

THE PYTHON PROGRAMMING LANGUAGE

Part 2: Intermediate Topics

April 28, 2020

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Python Data Model

Operator Overloading

- **Python** provides a rich data model to allow user defined operator overloading facilities.
- Look at <https://docs.python.org/3/reference/datamodel.html>.
- By providing implementation to these special methods of the **object**, one can provide a standard set of features similar to built-in objects.

Making objects comparable

You can make your class instances comparable by defining the following special methods in your class definitions.

- `__lt__(self, other)`
- `__le__(self, other)`
- `__eq__(self, other)`
- `__ne__(self, other)`
- `__gt__(self, other)`
- `__ge__(self, other)`

Customizing Attribute Access

- By default, all attributes of a class and its instance are **public**.
- One can modify the default access behavior by defining the following special methods.
- `__getattr__(self, name)` - called if regular attribute lookup fails. Useful for providing computed attributes.
- `__getattribute__(self, name)` - unconditionally called for all attribute accesses. If defined, `__getattr__()` is not called unless this function raises `AttributeError`.

Customizing Attribute Access ...2

- `__setattr__(self, name, value)` - if defined, it is called when an attribute is assigned.
- `__delattr__(self, name)` - like `__setattr__` but called when an attribute is deleted.

Emulating Container Types

Containers usually are sequences or mappings. The following methods can be defined to implement container objects.

- `__len__(self)` - Called by the built-in function `len()`.
- `__getitem__(self, key)` - `key` is an integer for sequences and any immutable Python object for mappings.
- `__setitem__(self, key, value)` - called when you do `self[key] = value`
- `__delitem__(self, key)`

Emulating Container Types ...2

- `__iter__(self)` - optional, but desirable.
- `__reversed__(self)` - optional, but desirable. Should provide a reverse iterator.
- `__contains__(self, item)` - enables membership test with `in` operator.

Emulating Numeric Types

When you define some of the following methods, your class instances will behave as a numeric type for the corresponding operation.

- `__add__(self, other)`
- `__sub__(self, other)`
- `__mul__(self, other)`
- `__truediv__(self, other)`
- `__floordiv__(self, other)`
- `__mod__(self, other)`
- `__divmod__(self, other)`
- `__pow__(self, other[, modulo])`
- `__lshift__(self, other)`
- `__rshift__(self, other)`

Further Reading

See <https://docs.python.org/3/library/operator.html> for a complete list of operators that can be defined as functions.

Function Arguments

Arguments Destructuring

- Members in an iterable like a `list` or a `tuple` can be passed as positional arguments to a function by calling it as `func(*iterable)`.
- Contents of a dictionary can be passed as named arguments to a function by calling it as `func(**mydict)`.

```
1  def func(a, b, c):  
2      return a + b + c  # a simple function  
3  
4  x = [3, 9, 8] # a list containing the arguments  
5  print(func(*x)) # passes contents of list as positional arguments  
6  d = { "a": 3, "b": 9, "c": 8 } # dict having arguments  
7  print(func(**d)) # passes contents as named arguments
```

Variable number of arguments

- A function can be declared to collect variable number of positional arguments by using the `*args` notation in the function definition.
- Similarly, a function can be declared to collect variable number of named arguments by using the `**kwargs` notation in the function definition.

```
1  def func(*args):  
2      print(args) # args is a tuple containing all positional arguments  
3  
4  def func(**kwargs):  
5      for key in kwargs: #kwargs is a dict containing named arguments  
6          print(key, ":", kwargs[key])
```

Example with variable number of arguments

```
1  >>> def func(*args, **kwargs):
2      print("Positional args: ", args) #prints list of positional args
3      print("Named args:")
4      for key in kwargs: #kwargs is a dict with named arguments
5          print(key, ":", kwargs[key])
6  >>> func(3, 5, a=10, b=13, z=45) #call with both argument types
7  Positional args:  (3, 5)
8  Named args:
9  a : 10
10 b : 13
11 z : 45
12 >>>
```


Iterators

Defining an iterator

- An **iterator** is an object which can iterate over a collection in a defined order. The order depends on the implementation of the iterator.
- An iterator has to support 2 methods - `__iter__()` and `__next__()`.
- `__iter__()` returns the iterator object itself.
- `__next__()` returns the next object of the collection.

Defining a Collection that is Iterable

- The collection which is iterable should also define an `__iter__(self)` method which returns a new iterator object that can iterate over all the objects in the container.
- If a `__reversed__(self)` method is defined in the collection class, it should return a new iterator object that supports reverse iteration. This method is called when `reversed(collection)` builtin is called.

