What's New in Python 2.2

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Overview

- Appetizers
 - Nested Scopes
 - Int/Long Unification
 - Integer Division
- First Course
 - Iterators
 - Generators
- Second Course
 - Type/Class Unification
- Dessert
 - Metaclass Programming



Nested Scopes

- Motivation:
 - functions inside functions need to access outer locals
- Optional in 2.1
 - from ___future__ import nested_scopes
- Standard in 2.2

. . .

- Can't turn it off (___future___ statement still allowed)
- Only issue to watch out for:
 - def f(str): def g(x): print str(x)
 - In 2.1, str argument independent from str() function
 - In 2.2, *str* inside g() references outer *str*



Int/Long Unification

- 2**1000 no longer raises OverflowError
 - but returns the appropriate long (no 'L' needed!)
- Ditto for:
 - 1000000*1000000
 - sys.maxint + 1
- But:
 - 1<<100 is still zero</p>
 - repr(2**1000) still ends in 'L'
 - hex(), oct(), %x, %o, %u differ for int vs. long
 - These will change in 2.3 or 3.0



Integer Division

- Motivation:
 - x/y computes different thing for ints than for floats
 - This is **unique** among operators, and **confusing**
 - def velocity(dist, time): return dist/time
 - Lack of type declarations makes this hard to debug
- Solution:
 - x//y new, "floor division": always truncates (to -Inf)
 - x/y unchanged, "classic division"
 - from ____future___ import division
 - x/y returns "true division": always a float value
- In Python 3.0, x/y will be true division
 - Use Tools/scripts/fixdiv.py tool for conversion help



Iterators

- Motivation:
 - Generalized for loop innards, doing away with index
- Iterator abstracts **state** of for loop
 - Sequence may be a "real" sequence (e.g. a list)
 - Or a "virtual" sequence (e.g. the nodes of a tree)
- Most iterator calls are implied by for loops
 - For loop gets items one at a time from next()
 - Exception StopIteration signals end of sequence
- You *can* also call next() explicitly



Iterator API

- t = iter(obj) returns a (new) iterator for obj
 Calls t = obj.__iter__(); obj must provide __iter__
- t.next() returns the next value
 - Raises StopIteration when there is no next value
 - Alternatives rejected (t.end(), if t, t.next() == None)
- The iterator should be a separate object
 - Allow for multiple iterations over the same object
 - e.g. nested loops, multiple threads, nested calls
- But when t is an iterator:
 - iter(t) is t
 - This is handy with "for x over <iterator>: …"



The 'for' Loop

for x in obj: f(x)
 is now translated (roughly) as follows:

```
    t = iter(obj)
        while 1:
            try:
                 x = t.next()
            except StopIteration:
                 break
            f(x)
```



Built-in Iterators

- for item in sequence: ... # nothing new :-)
- for line in file: ... # most efficient way!
- for key in dict: ... # must not modify dict!
 - for key, value in dict.iteritems(): ...
 - (unrelated but also new: if key in dict: ...)
- for val in iter(callable, endval): ...
 - while 1: val = callable() if val == endval: break ...
 - Example: iter(file.readline, "")



Generators

- Motivation:
 - Function to produce a sequence, one item at a time
 - State represented by local variables and/or PC
 - Using an object is overkill or inconvenient
- Example:
 - from ___future__ import generators

- t = fibonacci() # t is an iterator!
- for i in range(10): print t.next()



How Does It Work?

- Stack frame is created in suspended state
 Arguments in place, but no byte code executed yet
- t is a wrapper pointing to the suspended frame
 t supports the iterator interface
- Calling t.next() resumes the stack frame
 Execution continues where it left off previously
- A yield statement suspends the stack frame
 Yield "argument" is the returned from t.next()
- An exception **terminates** the stack frame
 - Propagates out normally
 - Return (or falling through) raises StopIteration



Examples: "Iterator Algebra"

- def alternating(a): ta = iter(a) while 1: ta.next(); yield ta.next()
- def zip(a, b): ta = iter(a); tb = iter(b) while 1: yield (ta.next(), tb.next())
- for x, y in zip("ABC", "XYZ"): print x+y
- For a real-life example, see tokenize.py



Type/Class Unification

- Subclassing built-in types like dict or list
- "Cast" functions are now types, acting as factories
- Built-in objects have __class__, types have __dict__
- Overriding __getattr__()
- Descriptors and the __get__() operation
- property()
- classmethod(), staticmethod()
- super() and the new method resolution order (MRO)
- Subclassing immutable types: ___new__()
- Performance hacks: __slots__
- Metaclasses



Subclassing Built-ins

- class mydict(dict): def keys(self): K = dict.keys(self) K.sort() return K
- class mylist(list): def __sub__(self, other): L = self[:] for x in other: if x in L: L.remove(x) return L
- These are "new-style" because of their base classes
- Note: self is an instance of the base class; the subclass is not a wrapper like UserDict or UserList





"Cast" Functions

- These built-ins are now types instead of factory functions (with the same signature):
 - int, long, float, complex
 - str, unicode
 - tuple, list
 - open (now an alias for file)
 - type
- These are new as built-in names:
 - dict, file
 - object: the universal base class (new-style)
- Useful new idiom: if isinstance(x, file) etc.



