for negative numbers and the factorial of Zero is 1; that is $0! = 1$.

Next modify the program to run multiple factorial calculations in parallel.

Collect all the results together in a list and print that list out.

You can use whichever approach you like to running multiple processes although a Pool could be a good approach to use.

Your program should compute the factorials of 5, 8, 10, 15, 3, 6, and 4 in parallel.

Chapter 32

Inter Thread/Process Synchronisation



32.1 Introduction

In this chapter we will look at several facilities supported by both the `threading` and `multiprocessing` libraries that allow for synchronisation and cooperation between Threads or Processes.

In the remainder of this chapter we will look at some of the ways in which Python supports synchronisation between multiple Threads and Processes. Note that most of the libraries are mirrored between threading and multiprocessing so that the same basic ideas hold for both approaches with, in the main, very similar APIs. However, you should *not* mix and match threads and processes. If you are using Threads then you should only use facilities from the `threading` library. In turn if you are using Processes than you should only use facilities in the `multiprocessing` library. The examples given in this chapter will use one or other of the technologies but are relevant for both approaches.

32.2 Using a Barrier

Using a `threading.Barrier` (or `multiprocessing.Barrier`) is one of the simplest ways in which the execution of a set of Threads (or Processes) can be synchronised.

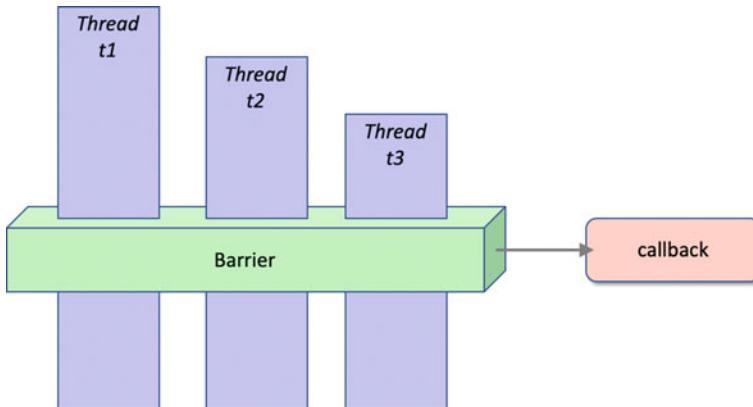
The threads or processes involved in the barrier are known as the *parties* that are taking part in the barrier.

Each of the *parties* in the barrier can work independently until it reaches the barrier point in the code.

The barrier represents an end point that all parties must reach before any further behaviour can be triggered. At the point that all the parties reach the barrier it is possible to optionally trigger a *post-phase* action (also known as the barrier callback). This post-phase action represents some behaviour that should be run when

all parties reach the barrier but before allowing those parties to continue. The post-phase action (the callback) executes in a single thread (or process). Once it is completed then all the parties are unblocked and may continue.

This is illustrated in the following diagram. Threads t1, t2 and t3 are all involved in the barrier. When thread t1 reaches the barrier it must wait until it is released by the barrier. Similarly when t2 reaches the barrier it must wait. When t3 finally reaches the barrier the callback is invoked. Once the callback has completed the barrier releases all three threads which are then able to continue.



An example of using a Barrier object is given below. Note that the function being invoked in each Thread must also cooperate in using the barrier as the code will run up to the `barrier.wait()` method and then wait until all other threads have also reached this point before being allowed to continue.

The `Barrier` is a class that can be used to create a barrier object. When the `Barrier` class is instantiated, it can be provided with three parameters: where

- `parties` the number of individual parties that will participate in the Barrier.
- `action` is a callable object (such as a function) which, when supplied, will be called after all the parties have entered the barrier and just prior to releasing them all.
- `timeout` If a ‘timeout’ is provided, it is used as the default for all subsequent `wait()` calls on the barrier.

Thus, in the following code

```
b = Barrier(3, action=callback)
```

Indicates that there will be three parties involved in the `Barrier` and that the `callback` function will be invoked when all three reach the barrier (however the `timeout` is left as the default value `None`).

The `Barrier` object is created outside of the Threads (or Processes) but must be made available to the function being executed by the Thread (or Process). The easiest way to handle this is to pass the barrier into the function as one of the

parameters; this means that the function can be used with different barrier objects depending upon the context.

An example using the `Barrier` class with a set of Threads is given below:

```
from threading import Barrier, Thread
from time import sleep
from random import randint

def print_it(msg, barrier):
    print('print_it for:', msg)
    for i in range(0, 10):
        print(msg, end='', flush=True)
        sleep(1)
    sleep(randint(1, 6))
    print('Wait for barrier with:', msg)
    barrier.wait()
    print('Returning from print_it:', msg)

def callback():
    print('Callback Executing')

print('Main - Starting')

b = Barrier(3, callback)
t1 = Thread(target=print_it, args=('A', b))
t2 = Thread(target=print_it, args=('B', b))
t3 = Thread(target=print_it, args=('C', b))
t1.start()
t2.start()
t3.start()

print('Main - Done')
```

The output from this is:

```
Main - Starting
print_it for: A
print_it for: B
print_it for: C
ABC
Main - Done
ABCACBACBABCACBCABACBACBBAC
Wait for barrier with: B
Wait for barrier with: A
Wait for barrier with: C
Callback Executing
Returning from print_it: A
Returning from print_it: B
Returning from print_it: C
```

From this you can see that the `print_it()` function is run three times concurrently; all three invocations reach the `barrier.wait()` statement but in a different order to that in which they were started. Once the three have reached this point the `callback` function is executed before the `print_it()` function invocations can proceed.

The `Barrier` class itself provides several methods used to manage or find out information about the barrier:

Method	Description
<code>wait(timeout=None)</code>	Wait until all threads have notified the barrier (unless timeout is reached)—returns the number of threads that passed the barrier
<code>reset()</code>	Return barrier to default state
<code>abort()</code>	Put the barrier into a broken state
<code>parties</code>	Return the number of threads required to pass the barrier
<code>n_waiting</code>	Number of threads currently waiting

A `Barrier` object can be reused any number of times for the same number of Threads.

The above example could easily be changed to run using `Process` by altering the `import` statement and creating a set of `Processes` instead of `Threads`:

```
from multiprocessing import Barrier, Process
...
print('Main - Starting')
b = Barrier(3, callback)
t1 = Process(target=print_it, args=('A', b))
```

Note that you should only use threads with a `threading.Barrier`. In turn you should only use `Processes` with a `multiprocessing.Barrier`.

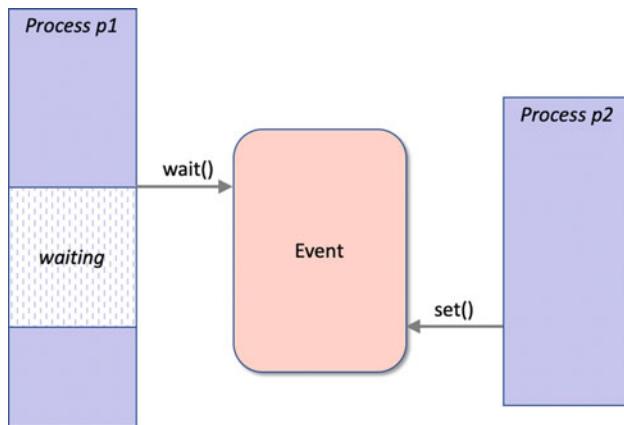
32.3 Event Signalling

Although the point of using multiple `Threads` or `Processes` is to execute separate operations concurrently, there are times when it is important to be able to allow two or more `Threads` or `Processes` to cooperate on the timing of their behaviour. The `Barrier` object presented above is a relatively high-level way to do this; however, in some cases finer grained control is required. The `threading.Event` or `multiprocessing.Event` classes can be used for this purpose.

An `Event` manages an internal flag that callers can either `set()` or `clear()`. Other threads can `wait()` for the flag to be `set()`, effectively blocking their own progress until allowed to continue by the `Event`. The internal flag is initially set to `False` which ensures that if a task gets to the `Event` before it is `set` then it must `wait`.

You can in fact invoke `wait` with an optional `timeout`. If you do not include the optional `timeout` then `wait()` will wait forever while `wait(timeout)` will wait up to the `timeout` given in seconds. If the time out is reached, then the `wait` method returns `False`; otherwise `wait` returns `True`.

As an example, the following diagram illustrates two processes sharing an `event` object. The first process runs a function that waits for the event to be set. In turn the second process runs a function that will set the event and thus release the waiting process.



The following program implements the above scenario:

```

from multiprocessing import Process, Event
from time import sleep

def wait_for_event(event):
    print('wait_for_event - Entered and waiting')
    event_is_set = event.wait()
    print('wait_for_event - Event is set: ', event_is_set)

def set_event(event):
    print('set_event - Entered but about to sleep')
    sleep(5)
    print('set_event - Waking up and setting event')
    event.set()
    print('set_event - Event set')

print('Starting')

# Create the event object
event = Event()

# Start a Process to wait for the event notification
p1 = Process(target=wait_for_event, args=[event])
p1.start()

# Set up a process to set the event
p2 = Process(target=set_event, args=[event])
p2.start()

# Wait for the first process to complete
p1.join()

print('Done')

```

The output from this program is:

```
Starting
wait_for_event - Entered and waiting
set_event - Entered but about to sleep
set_event - Waking up and setting event
set_event - Event set
wait_for_event - Event is set:  True
Done
```

To change this to use Threads we would merely need to change the import and to create two Threads:

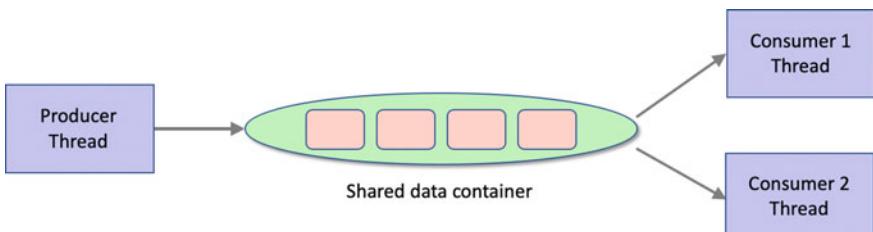
```
from threading import Thread, Event
...
print('Starting')
event = Event()
t1 = Thread(target=wait_for_event, args=[event])
t1.start()
t2 = Thread(target=set_event, args=[event])
t2.start()
t1.join()
print('Done')
```

32.4 Synchronising Concurrent Code

It is not uncommon to need to ensure that critical regions of code are protected from concurrent execution by multiple Threads or Processes. These blocks of code typically involve the modification of, or access to, shared data. It is therefore necessary to ensure that only one Thread or Process is updating a shared object at a time and that consumer threads or processes are blocked while this update is occurring.

This situation is most common where one or more Threads or Processes are the producers of data and one or more other Threads or Processes are the consumers of that data.

This is illustrated in the following diagram.



In this diagram the *Producer* is running in its own Thread (although it could also run in a separate Process) and places data onto some common shared data container. Subsequently a number of independent *Consumers* can consume that data when it is available and when they are free to process the data. However, there is no point in the consumers repeatedly checking the container for data as that would be a waste of resources (for example in terms of executing code on a processor and of context switching between multiple Threads or Processes).

We therefore need some form of *notification* or *synchronisation* between the Producer and the Consumer to manage this situation.

Python provides several classes in the `threading` (and also in the `multiprocessing`) library that can be used to manage critical code blocks. These classes include `Lock`, `Condition` and `Semaphore`.

32.5 Python Locks

The `Lock` class defined (both in the `threading` and the `multiprocessing` libraries) provides a mechanism for synchronising access to a block of code. The `Lock` object can be in one of two states *locked* and *unlocked* (with the initial state being *unlocked*). The `Lock` grants access to a single thread at a time; other threads must wait for the `Lock` to become free before progressing.

The `Lock` class provides two basic methods for acquiring the lock (`acquire()`) and releasing (`release()`) the lock.

- When the state of the `Lock` object is unlocked, then `acquire()` changes the state to locked and returns immediately.
- When the state is locked, `acquire()` blocks until a call to `release()` in another thread changes it to unlocked, then the `acquire()` call resets it to locked and returns.
- The `release()` method should only be called in the *locked* state; it changes the state to *unlocked* and returns immediately. If an attempt is made to release an unlocked lock, a `RuntimeError` will be raised.

An example of using a `Lock` object is shown below:

```

from threading import Thread, Lock

class SharedData(object):
    def __init__(self):
        self.value = 0
        self.lock = Lock()

    def read_value(self):
        try:
            print('read_value Acquiring Lock')
            self.lock.acquire()
            return self.value
        finally:
            print('read_value releasing Lock')
            self.lock.release()

    def change_value(self):
        print('change_value acquiring lock')
        with self.lock:
            self.value = self.value + 1
        print('change_value lock released')

```

The SharedData class presented above uses locks to control access to critical blocks of code, specifically to the `read_value()` and the `change_value()` methods. The `Lock` object is held internally to the `ShareData` object and both methods attempt to acquire the lock before performing their behavior but must then release the lock after use.

The `read_value()` method does this explicitly using `try: finally:` blocks while the `change_value()` method uses a `with` statement (as the `Lock` type supports the *Context Manager Protocol*). Both approaches achieve the same result but the `with` statement style is more concise.

The SharedData class is used below with two simple functions. In this case the SharedData object has been defined as a *global* variable but it could also have been passed into the `reader()` and `updater()` functions as an argument. Both the reader and updater functions loop, attempting to call the `read_value()` and `change_value()` methods on the `shared_data` object.

As both methods use a lock to control access to the methods, only one thread can gain access to the locked area at a time. This means that the `reader()` function may start to read data before the `updater()` function has changed the data (or vice versa).

This is indicated by the output where the `reader` thread accesses the value ‘0’ twice before the `updater` records the value ‘1’. However, the `updater()` function runs a second time before the `reader` gains access to locked block of code which is why the value 2 is missed. Depending upon the application this may or may not be an issue.

```
shared_data = SharedData()

def reader():
    while True:
        print(shared_data.read_value())

def updater():
    while True:
        shared_data.change_value()

print('Starting')

t1 = Thread(target=reader)
t2 = Thread(target=updater)

t1.start()
t2.start()

print('Done')
```

The output from this is:

```
Starting
read_value Acquiring Lock
read_value releasing Lock
0
read_value Acquiring Lock
read_value releasing Lock
0
Done
change_value acquiring lock
change_value lock released
1
change_value acquiring lock
change_value lock released
change_value acquiring lock
change_value lock released
3
change_value acquiring lock
change_value lock released
4
```

Lock objects can only be acquired once; if a thread attempts to acquire a lock on the same Lock object more than once then a `RuntimeError` is thrown.

If it is necessary to re-acquire a lock on a Lock object then the `threading.RLock` class should be used. This is a *Re-entrant* Lock and allows the same Thread (or Process) to acquire a lock multiple times. The code must however release the lock as many times as it has acquired it.

32.6 Python Conditions

Conditions can be used to synchronise the interaction between two or more Threads or Processes. Conditions objects support the concept of a notification model; ideal for a shared data resource being accessed by multiple consumers and producers.

A Condition can be used to notify one or all of the waiting Threads or Processes that they can proceed (for example to read data from a shared resource). The methods available that support this are:

- `notify()` notifies one waiting thread which can then continue
- `notify_all()` notifies all waiting threads that they can continue
- `wait()` causes a thread to wait until it has been notified that it can continue

A Condition is always associated with an *internal* lock which must be acquired and released before the `wait()` and `notify()` methods can be called. The Condition supports the *Context Manager Protocol* and can therefore be used via a `with` statement (which is the most typical way to use a Condition) to obtain this lock. For example, to obtain the condition lock and call the `wait` method we might write:

```
with condition:  
    condition.wait()  
    print('Now we can proceed')
```

The condition object is used in the following example to illustrate how a producer thread and two consumer threads can cooperate. A `DataSource` class has been defined which will hold an item of data that will be shared between a consumer and a set of producers. It also (internally) defines a `Condition` attribute. Note that this means that the `Condition` is completely internalised to the `DataSource` class; external code does not need to know, or be concerned with, the `Condition` and its use. Instead external code can merely call the `consumer()` and `producer()` functions in separate Threads as required.

The `consumer()` method uses a `with` statement to obtain the (internal) lock on the `Condition` object before waiting to be notified that the data is available. In turn the `producer()` method also uses a `with` statement to obtain a lock on the `condition` object before generating the `data` attribute value and then notifying anything *waiting* on the condition that they can proceed. Note that although the `consumer` method obtains a lock on the `condition` object; if it has to wait it will release the lock and re obtain the lock once it is notified that it can continue. This is a subtlety that is often missed.

```
from threading import Thread, Condition, currentThread
from time import sleep
from random import randint

class DataResource:
    def __init__(self):
        print('DataResource - Initialising the empty data')
        self.data = None
        print('DataResource - Setting up the Condition object')
        self.condition = Condition()

    def consumer(self):
        """wait for the condition and use the resource"""
        print('DataResource - Starting consumer method in',
              currentThread().name)
        with self.condition:
            self.condition.wait()
            print('DataResource - Resource is available to',
                  currentThread().name)
            print('DataResource - Data read in',
                  currentThread().name, ':', self.data)

    def producer(self):
        """set up the resource to be used by the consumer"""
        print('DataResource - Starting producer method')
        with self.condition:
            print('DataResource - Producer setting data')
            self.data = randint(1, 100)
            print('DataResource - Producer notifying all
waiting threads')
            self.condition.notifyAll()

print('Main - Starting')
print('Main - Creating the DataResource object')
resource = DataResource()

print('Main - Create the Consumer Threads')
c1 = Thread(target=resource.consumer)
c1.name = 'Consumer1'
c2 = Thread(target=resource.consumer)
c2.name = 'Consumer2'
print('Main - Create the Producer Thread')
p = Thread(target=resource.producer)

print('Main - Starting consumer threads')
c1.start()
c2.start()
sleep(1)

print('Main - Starting producer thread')
p.start()

print('Main - Done')
```

The output from an example run of this program is:

```
Main - Starting
Main - Creating the DataSource object
DataSource - Initialising the empty data
DataSource - Setting up the Condition object
Main - Create the Consumer Threads
Main - Create the Producer Thread
Main - Starting consumer threads
DataSource - Starting consumer method in Consumer1
DataSource - Starting consumer method in Consumer2
Main - Starting producer thread
DataSource - Starting producer method
DataSource - Producer setting data
Main - Done
DataSource - Producer notifying all waiting threads
DataSource - Resource is available to Consumer1
DataSource - Data read in Consumer1 : 36
DataSource - Resource is available to Consumer2
DataSource - Data read in Consumer2 : 36
```

32.7 Python Semaphores

The Python `Semaphore` class implements Dijkstra's counting semaphore model.

In general, a semaphore is like an integer variable, its value is intended to represent a number of available resources of some kind. There are typically two operations available on a semaphore; these operations are `acquire()` and `release()` (although in some libraries Dijkstra's original names of `p()` and `v()` are used, these operation names are based on the original Dutch phrases).

- The `acquire()` operation subtracts one from the value of the semaphore, unless the value is 0, in which case it blocks the calling thread until the semaphore's value increases above 0 again.
- The `signal()` operation adds one to the value, indicating a new instance of the resource has been added to the pool.

Both the `threading.Semaphore` and the `multiprocessing.Semaphore` classes also supports the *Context Management Protocol*.

An optional parameter used with the `Semaphore` constructor gives the initial value for the internal counter; it defaults to 1. If the value given is less than 0, `ValueError` is raised.

The following example illustrates 5 different Threads all running the same `worker()` function. The `worker()` function attempts to acquire a semaphore; if it does then it continues into the `with` statement block; if it doesn't, it waits until it can acquire it. As the semaphore is initialised to 2 there can only be two threads that can acquire the `Semaphore` at a time.

