Hands-on Intermediate Python

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About Me

- 12 years Python
- Worked in HA, Search, Open Source, BI and Storage
- Author of multiple Python Books

Get code

```
inter_python.tar.gz
```

Thumbdrive has it

Unzip it somewhere (tar -zxvf inter_python.tar.gz)

Begin

Impetus

You can get by in Python with basic constructs ...

Impetus (2)

But you might:

- get bored
- be confused by others' code
- be less efficient

Warning

- Starting from basic Python knowledge
- Hands on
 - (short) lecture
 - (short) code
 - repeat until time is gone

Python 2 or 3?

Most of this is agnostic. I'll note the differences, but use 2.x throughout

Testing Outline

- Functional Programming
- Functions
- Decorators
- Class Decorators
- Properties
- Iteration
- Generators
- Context Managers

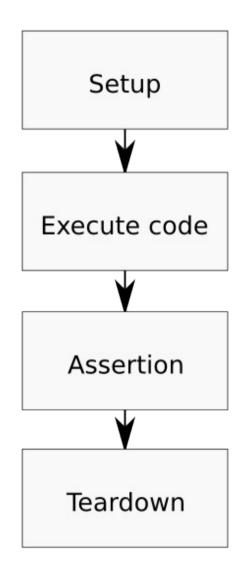
unittest

(Python 2.1)

unittest

Implements Kent Beck's *xUnit* paradigm

xUnit workflow



```
import unittest
import integr
class TestIntegr(unittest.TestCase):
    def setup(self):
        # setup is called *before* each test is run
        # if I need to adjust to a well known state before starting
        # I can do that here
        pass
    def teardown(self):
        # teardown is called *after* the each test is run
        pass
    def test_basic(self):
        # any method beginning with "test" is a test
        results = integr.parse('1,3,4')
        self.assertEquals(results, [1,3,4])
if __name__ == '__main__':
    unittest.main()
```

```
class TestIntegr(unittest.TestCase):
    if __name__ == '__main__':
        unittest.main()
```

def setup(self): # setup is called *before* # each test is run. # Adjust to a well known # state before each test. pass

```
def test_basic(self):
    # any method beginning with
    # "test" is a test
    results = integr.parse('1,3,4')
    self.assertEquals(results, [1,3,4])
```

```
def teardown(self):
    # teardown is called *after*
    # the each test is run
    pass
```

Assertion Methods

Method signature	Explanation
assert_(expression, [message])	Complains if expression is False
assertEqual(this, that, [message])	Complains if this != that
<pre>assertNotEqual(this, that, [message])</pre>	Complains if this == that
<pre>assertRaises(exception, callable, *args, **kwargs)</pre>	Complains if callable(*args, **kwargs) does not raise exception

Critique of unittest

Cons

- Modeled after java, why classes? (inheritance/abstraction bad)
- "heavyweight", Too much baggage, "frameworky"
- Focus on testing, makes hard to update why is a test failing?

Pros

- In the standard library
- Straightforward

Other options

- Nose
- py.test
- Twisted Trial

None of these are included in the standard library.

Is there another way?

Other options???

doctest

(Python 2.1)

doctest

A post from Tim Peters in 1999...

doctest

- Examples are priceless.
- Examples that don't work are worse than worthless.
- Examples that work eventually turn into examples that don't.
- Docstrings too often don't get written.
- Docstrings that do get written rarely contain those priceless examples.

doctest (2)

- The rare written docstrings that do contain priceless examples eventually turn into rare docstrings with examples that don't work. I think this one may follow from the above ...
- Module unit tests too often don't get written.

doctest (3)

- The best *Python* testing gets done in interactive mode, esp. trying endcases that almost never make it into a test suite because they're so tedious to code up.
- The endcases that were tested interactively (but never coded up) also fail to work after time.

OK, so what is doctest?

Turns *Python* docstrings (module, class, function, method) that contain interactive session snippets into tests. (Session must have output!)

