

301AA - Advanced Programming

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AP-28: Python: OOP, iterators and the GIL

Next topics

- OO Programming in Python, multiple inheritance
- Iterators and generators
- Garbage Collection, multi-threading and the GIL

OOP in Python

- Typical ingredients of the Object Oriented Paradigm:
 - **Encapsulation**: dividing the code into a public **interface**, and a private **implementation** of that interface;
 - **Inheritance**: the ability to create **subclasses** that contain specializations of their parent classes.
 - **Polymorphism**: The ability to **override** methods of a Class by extending it with a subclass (inheritance) with a more specific implementation (**inclusion polymorphism**)

From <https://docs.python.org/3/tutorial/classes.html>:

- *"Python classes provide all the standard features of Object Oriented Programming: the class inheritance mechanism allows multiple base classes, a derived class can override any methods of its base class or classes, and a method can call the method of a base class with the same name. Objects can contain arbitrary amounts and kinds of data. As is true for modules, classes partake of the dynamic nature of Python: they are created at runtime, and can be modified further after creation."*

Defining a class (object)

- A class is a blueprint for a new data type with specific internal *attributes* (like a struct in C) and internal functions (*methods*).
- To declare a class in Python the syntax is the following:

```
class className:  
    <statement-1>  
    ...  
    <statement-n>
```

- *statements* are assignments or function definitions
- A *new namespace* is created, where all names introduced in the statements will go.
- When the class definition is left, a *class object* is created, bound to *className*, on which two operations are defined: *attribute reference* and *class instantiation*.
- *Attribute reference* allows to access the names in the namespace in the usual way

Example: Attribute reference on a class object

```
class Point:
    x = 0
    y = 0
    def str(): # no capture: needs qualified names to refer to x and y
        return "x = " + (str) (Point.x) + ", y = " + (str) (Point.y)
#-----
import ...
>>> Point.x
0
>>> Point.y = 3
>>> Point.z = 5 # adding new name
>>> Point.z
5
>>> def add(m,n):
        return m+n
>>> Point.sum = add # adding new function
>>> Point.sum(3,4)
7
```

```
Point
x = 0
y = 0
str()
y = 3
z = 5
sum = add(m,n)
```

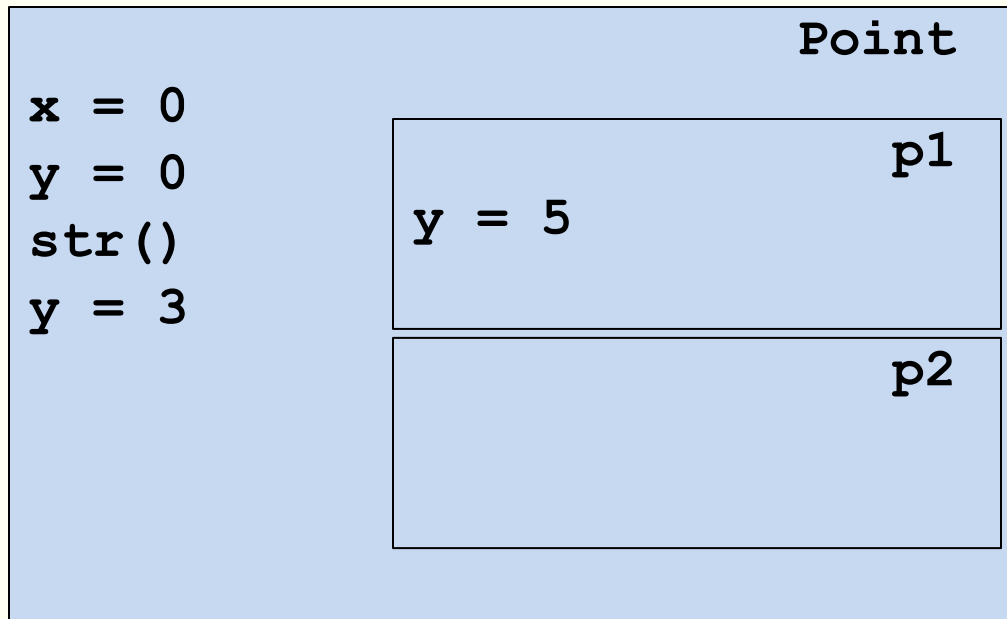
Creating a class instance

- A **class instance** introduces a **new namespace nested in the class namespace**: by visibility rules all names of the class are visible
- If no **constructor** is present, the syntax of class instantiation is **className()**: the new namespace is empty

```
class Point:
    x = 0
    y = 0
    def str():
        return "x = " + str(Point.x) + ", y = " + str(Point.y)
```

```
#-----
```

```
>>> p1 = Point()
>>> p2 = Point()
>>> p1.x
0
>>> Point.y = 3
>>> p2.y
3
>>> p1.y = 5
>>> p2.y
3
```