The sample program however, starts up five threads, this therefore means that the first 2 running Threads will acquire the semaphore and the remaining three will have to wait to acquire the semaphore. Once the first two release the semaphore a further two can acquire it and so on.

```
from threading import Thread, Semaphore, currentThread
from time import sleep

def worker(semaphore):
    with semaphore:
        print(currentThread().getName() + " - entered")
        sleep(0.5)
        print(currentThread().getName() + " - exiting")

print('MainThread - Starting')

semaphore = Semaphore(2)
for i in range(0, 5):
    thread = Thread(name='T' + str(i),
                    target=worker,
                    args=[semaphore])
    thread.start()

print('MainThread - Done')
```

The output from a run of this program is given below:

```
MainThread - Starting
T0 - entered
T1 - entered
MainThread - Done
T0 - exiting
T2 - entered
T1 - exiting
T3 - entered
T2 - exiting
T4 - entered
T3 - exiting
T4 - exiting
```

32.8 The Concurrent Queue Class

As might be expected the model where a producer Thread or Process generates data to be processed by one or more Consumer Threads or Processes is so common that a higher level abstraction is provided in Python than the use of Locks, Conditions or Semaphores; this is the blocking queue model implemented by the `threading.Queue` or `multiprocessing.Queue` classes.

Both these Queue classes are Thread and Process safe. That is they work appropriately (using internal locks) to manage data access from concurrent Threads or Processes.

An example of using a Queue to exchange data between a worker process and the main process is shown below.

The *worker* process executes the *worker()* function sleeping, for 2 s before putting a string ‘Hello World’ on the queue. The main application function sets up the queue and creates the process. The queue is passed into the process as one of its arguments. The process is then started. The main process then waits until data is available on the queue via the (blocking) *get()* methods. Once the data is available it is retrieved and printed out before the main process terminates.

```
from multiprocessing import Process, Queue
from time import sleep

def worker(queue):
    print('Worker - going to sleep')
    sleep(2)
    print('Worker - woken up and putting data on queue')
    queue.put('Hello World')

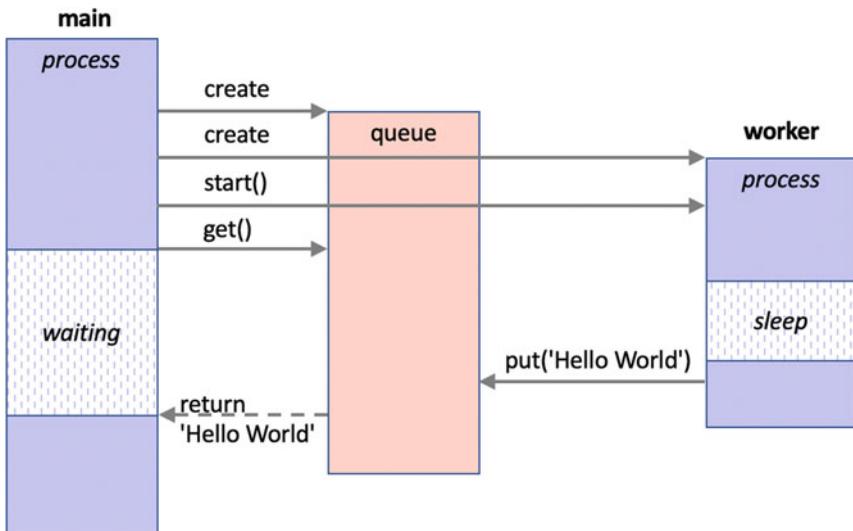
def main():
    print('Main - Starting')
    queue = Queue()
    p = Process(target=worker, args=[queue])
    print('Main - Starting the process')
    p.start()
    print('Main - waiting for data')
    print(queue.get())
    print('Main - Done')

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

The output from this is shown below:

```
Main - Starting
Main - Starting the process
Main - wait for data
Worker - going to sleep
Worker - woken up and putting data on queue
Hello World
Main - Done
```

However, this does not make it that clear how the execution of the two processes interweaves. The following diagram illustrates this graphically:



In the above diagram the main process waits for a result to be returned from the queue following the call to the `get()` method; as it is waiting it is not using any system resources. In turn the worker process sleeps for two seconds before putting some data onto the queue (via `put('Hello World')`). After this value is sent to the Queue the value is returned to the main process which is woken up (moved out of the waiting state) and can continue to process the rest of the main function.

32.9 Online Resources

See the following online resources for information discussed in this chapter:

- <https://docs.python.org/3/library/threading.html> for information on Thread based barriers, locks, conditions, semaphores and events.
- <https://docs.python.org/3/library/multiprocessing.html> for information on Process based barriers, locks, conditions, semaphores and events.
- https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Semaphore_programming Semaphore programming model.

32.10 Exercises

The aim of this exercise is to implement a concurrent version of a `Stack` based container/collection.

It should be possible to safely add data to the stack and *pop* data off the stack using multiple Threads.

It should follow a similar pattern to the Queue class described above but support the First In Last Out (FILO) behaviour of a Stack and be usable with any number of producer and consumer threads (you can ignore processes for this exercise).

The key to implementing the Stack is to remember that no data can be read from the stack until there is some data to access; it is therefore necessary to wait for data to become available and then to read it. However, it is a producer thread that will provide that data and then inform any waiting threads that there is not data available. You can implement this in any way you wish; however a common solution is to use a Condition.

To illustrate this idea, the following test program can be used to verify the behaviour of your Stack:

```
from stack.Stack import Stack
from time import sleep
from threading import Thread

def producer(stack):
    for i in range(0,6):
        data = 'Task' + str(i)
        print('Producer pushing:', data)
        stack.push(data)
        sleep(2)

def consumer(label, stack):
    while True:
        print(label, 'stack.pop():', stack.pop())

print('Create shared stack')
stack = Stack()
print('Stack:', stack)

print('Creating and starting consumer threads')
consumer1 = Thread(target=consumer, args=('Consumer1', stack))
consumer2 = Thread(target=consumer, args=('Consumer2', stack))
consumer3 = Thread(target=consumer, args=('Consumer3', stack))
consumer1.start()
consumer2.start()
consumer3.start()

print('Creating and starting producer thread')
producer = Thread(target=producer, args=[stack])
producer.start()
```

The output generated from this sample program (which includes print statements from the Stack) is given below:

```
Create shared stack
Stack: Stack: []
Creating and starting consumer threads
Creating and starting producer thread
Producer pushing: Task0
Consumer1 stack.pop(): Task0
Producer pushing: Task1
Consumer2 stack.pop(): Task1
Producer pushing: Task2
Consumer3 stack.pop(): Task2
Producer pushing: Task3
Consumer1 stack.pop(): Task3
Producer pushing: Task4
Consumer2 stack.pop(): Task4
Producer pushing: Task5
Consumer3 stack.pop(): Task5
```

Chapter 33

Futures



33.1 Introduction

A future is a thread (or process) that promises to return a value in the future; once the associated behaviour has completed. It is thus a *future* value. It provides a very simple way of firing off behaviour that will either be time consuming to execute or which may be delayed due to expensive operations such as Input/Output and which could slow down the execution of other elements of a program. This chapter discusses futures in Python.

33.2 The Need for a Future

In a normal method or function invocation, the method or function is executed in line with the invoking code (the *caller*) having to wait until the function or method (the *callee*) returns. Only after this is the caller able to continue to the next line of code and execute that. In many (most) situations this is exactly what you want as the next line of code may depend on a result returned from the previous line of code etc.

However, in some situations the next line of code is independent of the previous line of code. For example, let us assume that we are populating a User Interface (UI). The first line of code may read the name of the user from some external data source (such as a database) and then display it within a field in the UI. The next line of code may then add todays data to another field in the UI. These two lines of code are independent of each other and could be run concurrently/in parallel with each other.

In this situation we could use either a Thread or a Process to run the two lines of code independently of the caller, thus achieving a level of concurrency and allowing the caller to carry onto the third line of code etc.

However, neither the Thread or the Process by default provide a simple mechanism for obtaining a result from such an independent operation. This may not be a problem as operations may be self-contained; for example they may obtain data from the database or from today's date and then update a UI. However, in many situations the calculation will return a result which needs to be handled by the original invoking code (the caller). This could involve performing a long running calculation and then using the result returned to generate another value or update another object etc.

A Future is an abstraction that simplifies the definition and execution of such concurrent tasks. Futures are available in many different languages including Python but also Java, Scala, C++ etc. When using a Future; a callable object (such as a function) is passed to the Future which executes the behaviour either as a separate Thread or as a separate Process and then can return a result once it is generated. The result can either be handled by a call back function (that is invoked when the result is available) or by using a operation that will wait for a result to be provided.

33.3 Futures in Python

The `concurrent.futures` library was introduced into Python in version 3.2 (and is also available in Python 2.5 onwards). The `concurrent.futures` library provides the `Future` class and a high level API for working with Futures.

The `concurrent.futures.Future` class encapsulates the asynchronous execution of a callable object (e.g. a function or method).

The `Future` class provides a range of methods that can be used to obtain information about the state of the future, retrieve results or cancel the future:

- `cancel()` Attempt to cancel the Future. If the Future is currently being executed and cannot be cancelled then the method will return `False`, otherwise the call will be cancelled and the method will return `True`.
- `cancelled()` Returns `True` if the Future was successfully cancelled.
- `running()` Returns `True` if the Future is currently being executed and cannot be cancelled.
- `done()` Returns `True` if the Future was successfully cancelled or finished running.
- `result(timeout=None)` Return the value returned by the Future. If the Future hasn't yet completed then this method will wait up to `timeout` seconds. If the call hasn't completed in `timeout` seconds, then a `TimeoutError` will be raised. `timeout` can be an `int` or `float`. If `timeout` is not specified or `None`, there is no limit to the wait time. If the future is cancelled before completing then the `CancelledError` will be raised. If the call raised, this method will raise the same exception.

It should be noted however, that Future instances should not be created directly, rather they should be created via the `submit` method of an appropriate *executor*.

33.3.1 Future Creation

Futures are created and executed by Executors. An `Executor` provides two methods that can be used to execute a `Future` (or `Futures`) and one to shut down the executor.

At the root of the executor class hierarchy is the `concurrent.futures.Executor` abstract class. It has two subclasses:

- the `ThreadPoolExecutor` and
- the `ProcessPoolExecutor`.

The `ThreadPoolExecutor` uses *threads* to execute the futures while the `ProcessPoolExecutor` uses separate *processes*. You can therefore choose how you want the Future to be executed by specifying one or other of these executors.

33.3.2 Simple Example Future

To illustrate these ideas, we will look at a very simple example of using a `Future`.

To do this we will use a simple worker function; similar to that used in the previous chapters:

```
from time import sleep

# define function to be used with future
def worker(msg):
    for i in range(0, 10):
        print(msg, end='', flush=True)
        sleep(1)
    return i
```

The only difference with this version of `worker` is that it also returns a *result* which is the number of times that the `worker` printed out the message.

We can of course invoke this method inline as follows:

```
res = worker('A')
print(res)
```

We can make the invocation of this method into a Future. To do this we use a ThreadPoolExecutor imported from the concurrent.futures module. We will then submit the worker function to the pool for execution. This returns a reference to a Future which we can use to obtain the result:

```
from time import sleep
from concurrent.futures import ThreadPoolExecutor

print('Setting up the ThreadPoolExecutor')

pool = ThreadPoolExecutor(1)

# Submit the function ot the pool to run
# concurrently - obtain a future from pool
print('Submitting the worker to the pool')
future = pool.submit(worker, 'A')

print('Obtained a reference to the future object', future)

# Obtain the result from the future - wait if necessary
print('future.result():', future.result())

print('Done')
```

The output from this is:

```
Setting up the ThreadPoolExecutor
Submitting the worker to the pool
AAObtained a reference to the future object <Future at
0x1086ea8d0 state=running>
AAAAAAAfuture.result(): 9
Done
```

Notice how the output from the main program and the worker is interwoven with two ‘A’s being printed out before the message starting ‘Obtained a...’.

In this case a new ThreadPoolExecutor is being created with one thread in the pool (typically there would be multiple threads in the pool but one is being used here for illustrative purposes).

The submit() method is then used to submit the function worker with the parameter ‘A’ to the ThreadPoolExecutor for it to schedule execution of the function. The submit() method returns a Future object.

The main program then waits for the future object to return a result (by calling the result() method on the future). This method can also take a timeout.

To change this example to use Processes rather than Threads all that is needed is to change the pool executor to a ProcessPoolExecutor:

```
from concurrent.futures import ProcessPoolExecutor

print('Setting up the ThreadPoolExecutor')
pool = ProcessPoolExecutor(1)

print('Submitting the worker to the pool')
future = pool.submit(worker, 'A')

print('Obtained a reference to the future object', future1)
print('future.result():', future.result())
print('Done')
```

The output from this program is very similar to the last one:

```
Setting up the ThreadPoolExecutor
Submitting the worker to the pool
Obtained a reference to the future object <Future at
0x109178630 state=running>
AAAAAAAfuture.result(): 9
Done
```

The only difference is that in this particular run the message starting ‘Obtained a..’ is printed out before any of the ‘A’s are printed; this may be due to the fact that a Process initially takes longer to set up than a Thread.

33.4 Running Multiple Futures

Both the ThreadPoolExecutor and the ProcessPoolExecutor can be configured to support multiple Threads/Processes via the pool. Each task that is submitted to the pool will then run within a separate Thread/Process. If more tasks are submitted than there are Threads/Processes available, then the submitted task will wait for the first available Thread/Process and then be executed. This can act as a way of managing the amount of concurrent work being done.

For example, in the following example, the worker() function is submitted to the pool four times, but the pool is configured to use threads. Thus the fourth worker will need to wait until one of the first three completes before it is able to execute:

```
from concurrent.futures import ThreadPoolExecutor

print('Starting...')
pool = ThreadPoolExecutor(3)
future1 = pool.submit(worker, 'A')
future2 = pool.submit(worker, 'B')
future3 = pool.submit(worker, 'C')
future4 = pool.submit(worker, 'D')
print('\nfuture4.result():', future4.result())
print('All Done')
```

When this runs we can see that the Futures for A, B and C all run concurrently but D must wait until one of the others finishes:

The main thread also waits for `future4` to finish as it requests the result which is a blocking call that will only return once the future has completed and generates a result.

Again, to use Processes rather than Threads all we need to do is to replace the `ThreadPoolExecutor` with the `ProcessPoolExecutor`:

```
from concurrent.futures import ProcessPoolExecutor

print('Starting...')
pool = ProcessPoolExecutor(3)
future1 = pool.submit(worker, 'A')
future2 = pool.submit(worker, 'B')
future3 = pool.submit(worker, 'C')
future4 = pool.submit(worker, 'D')
print('\nfuture4.result():', future4.result())
print('All Done')
```

33.4.1 Waiting for All Futures to Complete

It is possible to wait for all futures to complete before progressing. In the previous section it was assumed that `future4` would be the last future to complete; but in many cases it may not be possible to know which *future* will be the last to complete. In such situations it is very useful to be able to wait for all the futures to complete before continuing. This can be done using the `concurrent.futures.wait` function. This function takes a collection of futures and optionally a `timeout` and a `return_when` indicator.

```
wait(fs, timeout=None, return_when=ALL_COMPLETED)
```

where:

- `timeout` can be used to control the maximum number of seconds to wait before returning. `timeout` can be an `int` or `float`. If `timeout` is not specified or `None`, there is no limit to the wait time.
 - `return_when` indicates when this function should return. It must be one of the following constants:
 - `FIRST_COMPLETED` The function will return when any future finishes or is cancelled.

- FIRST_EXCEPTION The function will return when any future finishes by raising an exception. If no future raises an exception, then it is equivalent to ALL_COMPLETED.
 - ALL_COMPLETED The function will return when all futures finish or are cancelled.

The `wait()` function returns two sets `done` and `not_done`. The first set contains the futures that completed (finished or were cancelled) before the wait completed. The second set, the `not_dones`, contains uncompleted futures.

We can use the `wait()` function to modify our previous example so that we no longer rely on `future4` finishing last:

```
from concurrent.futures import ProcessPoolExecutor
from concurrent.futures import wait
from time import sleep

def worker(msg):
    for i in range(0,10):
        print(msg,end='', flush=True)
        sleep(1)
    return i

print('Starting...setting up pool')
pool = ProcessPoolExecutor(3)
futures = []

print('Submitting futures')
future1 = pool.submit(worker, 'A')
futures.append(future1)
future2 = pool.submit(worker, 'B')
futures.append(future2)
future3 = pool.submit(worker, 'C')
futures.append(future3)
future4 = pool.submit(worker, 'D')
futures.append(future4)

wait(futures)
```

The output from this is:

```
Starting...setting up pool
Submitting futures
Waiting for futures to complete
ABCABCABCABCABCBCACBACBABCADDxDDDDDDDD
All Done
```

Note how each future is added to the list of futures which is then passed to the `wait()` function.

33.4.2 Processing Results as Completed

What if we want to process each of the results returned by our collection of futures? We could loop through the futures list in the previous section once all the results have been generated. However, this means that we would have to wait for them all to complete before processing the list.

In many situations we would like to process the results as soon as they are generated without being concerned if that is the first, third, last or second etc.

The `concurrent.futures.as_completed()` function does precisely this; it will serve up each future in turn as soon as they are completed; with all futures eventually being returned but without guaranteeing the order (just that as soon as a future is finished generating a result it will be immediately available).

For example, in the following example, the `is_even()` function sleeps for a random number of seconds (ensuring that different invocations of this function will take different durations) then calculates a result:

```
from concurrent.futures import ThreadPoolExecutor, as_completed
from time import sleep
from random import randint

def is_even(n):
    print('Checking if', n, 'is even')
    sleep(randint(1, 5))
    return str(n) + ' ' + str(n % 2 == 0)

print('Started')
data = [1, 2, 3, 4, 5, 6]
pool = ThreadPoolExecutor(5)
futures = []

for v in data:
    futures.append(pool.submit(is_even, v))

for f in as_completed(futures):
    print(f.result())

print('Done')
```

The second `for` loop will loop through each future as they complete printing out the result from each, as shown below:

```
Started
Checking if 1 is even
Checking if 2 is even
Checking if 3 is even
Checking if 4 is even
Checking if 5 is even
Checking if 6 is even
1 False
4 True
5 False
3 False
2 True
6 True
Done
```

As you can see from this output although the six futures were started in sequence the results returned are in a different order (with the returned order being 1, 4, 5, 3, 2 and finally 6).

33.5 Processing Future Results Using a Callback

An alternative to the `as_complete()` approach is to provide a function that will be called once a result has been generated. This has the advantage that the main program is never paused; it can continue doing whatever is required of it.

The function called once the result is generated is typically known as a *callback* function; that is the future calls *back* to this function when the result is available.

Each future can have a separate call back as the function to invoke is set on the future using the `add_done_callback()` method. This method takes the name of the function to invoke.

For example, in this modified version of the previous example, we specify a call back function that will be used to print the futures result. This call back function is called `print_future_result()`. It takes the future that has completed as its argument:

```
from concurrent.futures import ThreadPoolExecutor
from time import sleep
from random import randint

def is_even(n):
    print('Checking if', n, 'is even')
    sleep(randint(1, 5))
    return str(n) + ' ' + str(n % 2 == 0)

def print_future_result(future):
    print('In callback Future result: ', future.result())

print('Started')
data = [1, 2, 3, 4, 5, 6]

pool = ThreadPoolExecutor(5)

for v in data:
    future = pool.submit(is_even, v)
    future.add_done_callback(print_future_result)

print('Done')
```

When we run this, we can see that the call back function is called after the main thread has completed. Again, the order is unspecified as the `is_even()` function still sleeps for a random amount of time.

