

PyCon 2015 - Python Epiphanies

Overview

This tutorial, presented at PyCon 2015 in Montreal by Stuart Williams, is intended for intermediate Python users looking for a deeper understanding of the language. It attempts to correct some common misperceptions of how Python works. Python is very similar to other programming languages, but quite different in some subtle but important ways.

You'll learn by seeing and doing. We'll mostly use the interactive Python interpreter prompt, aka the Read Eval Print Loop (REPL). I'll be using Python version 3.4 but most of this will work identically in earlier versions.

Most exercise sections start out simple but increase quickly in difficulty in order to give more advanced students a challenge, so don't expect to finish all the exercises in each section. I encourage you to revisit them later.

I encourage you to *not* copy and paste code from this document when you do the exercises. By typing the code you will learn more. Also pause before you hit the Enter key and try to predict what will happen.

License: This PyCon 2015 *Python Epiphanies* Tutorial by Stuart Williams is licensed under a Creative Commons Attribution-Share Alike 2.5 Canada License (<http://creativecommons.org/licenses/by-sa/2.5/ca/>).

Python Epiphanies Tutorial
Presented at PyCon 2015
April 8th, 2015
Montreal, Quebec, Canada

Stuart Williams
stuart@swilliams.ca
@ceilous

Objects

```
>>> # Create objects via literals                                0
>>> 1                                                            1
>>> 3.14                                                         2
>>> 'walk'                                                       3
>>> # Pre-created objects via constants                         4
>>> True                                                         5
>>> False                                                        6
```

Everything in Python (at runtime) is an object and has:

- a single *value*,
- a single *type*,
- some number of *attributes*,
- one or more *base classes*,
- a single *id*, and
- (zero or) one or more *names* (in one or more namespaces).

```
>>> # Object have types                                          7
>>> type(1)                                                      8
>>> type(3.14)                                                   9
>>> type('walk')                                               10
>>> type(True)                                                  11

>>> # Objects have attributes                                    12

>>> True.__doc__                                                 13
>>> 'walk'.__add__                                              14
>>> callable('walk'.__add__)                                    15
>>> 'walk'.__add__('about')                                     16
>>> (2.0).hex                                                    17
```

>>> (2.0).hex()	18
>>> (4.0).hex()	19
>>> # Objects have base classes	20
>>> import inspect	21
>>> inspect.getmro(3)	22
>>> inspect.getmro(type(3))	23
>>> inspect.getmro(type('walk'))	24
>>> inspect.getmro(type(True))	25
>>> # Base classes are stored in attributes	26
>>> True.__class__	27
>>> True.__class__.__bases__	28
>>> True.__class__.__bases__[0]	29
>>> True.__class__.__bases__[0].__bases__[0]	30
>>> inspect.getmro(type(True))	31
>>> # Every object has one id (memory address in CPython)	32
>>> id(3)	33
>>> id(3.14)	34
>>> id('walk')	35
>>> id(True)	36
>>> # Create objects by calling an object (function, method, class)	37
>>> abs	38
>>> callable(abs)	39
>>> abs(-3)	40
>>> int	41
>>> callable(int)	42
>>> int(3.14)	43
>>> 'walk'.__len__	44
>>> 'walk'.__len__()	45
>>> 'walk'.__add__	46
>>> 'walk'.__add__('about')	47
>>> dict	48
>>> dict()	49
>>> dict(pi=3.14, e=2.71)	50

Exercises: Objects

>>> 5.0	51
>>> dir(5.0)	52
>>> 5.0.__add__	53
>>> callable(5.0.__add__)	54
>>> 5.0.__add__()	55
>>> 5.0.__add__(4)	56
>>> 4.__add__	57
>>> (4).__add__	58
>>> (4).__add__(5)	59
>>> import sys	60
>>> size = sys.getsizeof	61
>>> size('w')	62
>>> size('walk')	63
>>> size(2)	64
>>> size(2**30 - 1)	65
>>> size(2**30)	66
>>> size(2**60-1)	67
>>> size(2**60)	68
>>> size(2**1000)	69

Names

>>> # We can add names to refer to objects	70
>>> # Adding names to a namespace is like updating a dictionary	71
>>> dir()	72
>>> def __names():	73

```

...     return dict([(k, v) for (k, v) in globals().items()
...     if not k.startswith('__')])

>>> __names()
>>> a
>>> a = 300
>>> __names()
>>> a
>>> a = 400
>>> __names()
>>> a
>>> b = a
>>> b
>>> a
>>> __names()
>>> id(a)
>>> id(b)
>>> a is b
>>> a = 'walk'
>>> a
>>> b
>>> del a
>>> __names()
>>> del b

>>> # object attributes are like dictionaries of dictionaries

>>> my_namespace = {}
>>> my_namespace['r'] = {}
>>> my_namespace['r']['x'] = 1.0
>>> my_namespace['r']['y'] = 2.0
>>> my_namespace['r']['x']
>>> my_namespace['r']
>>> my_namespace

>>> # For Python < 3.3 use class SimpleNamespace: pass
>>> import types
>>> r = types.SimpleNamespace()

>>> r.x = 1.0
>>> r.y = 1.0
>>> r.x
>>> r.y

>>> # 'is' checks identity (via 'id'), not equality
>>> i = 10
>>> j = 10
>>> i is j

>>> i = 500
>>> j = 500
>>> i is j

>>> # CPython-specific optimizations
>>> id(254)
>>> id(255)
>>> id(256)
>>> id(257)
>>> id(258)