Calling an iterator

- An iterator to a collection can be obtained by calling the function `iter(collection)`. This internally calls `collection.__iter__()` to obtain an iterator.
- A reverse iterator to a collection can be obtained by calling the function `reversed(collection)`. This internally calls `collection.__reversed__()`, if the collection class has a definition for `__reversed__()` method. Else, a default reverse iterator object which uses `__getitem__()` and `__len__()` methods is returned.

- On the obtained iterator, you can successively get the next elements in 2 ways:
 - by calling `next(it)` successively. OR
 - by using the `for` loop as, `for item in it:`

Example iterator code

```
1  class MyCollection():
2      def __init__(self):
3          self.x=[]
4      def append(self, item):
5          self.x.append(item)
6      def __iter__(self):
7          return MyIterator(self.x) # return a new iterator
```

```
1  class MyIterator():
2      def __init__(self, coll):
3          self.coll = coll
4          self.i = 0 # index
5      def __iter__(self):
6          return self
7      def __next__(self):
8          if self.i < len(self.coll):
9              value = self.coll[self.i]
10             self.i += 1
11             return value
12         else:
13             raise StopIteration #for loop automatically terminates
```

Example of iterators - continued

```
1  c = MyCollection() # create a collection
2  c.append(3)
3  c.append(15.4)
4  c.append("Hello")
5  c.append(10)
6  it1 = iter(c) # get an iterator to c
7  print(next(it1)) #calls it1.__next__() internally
8  print(next(it1))
9  for item in it1: # iterate using a for loop
10     print(item)
11 print(next(it1)) # will raise StopIteration exception
12 it2 = iter(c) # get another iterator
13 print(next(it2)) # prints 3
14 for item in it2: # iterate on second iterator
15     print(item)
```


Further Reading

See <https://docs.python.org/3/library/itertools.html> for a list of rich and efficient iterator utilities.

Other Ways to Iterate

map

- `map(function, iterable, [iterable2, [iterable3,]],...)`
Return an iterator that applies function to every item of iterable, yielding the results.
- If additional iterable arguments are passed, function must take that many arguments and is applied to the items from all iterables in parallel.
- With multiple iterables, the iterator stops when the shortest iterable is exhausted.

map example

```
1  >> m = ["2.3", "4", "5.6", "1.4"]
2  >> n = list(map(float,m)) # [2.3, 4.0, 5.6, 1.4]
3  >> # should return [5.28999, 16.0, 31.35999, 1.95999]
4  >> squares = list(map(lambda x: x**2, n))
5  >> pow(2,10) #1024
6  >> pow(3,11) #177147
7  >> pow(4,12) #16777216
8  >> # should return [1024, 177147, 16777216]
9  >> list(map(pow,[2, 3, 4], [10, 11, 12]))
```

filter

- `filter(function, iterable)` Construct an iterator from those elements of `iterable` for which function returns true.
- `iterable` may be either a sequence, a container which supports iteration, or an iterator.
- If function is `None`, the identity function is assumed, that is, all elements of `iterable` that are false are removed.

- Note that `filter(function, iterable)` is equivalent to the generator expression.
 - `(item for item in iterable if function(item))` if `function` is not `None` and
 - `(item for item in iterable if item)` if `function` is `None`.

filter example

```
1  >> # [-5, -4, -3, -2, -1, 0, 1, 2, 3, 4]
2  >> list(range(-5,5))
3  >> evens = list(filter(lambda x: x%2 == 0, range(-5,5)))
4  >> # evens should be [-4, -2, 0, 2, 4]
5  >> data = [3, 5, 0, "Hello", "day", "", 23, [], None]
6  >> list(filter(None, data))
7  >> # should return [3, 5, 'Hello', 'day', 23]
8  >> # useful in skipping holes in external data
```

reduce

- `functools.reduce(function, iterable[, initializer])`
- Apply function of two arguments cumulatively to the items of sequence, from left to right, so as to reduce the sequence to a single value.
- For example, `reduce(lambda x, y: x+y, [1, 2, 3, 4, 5])` calculates `((((1+2)+3)+4)+5)`. The left argument, `x`, is the accumulated value and the right argument, `y`, is the update value from the sequence.
- If the optional initializer is present, it is placed before the items of the sequence in the calculation, and serves as a default when the sequence is empty. If initializer is not given and sequence contains only one item, the first item is returned.

reduce example

```
1  >>> from functools import reduce
2  >>> reduce(lambda x, y: x + y, [1, 2, 3, 4], 20)
3  30
4  >>> reduce(lambda x, y: x*y, [2], 3)
5  6
6  >>> reduce(lambda x, y: x*y, [2])
7  2
```

Further Reading

- See the `functools` module at <https://docs.python.org/3/library/functools.html>.
- This module is for **higher order functions**: functions that act on or return other functions.
- In general, any callable object (which defines `__call__()` method) can be treated as a function for this module.