```
Started
Checking if 1 is even
Checking if 2 is even
Checking if 3 is even
Checking if 4 is even
Checking if 5 is even
Done
In callback Future result: 1 False
Checking if 6 is even
In callback Future result: 5 False
In callback Future result: 4 True
In callback Future result: 3 False
In callback Future result: 2 True
In callback Future result: 6 True
```

33.6 Online Resources

See the following online resources for information on Futures:

- <https://docs.python.org/3/library/concurrent.futures.html> The Python standard Library documentation on Futures.
- <https://pymotw.com/3/concurrent.futures> The Python Module of the Week page on Futures.
- <https://www.blog.pythonlibrary.org/2016/08/03/python-3-concurrency-the-concurrent-futures-module> an alternative tutorial on Python Futures.

33.7 Exercises

In mathematics, the *factorial* of a positive integer n , denoted by $n!$, is the product of all positive integers less than or equal to n . For example,

$$5! = 5 \times 4 \times 3 \times 2 \times 1 = 120$$

Note that the value of $0!$ is 1.

Write a Future that will calculate the factorial of any number with the result being printed out via a call back function.

There are several ways in which the factorial value can be calculated either using a for loop or a recursive function. In either case sleep for a millisecond between each calculation.

Start multiple Futures for different factorial values and see which comes back first.

Chapter 34

Concurrency with AsyncIO



34.1 Introduction

The Async IO facilities in Python are relatively recent additions originally introduced in Python 3.4 and evolving up to and including Python 3.7. They are comprised (as of Python 3.7) of two new keywords `async` and `await` (introduced in Python 3.7) and the Async IO Python package.

In this chapter we first discuss Asynchronous IO before introducing the `async` and `await` keywords. We then present Async IO Tasks, how they are created used and managed.

34.2 Asynchronous IO

Asynchronous IO (or Async IO) is a language agnostic concurrent programming model (or paradigm) that has been implemented in several different programming language (such as C# and Scala) as well as in Python.

Asynchronous IO is another way in which you can build concurrent applications in Python. It is in many ways an alternative to the facilities provided by the Threading library in Python. However, were as the Threading library is more susceptible to issues associated with the GIL (The Global Interpreter Lock) which can affect performance, the Async IO facilities are better insulated from this issue.

The way in which Async IO operates is also lighter weight then the facilities provide day the multiprocessing library since the asynchronous tasks in Async IO run within a single process rather than requiring separate processes to be spawned on the underlying hardware.

Async IO is therefore another alternative way of implementing concurrent solutions to problems. It should be noted that it does not build on either Threading or Multi Processing; instead Async IO is based on the idea of cooperative

multitasking. These cooperating tasks operate asynchronously; by this we mean that the tasks:

- are able to operate separately from other tasks,
- are able to wait for another task to return a result when required,
- and are thus able to allow other tasks to run while they are waiting.

The IO (Input/Output) aspect of the name Async IO is because this form of concurrent program is best suited to I/O bound tasks.

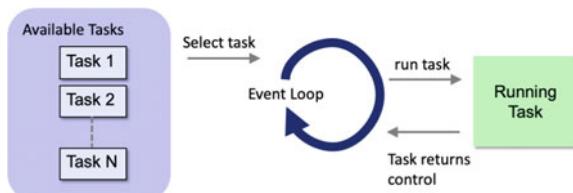
In an I/O bound task a program spends most of its time sending data to, or reading data from, some form of external device (for example a database or set of files etc.). This communication is time consuming and means that the program spends most of its time waiting for a response from the external device.

One way in which such I/O bound applications can (appear to) speed up is to overlap the execution of different tasks; thus, while one task is waiting for a database to respond with some data, another task can be writing data to a log file etc.

34.3 Async IO Event Loop

When you are developing code using the Async IO facilities you do not need to worry about how the internals of the Async IO library work; however at least at the conceptual level it is useful to understand one key concept; that of the Async IO *Event Loop*; This loop controls how and when each task gets run. For the purposes of this discussion a task represents some work that can be run independently of other pieces of work.

The Event Loop knows about each task to be run and what the state of the task currently is (for example whether it is waiting for something to happen/complete). It selects a task that is *ready to run* from the list of available tasks and executes it. This task has complete control of the CPU until it either completes its work or hands back control to the Event Loop (for example, because it must now wait for some data to be supplied from a database). The Event Loop now checks to see if any of the waiting tasks are ready to continue executing and makes a note of their status. The Event Loop then selects another task that is ready to run and starts that task off. This loop continues until all the tasks have finished. This is illustrated below:



An important point to note in the above description is that a task does not give up the processor unless it decides to, for example by having to wait for something else. They never get interrupted in the middle of an operation; this avoids the problem that two threads might have when being time sliced by a separate scheduler as they may both be sharing the same resource. This can greatly simplify your code.

34.4 The Async and Await Keywords

The `async` keyword, introduced in Python 3.7 is used to mark a function as being something that uses the `await` keyword (we will come back to this below as there is one other use of the `async` keyword). A function that uses the `await` keyword can be run as a separate task and can give up control of the processor when it calls `await` against another `async` function and must *wait* for that function to complete. The invoked `async` function can then run as a separate task etc.

To invoke an `async` function it is necessary to start the Async IO Event Loop and for that function to be treated as a task by the Event Loop. This is done by calling the `asyncio.run()` method and passing in the root `async` function.

The `asyncio.run()` function was introduced in Python 3.7 (older versions of Python such as Python 3.6 required you to explicitly obtain a reference to the Event Loop and to run the root `async` function via that). One point to note about this function is that it has been marked as being provisional in Python 3.7. This means that future versions of Python may or may not support the function or may modify the function in some way. You should therefore check the documentation for the version of Python you are using to see whether the `run` method has been altered or not.

34.4.1 Using Async and Await

We will examine a very simple Async IO program from the top down. The `main()` function for the program is given below:

```
def main() :
    print('Main - Starting')
    asyncio.run(do_something())
    print('Main - Done')

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

The `main()` function is the entry point for the program and calls:

```
asyncio.run(do_something())
```

This starts the Async IO Event Loop running and results in the `do_something()` function being wrapped up in a Task that is managed by the loop. Note that you do not explicitly create a Task in Async IO; they are always created by some function however it is useful to be aware of Tasks as you can interact with them to check their status or to retrieve a result.

The `do_something()` function is marked with the keyword `async`:

```
async def do_something():
    print('do_something - will wait for worker')
    result = await worker()
    print('do_something - result:', result)
```

As previously mentioned this indicates that it can be run as a separate Task and that it can use the keyword `await` to wait for some other function or behaviour to complete. In this case the `do_something()` asynchronous function must wait for the `worker()` function to complete.

The `await` keyword does more than merely indicate that the `do_something()` function must wait for the worker to complete. It triggers another Task to be created that will execute the `worker()` function and releases the processor allowing the Event Loop to select the next task to execute (which may or may not be the task running the `worker()` function). The status of the `do_something` task is now *waiting* while the status of the `worker()` task is *ready* (to run).

The code for the worker task is given below:

```
async def worker():
    print('worker - will take some time')
    time.sleep(3)
    print('worker - Done it')
    return 42
```

The `async` keyword again indicates that this function can be run as a separate task. However, this time the body of the function does not use the `await` keyword. This is because this is a special case known as an Async IO *coroutine* function. This is a function that returns a value from a Task (it is related to the idea of a standard Python coroutine which is a data consumer).

Sadly, Computer Science has many examples where the same term has been used for different things as well as examples where different terms have been used for the same thing. In this case to avoid confusion just stick with Async IO coroutines are functions marked with `async` that can be run as a separate task and *may* call `await`.

The full listing for the program is given below:

```
import asyncio
import time

async def worker():
    print('worker - will take some time')
    time.sleep(3)
    print('worker - done it')
    return 42

async def do_something():
    print('do_something - will wait for worker')
    result = await worker()
    print('do_something - result:', result)

def main():
    print('Main - Starting')
    asyncio.run(do_something())
    print('Main - Done')

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

When this program is executed the output is:

```
Main - Starting
do_something - will wait for worker
worker - will take some time
worker - done it
do_something - result: 42
Main - Done
```

When this is run there is a pause between the two worker printouts as it sleeps.

Although it is not completely obvious here, the `do_something()` function was run as one task, this task then waited when it got to the `worker()` function which was run as another Task. Once the worker task completed the `do_something` task could continue and complete its operation. Once this happened the Async IO Event Loop could then terminate as no further tasks were available.

34.5 Async IO Tasks

Tasks are used to execute functions marked with the `async` keyword concurrently. Tasks are never created directly instead they are created implicitly via the keyword `await` or through functions such as `asyncio.run` described above or

`asyncio.create_task()`, `asyncio.gather()` and `asyncio.as_completed()`. These additional task creation functions are described below:

- `asyncio.create_task()` This function takes a function marked with `async` and wraps it inside a Task and schedules it for execution by the Async IO Event Loop. This function was added in Python 3.7.
- `asyncio.gather(*aws)` This function runs all the `async` functions passed to it as separate Tasks. It gathers the results of each separate task together and returns them as a list. The order of the results corresponds to the order of the `async` functions in the `aws` list.
- `asyncio.as_completed(aws)` Runs each of the `async` functions passed to it.

A Task object supports several useful methods

- `cancel()` cancels a running task. Calling this method will cause the Task to throw a `CancelledError` exception.
- `cancelled()` returns `True` if the Task has been cancelled.
- `done()` returns `True` if the task has completed, raised an exception or was cancelled.
- `result()` returns the result of the Task if it is done. If the Tasks result is not yet available, then the method raises the `InvalidStateError` exception.
- `exception()` return an exception if one was raised by the Task. If the task was cancelled then raises the `CancelledError` exception. If the task is not yet `done`, then raises an `InvalidStateError` exception.

It is also possible to add a callback function to invoke once the task has completed (or to remove such a function if it has been added):

- `add_done_callback(callback)` Add a callback to be run when the Task is done.
- `remove_done_callback(callback)` Remove callback from the callbacks list.

Note that the method is called ‘add’ rather than ‘set’ implying that there can be multiple functions called when the task has completed (if required).

The following example illustrates some of the above:

```
import asyncio
async def worker():
    print('worker - will take some time')
    await asyncio.sleep(1)
    print('worker - Done it')
    return 42

def print_it(task):
    print('print_it result:', task.result())
```

```
async def do_something():
    print('do_something - create task for worker')
    task = asyncio.create_task(worker())
    print('do_something - add a callback')
    task.add_done_callback(print_it)
    await task
    # Information on task
    print('do_something - task.cancelled():',
task.cancelled())
    print('do_something - task.done():', task.done())
    print('do_something - task.result():', task.result())
    print('do_something - task.exception():',
task.exception())
    print('do_something - finished')

def main() :
    print('Main - Starting')
    asyncio.run(do_something())
    print('Main - Done')

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

In this example, the `worker()` function is wrapped within a task object that is returned from the `asyncio.create_task(worker())` call.

A function (`print_it()`) is registered as a callback on the task using the `asyncio.create_task(worker())` function. Note that the worker is passed the task that has completed as a parameter. This allows it to obtain information from the task such as any result generated.

In this example the `async` function `do_something()` explicitly waits on the task to complete. Once this happens several different methods are used to obtain information about the task (such as whether it was cancelled or not).

One other point to note about this listing is that in the `worker()` function we have added an `await` using the `asyncio.sleep(1)` function; this allows the worker to sleep and wait for the triggered task to complete; it is an Async IO alternative to `time.sleep(1)`.

The output from this program is:

```
Main - Starting
do_something - create task for worker
do_something - add a callback
worker - will take some time
worker - Done it
print_it result: 42
do_something - task.cancelled(): False
do_something - task.done(): True
do_something - task.result(): 42
do_something - task.exception(): None
do_something - finished
Main - Done
```

34.6 Running Multiple Tasks

In many cases it is useful to be able to run several tasks concurrently. There are two options provided for this the `asyncio.gather()` and the `asyncio.as_completed()` function; we will look at both in this section.

34.6.1 Collating Results from Multiple Tasks

It is often useful to collect all the results from a set of tasks together and to continue only once all the results have been obtained. When using Threads or Processes this can be achieved by starting multiple Threads or Processes and then using some other object such as a Barrier to wait for all the results to be available before continuing. Within the Async IO library all that is required is to use the `asyncio.gather()` function with a list of the `async` functions to run, for example:

```
import asyncio
import random

async def worker():
    print('Worker - will take some time')
    await asyncio.sleep(1)
    result = random.randint(1,10)
    print('Worker - Done it')
    return result

async def do_something():
    print('do_something - will wait for worker')
    # Run three calls to worker concurrently and collect
    results
    results = await asyncio.gather(worker(), worker(),
                                    worker())
    print('results from calls:', results)

def main() :
    print('Main - Starting')
    asyncio.run(do_something())
    print('Main - Done')

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

In this program the `do_something()` function uses

```
results = await asyncio.gather(worker(), worker(), worker())
```

to run three invocations of the `worker()` function in three separate Tasks and to wait for the results of all three to be made available before they are returned as a list of values and stored in the `results` variable.

This makes it very easy to work with multiple concurrent tasks and to collate their results.

Note that in this code example the worker `async` function returns a random number between 1 and 10.

The output from this program is:

```
Main - Starting
do_something - will wait for worker
Worker - will take some time
Worker - will take some time
Worker - will take some time
Worker - Done it
Worker - Done it
Worker - Done it
results from calls: [5, 3, 4]
Main - Done
```

As you can see from this all three of the worker invocations are started but then release the processor while they sleep. After this the three tasks wake up and complete before the results are collected together and printed out.

34.6.2 Handling Task Results as They Are Made Available

Another option when running multiple Tasks is to handle the results as they become available, rather than wait for all the results to be provided before continuing. This option is supported by the `asyncio.as_completed()` function. This function returns an iterator of `async` functions which will be served up as soon as they have completed their work.

The `for`-loop construct can be used with the iterator returned by the function; however within the `for` loop the code must call `await` on the `async` functions returned so that the result of the task can be obtained. For example:

```
async def do_something():
    print('do_something - will wait for worker')
    # Run three calls to worker concurrently and collect
    results
    for async_func in asyncio.as_completed((worker('A'),
                                             worker('B'),
                                             worker('C'))):
        result = await async_func
        print('do_something - result:', result)
```

Note that the `asyncio.as_completed()` function takes a container such as a tuple of `async` functions.

We have also modified the worker function slightly so that a label is added to the random number generated so that it is clear which invocation of the worker function return which result:

```
async def worker(label):
    print('Worker - will take some time')
    await asyncio.sleep(1)
    result = random.randint(1,10)
    print('Worker - Done it')
    return label + str(result)
```

When we run this program

```
def main() :
    print('Main - Starting')
    asyncio.run(do_something())
    print('Main - Done')
```

The output is

```
Main - Starting
do_something - will wait for worker
Worker - will take some time
Worker - will take some time
Worker - will take some time
Worker - Done it
Worker - Done it
Worker - Done it
do_something - result: C2
do_something - result: A1
do_something - result: B10
Main - Done
```

As you can see from this, the results are not returned in the order that the tasks are created, task ‘C’ completes first followed by ‘A’ and ‘B’. This illustrates the behaviour of the `asyncio.as_completed()` function.

34.7 Online Resources

See the following online resources for information on Futures:

- <https://docs.python.org/3/library/asyncio-task.html> The Python standard Library documentation on AsyncIO.
- <https://pymotw.com/3/asyncio> The Python Module of the Week page on AsyncIO.
- <https://pythonprogramming.net/asyncio-basics-intermediate-python-tutorial> An AsyncIO tutorial.

34.8 Exercises

This exercise will use the facilities in the AsyncIO library to calculate a set of factorial numbers.

The factorial of a positive integer is the product of all positive integers less than or equal to n. For example,

$$5! = 5 \times 4 \times 3 \times 2 \times 1 = 120$$

Note that the value of 0! is 1,

Create an application that will use the `async` and `await` keywords to calculate the factorials of a set of numbers. The factorial function should await for 0.1 of a second (using `asyncio.sleep(0.1)`) each time round the loop used to calculate the factorial of a number.

You can use with `asyncio.as_completed()` or `asyncio.gather()` to collect the results up.

You might also use a list comprehension to create the list of calls to the factorial function.

The main function might look like:

```
def main():
    print('Main - Starting')
    asyncio.run(calculate_factorials([5, 7, 3, 6]))
    print('Main - Done')

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

Part VIII

Reactive Programming

Chapter 35

Reactive Programming Introduction



35.1 Introduction

In this chapter we will introduce the concept of Reactive Programming. Reactive programming is a way of writing programs that allow the system to *reactive to* data being published to it. We will look at the RxPy library which provides a Python implementation of the ReactiveX approach to Reactive Programming.

35.2 What Is a Reactive Application?

A Reactive Application is one that must react to data; typically either to the presence of new data, or to changes in existing data. The *Reactive Manifesto* presents the key characteristics of Reactive Systems as:

- **Responsive.** This means that such systems respond in a timely manner. Here of course timely will differ depending upon the application and domain; in one situation a second may be timely in another it may be far too slow.
- **Resilient.** Such systems stay responsive in the face of failure. The systems must therefore be designed to handle failure gracefully and continue to work appropriately following the failure.
- **Elastic.** As the workload grows the system should continue to be responsive.
- **Message Driven.** Information is exchanged between elements of a reactive system using messages. This ensures loose coupling, isolation and location transparency between these components.

As an example, consider an application that lists a set of *Equity Stock Trade* values based on the latest market stock price data. This application might present the current value of each trade within a table. When new market stock price data is

published, then the application must update the value of the trade within the table. Such an application can be described as being reactive.

Reactive Programming is a programming style (typically supported by libraries) that allows code to be written that follow the ideas of reactive systems. Of course just because part of an application uses a Reactive Programming library does not make the whole application reactive; indeed it may only be necessary for part of an application to exhibit reactive behaviour.

35.3 The ReactiveX Project

ReactiveX is the best known implementation of the Reactive Programming paradigm.

ReactiveX is based on the *Observer-Observable* design pattern. However it is an extension to this design pattern as it extends the pattern such that the approach supports sequences of data and/or events and adds operators that allow developers to compose sequences together declaratively while abstracting away concerns associated with low-level threads, synchronisation, concurrent data structures and non-blocking I/O.

The ReactiveX project has implementations for many languages including RxJava, RxScala and RxPy; this last is the version we are looking at as it is for the Python language.

RxPy is described as:

A library for composing asynchronous and event-based programs using Observable collections and query operator functions in Python

35.4 The Observer Pattern

The Observer Pattern is one of the *Gang of Four* set of Design Patterns. The Gang of Four Patterns (as originally described in Gamma et al. 1995) are so called because this book on design patterns was written by four very famous authors namely; Erich Gamma, Richard Helm, Ralph Johnson and John Vlissides.

The Observer Pattern provides a way of ensuring that a set of objects is notified whenever the state of another object changes. It has been widely used in a number of languages (such as Smalltalk and Java) and can also be used with Python.

The intent of the Observer Pattern is to manage a one to many relationship between an object and those objects interested in the state, and in particular state changes, of that object. Thus when the objects' state changes, the interested (dependent) objects are notified of that change and can take whatever action is appropriate.

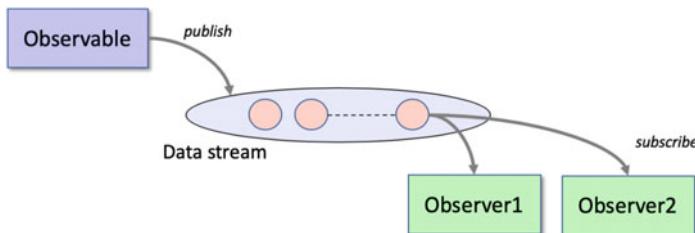
There are two key roles within the Observer Pattern, these are the Observable and the Observer roles.

- **Observable.** This is the object that is responsible for notifying other objects that a change in its state has occurred
- **Observer.** An Observer is an object that will be notified of the change in state of the Observable and can take appropriate action (such as triggering a change in their own state or performing some action).

In addition the state is typically represented explicitly:

- **State.** This role may be played by an object that is used to share information about the change in state that has occurred within the Observable. This might be as simple as a String indicating the new state of the Observable or it might be a data oriented object that provides more detailed information.

These roles are illustrated in the following figure.