```

Exercises: Names

Restart Python to unclutter the local namespace.

```

>>> i
>>> dir()
>>> i = 1
>>> i
>>> dir()
>>> type(i)
>>> j = i
>>> i is j

```

>>> m = [1, 2, 3]	131
>>> m	132
>>> n = m	133
>>> n	134
>>> dir()	135
>>> m is n	136
>>> m[1] = 'two'	137
>>> m	138
>>> n	139
>>> s = t = 'hello'	140
>>> s	141
>>> s is t, id(s), id(t)	142
>>> s += ' there'	143
>>> s	144
>>> s is t, id(s), id(t)	145
>>> m = n = [1, 2, 3]	146
>>> m	147
>>> m is n, id(m), id(n)	148
>>> m += [4]	149
>>> m	150
>>> n	151
>>> m is n, id(m), id(n)	152
>>> int.__add__	153
>>> int.__add__ = int.__sub__	154
>>> new_object = object()	155
>>> dir(None)	156
>>> len(dir(None)), len(dir(new_object))	157
>>> set(dir(None)) - set(dir(new_object))	158
>>> import sys	159
>>> refs = sys.getrefcount	160
>>> refs(None)	161
>>> refs(object)	162
>>> refs(new_object)	163
>>> sentinel = object()	164
>>> sentinel == object()	165
>>> sentinel == sentinel	166
>>> refs(1)	167
>>> refs(2)	168
>>> refs(25)	169
>>> [sys.getrefcount(i) for i in range(266)]	170

Namespaces

A *namespace* is a mapping from valid identifier names to objects. Think of it as a dictionary.

Assignment is a namespace operation, not an operation on variables or objects.

A *scope* is a section of Python code where a namespace is *directly* accessible.

For a *directly* accessible namespace you access values in the (namespace) dictionary by key alone, e.g. s2 instead of my_namespace['s2'].

For *indirectly* accessible namespace you access values via dot notation, e.g. dict.__doc__ or sys.version_info.major.

The (*direct*) namespace search order is (from <http://docs.python.org/tutorial>):

- #1: the innermost scope contains local names
- #2: the namespaces of enclosing functions, searched starting with the nearest enclosing scope; (or the module if outside any function)
- #3: the middle scope contains the current module's global names
- #4: the outermost scope is the namespace containing built-in names

All namespace *changes* happen in the local scope (i.e. in the current scope in which the namespace-changing code executes):

- = i.e. assignment
- del
- import
- def
- class

Other namespace changes:

- function parameters: `def foo(NEW_NAME):`
- for loop: `for NEW_NAME in ...`
- except clause: `Exception as NEW_NAME:`
- with clause: `with open(filename) as NEW_NAME:`
- docstrings: `__doc__`

```
>>> len 171
>>> def f1(): 172
...     def len():
...         len = range(3)
...         print("In f1's len(), len = {}".format(len))
...         return 'Returning len: {!r}'.format(len)
...     print('In f1(), len = {}'.format(len))
...     return len()

>>> f1() 173
>>> def f2(): 174
...     def len():
...         # len = range(3)
...         print("In f2's len(), len = {}".format(len))
...         return 'Returning len: {!r}'.format(len)
...     print('In f2(), len = {}'.format(len))
...     return len()

>>> f2() 175
>>> len 176
>>> len = 99 177
>>> def f3(s): 178
...     print('len(s) == {}'.format(len(s)))

>>> f3('walk') 179
>>> len 180
>>> del len 181
>>> len 182
>>> f3('walk') 183
>>> pass 184
>>> pass = 3 185
>>> del 186
```

Keywords:

False	class	finally	is	return
None	continue	for	lambda	try
True	def	from	nonlocal	while
and	del	global	not	with
as	elif	if	or	yield
assert	else	import	pass	
break	except	in	raise	

Namespaces: function locals

Let's look at some surprising behaviour:

```
>>> x = 1 187
>>> def test1(): 188
...     print('In test1 x ==', x)

>>> test1() 189

>>> def test2(): 190
...     x = 2
```

```

...     print('In test2 x ==', x)

>>> x
>>> test2()
>>> x

>>> def test3():
...     print('In test3 ==', x)
...     x = 3

>>> x
>>> test3()
>>> x

>>> test3.__code__
>>> test3.__code__.co_argcount
>>> test3.__code__.co_name
>>> test3.__code__.co_names
>>> test3.__code__.co_nlocals
>>> test3.__code__.co_varnames # tuple of local names

```

"If a name is declared global, then all references and assignments go directly to the middle scope containing the module's global names. Otherwise, all variables found outside of the innermost scope are read-only (an attempt to write to such a variable will simply create a new local variable in the innermost scope, leaving the identically named outer variable unchanged)." [Python tutorial section 9.2 at <http://docs.python.org/tutorial>]

```

>>> def test4():
...     global x
...     print('In test4 before, x ==', x)
...     x = 4
...     print('In test4 after, x ==', x)

>>> x
>>> test4()
>>> x

>>> test4.__code__.co_varnames

>>> def test5():
...     x = 5
...     def test6():
...         nonlocal x
...         print('test6 before x ==', x)
...         x = 6
...         print('test6 after x ==', x)
...     print('test5 before x ==', x)
...     test6()
...     print('test5 after x ==', x)

>>> x = 1
>>> x
>>> test5()
>>> x