An example

```
def add_10(x):
    adds 10 to the input value
    >>> add 10(5)
    15
    >>> add_10(-2)
    8
    111111
    return x + 10
if name == " main ":
    import doctest
    doctest.testmod()
```

Broken documentation

```
def add_10(x):
    adds 10 to the input value
    >>> add 10(5)
    15
    >>> add 10(-2)
    111111
    return x + 10
if name == " main ":
    import doctest
    doctest.testmod()
```

Broken output

doctest details

```
>>> # comments are ignored
>>> foo = "bar"
```

doctest details (2)

```
>>> foo #implicit print
'bar'
```

>>> print foo # explicit print
bar

doctest details (3)

Caveat: can't print whitespace directly. Use <BLANKLINE> instead

>>> print "" # this fails!

```
>>> print ""
<BLANKLINE>
```

doctest details (4)

Backslashes. Use raw docstrings (this is raw) or escape them (\\n)

```
>>> line = "foo\n" # need to
escape (\\n) if not raw
>>> print line
foo
<BLANKLINE>
```

doctest details (5)

Starting column is irrelevant

doctest details (6)

Expected output for an exception must start with a traceback header.

```
>>> [1, 2, 3].remove(42)
Traceback (most recent call
last):
   File "<stdin>", line 1, in ?
ValueError: list.remove(x): x not
in list
```

doctest hint

Try to remove magic numbers (such as line numbers)

doctest details (7)

Traceback stack can also be replaced by ellipsis

```
>>> [1, 2, 3].remove(42)
Traceback (most recent call
last):
```

ValueError: list.remove(x): x not
in list

doctest details (8)

Various options and directives. Note the "#doctest:"

```
>>> print range(20) #doctest:

+NORMALIZE_WHITESPACE

[0, 1, 2, 3, 4, 5, 6, 7,

8, 9, 10, 11, 12, 13, 14, 15,

16, 17, 18, 19]
```

doctest details (9)

Combine directives

```
>>> print range(20) # doctest:
+ELLIPSIS, +NORMALIZE_WHITESPACE
[0, 1, ..., 18, 19]
```

doctest details (10)

```
Other directives:
DONT_ACCEPT_TRUE_FOR_1,
DONT_ACCEPT_BLANKLINE,
IGNORE_EXCEPTION_DETAIL, SKIP,
COMPARISON_FLAGS, REPORT_*DIFF
```

doctest details (11)

Dealing with dicts

doctest details (12)

dict workaround. Sort keys

```
>>> items = foo.items()
>>> items.sort()
>>> items
[('a', 1), ('b', 'hello'), ('c', 'bye')]
```

doctest details (13)

Dealing with addresses

```
>>> class C: pass
\rangle\rangle\rangle C = C()
>>> c # will most likely fail
<__main_ .C instance at</pre>
0xb7a210ec>
>>> c #doctest: +ELLIPSIS
< main .C instance at 0x...>
```

doctest details (14)

```
One fails... why?

>>> print "foo"
foo
>>> print "bar"
bar
```

doctest details (15)

One fails... output

```
****************************
File "slides.rst", line 536, in slides.rst
Failed example:
    print "bar"
Expected:
    bar
Got:
    bar
```

doctest details (16)

Trailing whitespace can bite you...

```
>>> print "bar"
bar # 2 spaces after bar!
```

Running doctest on a module

```
import doctest
doctest.testmod()
```

Running doctest on a file

```
import doctest
doctest.testfile(filename)
```

doctest soapbox

3 clear uses:

- Check examples in docstrings
- Regression testing
- Exectuable documentation

Not necessarily the same thing (in appearance or utility)

Executable documentation

```
Schema Defined Buttons

Let's now create a schema that describes ...

>>> import zope.interface

>>> class IButtons(zope.interface.Interface):
... apply = button.Button(title=u'Apply')
... cancel = button.Button(title=u'Cancel')
```

from **zope** (note has 100% coverage)

Critique of doctest

Cons

- Can get messy (spacing workarounds)
- Poor integration with coverage tools
- Setup/teardown code can get in the way of documentation

Pros

- Lightweight
- Easy, no API
- Included with Python
- Focus on documentation

Fuzzy areas

How do I know the effectiveness of my tests?

Coverage

How do I know the effectiveness of my coverage?

Coverage(2)

Different types of coverage:

- Function Every function executed
- Line (statement) Every line executed
- Condition (Branch) Every possible condition executed
- Path Every possible route through code

Coverage(3)

Most coverage tools deal with line coverage. coverage. py has branch coverage.