In the above figure, the Observable object publishes data to a Data Stream. The data in the Data Stream is then sent to each of the Observers registered with the Observable. In this way data is broadcast to all Observers of an Observable.

It is common for an Observable to only publish data once there is an Observer available to process that data. The process of registering with an Observable is referred to as subscribing. Thus an Observable will have zero or more subscribers (Observers).

If the Observable publishes data at a faster rate than can be processed by the Observer then the data is queued via the Data Stream. This allows the Observer to process the data received one at a time at its own pace; without any concern for data loss (as long as sufficient memory is available for the data stream).

35.5 Hot and Cold Observables

Another concept that it is useful to understand is that of *Hot* and *Cold* Observables.

- Cold Observables are *lazy* Observables. That is, a Cold Observable will only publish data if at least one Observer is subscribed to it.

- Hot Observables, by contrast, publish data whether there is an Observer subscribed or not.

35.5.1 *Cold Observables*

A Cold Observable will not publish any data unless there is at least one Observer subscribed to process that data. In addition a cold Observable only provides data to an Observer when that Observer is ready to process the data; this is because the Observable-Observer relationship is more of a *pull* relationship. For example, given an Observable that will generate a set of values based on a range, then that Observable will generate each result lazily when requested by an Observer.

If the Observer takes some time to process the data emitted by the Observable, then the Observable will wait until the Observer is ready to process the data before emitting another value.

35.5.2 *Hot Observables*

Hot Observables by contrast publish data whether there is an Observer subscribed or not. When an Observer registers with the Observable, it will start to receive data at that point, as and when the Observable publishes new data. If the Observable has already published previous data items, then these will have been lost and the Observer will not receive that data.

The most common situation in which a Hot Observable is created is when the source producer represents data that may be irrelevant if not processed immediately or may be superseded by subsequent data. For example, data published by a Stock Market Price data feed would fall into this category. When an Observable wraps around this data feed it can publish that data whether or not an Observer is subscribed.

35.5.3 *Implications of Hot and Cold Observables*

It is important to know whether you have a hot or cold Observable because this can impact on what you can assume about the data supplied to the Observers and thus how you need to design your application. If it is important that no data is lost then care is needed to ensure that the subscribers are in place before a Hot Observable starts to publish data (where as this is not a concern for a cold Observable).

35.6 Differences Between Event Driven Programming and Reactive Programming

In Event Driven programming, an event is generated in response to something happening; the event then represents this with any associated data. For example, if the user clicks the mouse then an associated `MouseEvent` might be generated. This object will usually hold information about the x and y coordinates of the mouse along with which button was clicked etc. It is then possible to associate some behaviour (such as a function or a method) with this event so that if the event occurs, then the associated operation is invoked and the event object is provided as a parameter. This is certainly the approach used in the `wxPython` library presented earlier in this book:



From the above diagram, when a `MouseEvent` is generated the `on_move()` method is called and the event is passed into the method.

In the Reactive Programming approach, an Observer is associated with an Observable. Any data generated by the Observable will be received and handled by the Observer. This is true whatever that data is, as the Observer is a handler of data generated by the Observable rather than a handler of a specific type of data (as with the Event driven approach).

Both approaches could be used in many situations. For example, we could have a scenario in which some data is to be processed whenever a stock price changes.

This could be implemented using a `StockPriceChangeEvent` associated with a `StockPriceEventHandler`. It could also be implemented via `StockPriceChangeObservable` and a `StockPriceChangeObserver`. In either case one element handles the data generated by another element. However, the `RxPy` library simplifies this process and allows the Observer to run in the same thread as, or a separate thread from, the Observable with just a small change to the code.

35.7 Advantages of Reactive Programming

There are several advantages to the use of a Reactive Programming library these include:

- **It avoids multiple callback methods.** The problems associated with the use of callbacks are sometimes referred to as *callback hell*. This can occur when there are multiple callbacks, all defined to run in response to some data being generated or some operation completing. It can be hard to understand, maintain and debug such systems.

- **Simpler asynchronous, multi threaded execution.** The approach adopted by RxPy makes it very easy to execute operations/ behaviour within a multi threaded environment with independent asynchronous functions.
- **Available Operators.** The RxPy library comes pre built with numerous operators that make processing the data produced by an Observable much easier.
- **Data Composition.** It is straight forward to compose new data streams (Observables) from data supplied by two or more other Observables for asynchronous processing.

35.8 Disadvantages of Reactive Programming

Its easy to over complicate things when you start to chain operators together. If you use too many operators, or too complex a set of functions with the operators, it can become hard to understand what is going on.

Many developers think that Reactive programming is inherently multi-threaded; this is not necessarily the case; in fact RxPy (the library explored in the next two chapters) is single threaded by default. If an application needs the behaviour to execute asynchronously then it is necessary to explicitly indicate this.

Another issue for some Reactive programming frameworks is that it can become memory intensive to store streams of data so that Observers can processes that data when they are ready.

35.9 The RxPy Reactive Programming Framework

The RxPy library is a part of the larger ReactiveX project and provides an implementation of ReactiveX for Python. It is built on the concepts of Observables, Observers, Subjects and operators. In this book we use RxPy version 3.

In the next chapter we will discuss Observables, Observers, Subjects and subscriptions using the RxPy library. The following chapter will explore various RxPy operators.

35.10 Online Resources

See the following online resources for information on reactive programming:

- <https://www.reactivemanifesto.org/> The Reactive Manifesto.
- <http://reactivex.io/> The ReactiveX home page.
- https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Design_Patterns Wikipedia page on Design Patterns book.

35.11 Reference

For more information on the Observer Observable design pattern see the “Patterns” book by the Gang of Four

- E. Gamma, R. Helm, R. Johnson, J. Vlissades, Design patterns: elements of reusable object-oriented software, Addison-Wesley (1995).

Chapter 36

RxPy Observables, Observers and Subjects



36.1 Introduction

In this chapter we will discuss Observables, Observers and Subjects. We also consider how observers may or may not run concurrently.

In the remainder of this chapter we look at RxPy version 3 which is a major update from RxPy version 1 (you will therefore need to be careful if you are looking on the web for examples as some aspects have changed; most notably the way in which operators are chained).

36.2 Observables in RxPy

An Observable is a Python class that publishes data so that it can be processed by one or more Observers (potentially running in separate threads).

An Observable can be created to publish data from static data or from dynamic sources. Observables can be chained together to control how and when data is published, to transform data before it is published and to restrict what data is actually published.

For example, to create an Observable from a list of values we can use the `rx.from_list()` function. This function (also known as an RxPy operator) is used to create the new Observable object:

```
import rx
Observable = rx.from_list([2, 3, 5, 7])
```

36.3 Observers in RxPy

We can add an Observer to an Observable using the `subscribe()` method. This method can be supplied with a lambda function, a named function or an object whose class implements the *Observer protocol*.

For example, the simplest way to create an Observer is to use a *lambda* function:

```
# Subscribe a lambda function
observable.subscribe(lambda value: print('Lambda Received',
value))
```

When the Observable publishes data the lambda function will be invoked. Each data item published will be supplied independently to the function. The output from the above subscription for the previous Observable is:

```
Lambda Received 2
Lambda Received 3
Lambda Received 5
Lambda Received 7
```

We can also have used a standard or named function as an Observer:

```
def prime_number_reporter(value):
    print('Function Received', value)

# Subscribe a named function
observable.subscribe(prime_number_reporter)
```

Note that it is only the name of the function that is used with the `subscribe()` method (as this effectively passes a reference to the function into the method).

If we now run this code using the previous Observable we get:

```
Function Received 2
Function Received 3
Function Received 5
Function Received 7
```

In actual fact the `subscribe()` method takes four optional parameters. These are:

- `on_next` Action to invoke for each data item generated by the Observable.
- `on_error` Action to invoke upon exceptional termination of the Observable sequence.
- `on_completed` Action to invoke upon graceful termination of the Observable sequence.
- `Observer` The object that is to receive notifications. You may subscribe using an Observer or callbacks, not both.

Each of the above can be used as positional parameters or as keyword arguments, for example:

```
# Use lambdas to set up all three functions
observable.subscribe(
    on_next = lambda value: print('Received on_next', value),
    on_error = lambda exp: print('Error Occurred', exp),
    on_completed = lambda: print('Received completed
notification')
)
```

The above code defines three lambda functions that will be called depending upon whether data is supplied by the Observable, if an error occurs or when the data stream is terminated. The output from this is:

```
Received on_next 2
Received on_next 3
Received on_next 5
Received on_next 7
Received completed notification
```

Note that the on_error function is not run as no error was generated in this example.

The final optional parameter to the subscribe() method is an *Observer* object. An Observer object can implement the Observer protocol which has the following methods on_next(), on_completed() and on_error(), for example:

```
class PrimeNumberObserver:

    def on_next(self, value):
        print('Object Received', value)

    def on_completed(self):
        print('Data Stream Completed')

    def on_error(self, error):
        print('Error Occurred', error)
```

Instances of this class can now be used as an Observer via the subscribe() method:

```
# Subscribe an Observer object
observable.subscribe(PrimeNumberObserver())
```

The output from this example using the previous Observable is:

```
Object Received 2
Object Received 3
Object Received 5
Object Received 7
Data Stream Completed
```

Note that the on_completed() method is also called; however the on_error() method is not called as there were no exceptions generated.

The Observer class must ensure that the methods implemented adhere to the Observer protocol (i.e. That the signatures of the `on_next()`, `on_completed()` and `on_error()` methods are correct).

36.4 Multiple Subscribers/Observers

An Observable can have multiple Observers subscribed to it. In this case each of the Observers is sent all of the data published by the Observable. Multiple Observers can be registered with an Observable by calling the `subscribe` method multiple times. For example, the following program has four subscribers as well as `on_error` and `on_completed` function registered:

```
# Create an observable using data in a list
observable = rx.from_list([2, 3, 5, 7])

class PrimeNumberObserver:
    """ An Observer class """

    def on_next(self, value):
        print('Object Received', value)

    def on_completed(self):
        print('Data Stream Completed')

    def on_error(self, error):
        print('Error Occurred', error)

def prime_number_reporter(value):
    print('Function Received', value)

print('Set up Observers / Subscribers')

# Subscribe a lambda function
observable.subscribe(lambda value: print('Lambda Received',
value))
# Subscribe a named function
observable.subscribe(prime_number_reporter)
# Subscribe an Observer object
observable.subscribe(PrimeNumberObserver())
# Use lambdas to set up all three functions
observable.subscribe(
    on_next=lambda value: print('Received on_next', value),
    on_error=lambda exp: print('Error Occurred', exp),
    on_completed=lambda: print('Received completed
notification'))
)
```

The output from this program is:

```
Create the Observable object
Set up Observers / Subscribers
Lambda Received 2
Lambda Received 3
Lambda Received 5
Lambda Received 7
Function Received 2
Function Received 3
Function Received 5
Function Received 7
Object Received 2
Object Received 3
Object Received 5
Object Received 7
Data Stream Completed
Received on_next 2
Received on_next 3
Received on_next 5
Received on_next 7
Received completed notification
```

Note how each of the subscribers is sent all of the data before the next subscriber is sent their data (this is the default single threaded RxPy behaviour).

36.5 Subjects in RxPy

A *subject* is both an Observer and an Observable. This allows a subject to receive an item of data and then to republish that data or data derived from it.

For example, imagine a subject that receives stock market price data published by an external (to the organisation receiving the data) source. This subject might add a timestamp and source location to the data before republishing it to other internal Observers.

However, there is a subtle difference that should be noted between a *Subject* and a plain *Observable*. A subscription to an Observable will cause an independent execution of the Observable when data is published. Notice how in the previous section all the messages were sent to a specific Observer before the next Observer was sent any data at all.

However, a Subject shares the publication action with all of the subscribers and they will therefore all receive the same data item in a chain before the next data item.

In the class hierarchy the Subject class is a direct subclass of the Observer class.

The following example creates a Subject that enriches the data it receives by adding a *timestamp* to each data item. It then republishes the data item to any Observers that have subscribed to it.

```

import rx
from rx.subjects import Subject
from datetime import datetime

source = rx.from_list([2, 3, 5, 7])

class TimeStampSubject(Subject):

    def on_next(self, value):
        print('Subject Received', value)
        super().on_next((value, datetime.now()))

    def on_completed(self):
        print('Data Stream Completed')
        super().on_completed()

    def on_error(self, error):
        print('In Subject - Error Occurred', error)
        super().on_error(error)

    def prime_number_reporter(value):
        print('Function Received', value)

print('Set up')

# Create the Subject
subject = TimeStampSubject()

# Set up multiple subscribers for the subject
subject.subscribe(prime_number_reporter)
subject.subscribe(lambda value: print('Lambda Received',
value))
subject.subscribe(
    on_next = lambda value: print('Received on_next', value),
    on_error = lambda exp: print('Error Occurred', exp),
    on_completed = lambda: print('Received completed
notification'))
)

# Subscribe the Subject to the Observable source
source.subscribe(subject)

print('Done')

```

Note that in the above program the Observers are added to the Subject before the Subject is added to the source Observable. This ensures that the Observers are subscribed before the Subject starts to receive data published by the

Observable. If the Subject was subscribed to the Observable before the Observers were subscribed to the Subject, then all the data could have been published before the Observers were registered with the Subject.

The output from this program is:

```
Set up
Subject Received 2
Function Received (2, datetime.datetime(2019, 5, 21, 17, 0, 2,
196372))
Lambda Received (2, datetime.datetime(2019, 5, 21, 17, 0, 2,
196372))
Received on_next (2, datetime.datetime(2019, 5, 21, 17, 0, 2,
196372))
Subject Received 3
Function Received (3, datetime.datetime(2019, 5, 21, 17, 0, 2,
196439))
Lambda Received (3, datetime.datetime(2019, 5, 21, 17, 0, 2,
196439))
Received on_next (3, datetime.datetime(2019, 5, 21, 17, 0, 2,
196439))
Subject Received 5
Function Received (5, datetime.datetime(2019, 5, 21, 17, 0, 2,
196494))
Lambda Received (5, datetime.datetime(2019, 5, 21, 17, 0, 2,
196494))
Received on_next (5, datetime.datetime(2019, 5, 21, 17, 0, 2,
196494))
Subject Received 7
Function Received (7, datetime.datetime(2019, 5, 21, 17, 0, 2,
196548))
Lambda Received (7, datetime.datetime(2019, 5, 21, 17, 0, 2,
196548))
Received on_next (7, datetime.datetime(2019, 5, 21, 17, 0, 2,
196548))
Data Stream Completed
Received completed notification
Done
```

As can be seen from this output the numbers 2, 3, 5 and 7 are received by all of the Observers once the Subject has added the timestamp.

36.6 Observer Concurrency

By default RxPy uses a single threaded model; that is Observables and Observers execute in the same thread of execution. However, this is only the default as it is the simplest approach.

It is possible to indicate that when a Observer subscribes to an Observable that it should run in a separate thread using the `scheduler` keyword parameter on the

`subscribe()` method. This keyword is given an appropriate scheduler such as the `rx.concurrency.NewThreadScheduler`. This scheduler will ensure that the Observer runs in a separate thread.

To see the difference look at the following two programs. The main difference between the programs is the use of specific schedulers:

```
import rx

Observable = rx.from_list([2, 3, 5])

observable.subscribe(lambda v: print('Lambda1 Received', v))
observable.subscribe(lambda v: print('Lambda2 Received', v))
observable.subscribe(lambda v: print('Lambda3 Received', v))
```

The output from this first version is given below:

```
Lambda1 Received 2
Lambda1 Received 3
Lambda1 Received 5
Lambda2 Received 2
Lambda2 Received 3
Lambda2 Received 5
Lambda3 Received 2
Lambda3 Received 3
Lambda3 Received 5
```

The `subscribe()` method takes an optional keyword parameter called `scheduler` that allows a scheduler object to be provided.

Now if we specify a few different schedulers we will see that the effect is to run the Observers concurrently with the resulting output being interwoven:

```
import rx
from rx.concurrency import NewThreadScheduler,
ThreadPoolScheduler, ImmediateScheduler

Observable = rx.from_list([2, 3, 5])

observable.subscribe(lambda v: print('Lambda1 Received', v),
scheduler=ThreadPoolScheduler(3))
observable.subscribe(lambda v: print('Lambda2 Received', v),
scheduler=ImmediateScheduler())
observable.subscribe(lambda v: print('Lambda3 Received', v),
scheduler>NewThreadScheduler())  

# As the Observable runs in a separate thread need
# ensure that the main thread does not terminate
input('Press enter to finish')
```

Note that we have to ensure that the main thread running the program does not terminate (as all the Observables are now running in their own threads) by waiting for user input. The output from this version is:

```
Lambda2 Received 2
Lambda1 Received 2
Lambda2 Received 3
Lambda2 Received 5
Lambda1 Received 3
Lambda1 Received 5
Press enter to finish
Lambda3 Received 2
Lambda3 Received 3
Lambda3 Received 5
```

By default the `scheduler` keyword on the `subscribe()` method defaults to `None` indicating that the current thread will be used for the subscription to the Observable.

36.6.1 Available Schedulers

To support different scheduling strategies the RxPy library provides two modules that supply different schedulers; the `rx.concurrency` and `rx.concurrency.mainloopscheduler`. The modules contain a variety of schedulers including those listed below.

The following schedulers are available in the `rx.concurrency` module:

- `ImmediateScheduler` This schedules an action for immediate execution.
- `CurrentThreadScheduler` This schedules activity for the current thread.
- `TimeoutScheduler` This scheduler works via a timed callback.
- `NewThreadScheduler` creates a scheduler for each unit of work on a separate thread.
- `ThreadPoolScheduler`. This is a scheduler that utilises a thread pool to execute work. This scheduler can act as a way of throttling the amount of work carried out concurrently.

The `rx.concurrency.mainloopscheduler` module also defines the following schedulers:

- `IOLoopScheduler` A scheduler that schedules work via the Tornado I/O main event loop.
- `PyGameScheduler` A scheduler that schedules works for PyGame.
- `WxScheduler` A scheduler for a wxPython event loop.

36.7 Online Resources

See the following online resources for information on RxPy:

- <https://github.com/ReactiveX/RxPY> The RxPy Git hub repository.
- <https://rpxpy.readthedocs.io/en/latest/> Documentation for the RxPy library.
- <https://rpxpy.readthedocs.io/en/latest/operators.html> Lists of the available RxPy operators.

36.8 Exercises

Given the following set of tuples representing Stock/Equity prices:

```
stocks = (('APPL', 12.45), ('IBM', 15.55), ('MSFT', 5.66),
          ('APPL', 13.33))
```

Write a program that will create an Observable based on the stocks data.

Next subscribe three different observers to the Observable. The first should print out the stock price, the second should print out the name of the stock and the third should print out the entire tuple.

Chapter 37

RxPy Operators



37.1 Introduction

In this chapter we will look at the types of operators provided by RxPy that can be applied to the data emitted by an Observable.

37.2 Reactive Programming Operators

Behind the interaction between an Observable and an Observer is a data stream. That is the Observable supplies a data stream to an Observer that consumes/processes that stream. It is possible to apply an operator to this data stream that can be used to filter, transform and generally refine how and when the data is supplied to the Observer.

The operators are mostly defined in the `rx.operators` module, for example `rx.operators.average()`. However it is common to use an alias for this such that the `operators` module is called `op`, such as

```
from rx import operators as op
```

This allows for a short hand form to be used when referencing an operator, such as `op.average()`.

Many of the RxPy operators execute a function which is applied to each of the data items produced by an Observable. Others can be used to create an initial Observable (indeed you have already seen these operators in the form of the `from_list()` operator). Another set of operators can be used to generate a result based on data produced by the Observable (such as the `sum()` operator).