```

The Local Namespace

```

>>> help(dir)
>>> dir()

>>> import builtins, collections, inspect, textwrap

>>> fill = textwrap.TextWrapper(width=60).fill
>>> def pfill(pairs):
...     print(fill(' '.join(
...         (n for (n, o) in sorted(pairs)))))

>>> members = set([
...     m for m in inspect.getmembers(builtins)
...     if not m[0].startswith('_')])

>>> len(members)
>>> exceptions = [

```

```

...     (name, obj) for (name, obj) in members
...     if inspect.isclass(obj) and
...     issubclass(obj, BaseException)]
>>> members -= set(exceptions) 222
>>> len(exceptions) 223
>>> pfill(exceptions) 224
>>> len(members) 225
>>> pfill(members) 226
>>> type(int) 227
>>> type(len) 228
>>> bnames = collections.defaultdict(set) 229
>>> for name, obj in members: 230
...     bnames[type(obj)].add((name, obj))
>>> for typ in [type(int), type(len)]: 231
...     pairs = bnames.pop(typ)
...     print(typ)
...     pfill(pairs)
...     print()
>>> for typ, pairs in bnames.items(): 232
...     print('{:}: {}'.format(typ, ' '.join((n for (n, o) in pairs))))

```

Exercises: Namespaces

```

>>> locals().keys() 233
>>> globals().keys() 234
>>> locals() == globals() 235
>>> locals() is globals() # Not always True 236
>>> x 237
>>> locals()['x'] 238
>>> locals()['x'] = 1 239
>>> locals()['x'] 240
>>> x 241
>>> dir() 242

```

Most builtins are unsurprising cases of type exception, type built-in function, or type. Explore some of the following surprising ones via introspection (e.g. `type`, `inspect.getmro`, and `help`) or the Python documentation:

- ...
- Ellipsis
- NotImplementedType
- True, None

```

>>> import inspect 243
>>> inspect.getmro(type(True)) 244

```

Namespace Changes

Remember, these change or modify a namespace:

- assignment
- [`globals()` and `locals()`]
- `import`
- `def`
- `class`
- `del`
- [also `def`, `for`, `except`, `with`, `docstrings`]

Next we'll explore `import`.

>>> dir()	245
>>> import pprint	246
>>> dir()	247
>>> pprint	248
>>> dir(pprint)	249
>>> print('\n'.join([a for a in dir(pprint)	250
... if not a.startswith('_')]))	
>>> pprint.pformat	251
>>> pprint.pprint	252
>>> pprint.foo	253
>>> foo	254
>>> pprint.foo = 'Python is dangerous'	255
>>> pprint.foo	256
>>> from pprint import pformat as pprint_pformat	257
>>> dir()	258
>>> pprint.pformat is pprint_pformat	259
>>> pprint	260
>>> pprint.pformat	261
>>> del pprint	262
>>> import pprint as pprint_module	263
>>> dir()	264
>>> pprint_module.pformat is pprint_pformat	265
>>> module_name = 'string'	266
>>> import importlib	267
>>> string_module = importlib.import_module(module_name)	268
>>> string_module.ascii_uppercase	269
>>> string	270
>>> import module_name	271
>>> import 'string'	272
>>> import string	273

File structure:

folder1/	
file1.py	
module1/	
__init__.py -- zero length	
file1.py:	
attribute1 = 1	
>>> dir()	274
>>> import folder1	275
>>> dir(folder1)	276
>>> hasattr(folder1, '__path__')	277
>>> import folder1.file1	278
>>> dir(folder1.file1)	279
>>> import module1	280
>>> dir()	281
>>> dir(module1)	282
>>> import module1.file1	283
>>> dir()	284
>>> dir(module1)	285
>>> dir(module1.file1)	286
>>> from module1 import file1	287
>>> dir()	288
>>> dir(file1)	289

Exercises: The import statement

>>> import pprint	290
>>> dir(pprint)	291
>>> pprint.__doc__	292
>>> pprint.__file__	293
>>> pprint.__name__	294
>>> pprint.__package__	295

>>> from pprint import *	296
>>> dir()	297
>>> import importlib	298
>>> importlib.reload(csv)	299
>>> importlib.reload('csv')	300
>>> import csv	301
>>> importlib.reload('csv')	302
>>> importlib.reload(csv)	303
>>> import sys	304
>>> sys.path	305