Instance methods

- A class can define a set of *instance methods*, which are just functions:

```
def methodname (self, parameter1, ..., parametern) :  
    statements
```

- The first argument, usually called **self**, represents the *implicit parameter* (**this** in Java)
- A method *must* access the object's attributes through the **self** reference (eg. **self.x**) and the class attributes using **className.<attrName>** (or **self.__class__.<attrName>**)
- The first parameter must not be passed when the method is called with dot-notation on an object. It is bound to the target object. Syntax:

```
obj.methodname (arg1, ..., argn) :
```

- But it can be passed explicitly. Alternative syntax:

```
className.methodname (obj, arg1, ..., argn) :
```

"Instance methods"

- Any function *with at least one parameter* defined in a class can be invoked on an instance of the class with the dot notation.

```
class Foo
    def fun(par-0, par-1, ..., par-n):
        statements
#-----
>>> obj = Foo()
>>> obj.fun(arg-1, ..., arg-n)
# is syntactic sugar for
>>> obj.__class__.fun(obj, arg-1, ..., arg-n)
```

- Since the instance `obj` is bound to the first parameter, `par-0` is usually called `self`.
- A name `x` defined in the (namespace of the) instance is accessed as `par-0.x` (i.e., usually `self.x`)
- A name `x` defined in the class is accessed as `className.x` (or `self.__class__.x`)

Constructors

- A constructor is a **special instance method** with name `__init__`.

Syntax:

```
def __init__(self, parameter1, ..., parametern):  
    statements
```

- Invocation: `obj = className(arg1, ..., argn)`
- The first parameter `self` is bound to the new object.
- **statements** typically initialize (thus create) "instance variables", i.e. names in the new object namespace.
- Note: at most ONE constructor (**no overloading in Python!**)

```
class Point:  
    instances = []  
    def __init__(self, x, y):  
        self.x = x  
        self.y = y  
        Point.instances.append(self)  
  
#-----  
>>> p1 = Point(3,4)
```

```
Point  
instances = [<Point  
object at ...>]
```

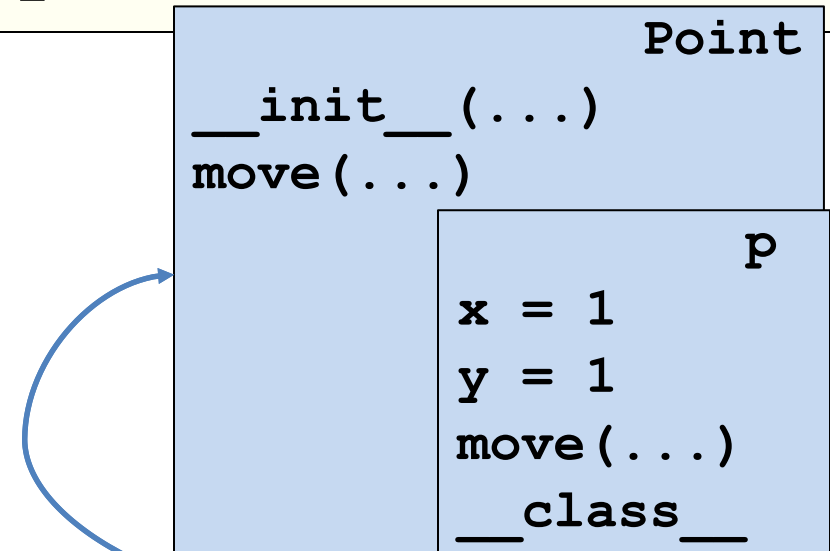
```
    p1  
    x = 3  
    y = 4
```

What about "methods in instances?"

- Instances are themselves namespaces: we can add functions to them.
- Applying the usual rules, they can hide "instance methods"

```
class Point:
    def __init__(self, x, y):
        self.x = x
        self.y = y
    def move(z, t):
        self.x -= z
        self.y -= t
    self.move = move
def move(self, dx, dy):
    self.x += dx
    self.y += dy
```

```
>>> p = Point(1,1)
>>> p.x
1
>>> p.move(1,1)
>>> p.x
0
>>> p.__class__.move(p,2,2)
>>> p.x
2
```



String representation

- It is often useful to have a textual representation of an object with the values of its attributes. This is possible with the following instance method:

```
def __str__(self) :  
    return <string>
```

- This is equivalent to Java's **toString** (converts object to a string) and it is invoked automatically when **str** or **print** is called.