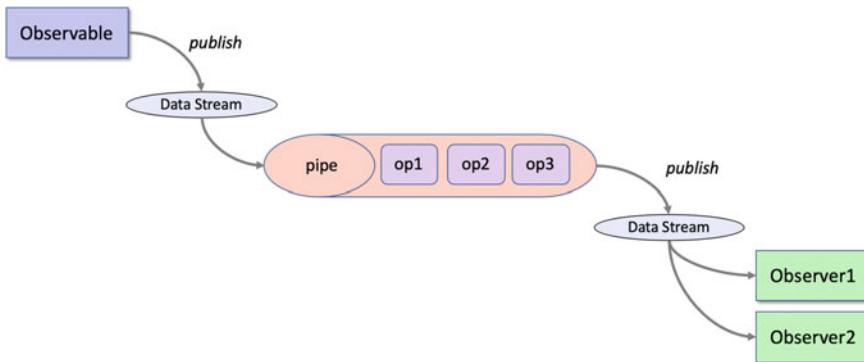
In fact RxPy provides a wide variety of operators and these operators can be categorised as follows:

- Creational,
- Transformational,
- Combinatorial,
- Filters,
- Error handlers,
- Conditional and Boolean operators,
- Mathematical,
- Connectable.

Examples of some of these categories are presented in the rest of this section.

37.3 Piping Operators

To apply an operator other than a creational operator to an Observable it is necessary to create a pipe. A Pipe is essentially a series of one or more operations that can be applied to the data stream generated by the Observable. The result of applying the pipe is that a new data stream is generated that represents the results produced following the application of each operator in turn. This is illustrated below:



To create a pipe the `Observable.pipe()` method is used. This method takes a comma delimited list of one or more operators and returns a data stream. Observers can then subscribe to the pipe's data stream. This can be seen in the examples given in the rest of this chapter for transformations, filters, mathematical operators etc.

37.4 Creational Operators

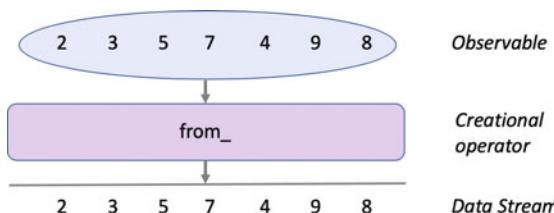
You have already seen an example of a creational operator in the examples presented earlier in this chapter. This is because the `rx.from_list()` operator is an example of a creational operator. It is used to create a new Observable based on data held in a *list like* structure.

A more generic version of `from_list()` is the `from_()` operator. This operator takes an iterable and generates an Observable based on the data provided by the iterable. Any object that implements the iterable protocol can be used including user defined types. There is also an operator `from_iterable()`. All three operators do the same thing and you can choose which to use based on which provides the most semantic meaning in your context.

All three of the following statements have the same effect:

```
source = rx.from_([2, 3, 5, 7])
source = rx.from_iterable([2, 3, 5, 7])
source = rx.from_list([2, 3, 5, 7])
```

This is illustrated pictorially below:



Another creational operator is the `rx.range()` operator. This operator generates an observable for a range of integer numbers. The range can be specified with or without a starting value and with or within an increment. However the maximum value in the range must always be provided, for example:

```
obs1 = rx.range(10)
obs2 = rx.range(0, 10)
obs3 = rx.range(0, 10, 1)
```

37.5 Transformational Operators

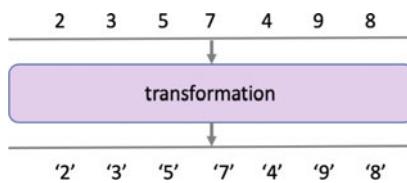
There are several transformational operators defined in the `rx.operators` module including `rx.operators.map()` and `rx.operators.flat_map()`.

The `rx.operators.map()` operator applies a function to each data item generated by an Observable.

The `rx.operators.flat_map()` operator also applies a function to each data item but then applies a *flatten* operation to the result. For example, if the result is a list of lists then `flat_map` will flatten this into a single list. In this section we will focus on the `rx.operators.map()` operator.

The `rx.operators.map()` operator allows a function to be applied to all data items generated by an Observable. The result of this function is then returned as the result of the `map()` operators Observable. The function is typically used to perform some form of transformation to the data supplied to it. This could be adding one to all integer values, converting the format of the data from XML to JSON, enriching the data with additional information such as the time the data was acquired and who the data was supplied by etc.

In the example given below we are transforming the set of integer values supplied by the original Observable into strings. In the diagram these strings include quotes around them to highlight they are in fact a string:



This is typical of the use of a transformation operator; that is to change the data from one format to another or to add information to the data.

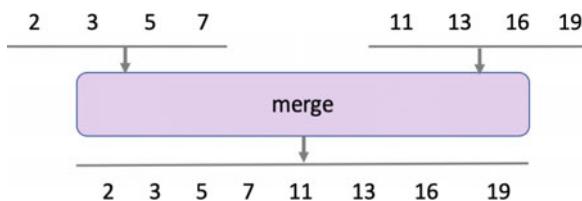
The code used to implement this scenario is given below. Note the use of the `pipe()` method to apply the operator to the data stream generated by the Observable:

The output from this program is:

```
Lambda Received '2'  is a string  True
Lambda Received '3'  is a string  True
Lambda Received '5'  is a string  True
Lambda Received '7'  is a string  True
```

37.6 Combinatorial Operators

Combinatorial operators combine together multiple data items in some way. One example of a combinatorial operator is the `rx.merge()` operator. This operator merges the data produced by two Observables into a single Observable data stream. For example:



In the above diagram two Observables are represented by the sequence `2, 3, 5, 7` and the sequence `11, 13, 16, 19`. These Observables are supplied to the `merge` operator that generates a single Observable that will supply data generated from both of the original Observables. This is an example of an operator that does not take a function but instead takes two Observables.

The code representing the above scenario is given below:

```
# An example illustrating how to merge two data sources
import rx

# Set up two sources
source1 = rx.from_list([2, 3, 5, 7])
source2 = rx.from_list([10, 11, 12])

# Merge two sources into one
rx.merge(source1, source2) \
    .subscribe(lambda v: print(v, end=','))
```

Notice that in this case we have subscribed directly to the Observable returned by the `merge()` operator and have not stored this in an intermediate variable (this was a design decision and either approach is acceptable).

The output from this program is presented below:

```
2,3,5,7,10,11,12,
```

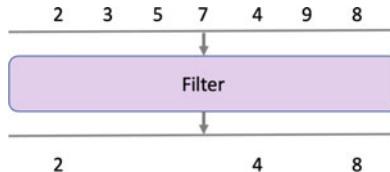
Notice from the output the way in which the data held in the original Observables is intertwined in the output of the Observable generated by the `merge()` operator.

37.7 Filtering Operators

There are several operators in this category including `rx.operators.filter()`, `rx.operators.first()`, `rx.operators.last()` and `rx.operators.distinct()`.

The `filter()` operator only allows those data items to pass through that pass some test expression defined by the function passed into the filter. This function must return True or False. Any data item that causes the function to return True is allowed to pass through the filter.

For example, let us assume that the function passed into `filter()` is designed to only allow even numbers through. If the data stream contains the numbers 2, 3, 5, 7, 4, 9 and 8 then the `filter()` will only emit the numbers 2, 4 and 8. This is illustrated below:



The following code implements the above scenario:

```
# Filter source for even numbers
import rx
from rx import operators as op

# Set up a source with a filter
source = rx.from_list([2, 3, 5, 7, 4, 9, 8]).pipe(
    op.filter(lambda value: value % 2 == 0)
)

# Subscribe a lambda function
source.subscribe(lambda value: print('Lambda Received', value))
```

In the above code the `rx.operators.filter()` operator takes a lambda function that will verify if the current value is even or not (note this could have been a named function or a method on an object etc.). It is applied to the data stream generated by the Observable using the `pipe()` method. The output generated by this example is:

```
Lambda Received 2
Lambda Received 4
Lambda Received 8
```

The `first()` and `last()` operators emit only the first and last data item published by the Observable.

The `distinct()` operator suppresses duplicate items being published by the Observable. For example, in the following list used as the data for the Observable, the numbers 2 and 3 are duplicated:

```
# Use distinct to suppress duplicates
source = rx.from_list([2, 3, 5, 2, 4, 3, 2]).pipe(
    op.distinct()
)

# Subscribe a lambda function
source.subscribe(lambda value: print('Received', value))
```

However, when the output is generated by the program all duplicates have been suppressed:

```
Received 2
Received 3
Received 5
Received 4
```

37.8 Mathematical Operators

Mathematical and aggregate operators perform calculations on the data stream provided by an Observable. For example, the `rx.operators.average()` operator can be used to calculate the average of a set of numbers published by an Observable. Similarly `rx.operators.max()` can select the maximum value, `rx.operators.min()` the minimum value and `rx.operators.sum()` will total all the numbers published etc.

An example using the `rx.operators.sum()` operator is given below:

```
# Example of summing all the values in a data stream
import rx
from rx import operators as op

# Set up a source and apply sum
rx.from_list([2, 3, 5, 7]).pipe(
    op.sum()
).subscribe(lambda v: print(v))
```

The output from the `rx.operators.sum()` operator is the total of the data items published by the Observable (in this case the total of 2, 3, 5 and 7). The Observer function that is subscribed to the `rx.operators.sum()` operators Observable will print out this value:

17

However, in some cases it may be useful to be notified of the intermediate running total as well as the final value so that other operators down the chain can react to these subtotals. This can be achieved using the `rx.operators.scan()` operator. The `rx.operators.scan()` operator is actually a transformational operator but can be used in this case to provide a mathematical operation. The `scan()` operator applies a function to each data item published by an Observable and generates its own data item for each value received. Each generated value is passed to the next invocation of the `scan()` function as well as being published to the `scan()` operators Observable data stream. The running total can thus be generated from the previous sub total and the new value obtained. This is shown below:

```
import rx
from rx import operators as op
# Rolling or incremental sum
rx.from_([2, 3, 5, 7]).pipe(
    op.scan(lambda subtotal, i: subtotal+i)
).subscribe(lambda v: print(v))
```

The output from this example is:

2
5
10
17

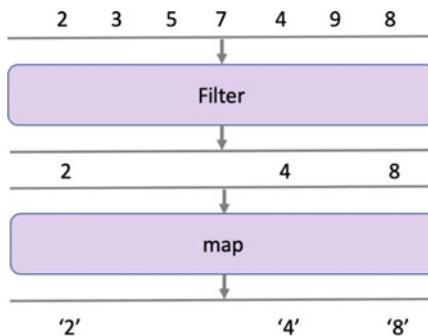
This means that each subtotal is published as well as the final total.

37.9 Chaining Operators

An interesting aspect of the RxPy approach to data stream processing is that it is possible to apply multiple operators to the data stream produced by an Observable.

The operators discussed earlier actually return another Observable. This new Observable can supply its own data stream based on the original data stream and the result of applying the operator. This allows another operator to be applied in sequence to the data produced by the new Observable. This allows the operators to be chained together to provide sophisticated processing of the data published by the original Observable.

For example, we might first start off by filtering the output from an Observable such that only certain data items are published. We might then apply a transformation in the form of a map () operator to that data, as shown below:



Note the the order in which we have applied the operators; we first filter out data that is not of interest and then apply the transformation. This is more efficient than apply the operators the other way around as in the above example we do not need to transform the odd values. It is therefore common to try and push the filter operators as high up the chain as possible.

The code used to generate the chained set of operators is given below. In this case we have used lambda functions to define the filter () function and the map () function. The operators are applied to the Observable obtained from the list supplied. The data stream generated by the Observable is processed by each of the operators defined in the pipe. As there are now two operators the pipe contains both operators and acts a pipe down which the data flows.

The list used as the initial source of the Observables data contains a sequence of event and odd numbers. The filter () function selects only even numbers and the map () function transforms the integer values into strings. We then subscribe an Observer function to the Observable produced by the transformational map () operator.

```

# Example of chaining operators together
import rx
from rx import operators as op

# Set up a source with a filter
source = rx.from_list([2, 3, 5, 7, 4, 9, 8])
pipe = source.pipe(
    op.filter(lambda value: value % 2 == 0),
    op.map(lambda value: "!" + str(value) + "!")
)

# Subscribe a lambda function
pipe.subscribe(lambda value: print('Received', value))
  
```

The output from this application is given below:

```
Received '2'
Received '4'
Received '8'
```

This makes it clear that only the three even numbers (2, 4 and 8) are allowed through to the `map()` function.

37.10 Online Resources

See the following online resources for information on RxPy:

- <https://rpxpy.readthedocs.io/en/latest/> Documentation for the RxPy library.
- <https://rpxpy.readthedocs.io/en/latest/operators.html> Lists of the available RxPy operators.

37.11 Exercises

Given the following set of tuples representing Stock/Equity prices:

```
stocks = (('APPL', 12.45), ('IBM', 15.55), ('MSFT', 5.66),
          ('APPL', 13.33))
```

Provide solutions to the following:

- Select all the ‘APPL’ stocks
- Select all stocks with a price over 15.00
- Find the average price of all ‘APPL’ stocks.

Now use the second set of tuples and merge them with the first set of stock prices:

```
stocks2 = (('GOOG', 8.95), ('APPL', 7.65), ('APPL', 12.45),
           ('MSFT', 5.66), ('GOOG', 7.56), ('IBM', 12.76))
```

Convert each tuple into a list and calculate how much 25 shares in that stock would be, print this out as the result).

- Find the highest value stock.
- Find the lowest value stock.
- Only publish unique data times (I.e. Suppress duplicates).

Part IX

Network Programming

Chapter 38

Introduction to Sockets and Web Services



38.1 Introduction

In the following two chapters we will explore socket based and web service approaches to inter process communications. These processes may be running on the same computer or different computers on the same local area network or may be geographically far apart. In all cases information is sent by one program running in one process to another program running in a separate process via internet sockets. This chapter introduces the core concepts involved in network programming.

38.2 Sockets

Sockets, or rather Internet Protocol (IP) sockets provide a programming interface to the network protocol stack that is managed by the underlying operating system. Using such an API means that the programmer is abstracted away from the low level details of how data is exchanged between process on (potentially) different computers and can instead focus on the higher level aspects of their solution.

There are a number of different types of IP socket available, however the focus in this book is on *Stream Sockets*. A stream socket uses the Transmission Control Protocol (TCP) to send messages. Such a socket is often referred to as a TCP/IP socket.

TCP provides for ordered and reliable transmission of data across the connection between two devices (or hosts). This can be important as TCP guarantees that for every message sent; that every message will not only arrive at the receiving host but that the messages will arrive in the correct order.

A common alternative to the TCP is the User Datagram Protocol (or UDP). UDP does not provide any delivery guarantees (that is messages can be lost or may arrive out of order). However, UDP is a simpler protocol and can be particularly useful for

broadcast systems, where multiple clients may need to receive the data published by a server host (particularly if data loss is not an issue).

38.3 Web Services

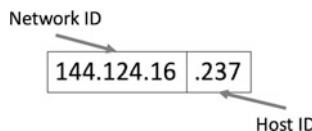
A Web Service is a service offered by a host computer that can be invoked by a remote client using the Hypertext Transfer Protocol (HTTP). HTTP can be run over any reliable stream transport protocol, although it is typically used over TCP/IP. It was originally designed to allow data to be transferred between a HTTP server and a web browser so that the data could be presented in a human readable form to a user. However, when used with a web service it is used to support program to program communication between a client and a server using machine-readable data formats. Currently this format is most typically JSON (Java Script Object Notation) although in the past XML (eXtensible Markup Language) was often used.

38.4 Addressing Services

Every device (host) connected to the internet has a unique identity (we are ignoring private networks here). This unique identity is represented as an IP address. Using an IP address we can connect a socket to a specific host anywhere on the internet. It is therefore possible to connect to a whole range of device types in this way from printers to cash tills to fridges as well as servers, mainframes and PCs etc.

IP addresses have a common format such as 144.124.16.237. An IP version 4 address is always a set of four numbers separated by full stops. Each number can be in the range 0–255, so the full range of IP addresses is from 0.0.0.0 to 255.255.255.255.

An IP address can be divided up into two parts; the part indicating the network on which the host is connected and the host's ID, for example:



Thus:

- The Network ID elements of the IP address identifies the specific network on which the host is currently located.
- The Host ID is the part of the IP address that specifies a specificities device on the network (such as your computer).

On any given network there may be multiple hosts, each with their own host ID but with a shared network ID. For example, on a private home network there may be:

- 192.168.1.1 Jasmine's laptop.
- 192.168.1.2 Adam's PC
- 192.168.1.3 Home Printer
- 192.168.1.4 Smart TV

In many ways the network id and host id elements of an IP address are like the postal address for a house on a street. The street may have a name, for example Coleridge Avenue and there may be multiple houses on the street. Each house has a unique number; thus 10 Coleridge Avenue is uniquely differentiated from 20 Coleridge Avenue by the house number.

At this point you may be wondering where the URLs you see in your web browser come into play (such as www.bbc.co.uk). These are textual names that actually map to an IP address. The mapping is performed by something called a Domain Name System (or DNS) server. A DNS server acts as a lookup service to provide the actual IP address for a particular textual URL name. The presence of an english textual version of a host address is because humans are better at remembering (a hopefully) meaningful name rather than what might appear to be a random sequence of numbers.

There are several web sites that can be used to see these mappings (and one is given at the end of this chapter). Some examples of how the english textual name maps to an IP address are given below:

- www.aber.ac.uk maps to 144.124.16.237
- www.uwe.ac.uk maps to 164.11.132.96
- www.bbc.net.uk maps to 212.58.249.213
- www.gov.uk maps to 151.101.188.144

Note that these mappings were correct at the time of writing; they can change as new entries can be provided to the DNS servers causing a particular textual name to map to a different physical host.

38.5 Localhost

There is a special IP address which is usually available on a host computer and is very useful for developers and testers. This is the IP address:

127.0.0.1

It is also known as *localhost* which is often easier to remember.

Localhost (and 127.0.0.1) is used to refer to the computer you are currently on when a program is run; that is it is your local host computer (hence the name localhost).

For example, if you start up a socket server on your local computer and want a client socket program, running on the same computer, to connect to the server program; you can tell it to do so by getting it to connect to localhost.

This is particularly useful when either you don't know the IP address of your local computer or because the code may be run on multiple different computers each of which will have their own IP address. This is particularly common if you are writing test code that will be used by developers when running their own tests on different developer (host) machines.

We will be using localhost in the next two chapters as a way of specifying where to look for a server program.

38.6 Port Numbers

Each internet device/host can typically support multiple processes. It is therefore necessary to ensure that each process has its own channel of communications. To do this each host has available to it multiple ports that a program can connect too. For example port 80 is often reserved for HTTP web servers, while port 25 is reserved for SMTP servers. This means that if a client wants to connect to a HTTP server on a particular computer then it must specify port 80 not port 25 on that host.

A port number is written after the IP address of the host and separated from the address by a colon, for example:

- [www.aber.ac.uk:80](http://www.aber.ac.uk) indicates port 80 on the host machine which will typically be running a HTTP server, in this case for Aberystwyth University.
- localhost:143 this indicates that you wish to connect to port 143 which is typically reserved for an IMAP (Internet Message Access Protocol) server on your local machine.
- [www.uwe.ac.uk:25](http://www.uwe.ac.uk) this indicates port 25 on a host running at the University of the West of England, Bristol. Port 25 is usually reserved for SMTP (Simple Mail Transfer Protocol) servers.

Port numbers in the IP system are 16 bit numbers in the range 0–65 536. Generally, port numbers below 1024 are reserved for pre-defined services (which means that you should avoid using them unless you wish to communicate with one of those services such as telnet, SMTP mail, ftp etc.). Therefore it is typically to choose a port number above 1024 when setting up your own services.

38.7 IPv4 Versus IPv6

What we have described in this chapter in terms of IP addresses is in fact based on the Internet Protocol version 4 (aka IPv4). This version of the Internet Protocol was developed during the 1970s and published by the IETF (Internet Engineering Task Force) in September 1981 (replacing an earlier definition published in January 1980). This version of the standard uses 32 binary bits for each element of the host address (hence the range of 0 to 255 for each of there parts of the address). This provides a total of 4.29 billion possible unique addresses. This seemed a huge amount in 1981 and certainly enough for what was imagined at the time for the internet.