Functions

>>> def f():	306
... pass	
>>> f.__name__	307
>>> dir()	308
>>> f.__name__ = 'g'	309
>>> dir()	310
>>> f.__name__	311
>>> f	312
>>> f.__qualname__ # Python >= 3.3	313
>>> f.__qualname__ = 'g'	314
>>> f	315
>>> f.__dict__	316
>>> f.foo = 'bar'	317
>>> f.__dict__	318
>>> def f(a, b, k1='k1', k2='k2',	319
... *args, **kwargs):	
... print('a: {!r}, b: {!r}, '	
... 'k1: {!r}, k2: {!r}')	
... .format(a, b, k1, k2))	
... print('args:', repr(args))	
... print('kwargs:', repr(kwargs))	
>>> f.__defaults__	320
>>> f(1, 2)	321
>>> f(a=1, b=2)	322
>>> f(b=1, a=2)	323
>>> f(1, 2, 3)	324
>>> f(1, 2, k2=4)	325
>>> f(1, k1=3)	326
>>> f(1, 2, 3, 4, 5, 6)	327
>>> f(1, 2, 3, 4, keya=7, keyb=8)	328
>>> f(1, 2, 3, 4, 5, 6, keya=7, keyb=8)	329
>>> def g(a, b, *args, c=None):	330
... print('a: {!r}, b: {!r}, '	
... 'args: {!r}, c: {!r}')	
... .format(a, b, args, c))	
>>> g.__defaults__	331
>>> g.__kwdefaults__	332
>>> g(1, 2, 3, 4)	333
>>> g(1, 2, 3, 4, c=True)	334
>>> def h(a=None, *args, b=None):	335
... print('a: {!r}, args: {!r}, '	
... 'b: {!r}')	
... .format(a, args, b))	
>>> h.__defaults__	336
>>> h.__kwdefaults__	337
>>> h(1, 2, 3, 4)	338
>>> h(1, 2, 3, 4, b=True)	339

Exercises: Functions

```
>>> def f(*args, **kwargs):
...     print(repr(args), repr(kwargs))
340

>>> f(1)
341
>>> f(1, 2)
342
>>> f(1, a=3, b=4)
343

>>> t = 1, 2
344
>>> t
345
>>> d = dict(k1=3, k2=4)
346
>>> d
347
>>> f(*t)
348
>>> f(**d)
349
>>> f(*t, **d)
350

>>> m = 'one two'.split()
351
>>> f(1, 2, *m)
352

>>> locals()
353
>>> name = 'Dad'
354
>>> 'Hi {name}'.format(**locals())
355

>>> def f2(a: 'x', b: 5, c: None, d:list) -> float:
...     pass
356

>>> f2.__annotations__
357
```

Lists are mutable, strings are not

```
>>> # First with ``=`` and ``+=``, then with ``+=``:
358

>>> s1 = s2 = 'hello'
359
>>> s1 = s1 + ' there'
360
>>> s1, s2
361

>>> s1 = s2 = 'hello'
362
>>> s1 += ' there'
363
>>> s1, s2
364

>>> m1 = m2 = [1, 2, 3]
365
>>> m1 = m1 + [4]
366
>>> m1, m2
367

>>> m1 = m2 = [1, 2, 3]
368
>>> m1 += [4]
369
>>> m1, m2
370

>>> # Why?
371
>>> # += is its own operator, not identical to foo = foo + 1
372

>>> import codeop, dis
373
>>> dis.dis(codeop.compile_command('m = [1, 2, 3]; m += [4]'))
374
>>> dis.dis(codeop.compile_command('s = 'hello'; s += ' there'))
375

>>> m = [1, 2, 3]
376
>>> m
377
>>> m.__iadd__([4]) # note return value
378
>>> m
379

>>> s1.__iadd__(' there')
380
```

The difference is because `str.__iadd__` copies, but `list.__iadd__` mutates.

https://docs.python.org/3/reference/datamodel.html#object.__iadd__:

These methods are called to implement the augmented arithmetic assignments (`+=`, etc.). These methods should attempt to do the operation in-place (modifying `self`) and return the result (which could be, but does not have to be, `self`). If a specific method is not defined, the augmented assignment falls back to the normal methods.

```

>>> t1 = (1, 2) 381
>>> t1[0] += 1 382
>>> t2[0] = 1 + 1 383

>>> t2 = (['one'],) 384
>>> t2 385
>>> t2[0] += ['two'] 386
>>> t2 387

>>> t2 = (['one'],) 388
>>> t2 389
>>> result = t2[0].__iadd__(['two']) 390
>>> result 391
>>> t2[0] 392
>>> t2[0] = result 393
>>> t2 394

```

Parameters by reference

```

>>> def test1(s): 395
...     print('Before:', s)
...     s += ' there'
...     print('After:', s)

>>> str2 = 'hello' 396
>>> str2 397
>>> test1(str2) 398
>>> str2 399
>>> test1('hello') 400

>>> def test2(m): 401
...     print('Before:', m)
...     m += [4]
...     print('After:', m)

>>> list3 = [1, 2, 3] 402
>>> list3 403
>>> test2(list3) 404
>>> list3 405

```

Decorators

A decorator modifies an existing function:

- Before it starts executing
 - Including changing parameters
- After it's done executing
 - Including changing what is returned

```

>>> def square(n): 406
...     return n * n

>>> square(2) 407
>>> square(3) 408

>>> def trace_function(f): 409
...     def new_f(*args):
...         print(
...             'called {}({!r})'
...             .format(f.__qualname__, *args))
...         result = f(*args)
...         print('returning', result)
...         return result
...     return new_f

>>> traced_square = trace_function(square) 410
>>> traced_square(2) 411
>>> traced_square(3) 412

```

```

>>> @trace_function
>>> def cube(n):
...     return n ** 3
413
414

>>> cube(2)
415
>>> cube(3)
416

>>> def memoize(f):
...     cache = {}
...     def memoized_f(*args):
...         if args in cache:
...             print('Hit!')
...             return cache[args]
...         if args not in cache:
...             result = f(*args)
...             cache[args] = result
...             return result
...     return memoized_f
417

>>> @memoize
>>> def cube(n):
...     return n ** 3
418
419

>>> cube(2)
420
>>> cube(3)
421
>>> cube(2)
422