Special methods

- Method overloading: you can define special instance methods so that Python's built-in operators can be used with your class.

Binary Operators

Operator	Class Method
-	<code>__sub__(self, other)</code>
+	<code>__add__(self, other)</code>
*	<code>__mul__(self, other)</code>
/	<code>__truediv__(self, other)</code>

Unary Operators

-	<code>__neg__(self)</code>
+	<code>__pos__(self)</code>

Operator	Class Method
<code>==</code>	<code>__eq__(self, other)</code>
<code>!=</code>	<code>__ne__(self, other)</code>
<code><</code>	<code>__lt__(self, other)</code>
<code>></code>	<code>__gt__(self, other)</code>
<code><=</code>	<code>__le__(self, other)</code>
<code>>=</code>	<code>__ge__(self, other)</code>

- Analogous to C++ overloading mechanism:
 - Pros: very compact syntax
 - Cons: may be more difficult to read if not used with care

(Multiple) Inheritance, in one slide

- A class can be defined as a *derived class*

```
class derived(baseClass):  
    statements  
    statements
```

- No need of additional mechanisms: the namespace of **derived** is nested in the namespace of **baseClass**, and uses it as the next non-local scope to resolve names
- All instance methods are automatically virtual: lookup starts from the instance (namespace) where they are invoked
- Python supports **multiple inheritance**

```
class derived(base1, ..., basen):  
    statements  
    statements
```

- **Diamond problem** solved by an algorithm that linearizes the set of all (directly or indirectly) inherited classes: the **Method resolution order (MRO)** → **ClassName.mro()**
- <https://www.python.org/download/releases/2.3/mro/>

Encapsulation (and "name mangling")

- ◆ **Private** instance variables (not accessible except from inside an object) **don't exist in Python.**
- ◆ **Convention:** a **name prefixed with underscore** (e.g. `__spam`) is treated as ***non-public part of the API*** (function, method or data member). It should be considered an implementation detail and subject to change without notice.

Name mangling ("storpiatura")

- ◆ Sometimes class-private members are needed to avoid clashes with names defined by subclasses. Limited support for such a mechanism, called *name mangling*.
- ◆ Any **name with at least two leading underscores and at most one trailing underscore** like e.g. `__spam` is textually replaced with `__class__spam`, where `class` is the current class name.

Example for name mangling

- Name mangling is helpful for letting subclasses override methods without breaking intraclass method calls.

```
class Mapping:
    def __init__(self, iterable):
        self.items_list = []
        self.__update(iterable)

    def update(self, iterable):
        for item in iterable:
            self.items_list.append(item)

    __update = update # private copy of update() method

class MappingSubclass(Mapping):

    def update(self, keys, values):
        # provides new signature for update()
        # but does not break __init__()
        for item in zip(keys, values):
            self.items_list.append(item)
```

Static methods and class methods

- ◆ **Static methods** are simple functions defined in a class with no `self` argument, preceded by the `@staticmethod` decorator
- ◆ They are defined inside a class but they cannot access instance attributes and methods
- ◆ They can be called through both the class and any instance of that class!
- ◆ **Benefits of static methods**: they allow subclasses to customize the static methods with inheritance. Classes can inherit static methods without redefining them.
- ◆ **Class methods** are similar to static methods but they have a first parameter which is the class name.
- ◆ Definition must be preceded by the `@classmethod` decorator
- ◆ Can be invoked on the class or on an instance.

Iterators

- An **iterator** is an object which allows a programmer to traverse through all the elements of a collection (**iterable** object), regardless of its specific implementation. In Python they are used implicitly by the **FOR** loop construct.
- Python iterator objects required to support two methods:
 - **`__iter__`** returns the iterator object itself. This is used in **FOR** and **IN** statements.
 - The **`next`** method returns the next value from the iterator. If there is no more items to return then it should raise a **`StopIteration`** exception.
- Remember that an iterator object can be used only once. It means after it raises **`StopIteration`** once, it will keep raising the same exception.
- Example:

```
for element in [1, 2, 3]:  
    print(element)
```

```
>>> list = [1,2,3]  
>>> it = iter(list)  
>>> it  
<listiterator object at 0x00A1DB50>  
>>> it.next()  
1  
>>> it.next()  
2  
>>> it.next()  
3  
>>> it.next() -> raises StopIteration
```

Generators and coroutines

- ◆ **Generators** are a simple and powerful tool for creating iterators.
- ◆ They are written like **regular functions** but use the **yield** statement whenever they want to return data.
- ◆ Each time the **next()** is called, the generator resumes where it left-off (it remembers all the data values and which statement was last executed).
- ◆ ***Anything that can be done with generators can also be done with class based iterators (not vice-versa).***
- ◆ What makes generators so compact is that the **`__iter__()`** and **`next()`** methods are created automatically.
- ◆ Another key feature is that the local variables and execution state are **automatically saved** between calls.