Full Path Coverage

```
>>> def foo(bar):
. . .
         To achieve line/statement coverage this is
         sufficient:
         \rightarrow \rightarrow foo(-1)
         not a positive integer
• • •
         For path coverage need this too:
         >>> foo(1)
         a positive integer
         111111
         if bar <= 0:
              print 'not',
         print 'a positive integer'
```

How many tests for full path coverage?

PyMetrics is your friend. Indicates Cyclomatic (McCabe) Complexity. This will tell the lower bound for number of tests for structured coverage, and the upper bound for tests required for line coverage.

Coverage tools for Python

- figleaf
- coverage.py

Neither tool is included with Python.

Running coverage.py

```
coverage run program.py
# generate html reports
coverage html -d /tmp/html_results
firefox /tmp/html_results/index.html
```

Nose

Tool for:

- Using assert instead of assertEqual/etc
- Testfinder
- Helpers for reporting coverage, stop or error, failure

Testing links

- Python Testing Tools Taxonomy (www.pycheesecake.org)
- TIP Testing in Python mailing list

Functional Programming

(Python 1.x)

1 ambda

Create simple functions in a line

```
>>> def mul(a, b):
... return a * b
>>> mul_2 = lambda a, b: a*b
>>> mul_2(4, 5) == mul(4,5)
True
```

lambda examples

Useful for key and cmp when sorting

1 ambda key example

```
>>> data = [dict(number=x) for x in '019234']
>>> data.sort(key=lambda x: float(x['number']))
>>> data #doctest: +NORMALIZE_WHITESPACE
[{'number': '0'}, {'number': '1'}, {'number': '2'},
{'number': '3'}, {'number': '4'}, {'number': '9'}]
```

lambda cmp example

```
>>> data = [dict(number=x) for x in '019234']
>>> data.sort(cmp=lambda x,y: cmp(x['number'], y['number']))
>>> data #doctest: +NORMALIZE_WHITESPACE
[{'number': '0'}, {'number': '1'}, {'number': '2'},
{'number': '3'}, {'number': '4'}, {'number': '9'}]
```

cmp is from the sort method in Python 3.x

map

Apply a function to items of a sequence

```
>>> map(str, [0, 1, 2])
['0', '1', '2']
```

reduce

Apply a function to pairs of the sequence

```
>>> import operator
>>> reduce(operator.mul, [1,2,3,4])
24 # ((1 * 2) * 3) * 4
```

filter

Return a sequence items for which function (item) is True

```
>>> filter(lambda x:x >= 0, [0, -1, 3, 4, -2]) [0, 3, 4]
```

Notes about "functional" programming in *Python*

- sum or for loop can replace reduce
- List comprehensions replace map and filter

Example Assignment

sample.py

Assignment

functional.py

More about functions

a function is an instance of a funct i on

```
>>> def foo():
... 'docstring for foo'
... print 'invoked foo'
>>> foo #doctest: +ELLIPSIS
<function foo at ...>
```

a function is callable

```
>>> callable(foo)
True
```

function invocation

```
Just add ()
>>> foo()
invoked foo
```

a function has attributes

```
>>> foo.func_name
'foo'
>>> foo.func_doc
'docstring for foo'
```

(PEP 234 Python 2.1)

function scope

A function knows about itself

```
>>> def foo2():
... print "NAME", foo2.func_name
>>> foo2()
NAME foo2
```

function attributes

Can attach data to function a priori

```
>>> def foo3():
...     print foo3.stuff
>>> foo3.stuff = "Data"
>>> foo3()
Data
```

function definition

Parameter types

- No parameters
- standard parameters (many)
- keyword/named/default parameters (many)
- variable parameters (one), preceded by *
- variable keyword parameters (one), preceded by **

a gotcha

When the function is created, the named/default parameters values are assigned to the function (. func_defaults)

named parameters

Don't default to mutable types.

```
>>> def named param(a, foo=[]):
        if not foo:
            foo.append(a)
>>> named param.func defaults
([],)
>>> named param(1)
>>> named param.func defaults
([1],)
```

mutable types

lists and dicts are mutable. When you modify them you don't create a new list (or dict). Strings and ints are immutable.

Parameters are evaluated when the def they belong to is evaluated. This usually happens at module import.

named parameters (2)

Don't default to mutable types.

```
>>> def named_param(a, foo=None):
... foo = foo or []
... if not foo:
... foo.append(a)
```

*args and **kwargs

- *args (variable parameters) is a tuple of parameters values.
- **kwargs (keyword parameters) is a dictionary of name/value pairs.