Generators

Generator Functions

- Any function that contains a `yield` keyword is called a **generator function**.
- When the `yield` statement is executed, the control jumps from the function to the caller.
- After the caller communicates to the generator (through a `send` or a `next` command), the control jumps back to the point where the `yield` statement was executed.
- Generator functions can be used to get iterations instead of defining an iterator object.
- Generators can be shutdown using the `close()` method on them.

Generator Function Example

```
1  >> def countdown(n):
2  >>     print("Counting down from %d" % n)
3  >>     while n > 0:
4  >>         yield n
5  >>         n -= 1
6  >>     return
7
8  >> g = countdown(10) # creates a generator object
9  >> dir(g) # displays methods of generator
10 >> next(g) # internally calls g.__next__(). First execution of g
11 >> next(g) # similar to iterator, move forward
12 >> g.send(25) # you can also send a value to move forward
13 >> for item in g: # you can also use for loop
14 >>     print(item)
15 >> next(g) # raises a StopIteration exception
```

Generator Function as a co-routine Example

```
1  def line_splitter(delimiter=None):
2      print("Ready to split")
3      result = None
4      while True:
5          # yield result returns result
6          # line gets what was sent using send(obj) from user
7          line = (yield result)
8          result = line.split(delimiter)
9
10     s = line_splitter(",") # creates a generator object and binds to s
11     next(s) # start the first step, internally calls s.__next__()
12     print(s.send("A,B,C")) # outputs ['A', 'B', 'C' ]
13     print(s.send("100,200,300")) # outputs ['100', '200', '300']
```

Comprehensions

- Comprehension syntax allow expressions to be used to create a collection of objects.
- Comprehensions can be used to create any container - a list, a dict, a set or a generator.

Comprehensions Example

```
1  # list comprehension. Notice the filter
2  cubes = [i**3 for i in range(15) if i%2 == 1]
3  type(cubes)
4  print(cubes)
5  #dict comprehension
6  d = {key:val for key,val in enumerate("ABCDE")}
7  type(d)
8  print(d)
9  #set comprehension: set of even numbers
10 s = {i for i in range(10) if i % 2 == 0}
11 type(s)
12 print(s)
```



```
1  #Generator expression
2  g = (i**3 for i in range(13) if i % 2 == 1)
3  type(g)
4  print(g)
5  # Generator is evaluated only when needed
6  m = list(g)
```

Example contrasting all approaches

```
1  # generator
2  def uc_gen(text):
3      for char in text:
4          yield char.upper()
5
6  # generator expression
7  def uc_genexp(text):
8      return (char.upper() for char in text)
```

Example contrasting all approaches ..2

```
1  # iterator protocol
2  class uc_iter():
3      def __init__(self, text):
4          self.text = text
5          self.index = 0
6      def __iter__(self):
7          return self
8      def __next__(self):
9          try:
10             result = self.text[self.index].upper()
11         except IndexError:
12             raise StopIteration
13         self.index += 1
14         return result
```

Example contrasting all approaches ..3

```
1  #getitem method
2  class uc_getitem():
3      def __init__(self, text):
4          self.text = text
5      def __getitem__(self, index):
6          result = self.text[index].upper()
7          return result
8
9  # To see all four methods in action, try this:
10 for iterator in uc_gen, uc_genexp, uc_iter, uc_getitem:
11     for ch in iterator('abcde'):
12         print(ch, end=" ")
13     print()
14 # The output should be
15 A B C D E
16 A B C D E
17 A B C D E
18 A B C D E
```

Example: Processing Pipelines with Generators ..1

```
1  import os
2  import fnmatch
3
4  def find_files(topdir, pattern):
5      for path, dirname, filelist in os.walk(topdir):
6          for name in filelist:
7              if fnmatch.fnmatch(name, pattern):
8                  yield os.path.join(path, name)
9
10 import gzip, bz2
11 def opener(filenames):
12     for name in filenames:
13         if name.endswith(".gz"): f = gzip.open(name)
14         elif name.endswith(".bz2"): f = bz2.BZ2File(name)
15         else: f = open(name)
16     yield f
```

Example: Processing Pipelines with Generators ..2

```
1  def cat(filelist):  
2      for f in filelist:  
3          for line in f:  
4              yield line  
5  
6  def grep(pattern, lines):  
7      for line in lines:  
8          if pattern in line:  
9              yield line
```