Generators (2)

- In addition to automatic method creation and saving program state, when generators terminate, they automatically raise **StopIteration**.
- In combination, these features make it easy to create iterators with no more effort than writing a regular function.

```
def reverse(data):  
    for index in range(len(data)-1, -1, -1):  
        yield data[index]
```

```
#-----
```

```
>>> for char in reverse('golf'):  
...     print(char)  
...  
f  
l  
o  
g
```

Typing in Python

- Dynamic, strong duck typing
- Code can be annotated with types

```
def greetings(name: str) -> str:  
    return 'Hello ' + name.
```

- Module **typing** provides runtime support for type hints
- Type hints can be checked statically by external tools, like **mypy**
- They are ignored by CPython

On Polymorphism in Python

- **Overloading:** forbidden, but its absence alleviated by:
 - Default parameters for functions
 - Dynamic typing
 - Duck typing
- **Overriding:** ok, thanks to nesting of namespaces
- **Generics:** type hints (module **typing** + **mypy** support generics)

Garbage collection in Python

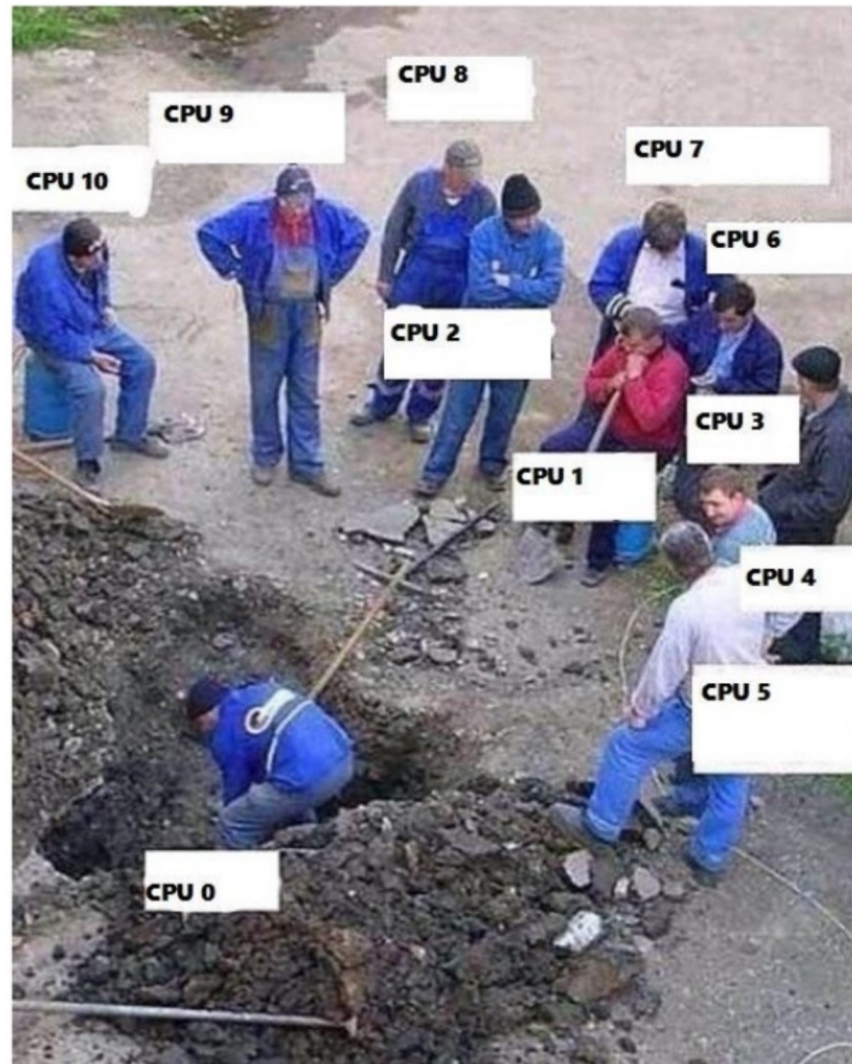
CPython manages memory with a **reference counting** + a **mark&sweep** cycle collector scheme