*args and **kwargs (2)

```
>>> def param_func(a, b=2, c=5):
...    print [x for x in [a, b, c]]
>>> param_func(2)
[2, 2, 5]
>>> param_func(3, 4, 5)
[3, 4, 5]
>>> param_func(c=4, b=5, a=6)
[6, 5, 4]
```

*args and **kwargs (3)

The * before a sequency parameter in an invocation "flattens" (or splats) the sequence

*args and **kwargs (4)

```
>>> def args_func(a, *args):
...    print [x for x in [a, args]]
>>> args_func(2)
[2, ()]
>>> args_func(4, *(5, 6)) # splat
[4, (5, 6)]
>>> args_func(4, 5, 6) # same as above
[4, (5, 6)]
>>> args_func(5, (6, 7)) # tricksey!
[5, ((6, 7),)]
```

*args and **kwargs (5)

The ** before a dict parameter in an invocation "flattens" (or splats) the dict

*args and **kwargs (6)

```
>>> def kwargs func(a, **kwargs):
        print [x for x in [a, kwargs]]
>>> kwargs func(2)
[2, {}]
>>> kwargs_func({'a' : 3})
[{'a': 3}, {}]
>>> kwargs_func({'b' : 4})
[{'b': 4}, {}]
>>> kwargs_func(**{'a' : 3}) # splat
[3, {}]
>>> kwargs_func(a = 3) # same
[3, {}]
>>> kwargs func(**{'b' : 4})
Traceback (most recent call last):
TupeError: kwargs func() takes exactly 1 non-keyword
argument (0 given)
```

*args and **kwargs (7)

```
>>> def param func(a, b='b', *args, **kwargs):
        print [x for x in [a, b, args, kwargs]]
>>> param_func(2, 'c', 'd', 'e,')
[2, 'c', ('d', 'e,'), {}]
>>> params = ('f', 'g', 'h')
>>> param func(3, params)
[3, ('f', 'g', 'h'), (), {}]
>>> param_func(4, *params) # tricksey!
[4, 'f', ('g', 'h'), {}]
>>> param_func(4, 'f', 'g', 'h') # same
[4, 'f', ('q', 'h'), {}]
>>> param func(6, **{'foo': 'bar'})
[6, 'b', (), {'foo': 'bar'}]
>>> param func(6, foo='bar')
[6, 'b', (), {'foo': 'bar'}]
```

*args and **kwargs (8)

Equivalent:

```
>>> params = ('f', 'g', 'h')
>>> param_func(*params) # tricksey!
['f', 'g', ('h',), {}]

>>> param_func(params[0], params[1], params[2])
['f', 'g', ('h',), {}]
```

*args and **kwargs (9)

See http://docs.python.org/reference/expressions.html# for gory details

Assignment

funcargs.py

Closures

(PEP 227 Python 2.1)

Closures

- Wikipedia: First-class function with free variables that are bound by the lexical environment
- **Python:** In Python functions can return new functions. The inner function is a *closure* and any variable it accesses that are defined outside of that function are *free variables*.

Closures (2)

Useful as function generators

```
>>> def add x(x):
         def adder(num):
              # we have read access to x
             return x + num
         return adder
\Rightarrow \Rightarrow add 5 = add x(5)
>>> add 5 #doctest: +ELLIPSIS
<function adder at ...>
>>> add 5(10)
15
```

Closures (3)

Notice the function attributes

```
>>> add_5.func_name
'adder'
```

Closures (4)

Nested functions only have write access to global and local scope (Python 2.x)

```
\rangle\rangle\rangle \chi = 3
>>> def outer():
         X = 4 + nou local
    def inner():
              global X
              X = 5
         print X
         inner()
         print X
>>> outer()
>>> X
5
```

Closures (5)

Python 3.x has non-local scope to access variables in outer functions

Assignment

closures.py

Decorators

(PEP 318, 3129, Python 2.4)

Decorators

Since functions are funct i on instances you can wrap them

Decorators (2)

Allow you to

- modify arguments
- modify function
- modify results

Decorators (3)

Count how many times a function is called

Decorators (4)