Since 1981 the internet has become the backbone to not only the World Wide Web itself, but also to the concept of the Internet of Things (in which every possible device might be connected to the internet from your fridge, to your central heating system to your toaster). This potential explosion in internet addressable devices/hosts lead in the mid 1990as to concerns about the potential lack of internet addresses using IPv4. The IETF therefore designed a new version of the Internet Protocol; Internet Protocol version 6 (or IPv6). This was ratified as an Internet Standard in July 2017.

IPv6 uses a 128 bit address for each element in a hosts address. It also uses eight number groups (rather than 4) which are separated by a colon. Each number group has four hexadecimal digits.

The following illustrates what an IPv6 address looks like:

```
2001:0DB8:AC10:FE01:EF69:B5ED:DD57:2CLE
```

Uptake of the IPv6 protocol has been slower than was originally expected, this is in part because the IPv4 and IPv6 have not been designed to be interoperable but also because the utilisation of the IPv4 addresses has not been as fast as many originally feared (partly due to the use of private networks). However, over time this is likely to change as more organisations move over to using the IPv6.

38.8 Sockets and Web Services in Python

The next two chapters discuss how sockets and web services can be implemented in Python. The first chapter discusses both general sockets and HTTP server sockets. The second chapter looks at how the Flask library can be used to create web services that run over HTTP using TCP/IP sockets.

38.9 Online Resources

See the following online resources for information

- https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Network_socket Wikipedia page on Sockets.
- https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Web_service Wikipedia page on Web Services.
- <https://codebeautify.org/website-to-ip-address> Provides mappings from URLs to IP addresses.
- <https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/IPv4> Wikipedia page on IPv4.
- <https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/IPv6> Wikipedia page on IPv6.
- <https://www.techopedia.com/definition/28503/dns-server> For an introduction to DNS.

Chapter 39

Sockets in Python



39.1 Introduction

A *Socket* is an end point in a communication link between separate processes. In Python sockets are objects which provide a way of exchanging information between two processes in a straight forward and platform independent manner.

In this chapter we will introduce the basic idea of socket communications and then presents a simple socket server and client application.

39.2 Socket to Socket Communication

When two operating system level processes wish to communicate, they can do so via *sockets*. Each process has a socket which is connected to the others socket. One process can then write information out to the socket, while the second process can read information in from the socket.

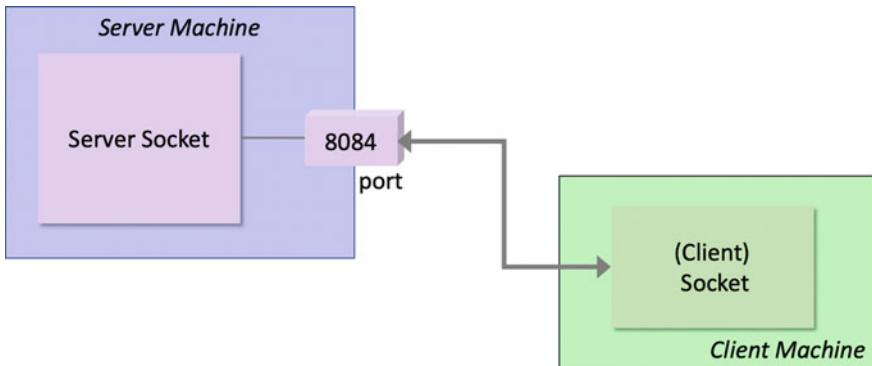
Associated with each socket are two streams, one for input and one for output. Thus, to pass information from one process to another, you write that information out to the output stream of one socket object and read it from the input stream of another socket object (assuming the two sockets are connected).

Several different types of sockets are available, however in this chapter we will focus on TCP/IP sockets. Such a socket is a connection-oriented socket that will provide a guarantee of delivery of data (or notification of the failure to deliver the data). TCP/IP, or the Transmission Control Protocol/Internet Protocol, is a suite of communication protocols used to interconnect network devices on the internet or in a private intranet. TCP/IP actually specifies how data is exchanged between programs over the internet by providing end-to-end communications that identify how the data should be broken down into packets, addressed, transmitted, routed and received at the destination.

39.3 Setting Up a Connection

To set up the connection, one process must be running a program that is waiting for a connection while the other must try to connect up to the first program. The first is referred to as a server socket while the second just as a socket.

For the second process to connect to the first (the server socket) it must know what machine the first is running on and which port it is connected to.



For example, in the above diagram the server socket connects to port 8084. In turn the client socket connects to the machine on which the server is executing and to port number 8084 on that machine.

Nothing happens until the server socket accepts the connection. At that point the sockets are connected, and the socket streams are bound to each other. This means that the server's output stream is connected to the Client socket input stream and vice versa.

39.4 An Example Client Server Application

39.4.1 The System Structure

The above diagram illustrates the basic structure of the system we are trying to build. There will be a server object running on one machine and a client object running on another. The client will connect up to the server using sockets in order to obtain information.

The actual application being implemented in this example, is an address book look up application. The addresses of employees of a company are held in a dictionary. This dictionary is set up in the server program but could equally be held in a database etc. When a client connects up to the server it can obtain an employees' office address.

39.4.2 *Implementing the Server Application*

We shall describe the server application first. This is the Python application program that will service requests from client applications. To do this it must provide a server socket for clients to connect to. This is done by first binding a server socket to a port on the server machine. The server program must then listen for incoming connections.

The listing presents the source code for the Server program.

```
import socket

def main():
    # Setup names and offices
    addresses = {'JOHN': 'C45',
                  'DENISE': 'C44',
                  'PHOEBE': 'D52',
                  'ADAM': 'B23'}

    print('Starting Server')
    print('Create the socket')
    sock = socket.socket(socket.AF_INET,
                         socket.SOCK_STREAM)

    print('Bind the socket to the port')
    server_address = (socket.gethostname(),
                      8084)
    print('Starting up on', server_address)
    sock.bind(server_address)

    # specifies the number of connections allowed
    print('Listen for incoming connections')
    sock.listen(1)
    while True:
        print('Waiting for a connection')
        connection, client_address =
            sock.accept()
```

```

try:
    print('Connection from',
          client_address)
    while True:
        data =
            connection.recv(1024).decode()
        print('Received: ', data)
        if data:
            key = str(data).upper()
            response = addresses[key]
            print('sending data back
                  to the client: ',
                  response)
            connection.sendall(
                response.encode())
        else:
            print('No more data from',
                  client_address)
            break
    finally:
        connection.close()

if __name__ == '__main__':
    main()

```

The Server in the above listing sets up the addresses to contain a Dictionary of the names and addresses.

It then waits for a client to connect to it. This is done by creating a socket and binding it to a specific port (in this case port 8084) using:

```

print('Create the socket')
sock = socket.socket(socket.AF_INET,
                     socket.SOCK_STREAM)
print('Bind the socket to the port')
server_address = (socket.gethostname(),
                  8084)

```

The construction of the socket object is discussed in more detail in the next section.

Next the server listens for a connection from a client. Note that the `sock.listen()` method takes the value 1 indicating that it will handle one connection at a time.

An infinite loop is then set up to run the server. When a connection is made from a client, both the connection and the client address are made available. While there is data available from the client, it is read using the `recv` function. Note that the data received from the client is assumed to be a string. This is then used as a key to look the address up in the address Dictionary.

Once the address is obtained it can be sent back to the client. In Python 3 it is necessary to `decode()` and `encoded()` the string format to the raw data transmitted via the socket streams.

Note you should always *close* a socket when you have finished with it.

39.5 Socket Types and Domains

When we created the socket class above, we passed in two arguments to the socket constructor:

```
socket(socket.AF_INET, socket.SOCK_STREAM)
```

To understand the two values passed into the `socket()` constructor it is necessary to understand that Sockets are characterised according to two properties; their *domain* and their *type*.

The *domain* of a socket essentially defines the communications protocols that are used to transfer the data from one process to another. It also incorporates how sockets are named (so that they can be referred to when establishing the communication).

Two *standard* domains are available on Unix systems; these are `AF_UNIX` which represents intra-system communications, where data is moved from process to process through kernel memory buffers. `AF_INET` represents communication using the TCP/IP protocol suite; in which processes may be on the same machine or on different machines.

- A socket's *type* indicates how the data is transferred through the socket. There are essentially two options here:
- Datagram which sockets support a *message-based* model where no connection is involved, and communication is not guaranteed to be reliable.
- Stream sockets that support a *virtual circuit* model, where data is exchanged as a byte stream and the connection is reliable.

Depending on the domain, further socket types may be available, such as those that support message passing on a reliable connection.

39.6 Implementing the Client Application

The client application is essentially a very simple program that creates a link to the server application. To do this it creates a socket object that connects to the servers' host machine, and in our case this socket is connected to port 8084.

Once a connection has been made the client can then send the encoded message string to the server. The server will then send back a response which the client must decode. It then closes the connection.

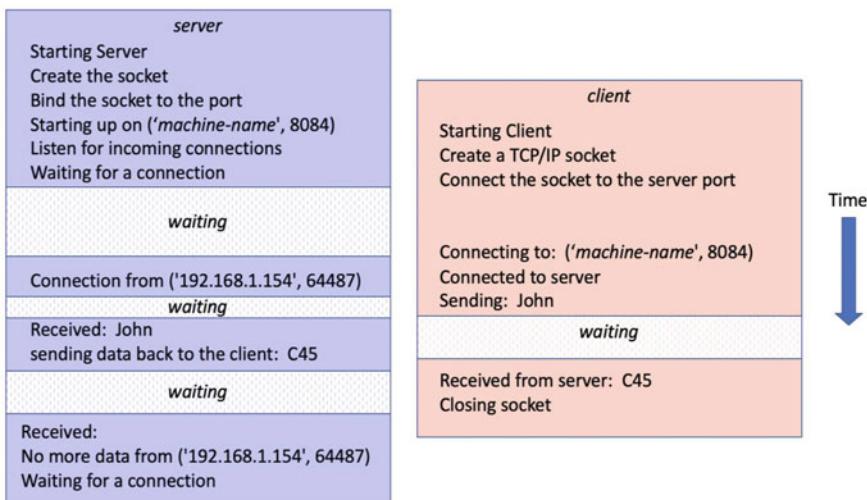
The implementation of the client is given below:

```
import socket

def main():
    print('Starting Client')
    print('Create a TCP/IP socket')
    sock = socket.socket(socket.AF_INET,
                         socket.SOCK_STREAM)
    print('Connect the socket to the server port')
    server_address = (socket.gethostname(),
                       8084)
    print('Connecting to: ', server_address)
    sock.connect(server_address)
    print('Connected to server')
    try:
        print('Send data')
        message = 'John'
        print('Sending: ', message)
        sock.send(message.encode())
        data = sock.recv(1024).decode()
        print('Received from server: ', data)
    finally:
        print('Closing socket')
        sock.close()

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

The output from the two programs needs to be considered together.



As you can see from this diagram, the server waits for a connection from the client. When the client connects to the server; the server waits to receive data from the client. At this point the client must wait for data to be sent to it from the server. The server then sets up the response data and sends it back to the client. The client receives this and prints it out and closes the connection. In the meantime, the server has been waiting to see if there is any more data from the client; as the client closes the connection the server knows that the client has finished and returns to waiting for the next connection.

39.7 The Socketserver Module

In the above example, the server code is more complex than the client; and this is for a single threaded server; life can become much more complicated if the server is expected to be a multi-threaded server (that is a server that can handle multiple requests from different clients at the same time).

However, the `serversocket` module provides a more convenient, object-oriented approach to creating a server. Much of the *boiler plate* code needed in such applications is defined in classes, with the developer only having to provide their own classes or override methods to define the specific functionality required.

There are five different server classes defined in the `socketserver` module.

- `BaseServer` is the root of the Server class hierarchy; it is not really intended to be instantiated and used directly. Instead it is extended by `TCPServer` and other classes.
- `TCPServer` uses TCP/IP sockets to communicate and is probably the most commonly used type of socket server.
- `UDPServer` provides access to datagram sockets.
- `UnixStreamServer` and `UnixDatagramServer` use Unix-domain sockets and are only available on Unix platforms.

Responsibility for processing a request is split between a *server* class and a *request handler* class. The server deals with the *communication* issues (listening on a socket and port, accepting connections, etc.) and the request handler deals with the *request* issues (interpreting incoming data, processing it, sending data back to the client).

This division of responsibility means that in many cases you can simply use one of the existing server classes without any modifications and provide a custom request handler class for it to work with.

The following example defines a request handler that is plugged into the `TCPServer` when it is constructed. The request handler defines a method `handle()` that will be expected to handle the request processing.

```

import socketserver

class MyTCPHandler(socketserver.BaseRequestHandler):
    """
    The RequestHandler class for the server.
    """

    def __init__(self, request, client_address, server):
        print('Setup names and offices')
        self.addresses = {'JOHN': 'C45',
                          'DENISE': 'C44',
                          'PHOEBE': 'D52',
                          'ADAM': 'B23'}
        super().__init__(request, client_address, server)

    def handle(self):
        print('In Handle')
        # self.request is the TCP socket connected
        # to the client
        data = self.request.recv(1024).decode()
        print('data received:', data)
        key = str(data).upper()
        response = self.addresses[key]
        print('response:', response)
        # Send the result back to the client
        self.request.sendall(response.encode())

    def main():
        print('Starting server')
        server_address = ('localhost', 8084)
        print('Creating server')
        server =
            socketserver.TCPServer(server_address,
                                   MyTCPHandler)
        print('Activating server')
        server.serve_forever()

    if __name__ == '__main__':
        main()

```

Note that the previous client application does not need to change at all; the server changes are hidden from the client.

However, this is still a single threaded server. We can very simply make it into a multi-threaded server (one that can deal with multiple requests concurrently) by mixing the `socketserver.ThreadingMixIn` into the `TCPServer`. This can be done by defining a new class that is nothing more than a class that extends both

ThreadingMixIn and TCPServer and creating an instance of this new class instead of the TCPServer directly. For example:

```
class ThreadedEchoServer(  
    socketserver.ThreadingMixIn,  
    socketserver.TCPServer):  
    pass  
  
def main():  
    print('Starting')  
    address = ('localhost', 8084)  
    server = ThreadedEchoServer(address,  
        MyTCPHandler)  
    print('Activating server')  
    server.serve_forever()
```

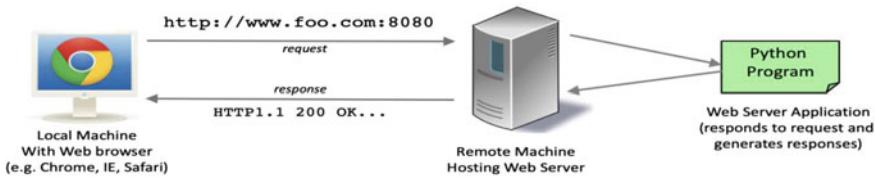
In fact you do not even need to create your own class (such as the ThreadedEchoServer) as the socketserver.ThreadingTCPServer has been provided as a default mixing of the TCPServer and the ThreadingMixIn classes. We could therefore just write:

```
def main():  
    print('Starting')  
    address = ('localhost', 8084)  
    server = socketserver.ThreadingTCPServer(address,  
        MyTCPHandler)  
    print('Activating server')  
    server.serve_forever()
```

39.8 HTTP Server

In addition to the TCPServer you also have available a `http.server.HTTPServer`; this can be used in a similar manner to the TCPServer, but is used to create servers that respond to the HTTP protocol used by web browsers. In other words it can be used to create a very simple Web Server (although it should be noted that it is really only suitable for creating test web servers as it only implements very basic security checks).

It is probably worth a short aside to illustrate how a web server and a web browser interact. The following diagram illustrates the basic interactions:



In the above diagram the user is using a browser (such as Chrome, IE or Safari) to access a web server. The browser is running on their local machine (which could be a PC, a Mac, a Linux box, an iPad, a Smart Phone etc.).

To access the web server they enter a URL (Universal Resource Locator) address into their browser. In the example this is the URL www.foo.com. It also indicates that they want to connect up to port 8080 (rather than the default port 80 used for HTTP connections). The remote machine (which is the one indicated by the address www.foo.com) receives this request and determines what to do with it. If there is no program monitoring port 8080 it will reject the request. In our case we have a Python Program (which is actually the web server program) listening to that port and it is passed the request. It will then handle this request and generate a response message which will be sent back to the browser on the users local machine. The response will indicate which version of the HTTP protocol it supports, whether everything went ok or not (this is the 200 code in the above diagram - you may have seen the code 404 indicating that a web page was not found etc.). The browser on the local machine then renders the data as a web page or handles the data as appropriate etc.

To create a simple Python web server the `http.server.HTTPServer` can be used directly or can be subclassed along with the `socketserver.ThreadingMixIn` to create a multi-threaded web server, for example:

```
class ThreadingHTTPServer(ThreadingMixIn, HTTPServer):
    """Simple multi-threaded HTTP server """
    pass
```

Since Python 3.7 the `http.server` module now provides exactly this class as a built in facility and it is thus no longer necessary to define it yourself (see `http.server.ThreadingHTTPServer`).

To handle HTTP requests you must implement one of the HTTP request methods such as `do_GET()`, or `do_POST()`. Each of these maps to a type of HTTP request, for example:

- `do_GET()` maps to a HTTP Get request that is generated if you type a web address into the URL bar of a web browser or
- `do_POST()` maps to a HTTP Post request that is used for example, when a form on a web page is used to submit data to a web server.

The `do_GET(self)` or `do_POST(self)` method must then handle any input supplied with the request and generate any appropriate responses back to the browser. This means that it must follow the HTTP protocol.

The following short program creates a simple web server that will generate a welcome message and the current time as a response to a GET request. It does this by using the `datetime` module to create a time stamp of the date and time using the `today()` function. This is converted into a byte array using the UTF-8 character encoding (UTF-8 is the most widely used way to represent text within web pages). We need a byte array as that is what will be executed by the `write()` method later on.

Having done this there are various items of meta data that need to be set up so that the browser knows what data it is about to receive. This meta data is known as *header* data and can include the type of content being sent and the amount of data (content) being transmitted. In our very simple case we need to tell it that we are sending it plain text (rather than the HTML used to describe a typical web page) via the ‘Content-type’ header information. We also need to tell it how much data we are sending using the content length. We can then indicate that we have finished defining the header information and are now sending the actual data.

The data itself is sent via the `wfile` attribute inherited from the `BaseHTTPRequestHandler`. There are in fact two related attributes `rfile` and `wfile`:

- `rfile` this is an input stream that allows you to read input data (which is not being used in this example).
- `wfile` holds the output stream that can be used to write (send) data to the browser. This object provides a method `write()` that takes a byte-like object that is written out to (eventually) the browser.

A `main()` method is used to set up the HTTP server which follows the pattern used for the `TCPHandler`; however the client of this server will be a web browser.