```

Exercises: Decorators

A decorator is a function that takes a function as a parameter and *typically* returns a new function, but it can return anything. The following code misuses decorators to make you think about their mechanics, which are really quite simple. What does it do?

```

>>> del x
>>> x
423
424

>>> def return_3(f):
...     return 3
425

>>> @return_3
>>> def x():
...     pass
426
427

>>> x
428
>>> type(x)
429

```

Here's equivalent code without using @decorator syntax:

```

>>> # Without decorator syntax
>>> del x
>>> x
>>> def x():
...     pass
430
431
432
433

>>> x
434
>>> x = return_3(x)
435
>>> x
436

```

Another decorator:

```

>>> def doubler(f):
...     def new_f(*args):
...         return 2 * f(*args)
...     return new_f
437

>>> @doubler
>>> def cube(n):
...     return n ** 3
438
439

>>> cube(1)
440
>>> cube(2)
441

```

```

>>> @doubler
>>> def create_list(a, b):
...     return [a, b]
442
443

>>> create_list(1, 2)
444

>>> class Counter:
...     def __init__(self):
...         self.count = 0
...     def __call__(self, *args):
...         self.count += 1
445

>>> c = Counter()
>>> c.count
>>> c()
>>> c()
>>> c.count
446
447
448
449
450

>>> class function_counter:
...     def __init__(self, f):
...         print('function_counter.__init__ called')
...         self.f = f
...         self.count = 0
...     def __call__(self, *args):
...         print('function_counter.__call__ called')
...         self.count += 1
...         return self.f(*args)
451

>>> def plural(s):
...     return s + 's'
452

>>> plural_counter = function_counter(plural)
453

>>> plural_counter('dog')
>>> plural_counter('cat')
>>> plural_counter.count
454
455
456

>>> @function_counter
>>> def plural(s):
...     return s + 's'
457
458

>>> plural('dog')
>>> plural.count
459
460

```

The class statement

1. The `class` statement, which starts a block of code, creates a new namespace and all the name changes in the block, i.e. assignment and function definitions, are made in that new namespace. It also creates a name for the class in the namespace of the module where it appears.

2. Instances of a class are created by calling the class: `ClassName()` or `ClassName(parameters)`.

`ClassName.__init__(<new object>, ...)` is called automatically, passing as first parameter an object, the new instance of the class, which was created by a call to `__new__()`.

3. Accessing an attribute `method_name` on a class instance returns a *method object*, if `method_name` references a method (in `ClassName` or its superclasses). A method object binds the class instance as the first parameter to the method.

Number class:

```

class Number():
    def __init__(self, amount):
        self.amount = amount

    def add(self, value):
        print('Call: add({!r}, {!r})'.format(self, value))
        return self.amount + value

>>> class Number():
461

```

```

...     """A number class."""
...     # This comment satisfies the REPL
...     __version__ = '1.0'
...     #
...     def __init__(self, amount):
...         self.amount = amount
...     #
...     def add(self, value):
...         """Add a value to the number."""
...         print('Call: add({!r}, {!r})'.format(self, value))
...         return self.amount + value

>>> Number
462
>>> Number.__version__
463
>>> Number.__doc__
464
>>> help(Number)
465
>>> Number.__init__
466
>>> Number.add
467
>>> dir(Number)
468
>>> def dirp(obj):
469
...     return [n for n in dir(obj) if not n.startswith('__')]

>>> dirp(Number)
470

>>> number2 = Number(2)
471
>>> number2.amount
472
>>> number2
473
>>> number2.__init__
474
>>> number2.add
475
>>> dirp(number2)
476
>>> set(dir(number2)) - set(dir(Number))
477
>>> set(dir(Number)) - set(dir(number2))
478
>>> number2.__dict__
479
>>> Number.__dict__
480

>>> number2.add
481
>>> number2.add(3)
482
>>> Number.add
483
>>> # Warning - unusual code ahead
484
>>> Number.add(2)
485
>>> Number.add(2, 3)
486
>>> Number.add(number2, 3)
487

>>> number2.add(3)
488

>>> # Warning - weird code ahead
489
>>> def set_double_amount(number, amount):
490
...     number.amount = 2 * amount

>>> Number.__init__
491
>>> help(Number.__init__)
492
>>> Number.__init__ = set_double_amount
493
>>> Number.__init__
494
>>> help(Number.__init__)
495

>>> number4 = Number(2)
496
>>> number4.amount
497
>>> number4.add(5)
498
>>> number4.__init__
499
>>> number2.__init__
500

>>> def multiply_by(number, value):
501
...     return number.amount * value

>>> # I intentionally make a mistake...
502
>>> number4.mul = multiply_by
503
>>> number4.mul
504
>>> number4.mul(5)
505
>>> number4.mul(number4, 5)
506
>>> # Where's the mistake?
507
>>> number10 = Number(5)
508
>>> number10.mul
509
>>> dirp(number10)
510
>>> dirp(Number)
511
>>> dirp(number4)
512