Attach it to a function

```
>>> def hello():
... print 'invoked hello'
>>> hello = count(hello)
```

Decorators (5)

Test it

```
>>> hello()
invoked hello
>>> call_count
1
>>> hello()
invoked hello
>>> call_count
2
```

Syntactic Sugar

```
>>> @count
... def hello():
... print 'hello'

equals
>>> hello = count(hello)
```

Syntactic Sugar(2)

Don't add parens to decorator:

```
>>> @count() # notice parens
... def hello():
... print 'hello'
Traceback (most recent call last):
...
TypeError: count() takes exactly 1 argument (0 given)
```

Better decorator

Attach data to wrapper

```
>>> def count2(func):
... def wrapper(*args, **kwargs):
... wrapper.call_count += 1
... return func(*args, **kwargs)
... wrapper.call_count = 0
... return wrapper
```

Better decorator(2)

```
>>> @count2
... def bar():
       pass
>>> bar(); bar()
>>> print bar.call_count
>>> @count2
... def snoz():
        pass
>>> snoz()
>>> print snoz.call_count
```

Decorator Template

```
>>> def decorator(func to decorate):
        def wrapper(*args, **kwargs):
            # do something before invocation
            result = func to decorate(*args,
**kwarqs)
            # do something after
            return result
        # update wrapper.__doc__ and .func_name
        # or functools.wraps
        return wrapper
```

Classes as Decorators

Classes as Decorators (2)

```
>>> @decorator_class
... def function():
... # implementation
```

Classes as Decorators (3)

```
>>> class Decorator(object):
        # in init__ set up state
        def call (self, function):
            def wrapper(*args, **kwargs):
                # do something before
invocation
                result = function(*args,
**kwargs)
                # do something after
                return result
            return wrapper
```

This lets you have access to the instance of a decorator later

Classes as Decorators (4)

Classes as Decorators (5)

Not the same as "Class Decorators". See PEP 3129

Parameterized decorators (need 2 closures)

```
>>> def limit(length):
        def decorator(function):
            def wrapper(*args, **kwargs):
                result = function(*args, **kwargs)
                result = result[:length]
                return result
            return wrapper
        return decorator
>>> @limit(5) # notice parens
... def echo(foo): return foo
>>> echo('123456')
12345
```

Parameterized decorators

```
>>> @limit(5)
... def echo(foo): return foo

syntactic sugar for
>>> echo = limit(5)(echo)
```

decorator tidying

function attributes get mangled

```
>>> def echo2(input):
... """return input"""
... return input
>>> echo2. doc
'return input'
>>> echo2.func name
'echo2'
>>> echo3 = limit(3)(echo2)
>>> echo3. doc # empty!!!
>>> echo3.func name
'wrapper'
```

decorator tidying (2)

```
>>> def limit(length):
        def decorator(function):
            def wrapper(*args, **kwargs):
                 result = function(*args, **kwargs)
                 result = result[:length]
                 return result
            wrapper. doc = function. doc
            wrapper.func_name = function.func name
            return wrapper
        return decorator
\Rightarrow \Rightarrow echo4 = limit(3)(echo2)
>>> echo4. doc
'return input'
>>> echo4.func name
'echo2'
```

decorator tidying (3)

```
>>> import functools
>>> def limit(length):
        def decorator(function):
             @functools.wraps(function)
. . .
             def wrapper(*args, **kwargs):
                 result = function(*args, **kwargs)
                 result = result[:length]
                 return result
             return wrapper
        return decorator
\Rightarrow \Rightarrow echo5 = limit(3)(echo2)
>>> echo5. doc
'return input'
>>> echo5.func name
'echo2'
```

Multple decorators

```
>>> @count
... @limit(4)
... def long_word():
... return "supercalafrag"
>>> long_word()
'supe'
```

equivalent to:

```
>>> long_word = count(limit(4)(long_word))
```

Gotcha

```
>>> class verbose(object):
... def __init__(self, func):
... self.func = func
... def __call__(self, *args, **kwargs):
... print "BEFORE"
... result = self.func(*args, **kwargs)
print "AFTER"
... return result
```

Gotcha (2)

```
>>> class Adder(object):
        def __init__(self): pass
... @verbose
        def add(self, x, y):
            return x + y
>>> a = Adder()
>>> a.add(2, 4)
BEFORE
Traceback (most recent call last):
   . . .
TupeError: add() takes exactly 3 arguments (2 given)
```

Gotcha (3)

verbose decorates an *unbound* method (has no class instance during decoration time). But invoked on an instance.