```
from http.server import BaseHTTPRequestHandler,
ThreadingHTTPServer
from datetime import datetime

class MyHTTPRequestHandler(BaseHTTPRequestHandler):
    """Very simple request handler. Only supports GET."""

    def do_GET(self):
        print("do_GET() starting to process request")
        welcome_msg = 'Hello From Server at ' +
str(datetime.today())
        byte_msg = bytes(welcome_msg, 'utf-8')
        self.send_response(200)
        self.send_header("Content-type", 'text/plain; charset-utf-8')
```

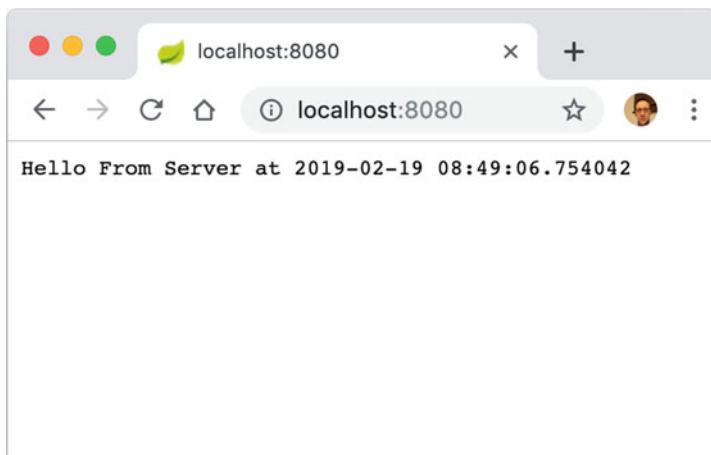
```
        self.send_header('Content-length', str(len(byte_msg)))
        self.end_headers()
        print('do_GET() replying with message')
        self.wfile.write(byte_msg)

def main():
    print('Setting up server')
    server_address = ('localhost', 8080)
    httpd = ThreadingHTTPServer(server_address,
MyHttpRequestHandler)
    print('Activating HTTP server')
    httpd.serve_forever()

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

Once the server is up and running, it is possible to connect to the server using a browser and by entering an appropriate web address into the browsers' URL field. This means that in your browser (assuming it is running on the same machine as the above program) you only need to type into the URL bar `http://localhost:8080` (this indicates you want to use the http protocol to connect up to the local machine at port 8080).

When you do this you should see the welcome message with the current date and time:



39.9 Online Resources

See the following online resources for information on the topics in this chapter:

- <https://docs.python.org/3/howto/sockets.html> tutorial on programming sockets in Python.
- <https://pymotw.com/3/socket/tcp.html> the Python Module of the Week TCP page.
- <https://pymotw.com/3/socketserver/index.html> The Python Module of the Week page on SocketServer.
- <https://docs.python.org/3/library/http.server.html> HTTP Servers Python documentation.
- <https://pymotw.com/3/http.server/index.html> The Python Module of the Week page on the http.server module.
- <https://www.redbooks.ibm.com/pubs/pdfs/redbooks/gg243376.pdf> a PDF tutorial book from IBM on TCP/IP.
- <http://flask.pocoo.org/> for more information the Flask micro framework for web development.
- <https://www.djangoproject.com/> provides information on the Django framework for creating web applications.

39.10 Exercises

The aim of this exercise is to explore working with TCP/IP sockets.

You should create a TCP server that will receive a string from a client.

A check should then be made to see what information the string indicates is required, supported inputs are:

- ‘Date’ which should result in the current date being returned.
- ‘Time’ which should result in the current time being returned.
- ‘Date and Time’ which should result in the current date and time being returned.
- Anything else should result in the input string being returned to the client in upper case with the message ‘UNKNOWN OPTION’: preceding the string.

The result is then sent back to the client.

You should then create a client program to call the server. The client program can request input from the user in the form of a string and submit that string to the server. The result returned by the server should be displayed in the client before prompting the user for the next input. If the user enters -1 as input then the program should terminate.

An example of the type of output the client might generate is given below to illustrate the general aim of the exercise:

```
Starting Client
Please provide an input (Date, Time, DataAndTime or -1 to
exit): Date
Connected to server
Sending data
Received from server: 2019-02-19
Closing socket
Please provide an input (Date, Time, DataAndTime or -1 to
exit): Time
Connected to server
Sending data
Received from server: 15:50:40
Closing socket
Please provide an input (Date, Time, DataAndTime or -1 to
exit): DateAndTime
Connected to server
Sending data
Received from server: 2019-02-19 15:50:44.720747
Closing socket
Please provide an input (Date, Time, DataAndTime or -1 to
exit): -1
```

Chapter 40

Web Services in Python



40.1 Introduction

This chapter looks at RESTful web services as implemented using the Flask framework.

40.2 RESTful Services

REST stands for Representational State Transfer and was a term coined by Roy Fielding in his Ph.D. to describe the lightweight, resource-oriented architectural style that underpins the web. Fielding, one of the principle authors of HTTP, was looking for a way of generalising the operation of HTTP and the web. The generalised the supply of web pages as a form of data supplied on demand to a client where the client holds the current state of an exchange. Based on this state information the client requests the next item of relevant data sending all information necessary to identify the information to be supplied with the request. Thus the requests are independent and not part of an on-going stateful conversation (hence state transfer).

It should be noted that although Fielding was aiming to create a way of describing the pattern of behaviour within the web, he also had an eye on producing lighter weight web based services (than those using either proprietary Enterprise Integration frameworks or SOAP based services). These lighter weight HTTP based web services have become very popular and are now widely used in many areas. Systems which follow these principles are termed RESTful services.

A key aspect of a RESTful service is that all interactions between a client (whether some JavaScript running in a browser or a standalone application) are done using simple HTTP based operations. HTTP supports four operations these are HTTP Get, HTTP Post, HTTP Put and HTTP Delete. These can be used as

verbs to indicate the type of action being requested. Typically these are used as follows:

- retrieve information (HTTP Get),
- create information (HTTP Post),
- update information (HTTP Put),
- delete information (HTTP Delete).

It should be noted that REST is not a standard in the way that HTML is a standard. Rather it is a design pattern that can be used to create web applications that can be invoked over HTTP and that give meaning to the use of Get, Post, Put and Delete HTTP operations with respect to a specific resource (or type of data).

The advantage of using RESTful services as a technology, compared to some other approaches (such as SOAP based services which can also be invoked over HTTP) is that

- the implementations tend to be simpler,
- the maintenance easier,
- they run over standard HTTP and HTTPS protocols and
- do not require expensive infrastructures and licenses to use.

This means that there is lower server and server side costs. There is little vendor or technology dependency and clients do not need to know anything about the implementation details or technologies being used to create the services.

40.3 A RESTful API

1. A RESTful API is one in which you must first determine the key concepts or *resources* being represented or managed.
2. These might be books, products in a shop, room bookings in hotels etc. For example a bookstore related service might provide information on resources such as books, CDs, DVDs, etc. Within this service books are just one type of resource. We will ignore the other resources such as DVDs and CDs etc.
3. Based on the idea of a book as a resource we will identify suitable URLs for these RESTful services. Note that although URLs are frequently used to describe a web page—that is just one type of resource. For example, we might develop a resource such as

/bookservice/book

from this we could develop a URL based API, such as

/bookservice/book/<isbn>

Where ISBN (the International Standard Book Number) indicates a unique number to be used to identify a specific book whose details will be returned using this URL.

We also need to design the representation or formats that the service can supply. These could include plain text, JSON, XML etc. JSON standards for the JavaScript Object Notation and is a concise way to describe data that is to be transferred from a service running on a server to a client running in a browser. This is the format we will use in the next section. As part of this we might identify a series of operations to be provided by our services based on the type of HTTP Method used to invoke our service and the contents of the URL provided. For example, for a simple BookService this might be:

- GET /book/<isbn>—used to retrieve a book for a given ISBN.
- GET /book/list—used to retrieve all current books in JSON format.
- POST /book (JSON in body of the message)—which supports creating a new book.
- PUT /book (JSON in body of message)—used to update the data held on an existing Book.
- DELETE /book/<isbn>—used to indicate that we would like a specific book deleted from the list of books held.

Note that the *parameter* isbn in the above URLs actually forms part of the URL path.

40.4 Python Web Frameworks

There are very many frameworks and libraries available in Python that will allow you to create JSON based web services; and the shear number of options available to you can be overwhelming. For example, you might consider

- Flask,
- Django,
- Web2py and
- CherryPy to name just a few.

These frameworks and libraries offer different sets of facilities and levels of sophistication. For example Django is a full-stack web framework; that is it is aimed at developing not just web services but full blown web sites.

However, for our purposes this is probably overkill and the Django Rest interface is only part of a much larger infrastructure. That does not mean of course that we could not use Django to create our bookshop services; however there are simpler options available. The web2py is another full stack web framework which we will also discount for the same reason.

In contrast Flask and CherryPy are considered non full-stack frameworks (although you can create a full stack web application using them). This means that they are lighter weight and quicker to get started with. CherryPy was original rather more focussed on providing a remote function call facility that allowed functions to

be invoked over HTTP; however this has been extended to provide more REST like facilities.

In this chapter we will focus on Flask as it is one of the most widely used frameworks for light weight RESTful services in Python.

40.5 Flask

Flask is a web development framework for Python. It describes itself as a *micro framework* for Python which is somewhat confusing; to the point where there is a page dedicated to this on their web site that explains what it means and what the implications are of this for Flask. According to Flask, the *micro* in its description relates to its primary aim of keeping the core of Flask simple but extensible. Unlike Django it doesn't include facilities aimed at helping you integrate your application with a database for example. Instead Flask focuses on the core functionality required of a web service framework and allows extension to be used, as and when required, for additional functionality.

Flask is also a convention over configuration framework; that is if you follow the standard conventions then you will not need to deal with much additional configuration information (although if you wish to follow a different set of conventions then you can provide configuration information to change the defaults). As most people will (at least initially) follow these conventions it makes it very easy to get something up and running very quickly.

40.6 Hello World in Flask

As is traditional in all programming languages we will start of with a simple 'Hello World' style application. This application will allow us to create a very simple web service that maps a particular URL to a function that will return JSON format data. We will use the JSON data format as it is very widely used within web-based services.

40.6.1 Using JSON

JSON standards for JavaScript Object Notation; it is a light weight data-interchange format that is also easy for humans to read and write. Although it is derived from a subset of the JavaScript programming language; it is in fact completely language independent and many languages and frameworks now support automatically processing of their own formats into and from JSON. This makes it ideal for RESTful web services.

JSON is actually built on some basic structures:

- A collection of name/value pairs in which the name and value are separated by a colon ‘:’ and each pair can be separated by a comma ‘,’.
- An ordered list of values that are encompassed in square brackets (‘[]’).

This makes it very easy to build up structures that represent any set of data, for example a book with an ISBN, a title, author and price could be represented by:

```
{  
    "author": "Phoebe Cooke",  
    "isbn": 2,  
    "price": 12.99,  
    "title": "Java"  
}
```

In turn a list of books can be represented by a comma separated set of books within square brackets. For example:

```
[ {"author": "Gryff Smith", "isbn": 1, "price": 10.99, "title":  
    "XML"},  
 {"author": "Phoebe Cooke", "isbn": 2, "price": 12.99, "title":  
    "Java"}  
 {"author": "Jason Procter", "isbn": 3, "price": 11.55, "title":  
    "C#"}]
```

40.6.2 *Implementing a Flask Web Service*

There are several steps involved in creating a Flask web service, these are:

1. Import flask.
2. Initialise the Flask application.
3. Implement one or more functions (or methods) to support the services you wish to publish.
4. Providing routing information to route from the URL to a function (or method).
5. Start the web service running.

We will look at these steps in the rest of this chapter.

40.6.3 *A Simple Service*

We will now create our *hello world* web service. To do this we must first import the flask module. In this example we will use the Flask class and jsonify() function elements of the module.

We then need to create the main application object which is an instance of the `Flask` class:

```
from flask import Flask, jsonify

app = Flask(__name__)
```

The argument passed into the `Flask()` constructor is the name of the application's module or package. As this is a simple example we will use the `__name__` attribute of the module which in this case will be '`__main__`'. In larger more complex applications, with multiple packages and modules, then you may need to choose an appropriate package name.

The `Flask` application object implements the WSGI (Web Server Gateway Interface) standard for Python. This was originally specified in PEP-333 in 2003 and was updated for Python 3 in PEP-3333 published in 2010. It provides a simple convention for how web servers should handle requests to applications. The `Flask` application object is the element that can route a request for a URL to a Python function.

40.6.4 Providing Routing Information

We can now define routing information for the `Flask` application object. This information will map a URL to a function. When that URL is, for example, entered into a web browsers URL field, then the `Flask` application object will receive that request and invoke the appropriate function.

To provide route mapping information we use the `@app.route` decorator on a function or method.

For example, in the following code the `@app.route` decorator maps the URL `/hello` to the function `welcome()` for HTTP Get requests:

```
@app.route('/hello', methods=['GET'])
def welcome():
    return jsonify({'msg': 'Hello Flask World'})
```

There are two things to note about this function definition:

- The `@app.route` decorator is used to declaratively specify the routing information for the function. This means that the URL '`/hello`' will be mapped to the function `welcome()`. The decorator also specifies the HTTP method that is supported; in this case GET requests are supported (which is actually the default so it does not need to be included here but is useful from a documentation point of view).

- The second thing is that we are going to return our data using the JSON format; we therefore use the `jsonify()` function and pass it a Python Dictionary structure with a single key/value pair. In this case the key is ‘msg’ and the data associated with that key is ‘Hello Flask World’. The `jsonify()` function will convert this Python data structure into an equivalent JSON structure.

40.6.5 *Running the Service*

We are now ready to run our application. To do this we invoke the `run()` method of the `Flask` application object:

```
app.run(debug=True)
```

Optionally this method has a keyword parameter `debug` that can be set to `True`; if this is done then when the application is run some debugging information is generated that allows you to see what is happening. This can be useful in development but would not typically be used in production.

The whole program is presented below:

```
from flask import Flask, jsonify

app = Flask(__name__)

@app.route('/hello', methods=['GET'])
def welcome():
    return jsonify({'msg': 'Hello Flask World'})

app.run(debug=True)
```

When this program is run the initial output generated is as shown below:

```
* Serving Flask app "hello_flask_world" (lazy loading)
* Environment: production
WARNING: This is a development server. Do not use it in a
production deployment.
  Use a production WSGI server instead.
* Debug mode: on
* Running on http://127.0.0.1:5000/ (Press CTRL+C to quit)
* Restarting with stat
* Debugger is active!
* Debugger PIN: 274-630-732
```

Of course we don’t see any output from our own program yet. This is because we have not invoked the `welcome()` function via the `/hello` URL.

40.6.6 Invoking the Service

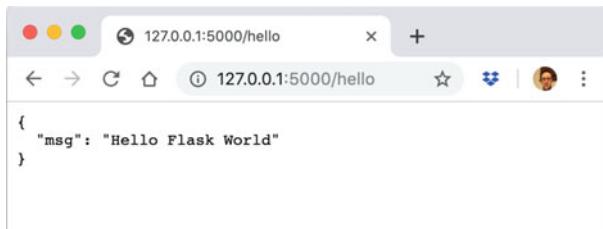
We will use a web browser to access the web service. To do this we must enter the full URL that will route the request to our running application and to the `welcome()` function.

The URL is actually comprised of two elements, the first part is the machine on which the application is running and the port that it is using to listen for requests. This is actually listed in the above output—look at the line starting ‘Running on’. This means that the URL must start with `http://127.0.0.1:5000`. This indicates that the application is running on the computer with the IP address `127.0.0.1` and listening on port 5000.

We could of course also use `localhost` instead of `127.0.0.1`.

The remainder of the URL must then provide the information that will allow Flask to route from the computer and port to the functions we want to run.

Thus the full URL is `http://127.0.0.1:5000/hello` and thus is used in the web browser shown below:



As you can see the result returned is the text we supplied to the `jsonify()` function but now in plain JSON format and displayed within the Web Browser.

You should also be able to see in the console output that a request was received by the Flask framework for the GET request mapped to the `/hello` URL:

```
127.0.0.1 - - [23/May/2019 11:09:40] "GET /hello HTTP/1.1" 200
```

One useful feature of this approach is that if you make a change to your program then the Flask framework will notice this change when running in development mode and can restart the web service with the code changes deployed. If you do this you will see that the output notifies you of the change:

```
* Detected change in 'hello_flask_world.py', reloading
* Restarting with stat
```

This allows changes to be made on the fly and their effect can be immediately seen.

40.6.7 The Final Solution

We can tidy this example up a little by defining a function hat can be used to create the Flask application object and by ensuring that we only run the application if the code is being run as the main module:

```
from flask import Flask, jsonify, url_for

def create_service():
    app = Flask(__name__)

    @app.route('/hello', methods=['GET'])
    def welcome():
        return jsonify({'msg': 'Hello Flask World'})

    with app.test_request_context():
        print(url_for('welcome'))

    return app

if __name__ == '__main__':
    app = create_service()
    app.run(debug=True)
```

One feature we have added to this program is the use of the `test_request_context()`. The test request context object returned implements the context manager protocol and thus can be used via a `with` statement; this is useful for debugging purposes. It can be used to verify the URL used for any functions with routing information specified. In this case the output from the `print` statement is '/hello' as this is the URL defined by the `@app.route` decorator.

40.7 Online Resources

See the following online resources for information on the topics in this chapter:

- <http://www.ics.uci.edu/~fielding/pubs/dissertation/top.htm> Roy Fieldings' Ph.D. Thesis; if you are interesting in the background to REST read this.
- <https://wiki.python.org/moin/WebFrameworks> for a very extensive list of web frameworks for Python.
- <https://www.djangoproject.com/> for information on Django.
- <http://www.web2py.com/> Web2py web framework documentation.
- <https://cherrypy.org/> For documentation on the CherryPy web framework.
- <http://flask.pocoo.org/> For information and examples on the Flask web development framework.

- <http://flask.pocoo.org/docs/1.0/foreword/#what-does-micro-mean> Flasks explanation of what micro means.
- <https://www.json.org/> Information on JSON.
- https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Web_Server_Gateway_Interface WSGI Web Server Gateway Interface standard.
- <https://curl.haxx.se/> Information on the curl command line tool.
- <https://developer.mozilla.org/en-US/docs/Web/HTTP>Status> HTTP Response Status Codes.

Chapter 41

Bookshop Web Service



41.1 Building a Flask Bookshop Service

The previous chapter illustrated the basic structure of a very simple web service application. We are now in a position to explore the creation of a set of web services for something a little more realistic; the bookshop web service application.

In this chapter we will implement the set of web services described earlier in the previous chapter for a very simple bookshop. This means that we will define services to handle not just the GET requests but also PUT, POST and DELETE requests for the RESTful bookshop API.

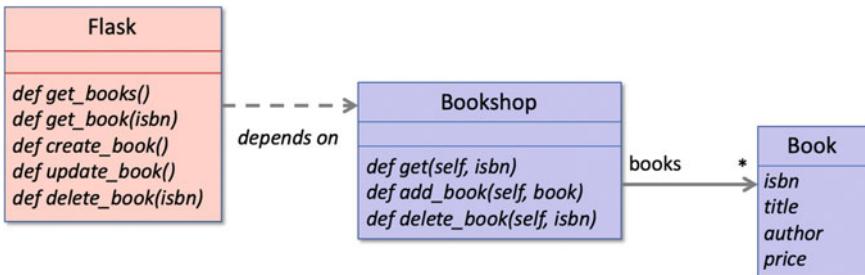
41.2 The Design

Before we look at the implementation of the Bookshop RESTful API we will consider what elements we for the services services.

One question that often causes some confusion is how web services relate to traditional design approaches such as object oriented design. The approach adopted here is that the Web Service API provides a way to implement an *interface* to appropriate functions, objects and methods used to implement the application/domain model.

This means that we will still have a set of classes that will represent the *Bookshop* and the *Books* held within the bookshop. In turn the functions implementing the web services will access the bookshop to retrieve, modify, update and delete the books held by the bookshop.

The overall design is shown below:



This shows that a Book object will have an isbn, a title, an author and a price attribute.

In turn the Bookshop object will have a books attribute that will hold zero or more Books. The books attribute will actually hold a List as the list of books needs to change dynamically as and when new books are added or old books deleted.

The Bookshop will also define three methods that will

- allow a book to be obtained via its isbn,
- allow a book to be added to the list of books and
- enable a book to be deleted (based on its isbn).

Routing information will be provided for a set of functions that will invoke appropriate methods on the Bookshop object. The functions to be decorated with `@app.route`, and the mappings to be used, are listed below:

- `get_books()` which maps to the `/book/list` URL using the HTTP Get method request.
- `get_book(isbn)` which maps to the `/book/<isbn>` URL where isbn is a URL parameter that will be passed into the function. This will also use the HTTP GET request.
- `create_book()` which maps to the `/book` URL using the HTTP Post request.
- `update_book()` which maps to the `/book` URL but using the HTTP Put request.
- `delete_book()` which maps to the `/book/<isbn>` URL but using the HTTP Delete request.