```

>>> Number.mul = multiply_by	513
>>> number10.mul(5)	514
>>> number4.mul(5)	515
>>> dirp(number4)	516
>>> number4.__dict__	517
>>> number4.mul	518
>>> del number4.mul	519
>>> dirp(number4)	520
>>> number4.mul	521
>>> Number.mul	522
>>> number4.mul(5)	523
>>> # Behind the curtain	524
>>> Number	525
>>> number4	526
>>> Number.add	527
>>> number4.add	528
>>> dirp(number4.add)	529
>>> set(dir(number4.add)) - set(dir(Number.add))	530
>>> number4.add.__self__	531
>>> number4.add.__self__ is number4	532
>>> add_value_to_number_4 = number4.add	533
>>> add_value_to_number_4(6)	534
>>> number4.add.__func__	535
>>> number4.add.__self__	536
>>> number4.add.__func__ is Number.add	537
>>> number4.add.__func__ is number10.add.__func__	538
>>> number4.add(5)	539
>>> number4.add.__func__(number4.add.__self__, 5)	540

The type function for classes

"The class statement is just a way to call a function, take the result, and put it into a namespace." -- Glyph Lefkowitz in *Turtles All The Way Down...* at PyCon 2010

`type(name, bases, dict)` is the function that gets called when a `class` statement is used to create a class.

>>> print(type.__doc__)	541
>>> # Let's use the type function to build a class:	542
>>> def __init__(self, amount):	543
... self.amount = amount	
>>> def __add__(self, value):	544
... return self.amount + value	
>>> Number = type(545
... 'Number',	
... (object,),	
... { '__init__': __init__,	
... 'add': __add__,	
... })	
>>> number3 = Number(3)	546
>>> type(number3)	547
>>> number3.__class__	548
>>> number3.__dict__	549
>>> number3.amount	550
>>> number3.add(4)	551
>>> # The *right* way:	552
>>> class Number:	553
... def __init__(self, amount):	
... self.amount = amount	
... #	
... def add(self, value):	
... return self.amount + value	

```

>>> number2 = Number(2) 554
>>> number2.amount 555
>>> number2.add(3) 556

```

By default, classes are constructed using `type()`. The class body is executed in a new namespace and the class name is bound locally to the result of `type(name, bases, namespace)`.

The class creation process can be customised by passing the metaclass keyword argument in the class definition line, or by inheriting from an existing class that included such an argument.

<https://docs.python.org/3.4/reference/datamodel.html#customizing-class-creation>

```

>>> class Number(metaclass=type): # default metaclass is type 557
...     def __init__(self, amount):
...         self.amount = amount

```

Exercises: The class statement

What does the following code do? Note that `return_5` ignores its arguments.

```

>>> def return_5(name, bases, namespace): 558
...     return 5
...
...     return_5(None, None, None)

>>> x = return_5(None, None, None) 559
>>> x 560
>>> type(x) 561
>>> dir() 562

>>> class y(metaclass=return_5): 563
...     pass

>>> dir() 564
>>> y 565
>>> type(y) 566

```

We saw how decorators are applied to functions. They can also be applied to classes. What does the following code do?

```

>>> # Apply a decorator to a class 567
>>> def return_6(klass): 568
...     return 6

>>> return_6(None) 569

>>> dir() 570
>>> @return_6 571
>>> class z: 572
...     pass

>>> dir() 573
>>> z 574
>>> type(z) 575

```

Class decorator example

```

>>> def class_counter(klass): 576
...     """Modify klass to count class instantiations"""
...     klass.count = 0
...     klass.__init_orig__ = klass.__init__
...     def new_init(self, *args, **kwargs):
...         klass.count += 1
...         klass.__init_orig__(self, *args, **kwargs)
...     klass.__init__ = new_init
...     return klass

>>> @class_counter 577
>>> class TC: 578

```



```
...     pass
...
... TC.count
... TC()
... TC()
... TC.count
```

Standard class methods

- `__new__`, `__init__`, `__del__`, `__repr__`, `__str__`, `__format__`
- `__getattr__`, `__getattribute__`, `__setattr__`, `__delattr__`, `__call__`, `__dir__`
- `__len__`, `__getitem__`, `__missing__`, `__setitem__`, `__delitem__`, `__contains__`, `__iter__`, `__next__`
- `__lt__`, `__le__`, `__gt__`, `__ge__`, `__eq__`, `__ne__`, `__cmp__`, `__nonzero__`, `__hash__`
- `__add__`, `__sub__`, `__mul__`, `__div__`, `__floordiv__`, `__mod__`, `__divmod__`, `__pow__`, `__and__`, `__xor__`, `__or__`, `__lshift__`, `__rshift__`, `__neg__`, `__pos__`, `__abs__`, `__invert__`, `__iadd__`, `__isub__`, `__imul__`, `__idiv__`, `__itruediv__`, `__ifloordiv__`, `__imod__`, `__ipow__`, `__iand__`, `__ixor__`, `__ior__`, `__ilshift__`, `__irshift__`
- `__int__`, `__long__`, `__float__`, `__complex__`, `__oct__`, `__hex__`, `__coerce__`
- `__radd__`, `__rsub__`, `__rmul__`, `__rdiv__`, etc.
- `__enter__`, `__exit__`

```
>>> class UpperAttr:
...     """
...     A class that returns uppercase values
...     on uppercase attribute access.
...     """
...     def __getattr__(self, name):
...         if name.isupper():
...             if name.lower() in self.__dict__:
...                 return self.__dict__[
...                     name.lower()].upper()
...             raise AttributeError(
...                 "'{}' object has no attribute {}".format(
...                     self, name))

>>> d = UpperAttr()
>>> d.__dict__
>>> d.foo = 'bar'
>>> d.foo
>>> d.__dict__
>>> d.FOO
>>> d.baz
```