Gotcha (4)

```
>>> class Foo(object):
... def bar(self):
... pass
```

Bound

```
>>> f = Foo()
>>> f.bar
<bound method Foo.bar of <__main__.Foo object at 0x910b90>>
```

Unbound

```
>>> Foo.bar
<unbound method Foo.bar>
```

Gotcha (5)

Solution - verbose needs to implement descriptor protocol to bind method to the instance

Gotcha (6)

```
>>> class verbose(object):
        def __init__(self, func):
. . .
            self.func = func
        def __call__(self, *args, **kwargs):
            print "BEFORE"
            result = self.func(*args, **kwargs)
            print "AFTER"
            return result
        def __get__(self, obj, type=None):
            print "OBJ", obj
            print "TYPE", type
            if obj is None:
                return self
            # Create new instance with bound method
            new_func = self.func.__get__(obj, type)
. . .
            return self. class (new func)
. . .
```

Gotcha (7)

```
>>> class Adder(object):
       def init (self): pass
... @verbose
\dots def add(self, x, y):
           return x + y
>>> a = Adder()
>>> a.add(2, 4)
OBJ < main__.Adder object at 0x9190d0>
TYPE <class ' main .Adder'>
BEFORE
AFTER
```

Gotcha (8)

Functions invoke methods with correct instance

```
>>> def verbose(func):
       def wrapper(*args, **kwargs):
            print "BEFORE", args
            result = func(*args, **kwargs)
            print "AFTER"
            return result
       return wrapper
>>> class Adder(object):
   @verbose
\dots def add(self, x, y):
           return x + y
>>> a = Adder()
>>> a.add(2, 4)
BEFORE (<__main__.Adder object at 0x91b350>, 2, 4)
AFTER
```

Uses for decorators

- caching
- monkey patching stdio
- jsonify
- logging time in function call
- change cwd
- timeout a function call

Decorator rehash

Allows you to

- Before function invocation
 - modify arguments
 - modify function
- After function invocation
 - modify results

What if I want to tweak decoration parameters at runtime?

(ie@limit(4) instead of@limit(3))

Tweak Parameters

- Use class instance decorator
- Tweak wrapper attributes
- Use context manager
- 0[

Don't decorate

Since a decorator is just a closure, you can invoke at run time. Like this:

```
result = limit(4)(echo2)('input')
```

Another option

Context managers let you dictate before and after conditions of execution. It is possible to create decorators that serve as context managers.

Assignment

decorators.py

Class Decorators

(PEP 3129, Python 2.6)

Class Decorators

A callable that takes a class and returns a class

Class Decorators (2)

```
>>> def shoutclass(cls):
        def shout(self):
            print self.__class__._name__.upper()
        cls.shout = shout
        return cls
>>> @shoutclass
... class Loud: pass
>>> loud = Loud()
>>> loud.shout()
LOUD
```

Class Decorators (3)

Occurs during class definition time

```
>>> def time_cls_dec(cls):
        print "BEFORE"
        def new method(self):
            print "NEW METHOD"
        cls.new method = new method
        return cls
>>> Otime cls dec
... class Timing(object): pass
BEFORE
>>> t = Timing()
```

Class Decorators (4)

Works with subclasses

```
>>> class SubTiming(Timing): pass
>>> s = SubTiming()
>>> s.new_method()
NEW METHOD
```

Class Decorators (5)

```
functools.total_orderingin Python3.2 adds__le__, _gt__, and __ge__ if __lt__ is defined.
```

Properties

(Python 2.2, 2.6 added getter, setter, deleter)

Properties

Utilize *descriptors* to allow attribute to invoke methods. If you have an attribute you can later add an underlying method to do setting, getting, deleting.