- **Reference counting**: each object has a counter storing the number of references to it. When it becomes 0, memory can be reclaimed.
- **Pros**: simple implementation, memory is reclaimed as soon as possible, no need to freeze execution passing control to a garbage collector
- **Cons**: additional memory needed for each object; cyclic structures in garbage cannot be identified (thus the need of **mark&sweep**)

Handling reference counters

- Updating the refcount of an object has to be done **atomically**
- In case of **multi-threading** you need to synchronize all the times you modify refcounts, or else you can have wrong values
- Synchronization primitives are quite expensive on contemporary hardware
- Since almost every operation in CPython can cause a refcount to change somewhere, handling refcounts with some kind of synchronization would cause *spending almost all the time on synchronization*
- As a consequence...

Concurrency in Python...



The Global Interpreter Lock (GIL)

- The CPython interpreter assures that only one thread executes Python bytecode at a time, thanks to the **Global Interpreter Lock**
- The current thread must hold the **GIL** before it can safely access Python objects
- This simplifies the CPython implementation by making the object model (including critical built-in types such as **dict**) implicitly safe against concurrent access
- Locking the entire interpreter makes it easier for the interpreter to be multi-threaded, **at the expense of much of the parallelism afforded by multi-processor machines.**

More on the GIL

- However the GIL can degrade performance even when it is not a bottleneck. The system call overhead is significant, especially on multicore hardware.
- Two threads calling a function may take twice as much time as a single thread calling the function twice.
- The GIL can cause I/O-bound threads to be scheduled ahead of CPU-bound threads. And it prevents signals from being delivered.
- Some extension modules, either standard or third-party, are designed so as to release the GIL when doing computationally-intensive tasks such as compression or hashing.
- Also, the GIL is always released when doing I/O.

Alternatives to the GIL?

- Past efforts to create a “free-threaded” interpreter (one which locks shared data at a much finer granularity) have not been successful because performance suffered in the common single-processor case.
- It is believed that overcoming this performance issue would make the implementation much more complicated and therefore costlier to maintain.
- Guido van Rossum has said he will reject any proposal in this direction that slows down single-threaded programs.
- **Jython** (on JVM, -> 2017, Python 2.7) and **IronPython** (on .NET) have no GIL and can fully exploit multiprocessor systems
- **PyPy** (Python in Python, supporting JIT) currently has a GIL like CPython
- in **Cython** (compiled, for CPython extension modules) the GIL exists, but can be released temporarily using a "with" statement

Criticisms to Python: **syntax of tuples**

```
>>> type((1,2,3))
<class 'tuple'>
>>> type(())
<class 'tuple'>
>>> type((1))
<class 'int'>
>>> type((1,))
<class 'tuple'>
```

- Tuples are made by the commas, not by ()
- With the exception of the empty tuple...

Criticisms to Python: indentation

- Lack of brackets makes the syntax "weaker" than in other languages: accidental changes of indentation may change the semantics, leaving the program syntactically correct.

```
def foo(x):  
    if x == 0:  
        bar()  
        baz()  
    else:  
        qux(x)  
        foo(x - 1)
```

```
def foo(x):  
    if x == 0:  
        bar()  
        baz()  
    else:  
        qux(x)  
    foo(x - 1)
```

- Mixed use of tabs and blanks may cause bugs almost impossible to detect

Criticisms to Python: indentation

- Lack of brackets makes it harder to refactor the code or insert new one
- "When I want to refactor a bulk of code in Python, I need to be very careful. Because if lost, I'm not sure what I'm editing belongs to which part of the code. Python depends on indentation, so if I have mistakenly removed some indentation, I totally have no idea whether the correct code should belong to that **if** clause or this **while** clause."
- Will Python change in the future?

```
>>> from __future__ import braces
      File "<stdin>", line 1
      SyntaxError: not a chance
>>>
```

Builtins & Libraries

- The Python ecosystem is extremely rich and in fast evolution
- For available functions, classes and modules browse:
 - **Builtin Functions**
 - <https://docs.python.org/3.8/library/functions.html>
 - **Standard library**
 - <https://docs.python.org/3.8/tutorial/stdlib.html>
- There are dozens of other libraries, mainly for scientific computing, machine learning, computational biology, data manipulation and analysis, natural language processing, statistics, symbolic computation, etc.