Optional Exercises: Standard class methods

Try the following (in a file if that's easier):

```
>>> class Get:
...     def __getitem__(self, key):
...         print('called __getitem__({} {})'.format(
...             type(key), repr(key)))

>>> g = Get()
>>> g[1]
>>> g[-1]
>>> g[0:3]
>>> g[0:10:2]
>>> g['Jan']
>>> g[g]

>>> m = list('abcdefghij')
>>> m[0]
>>> m[-1]
>>> m[:2]
>>> s = slice(3)
>>> m[s]
>>> m[slice(1, 3)]
>>> m[slice(0, 2)]
```

```
>>> m[slice(0, len(m), 2)]
>>> m[::2]
```

603
604

Properties

```
>>> class PropertyExample:
...     def __init__(self):
...         self._x = None
...     def getx(self):
...         print('called getx()')
...         return self._x
...     def setx(self, value):
...         print('called setx()')
...         self._x = value
...     def delx(self):
...         print('del x')
...         del self._x
...     x = property(getx, setx, delx, "The 'x' property.")

>>> p = PropertyExample()

>>> p.setx('foo')
>>> p.getx()
>>> p.x = 'bar'
>>> p.x
>>> del p.x
```

605

606
607
608
609
610
611

Iterators

- A for loop evaluates an expression to get an *iterable* and then calls `iter()` to get an iterator.
- The iterator's `__next__()` method is called repeatedly until `StopIteration` is raised.
- `iter(foo)`
 - checks for `foo.__iter__()` and calls it if it exists
 - else checks for `foo.__getitem__()` and returns an object which calls it starting at zero and handles `IndexError` by raising `StopIteration`.

```
>>> class MyList:
...     def __init__(self, sequence):
...         self.items = sequence
...     #
...     def __getitem__(self, key):
...         print('called __getitem__({})'
...               .format(key))
...         return self.items[key]

>>> m = MyList(['a', 'b', 'c'])

>>> m.__getitem__(0)
>>> m.__getitem__(1)
>>> m.__getitem__(2)
>>> m.__getitem__(3)

>>> m[0]
>>> m[1]
>>> m[2]
>>> m[3]

>>> hasattr(m, '__iter__')
>>> hasattr(m, '__getitem__')
>>> it = iter(m)
>>> it.__next__()
>>> it.__next__()
>>> it.__next__()
>>> it.__next__()

>>> list(m)

>>> for item in m:
```

612

613
614
615
616
617

618
619
620
621

622
623
624
625
626
627
628

629
630

```
...     print(item)
```

Optional Iterators

```
>>> m = [1, 2, 3] 631
>>> reversed(m) 632
>>> it = reversed(m) 633
>>> type(it) 634
>>> dir(it) 635
>>> it.__next__() 636
>>> it.__next__() 637
>>> it.__next__() 638
>>> it.__next__() 639
>>> it.__next__() 640
>>> it.__next__() 641

>>> m 642
>>> for i in m: 643
...     print(i)

>>> m.__getitem__(0) 644
>>> m.__getitem__(1) 645
>>> m.__getitem__(2) 646
>>> m.__getitem__(3) 647

>>> it = reversed(m) 648
>>> it2 = it.__iter__() 649
>>> hasattr(it2, '__next__') 650

>>> m = [2 * i for i in range(3)] 651
>>> m 652
>>> type(m) 653

>>> mi = (2 * i for i in range(3)) 654
>>> mi 655
>>> type(mi) 656
>>> hasattr(mi, '__next__') 657
>>> dir(mi) 658
>>> help(mi) 659
>>> mi.__next__() 660
>>> mi.__next__() 661
>>> mi.__next__() 662
>>> mi.__next__() 663
```

Optional Exercises: Iterators

```
>>> m = [1, 2, 3] 664
>>> it = iter(m) 665
>>> it.__next__() 666
>>> it.__next__() 667
>>> it.__next__() 668
>>> it.__next__() 669

>>> for n in m: 670
...     print(n)

>>> d = {'one': 1, 'two': 2, 'three':3} 671
>>> it = iter(d) 672
>>> list(it) 673

>>> mi = (2 * i for i in range(3)) 674
>>> list(mi) 675
>>> list(mi) 676

>>> import itertools 677
```

Take a look at the `itertools` module documentation.

```
>>> m = [1, 2, 3] 678
```

>>> it1 = iter(m)	679
>>> it2 = iter(it1)	680
>>> list(it1)	681
>>> list(it2)	682
>>> it1 = iter(m)	683
>>> it2 = iter(m)	684
>>> list(it1)	685
>>> list(it2)	686
>>> list(it1)	687
>>> list(it2)	688

Generators

>>> list_comprehension = [2 * i for i in range(5)]	689
>>> list_comprehension	690
>>> gen_exp = (2 * i for i in range(5))	691
>>> gen_exp	692
>>> hasattr(gen_exp, '__next__')	693
>>> list(gen_exp)	694
>>> list(gen_exp)	695
>>> for i in (2 * i for i in range(5)):	696
... print(i)	
>>> def list123():	697
... yield 1	
... yield 2	
... yield 3	
>>> list123	698
>>> list123()	699
>>> it = list123()	700
>>> it.__next__()	701
>>> it.__next__()	702
>>> it.__next__()	703
>>> it.__next__()	704
>>> for i in list123():	705
... print(i)	
>>> def even(limit):	706
... for i in range(0, limit, 2):	
... print('Yielding', i)	
... yield i	
... print('done loop, falling out')	
>>> it = even(3)	707
>>> it	708
>>> it.__next__()	709
>>> it.__next__()	710
>>> it.__next__()	711
>>> for i in even(3):	712
... print(i)	
>>> list(even(10))	713