Properties (2)

```
>>> class Person(object):
... def __init__(self):
... self.name = None
```

to

```
>>> class Person(object):
...     def __init__(self):
...         self._name = None
...     def get_name(self):
...         return self._name
...     def set_name(self, name):
...         self._name = name.replace(';', '')
...         name = property(get_name, set_name)
```

Properties (3)

```
>>> p = Person()
>>> p.name = 'Fred; Drop TABLE people;'
>>> print p.name
Fred Drop TABLE people
```

Properties (4)

2.6 style

```
>>> class Person2(object):
        def __init__(self):
            self._name = None
        @property
        def name(self):
            return self._name
        Oname.setter
        def name(self, value):
            self._name = value.replace(';', '')
        Oname.deleter
        def name(self):
            del self._name
. . .
```

Properties (5)

```
>>> p = Person2()
>>> p.name = 'Fred; Drop TABLE people;'
>>> print p.name
Fred Drop TABLE people
```

List comprehensions

(PEP 202, Python 2.0)

Looping

Common to loop over and accumulate

```
>>> seq = range(-10, 10)
>>> results = []
>>> for x in seq:
... if x >= 0:
... results.append(x)
```

List comprehensions

Shorthand for accumulation:

```
>>> results = []
>>> for x in seq:
... if x >= 0:
... results.append(2*x)
```

List comprehensions (2)

List comprehensions (3)

Can be nested

```
>>> nested = [ (x, y) for x in xrange(3) \
... for y in xrange(4) ]
>>> nested
[(0, 0), (0, 1), (0, 2), (0, 3), (1, 0), (1, 1), (1, 2), (1, 3), (2, 0), (2, 1), (2, 2), (2, 3)]
```

Same as:

```
>>> nested = []
>>> for x in xrange(3):
... for y in xrange(4):
... nested.append((x,y))
```

List comprehensions (4)

Acting like map (apply str to a sequence)

```
>>> [str(x) for x in range(5)]
['0', '1', '2', '3', '4']
```

List comprehensions (5)

Acting like filter (get positive numbers)

```
>>> [x for x in range(-5, 5) if x >= 0] [0, 1, 2, 3, 4]
```

Assignment

listcomprehensions .py

Iterators

(PEP 234)

Iterators

Sequences in *Python* follow the iterator pattern (PEP 234)

```
>>> sequence = [ 'foo', 'bar', 'baz']
>>> for x in sequence:
... # body of loop
equals
>>> iterable = iter(sequence)
>>> while True:
       try:
           # py3 .__next__()
           x = iterable.next()
       except StopIteration, e:
           break
       # body of loop
```

Iterators (2)

```
>>> sequence = [ 'foo', 'bar']
>>> seq iter = iter(sequence)
>>> seq iter.next()
'foo'
>>> seq iter.next()
'bar'
>>> seq iter.next()
Traceback (most recent call last):
StopIteration
```

Making objects iterable

```
>>> class Foo(object):
        def iter (self):
            return self
        def next(self):
            # py3 ___next__
            # logic
            return next_item
```

Object example

```
>>> class RangeObject(object):
        def init (self, end):
            self.end = end
            self.start = 0
        def iter (self): return self
        def next(self):
            if self.start < self.end:</pre>
                value = self.start
                self.start += 1
                return value
            raise StopIteration
>>> [x for x in RangeObject(4)]
[0, 1, 2, 3]
```

Assignment

iterators.py

Generators

(PEP 255, 342, Python 2.3)

generators

Functions with yield remember state and return to it when iterating over them

generators (2)

Can be used to easily "generate" sequences

generators (3)

Can be useful for lowering memory usage (ie range (1000000) vs xrange (1000000))

generators (4)

generators (5)

Generators return a generator instance. Iterate over them for values

```
>>> gen = gen_range(4)
>>> gen #doctest: +ELLIPSIS
<generator object gen_range
at ...>
```

generators (6)

Follow the iteration protocol. A generator is iterable!

```
>>> nums = gen_range(2)
>>> nums.next()
0
>>> nums.next()
1
>>> nums.next()
Traceback (most recent call last):
...
StopIteration
```

Generators (7)

Generator in for loop or list comprehension

Generators (8)

Re-using generators may be confusing

```
>>> gen = gen range(2)
>>> [x for x in gen]
[0, 1]
>>> # gen in now exhausted!
>>> [x for x in gen]
```

generators (9)

Can be chained

```
>>> def positive(seq):
   for x in seq:
            if x \ge 0:
                yield x
>>> def every other(seq):
        for i, x in enumerate(seq):
         if i % 2 == 0:
                yield x
\Rightarrow nums = xrange(-5, 5)
>>> pos = positive(nums)
>>> skip = every other(pos)
>>> [x for x in skip]
[0, 2, 4]
```

generators (10)

Generators can be tricky to debug.