Unified Introspection

- obj.__class__ == type(obj)
 - Exception for unconverted 3rd party extension types
- Types have __dict__, __bases__
- All methods and operators shown in __dict___
 - E.g. list.___dict___ contains 'append', '___add___' etc.
 - list.append is an "unbound method":
 - list.append(a, 12) same as a.append(12)
 - list.append.___doc___ yields the doc string
- list.__bases__ == (object,)
- list.__class__ is type



Overriding <u>getattribute</u>

class mylist(list):
 def getattribute

def <u>getattribute</u> (self, name):

try:

return list. <u>getattribute</u> (self, name) except AttributeError: return "Hello World"

- The <u>getattribute</u> method is **always** called
 - Not just when the attribute isn't found
 - Classic ___getattr___ also available on new-style classes
- Do not use self. __dict __[name]
 - Call the base class __getattribute__ or __setattr__



Descriptors

- Generalization of unbound methods
 - Used by new-style object getattr, setattr
 - Also by classic instance getattr
- Descriptor protocol: __get__(), __set__(), __delete()
- descr.__get__(object) is binding operation
 - invoked by getattr when descriptor found in class
 - e.g. function or unbound method -> bound method
- *descr*.__get__(None, *class*): *unbound* method
- descr.__set__(object, value)
 - invoked by setattr when descriptor found in class
- ________() is also used by classic classes!



Properties

- class C(object): def get_x(self): return self.__x def set_x(self, value): self.__x = value x = property(get_x, set_x, doc="...")
- a = C()
- a.x # invokes C.get_x(a)
- a.x = 1 # invokes C.set_x(a, 1)
 Descriptor overrides attribute assignment
- C.x.__doc__ == "..."
- You can leave out set_x, or add del_x



Static Methods

- class C: def spawn(): return C()
 spawn = staticmethod(spawn)
- c1 = C. spawn()
- c2 = c1.spawn()
- Use is just like in Java
- Syntax is ugly, provisional
 Python 2.3 may bring new syntax





- [Skip if running out of time]
- Similar to static methods, but get class arg:
- class C: def spawn(cls): return cls()
 spawn = classmethod(spawn)
- class D(C): pass
- c1 = C.spawn(); c2 = c1.spawn()
- d1 = D.spawn()





Superclass Method Calls

 class A(object): def save(self, f): "save state to file f"

. . .

. . .

- class B(A): def save(self, f): super(B, self).save(f) # instead of A.save(self, f)
- Motivation: see following slides
- Verbose syntax: may be fixed later



Cooperative Methods

- Now it gets interesting:
- class C(A): def save(self, f): super(C, self).save(f)
- class D(B, C): def save(self, f): super(D, self).save(f)
- D().save(f)

. . .

- D.save() -> B.save() -> C.save() -> A.save() !!!
- This will be explained shortly :-)





Diamond Diagram



...But How...?!?!

- How does super(B, self).save(f) know to call C.save(f) when self is a D instance?!?!
- Answer: linearized MRO stored as D.__mro___

– MRO = Method Resolution Order (see next slide)

- super(B, self).save looks for B in self.__mro__ and looks for save in classes following it
 - It searches (C, A) for save
 - Specifically it looks for C.save and A.save in that order





Method Resolution Order

- Used for method lookup in new-style classes
- Compare to classic MRO:
 - classic MRO: left-to-right, depth-first (D, B, A, C, A)
 - new MRO removes duplicates from the left
- Motivation:
 - In diamond diagram, C.save should override A.save
 - If B and D don't define save, D.save should find C.save
 - This is more important because of 'object'
 - The universal base class for all new-style classes



Immutable Types

- Override ____new___ instead of ___init___
- __new___ is a static method with a class arg!
- tuple(arg) calls tuple.__new__(tuple, arg)
- class mytuple(tuple): def __new__(cls, *args): return tuple.__new__(cls, args)
- t = mytuple(1, 2, 3)



slots

- Allocates instance variables in the object structure instead of using a pointer to a ________; saves a lot of space
- class C(object):

__slots__ = ['foo', 'bar'] def __init__(self, x, y): self.foo = x; self.bar = y

•
$$c1 = C(1, 2)$$

• c1.spam = 12 **# error**



Incompatibilities

- dir() behaves differently
 - shows instance variables and methods
 - shows methods from base classes as well
 - exceptions:
 - dir(*module*) returns only ___dict__ contents
 - dir(class_or_type) doesn't look in the metaclass
- type("").___name___ == "str" # was "string"
- type(1L).___name___ == "long" # "long int"



Metaclass Programming

- class autosuper(type): def __init__(cls, name, bases, dict): attrname = '_%s__super' % name setattr(cls, attrname, super(cls))
- class myclass(object):

 __metaclass___ = autosuper
 def foo(self):
 self.__super.foo()
 ...etc...
- myclass.__class__ is autosuper





• Now or never :-)