Compare these versions

>>> def even_1(limit):	714
... for i in range(0, limit, 2):	
... yield i	
>>> def even_2(limit):	715
... result = []	
... for i in range(0, limit, 2):	
... result.append(i)	
... return result	
>>> [i for i in even_1(10)]	716
>>> [i for i in even_2(10)]	717

```

>>> def paragraphs(lines):
...     result = ''
...     for line in lines:
...         if line.strip() == '':
...             yield result
...             result = ''
...         else:
...             result += line
...     yield result
718

>>> list(paragraphs(open('eg.txt')))
719
>>> len(list(paragraphs(open('eg.txt'))))
720

```

First class objects

Python exposes many language features and places almost no constraints on what types data structures can hold.

Here's an example of using a dictionary of functions to create a simple calculator. In some languages this require a case or switch statement, or a series of if statements. If you've been using such a language for a while, this example may help you expand the range of solutions you can imagine in Python.

```

>>> 7+3
721
>>> import operator
722
>>> operator.add(7, 3)
723

>>> expr = '7+3'
724
>>> lhs, op, rhs = expr
725
>>> lhs, op, rhs
726
>>> lhs, rhs = int(lhs), int(rhs)
727
>>> lhs, op, rhs
728
>>> op, lhs, rhs
729
>>> operator.add(lhs, rhs)
730

>>> ops = {
...     '+': operator.add,
...     '-': operator.sub,
...     }
731

>>> ops[op] (lhs, rhs)
732

>>> def calc(expr):
...     lhs, op, rhs = expr
...     lhs, rhs = int(lhs), int(rhs)
...     return ops[op] (lhs, rhs)
733

>>> calc('7+3')
734
>>> calc('9-5')
735
>>> calc('8/2')
736
>>> ops['/'] = operator.truediv
737
>>> calc('8/2')
738

>>> class Unpacker:
...     slices = {
...         'first': slice(0, 3),
...         'hyde': slice(9, 12),
...         'myname': slice(18, 21)
...     }
...     #
...     def __init__(self, record):
...         self.record = record
...     #
...     def __getattr__(self, attr):
...         if attr in self.slices:
...             return self.record[self.slices[attr]]
...         raise AttributeError(
...             "'Unpacker' object has no attribute '{}'"
...             .format(attr))
...
739

>>> u = Unpacker('abcdefghijklmnopqrstuvwxyz')
740

```

>>> u.first	741
>>> u.hyde	742
>>> u.myname	743

Optional: Closures and partial functions

>>> def log(message, subsystem):	744
... """	
... Write the contents of 'message'	
... to the specified subsystem.	
... """	
... print('LOG - {}: {}'.format(subsystem, message))	
>>> log('Initializing server', 'server')	745
>>> log('Reading config file', 'server')	746
>>> def server_log(message):	747
... log(message, 'server')	
>>> server_log('Initializing server')	748
>>> server_log('Reading config file')	749
>>> import functools	750
>>> server_log = functools.partial(log, subsystem='server')	751
>>> server_log	752
>>> server_log.func is log	753
>>> server_log.keywords	754
>>> server_log('Initializing server')	755
>>> server_log('Reading config file')	756

Bound methods are a form of partials:

>>> SENTENCE_ENDING = '.?!'	757
>>> sentence = 'This is a sentence!'	758
>>> sentence[-1] in SENTENCE_ENDING	759
>>> '.' in SENTENCE_ENDING	760
>>> SENTENCE_ENDING.__contains__('!')	761
>>> SENTENCE_ENDING.__contains__(',')	762
>>> is_sentence_ending = SENTENCE_ENDING.__contains__	763
>>> is_sentence_ending('.')	764
>>> is_sentence_ending(',')	765

Yet another way to bind some data is to create a class and give it a `__call__` method:

>>> class SentenceEnding:	766
... def __init__(self, characters):	
... self.punctuation = characters	
... #	
... def __call__(self, sentence):	
... return sentence[-1] in self.punctuation	
>>> is_sentence1 = SentenceEnding('.')	767
>>> is_sentence1('This is a test.')	768
>>> is_sentence1('This is a test!')	769
>>> is_sentence2 = SentenceEnding('.!?!')	770
>>> is_sentence2('This is a test.')	771
>>> is_sentence2('This is a test!')	772

Optional Exercises: namedtuple, operator

>>> import collections	773
>>> Month = collections.namedtuple(774
... 'Month', 'name number days', verbose=True)	
>>> jan = Month('January', 1, 31)	775

>>> jan.name	776
>>> jan[0]	777
>>> apr = Month('April', 3, 30)	778
>>> apr.days	779
>>> apr[2]	780
>>> jul = Month('July', 7, 31)	781
>>> m = [jan, apr, jul]	782
>>> def month_days(month):	783
... return month.days	
>>> import operator	784
>>> sorted(m, key=operator.itemgetter(0))	785
>>> sorted(m, key=operator.attrgetter('name'))	786
>>> sorted(m, key=operator.attrgetter('number'))	787

Evaluations