Objects as generators

```
>>> class Generate(object):
... def __iter__(self):
... # just use a
... # generator here
... yield result
```

list or generator?

List:

- Need to use data repeatedly
- Enough memory to hold data
- Negative slicing

Generator Hints

- Make it "peekable"
- Generators always return True, [] (empty list) is False
- Might be useful to cache results
- If recursive, make sure to iterate over results

Generator Hints (2)

- Rather than making a complicated generator, consider making simple ones that chain together (Unix philosophy)
- Sometimes one at a time is slow (db) wrap with "fetchmany" generator
- itertools is helpful (islice)

xrange

xrange doesn't really behave as an generator.

- you can index it directly (but not slice)
- it has no .next() method
- it doesn't exhaust

Generator example

```
def fetch many wrapper(result, count=20000):
    In an effort to speed up queries, this wrapper
    fetches count objects at a time. Otherwise our
    implementation has sqlalchemy fetching 1 row
    at a time (~30% slower).
    done = False
    while not done:
        items = result.fetchmany(count)
        done = len(items) == 0
        if not done:
            for item in items:
                yield item
```

Recursive generator example

```
def find_files(base_dir, recurse=True):
    yield files found in base dir
    for name in os.listdir(base dir):
        filepath = os.path.join(base dir, name)
        if os.path.isdir(filepath) and recurse:
            # make sure to iterate when recursing!
            for child in find_files(filepath, recurse):
                yield child
        else:
            yield filepath
```

Assignment

generators.py

Generator Expressions

(PEP 289 Python 2.4)

Generator expressions

Like list comprehensions. Except results are generated on the fly. Use (and) instead of [and] (or omit if expecting a sequence)

Generator expressions (2)

Generator expressions (3)

```
>>> nums = xrange(-5, 5)
>>> pos = (x for x in nums if x >= 0)
>>> skip = (x for i, x in enumerate(pos) if i % 2 == 0)
>>> list(skip)
[0, 2, 4]
```

Generator expressions (4)

If Generators are confusing, but List Comprehensions make sense, you simulate some of the behavior of generators as follows....

Generator expressions (5)

Assignment

genexp.py

Context Managers

(PEP 343 Python 2.5)

Context Mgr

Shortcut for "try/finally" statements

Context Mgr (2)

Makes it easy to write

setup

try:

Context Mgr (3)

Seen in files

```
with open('/tmp/foo') as fin:
    # do something with fin
# fin is automatically closed here
```

Context Mgr (3)

Two ways to create:

- class
- decorated generator

Context Mgr (4)

Context managers can optionally return an item with as

Lock example (PEP 343)

```
with locked(myLock):
    # Code here executes with
    # myLock held. The lock is
    # guaranteed to be released
      when the block is left
    # (even if via return or
    # by an uncaught exception).
```

Lock example (PEP 343) (2)

class style

```
class locked:
   def init (self, lock):
        self.lock = lock
   def enter (self):
        self.lock.acquire()
   def exit (self, type, value, tb):
        # if error in block, t, v, & tb
        # have non None values
        # return True to hide exception
        self.lock.release()
```

Lock example (PEP 343) (3)

```
generator style
```

from contextlib import contextmanager

```
@contextmanager
def locked(lock):
    lock.acquire()
    try:
        yield
    finally:
        lock.release()
```

Context Manager with as

Seen in files

```
with open('/tmp/foo') as fin:
    # do something with fin
# fin is automatically closed here
```

Context Manager with as (2)

```
class style
```

```
class a_cm:
    def __init__(self):
        # init

def __enter__(self):
        # enter logic
        return self
    def __exit__(self, type, value, tb):
        # exit logic
```

Context Manager with as (3)

generator style yield object

from contextlib import contextmanager

```
@contextmanager
def a_cm():
    # enter logic
    try:
        yield object
    finally:
        # exit logic
```

Uses for Context Managers

- Transactions
- Acquiring locks
- closing/cleaning up
- nesting for generating html/xml

Assignment

ctxmgr.py

Not covered

- class/static methods
- metaclasses

That's all

Questions? Tweet or email me

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```