Example: Processing Pipelines with Generators ..3

```
1  # create generators and chain them sequentially
2  wwwlogs = find("www", "access-log*")
3  files    = opener(wwwlogs)
4  lines    = cat(files)
5  pylines  = grep("python", lines)
6
7  # Until now, we only have a description of how the
8  # objects have to be created, but no actual creation.
9  # iterate over the last generator
10 for line in pylines:
11     # at this point all the chained generators are
12     # executed and the objects are created
13     sys.stdout.write(line)
```

Context Managers

Resource Management

- Proper management of system resources such as files, locks, and connections is often a tricky problem when combined with exceptions.
- For example, a raised exception can cause control flow to bypass statements responsible for releasing critical resources such as a lock.
- The `with` statement allows a series of statements to execute in a runtime context and guarantees to run the resource cleanup when control jumps out of this context.

with Statement Example

```
1  # Example 1
2  with open("debuglog","a") as f:
3      f.write("Debugging\n")
4      # some statements come here
5      f.write("Done\n")
6  # file is closed when we come out of the with block
7
8  # Example 2
9  import threading
10 lock = threading.Lock()
11 with lock:
12     # Critical section
13     # some statements
14     # End critical section
15 # lock is released when we come here
```

Supporting contexts in your class

- You can support the context management using `with` statement for user defined classes by defining `__enter__()` and `__exit__()` methods.
- `__enter__()` is executed when the `with` block is entered. You can acquire resources in this method.
- `__exit__()` is executed when control jumps out of the `with` block. You can release resources in this method.

Supporting contexts in your class ...2

```
1  class ListTransaction(object):
2      def __init__(self,thelist):
3          self.thelist = thelist
4      def __enter__(self):
5          self.workingcopy = list(self.thelist)
6          return self.workingcopy
7      def __exit__(self,type,value,tb):
8          if type is None:
9              self.thelist[:] = self.workingcopy
10         return False
```

Classes with Context - Example usage

```
1  items = [1,2,3]
2  with ListTransaction(items) as working:
3      working.append(4)
4      working.append(5)
5  print(items)          # Produces [1,2,3,4,5]
6
7  try:
8      with ListTransaction(items) as working:
9          working.append(6)
10         working.append(7)
11         raise RuntimeError("Forcing an exception")
12 except RuntimeError:
13     pass
14 print(items)          # Produces [1,2,3,4,5]. 6 & 7 are discarded
```

Decorators

Definition of Decorators

- A decorator is a function whose primary purpose is to wrap another function or class.
- The primary purpose of this wrapping is to transparently alter or enhance the behavior of the object being wrapped.

```
1  @trace
2  def square(x):
3      return x*x
4
5  # This is equivalent to:
6  def square(x):
7      return x*x
8  square = trace(square)
```

Tracing example

```
1  enable_tracing = True
2  if enable_tracing:
3      debug_log = open("debug.log", "w")
4
5  def trace(func):
6      if enable_tracing:
7          def callf(*args, **kwargs):
8              debug_log.write("Calling %s: %s, %s\n" %
9                              (func.__name__, args, kwargs))
10             r = func(*args, **kwargs)
11             debug_log.write("%s returned %s\n" % (func.__name, r))
12             return r
13         return callf
14      else:
15          return func
```


Tracing example

```
1  @trace
2  def square(x):
3      return x*x
```

Another Example - Memoization

```
1  def cache(func):
2      results = {} # dict acting as a cache
3      def wrap(*args):
4          key = tuple(args) # make it immutable
5          if key in results:
6              print("Returning pre-computed results!")
7              result = results[key]
8          else:
9              result = func(*args)
10             print("Computing a fresh result.")
11             results[key] = result
12         return result
13     return wrap
```

```
1  @cache
2  def heavy(a, b, c): return (a**b)**c
3  heavy(3, 4, 5) # fresh computation
4  heavy(7, 4, 6) # fresh computation
5  heavy(3, 4, 5) # returns stored result
6  heavy(7, 6, 4) # fresh computation
```

Using Multiple Decorators

- When multiple decorators are used, each one should apply in their own line. For example,

```
1  @trace
2  @cache
3  def grok(x):
4      pass
```

- This is equivalent to

```
1  def grok(x):
2      pass
3  grok = trace(cache(grok))
```

Passing Arguments to Decorators

- A decorator can also accept arguments. For example,

```
1  @eventhandler('BUTTON')
2  def handle_button(msg):
3      ...
4  @eventhandler('RESET')
5  def handle_reset(msg):
6      ...
7
8  # Event handler decorator
9  event_handlers = { }
10 def eventhandler(event):
11     def register_function(f):
12         event_handlers[event] = f
13         return f
14     return register_function
```

- A decorator can also be defined for classes, in which case the decorator should return a wrapped class.

The End

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Thank You