41.3 The Domain Model

The domain model comprises the Book and Bookshop classes. These are presented below.

The Book class is a simple *Value type* class (that is it is data oriented with no behaviour of its own):

```
class Book:
    def __init__(self, isbn, title, author, price):
        self.isbn = isbn
        self.title = title
        self.author = author
        self.price = price

    def __str__(self):
        return self.title + ' by ' + self.author + '@' +
            str(self.price)
```

The Bookshop class holds a list of books and provides a set of methods to access books, update books and delete books:

```
class Bookshop:
    def __init__(self, books):
        self.books = books

    def get(self, isbn):
        if int(isbn) > len(self.books):
            abort(404)
        return list(filter(lambda b: b.isbn == isbn,
            self.books))[0]

    def add_book(self, book):
        self.books.append(book)

    def delete_book(self, isbn):
        self.books = list(filter(lambda b: b.isbn != isbn,
            self.books))
```

In the above code, the books attribute holds the list of books currently available.

The get() method returns a book given a specified ISBN.

The add_book() method adds a book object to the list of books.

The delete_book() method removes a book based on its ISBN.

The bookshop global variable holds the Bookshop object initialised with a default set of books:

```
bookshop = Bookshop(
    [Book(1, 'XML', 'Gryff Smith', 10.99),
     Book(2, 'Java', 'Phoebe Cooke', 12.99),
     Book(3, 'Scala', 'Adam Davies', 11.99),
     Book(4, 'Python', 'Jasmine Byrne', 15.99)])
```

41.4 Encoding Books Into JSON

One issue we have is that although the `jsonify()` function knows how to convert built in types such as strings, integers, lists, dictionaries etc. into an appropriate JSON format; it does not know how to do this for custom types such as a `Book`.

We therefore need to define some way of converting a `Book` into an appropriate JSON format.

One way we could do this would be to define a method that can be called to convert an instance of the `Book` class into a JSON format. We could call this method `to_json()`. For example:

```
class Book:
    """ Represents a book in the bookshop """

    def __init__(self, isbn, title, author, price):
        self.isbn = isbn
        self.title = title
        self.author = author
        self.price = price

    def __str__(self):
        return self.title + ' by ' + self.author + '@' +
               str(self.price)

    def to_json(self):
        return {
            'isbn': self.isbn,
            'title': self.title,
            'author': self.author,
            'price': self.price
        }
```

We could now use this with the `jsonify()` function to convert a book into the JSON format:

```
jsonify({'book': book.to_json()})
```

This approach certainly works and provides a very lightweight way to convert a book into JSON.

However, the approach presented above does mean that every time we want to *jsonify* a book we must remember to call the `to_json()` method. In some cases this means that we will also have to write some slightly convoluted code. For example if we wish to return a list of books from the Bookshop as a JSON list we might write:

```
jsonify({'books': [b.to_json() for b in bookshop.books]})
```

Here we have used a list comprehension to generate a list containing the JSON versions of the books held in the bookshop.

This is starting to look overly complex, easy to forget about and probably error prone.

Flask itself uses encoders to encode types into JSON. Flask provides a way of creating your own encoders that can be used to convert a custom type, such as the `Book` class, into JSON. Such an encoder can automatically be used by the `jsonify()` function.

To do this we must implement an *encoder* class; the class will extend the `flask.json.JSONEncoder` superclass.

The class must define a method `default(self, obj)`.

This method takes an object and returns the JSON representation of that object. We can therefore write an encoder for the `Book` class as follows:

```
class BookJSONEncoder(JSONEncoder):
    def default(self, obj):
        if isinstance(obj, Book):
            return {
                'isbn': obj.isbn,
                'title': obj.title,
                'author': obj.author,
                'price': obj.price
            }
        else:
            return super(BookJSONEncoder, self).default(obj)
```

The `default()` method in this class checks that the object passed to it is an instance of the class `Book` and if it is then it will create a JSON version of the `Book`. This JSON structure is based on the `isbn`, `title`, `author` and `price` attributes. If it is not an instance of the `Book` class, then it passes the object up to the parent class.

We can now register this encoder with the Flask application object so that it will be used whenever a `Book` must be converted into JSON. This is done by assigning the custom encoder to the Flask application object via the `app.json_encoder` attribute:

```
app = Flask(__name__)
app.json_encoder = BookJSONEncoder
```

Now if we wish to encode a single book or a list of books the above encoder will be used automatically and thus we do not need to do anything else. Thus our earlier examples can be written to simply by referencing the book or bookshop.books attribute:

```
jsonify({'book': book})
jsonify({'books': bookshop.books})
```

41.5 Setting Up the GET Services

We can now set up the two services that will support GET requests, these are the

- /book/list and /book<isbn> services.

The functions that these URLs map to are given below:

```
@app.route('/book/list', methods=['GET'])
def get_books():
    return jsonify({'books': bookshop.books})

@app.route('/book/<int:isbn>', methods=['GET'])
def get_book(isbn):
    book = bookshop.get(isbn)
    return jsonify({'book': book})
```

The first function merely returns the current list of books held by the bookshop in a JSON structure using the key books.

The second function takes an isbn number as parameter. This is a URL parameter; in other words part of the URL used to invoke this function is actually dynamic and will be passed into the function. This means that a user can request details of books with different ISBNs just by changing the ISBN element of the URL, for example:

- /book/1 will indicate that we want information on the book with the ISBN 1.
- /book/2 will indicate we want information on the book with ISBN 2.

In Flask to indicate that something is a URL parameter rather than a hard coded element of the URL, we use angle brackets (<>). These surround the URL parameter name and allow the parameter to be passed into the function (using the same name).

In the above example we have also (optionally) indicated the type of the parameter. By default the type will be a string; however we know that the ISBN is in fact an integer and so we have indicated that by prefixing the parameter name with the type int (and separated the type information from the parameter name by a colon ':'). There are actually several options available including

- string (the default),
- int (as used above),
- float for positive floating point values,
- uuid for uuid strings and
- path which dislike string but accepts slashes.

We can again use a browser to view the results of calling these services; this time the URLs will be

- `http://127.0.0.1:5000/book/list` and
- `http://127.0.0.1:5000/book/1`

for example:

```
{ "books": [ { "author": "Gryff Smith", "isbn": 1, "price": 10.99, "title": "XML" }, { "author": "Phoebe Cooke", "isbn": 2, "price": 12.99, "title": "Java" }, { "author": "Adam Davies", "isbn": 3, "price": 11.99, "title": "Scala" }, { "author": "Jasmine Byrne", "isbn": 4, "price": 15.99, "title": "Python" } ] }
```

```
{ "book": { "author": "Gryff Smith", "isbn": 1, "price": 10.99, "title": "XML" } }
```

As you can see from this the book information is returned as a set of *key/value* pairs in JSON format.

41.6 Deleting a Book

The *delete a book* web service is very similar to the *get a book* service in that it takes an isbn as a URL path parameter. However, in this case it merely returns an acknowledgement that the book was deleted successfully:

```
@app.route('/book/<int:isbn>', methods=['DELETE'])
def delete_book(isbn):
    bookshop.delete_book(isbn)
    return jsonify({'result': True})
```

However, we can no longer test this just by using a web browser. This is because the web browser uses the HTTP Get request method for all URLs entered into the URL field. However, the delete web service is associated with the HTTP Delete request method.

To invoke the `delete_book()` function we therefore need to ensure that the request that is sent uses the DELETE request method. This can be done from a client that can indicate the type of request method being used. Examples might include another Python program, a JavaScript web site etc.

For testing purposes, we will however use the `curl` program. This program is available on most Linux and Mac systems and can be easily installed, if it is not already available, on other operating systems.

The `curl` is a command line tool and library that can be used to send and receive data over the internet. It supports a wide range of protocols and standards and in particular supports HTTP and HTTPS protocols and can be used to send and receive data over HTTP/S using different request methods.

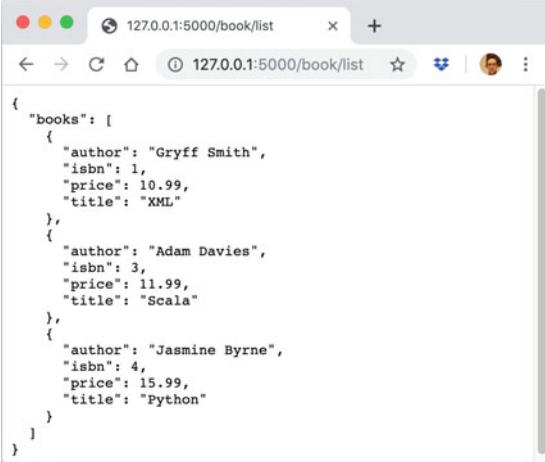
For example, to invoke the `delete_book()` function using the `/book/2` URL and the HTTP Delete method we can use `curl` as follows:

```
curl http://localhost:5000/book/2 -X DELETE
```

This indicates that we want to invoke the URL (`http://localhost:5000/book/2`) and that we wish to use a custom request method (i.e. Not the default GET) which is in the case DELETE (as indicated by the `-X` option). The result returned by the command is given below indicating that the book was successfully deleted.

```
{
    "result": true
}
```

We can verify this by checking the output from the `/book/list` URL in the web browser:



A screenshot of a web browser window showing a JSON response. The URL is 127.0.0.1:5000/book/list. The JSON data is:

```
{ "books": [ { "author": "Gryff Smith", "isbn": 1, "price": 10.99, "title": "XML" }, { "author": "Adam Davies", "isbn": 3, "price": 11.99, "title": "Scala" }, { "author": "Jasmine Byrne", "isbn": 4, "price": 15.99, "title": "Python" } ] }
```

This confirms that book 2 has been deleted.

41.7 Adding a New Book

We also want to support adding a new book to the Bookshop. The details of a new book could just be added to the URL as URL path parameters; however as the amount of data to be added grows this would become increasingly difficult to maintain and verify. Indeed although historically there was a limit of 2083 characters in Microsoft's Internet Explore (IE) which has theoretically been removed since IE8, in practice there are typically still limits on the size of the URL. Most web servers have a limit of 8 KB (or 8192 bytes) although this is typically configurable. There may also be client side limits (such as those imposed by IE or Apple's Safari (which usually have a 2 KB limit). If the limit is exceeded in either a browser or on the server, then most systems will just truncate the characters outside the limit (in some cases without any warning).

Typically such data is therefore sent in the body of the HTTP request as part of a HTTP Post request. This limit on the same of a Post requests message body is much higher (usually up to 2 GB). This means that it is a much more reliable and safer way to transfer data to a web service.

However, it should be noted that this does not mean that the data is any more *secure* than if it is part of the URL; just that it is sent in a different way.

From the point of view of the Python functions that are invoked as the result of a HTTP Post method request it means that the data is not available as a parameter to

the URL and thus to the function. Instead, within the function it is necessary to obtain the request object and then to use that to obtain the information held within the body of the request.

A key attribute on the request object, available when a HTTP request contains JSON data, is the `request.json` attribute. This attribute contains a dictionary like structure holding the values associated with the keys in the JSON data structure.

This is shown below for the `create_book()` function.

```
from flask import request, abort

@app.route('/book', methods=['POST'])
def create_book():
    print('create book')
    if not request.json or not 'isbn' in request.json:
        abort(400)
    book = Book(request.json['isbn'],
                request.json['title'],
                request.json.get('author', ""),
                float(request.json['price']))
    bookshop.add_book(book)
    return jsonify({'book': book}), 201
```

The above function accesses the `flask.request` object that represents the current HTTP request. The function first checks to see that it contains JSON data and that the *ISBN* of the book to add, is part of that JSON structure. If it the ISBN is not then the `flask.abort()` function is called passing in a suitable HTTP response status code. In this case the error code indicates that this was a Bad Request (HTTP Error Code 400).

If however the JSON data is present and does contain an ISBN number then the values for the keys `isbn`, `title`, `author` and `price` are obtained. Remember that JSON is a dictionary like structure of keys and values thus treating it in this way makes it easy to extract the data that a JSON structure holds. It also means that we can use both method and key oriented access styles. This is shown above where we use the `get()` method along with a default value to use, if an author is not specified.

Finally, as we want to treat the price as a floating point number we must use the `float()` function to convert the string format supplied by JSON into a float.

Using the data extracted we can instantiate a new `Book` instance that can be added to the `bookshop`. As is common in web services we are returning the newly created `book` object as the result of creating the book along with the HTTP response status code 201, which indicates the successful creation of a resource.

We can now test this service using the curl command line program:

```
curl -H "Content-Type: application/json" -X POST -d
      '{"title":"Read a book", "author":"Bob", "isbn":"5",
       "price":3.44}' http://localhost:5000/book
```

The options used with this command indicate the type of data being sent in the body of the request (-H) along with the data to include in the body of the request (-d). The result of running this command is:

```
{
  "book": {
    "author": "Bob",
    "isbn": "5",
    "price": 3.44,
    "title": "Read a book"
  }
}
```

Illustrating that the new book by Bob has been added.

41.8 Updating a Book

Updating a book that is already held by the bookshop object is very similar to adding a book except that the HTTP Put request method is used.

Again the function implementing the required behaviour must use the flask.request object to access the data submitted along with the PUT request. However, in this case the ISBN number specified is used to find the book to be updated, rather than the specifying a completely new book.

The update_book() function is given below:

```
@app.route('/book', methods=['PUT'])
def update_book():
    if not request.json or not 'isbn' in request.json:
        abort(400)
    isbn = request.json['isbn']
    book = bookshop.get(isbn)
    book.title = request.json['title']
    book.author = request.json['author']
    book.price = request.json['price']
    return jsonify({'book': book}), 201
```

This function resets the `title`, `author` and `price` of the book retrieved from the bookshop. It again returns the updated book as the result of running the function.

The curl program can again be used to invoke this function, although this time the HTTP Put method must be specified:

```
curl -H "Content-Type: application/json" -X PUT -d
  '{"title":"Read a Python Book", "author":"Bob
  Jones","isbn":"5", "price":"3.44"}'
  http://localhost:5000/book
```

The output from this command is:

```
{
  "book": {
    "author": "Bob Jones",
    "isbn": "5",
    "price": "3.44",
    "title": "Read a Python Book"
  }
}
```

This shows that book 5 has been updated with the new information.

41.9 What Happens if We Get It Wrong?

The code presented for the bookshop web services is not particularly defensive, as it is possible to try to add a new book with the same ISBN as an existing one. However, it does check to see that an ISBN number has been supplied with both the `create_book()` and `update_book()` functions.

However, what happens if an ISBN number is not supplied? In both functions we call the `flask.abort()` function. By default if this happens an error message will be sent back to the client.

For example, in the following command we have forgotten to include the ISBN number:

```
curl -H "Content-Type: application/json" -X POST -d
  '{"title":"Read a book", "author":"Tom Andrews",
  "price":"13.24"}' http://localhost:5000/book
```

This generates the following error output:

```
<!DOCTYPE HTML PUBLIC "-//W3C//DTD HTML 3.2 Final//EN">
<title>400 Bad Request</title>
<h1>Bad Request</h1>
<p>The browser (or proxy) sent a request that this server could
not understand.</p>
```

The odd thing here is that the error output is in HTML format, which is not what we might have expected since we are creating a web service and working with JSON. The problem is that Flask has default to generating an error HTML web page that it expects to be rendered in a web browser.

We can overcome this by defining our own custom error handler function. This is a function that is decorated with an `@app.errorhandler()` decorator which provides the response status code that it handles. For example:

```
@app.errorhandler(400)
def not_found(error):
    return make_response(jsonify({'book': 'Not found'}), 400)
```

Now when a 400 code is generated via the `flask.abort()` function, the `not_found()` function will be invoked and a JSON response will be generated with the information provided by the `flask.make_response()` function. For example:

```
curl -H "Content-Type: application/json" -X POST -d
'{"title":"Read a book", "author":"Tom Andrews",
"price":"13.24"}' http://localhost:5000/book
```

The output from this command is:

```
{
    "book": "Not found"
}
```

41.10 Bookshop Services Listing

The complete listing for the bookshop web services application is given below:

```
from flask import Flask, jsonify, abort, make_response

from flask.json import JSONEncoder

class Book:
    def __init__(self, isbn, title, author, price):
        self.isbn = isbn
        self.title = title
        self.author = author
        self.price = price

    def __str__(self):
        return self.title + ' by ' + self.author + ' @ ' +
               str(self.price)

class BookJSONEncoder(JSONEncoder):
    def default(self, obj):
        if isinstance(obj, Book):
            return {
                'isbn': obj.isbn,
                'title': obj.title,
                'author': obj.author,
                'price': obj.price
            }
        else:
            return super(BookJSONEncoder, self).default(obj)
```

```
class Bookshop:  
    def __init__(self, books):  
        self.books = books  
  
    def get(self, isbn):  
        if int(isbn) > len(self.books):  
            abort(404)  
        return list(filter(lambda b: b.isbn == isbn,  
                           self.books))[0]  
  
    def add_book(self, book):  
        self.books.append(book)  
  
    def delete_book(self, isbn):  
        self.books = list(filter(lambda b: b.isbn != isbn,  
                               self.books))  
  
bookshop = Bookshop([Book(1, 'XML', 'Gryff Smith', 10.99),  
                     Book(2, 'Java', 'Phoebe Cooke', 12.99),  
                     Book(3, 'Scala', 'Adam Davies', 11.99),  
                     Book(4, 'Python', 'Jasmine Byrne', 15.99)])  
  
def create_bookshop_service():  
    app = Flask(__name__)  
    app.json_encoder = BookJSONEncoder  
  
    @app.route('/book/list', methods=['GET'])  
    def get_books():  
        return jsonify({'books': bookshop.books})  
  
    @app.route('/book/<int:isbn>', methods=['GET'])  
    def get_book(isbn):  
        book = bookshop.get(isbn)  
        return jsonify({'book': book})
```

```
@app.route('/book', methods=['POST'])
def create_book():
    print('create book')
    if not request.json or not 'isbn' in request.json:
        abort(400)
    book = Book(request.json['isbn'],
                request.json['title'],
                request.json.get('author', ""),
                float(request.json['price']))
    bookshop.add_book(book)
    return jsonify({'book': book}), 201

@app.route('/book', methods=['PUT'])
def update_book():
    if not request.json or not 'isbn' in request.json:
        abort(400)
    isbn = request.json['isbn']
    book = bookshop.get(isbn)
    book.title = request.json['title']
    book.author = request.json['author']
    book.price = request.json['price']
    return jsonify({'book': book}), 201

@app.route('/book/<int:isbn>', methods=['DELETE'])
def delete_book(isbn):
    bookshop.delete_book(isbn)
    return jsonify({'result': True})

@app.errorhandler(400)
def not_found(error):
    return make_response(jsonify({'book': 'Not found'}),
400)

return app

if __name__ == '__main__':
    app = create_bookshop_service()
    app.run(debug=True)
```

41.11 Exercises

The exercises for this chapter involves creating a web service that will provide information on stock market prices.

The services to be implemented are:

Get method:

- `/stock/list` this will return a list of the stocks that can be queried for their price.
- `/stock/ticker` this will return the current price of the stock indicated by ticker, for example `/stock/APPL` or `/stock/MSFT`.

POST method:

- `/stock` with the request body containing JSON for a new stock ticker and price, for example `{'IBM': 12.55}`.

PUT method:

- `/stock` with the request body containing JSON for an existing stock ticker and price.

DELETE method

- `/stock/<ticker>` which will result in the stock indicated by the ticker being deleted from the service.

You could initialise the service with a default set of stocks and prices such as `[('IBM', 12.55), ('APPL', 15.66), ('GOOG', 5.22)]`.

You can test these services using the `curl` command line tool.