

### **Module-3: Django Admin Interfaces and Model Forms**

Activating Admin Interfaces (P83-85) - Using Admin Interfaces (P85-91) - Customizing Admin Interfaces (P91-93) - Reasons to use Admin Interfaces (P94).

Form Processing (P95-98) - Creating Feedback forms (P98-101) - Form submissions (P101-102), custom validation (P103-105), creating Model Forms (P105-106) - URLConf Tricks (P107-120), Other URLConfs (P120-122).

#### **Textbook 1: Chapters 6, 7 and 8**

##### **Activating Admin Interfaces (P83-85)**

- For a certain class of Web sites, an admin interface is an essential part of the infrastructure.
- This is a Web-based interface, limited to trusted site administrators, that **enables the addition, editing, and deletion of site content**.
- The interface you use to **post to your blog, the back-end site managers use to moderate reader-generated comments, the tool your clients use to update the press releases on the Web site you built for them**—these are all **examples** of admin interfaces.
- There are **three steps** you'll need to follow to activate it:
  1. **Add admin metadata to our models.** Not all models can (or should) be editable by admin users, so we need to “mark” models that should have an admin interface.

```
class Book(models.Model):
    title = models.CharField(maxlength=100)
    authors = models.ManyToManyField(Author)
    publisher = models.ForeignKey(Publisher)
    publication_date = models.DateField()
    num_pages = models.IntegerField(blank=True, null=True)
```

```
class Admin: pass
```

2. Install the admin application. Do this by adding **django.contrib.admin** to your **INSTALLED\_APPS** setting and running **python manage.py syncdb**. This second step will install the extra database tables the admin interface uses.
3. Add the URL pattern to your **urls.py**. If you're still using the one created by **startproject**, the admin URL pattern should be already there, but commented out. Either way, your URL patterns should look like the following:

```
from django.conf.urls.defaults import *
urlpatterns = patterns("", (r'^admin/', include('django.contrib.admin.urls')),
)
```

Now run **python manage.py runserver** to start the development server – will see like this:

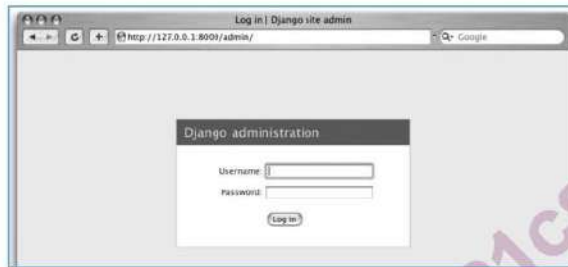
```
Validating models...
0 errors found.
```

```
Django version 0.96, using settings 'mysite.settings'
Development server is running at http://127.0.0.1:8000/
Quit the server with CONTROL-C.
```

- Now you can visit the URL given to you by Django (<http://127.0.0.1:8000/admin/> in the preceding example), log in, and play around.

### Using Admin Interfaces (P85-91)

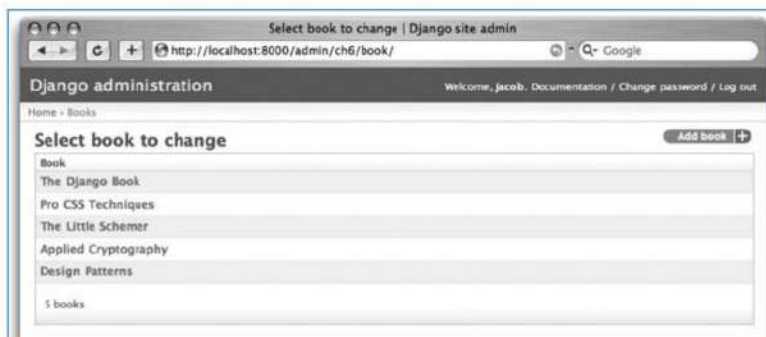
- The admin interface is designed to be used by nontechnical users, and as such it should be pretty self-explanatory. Nevertheless, a few notes about the features of the admin interface are in order. The first - login screen, as shown in Figure.



- Use the **username** and **password** we set up when we first added our **superuser** account.
- Once logged in, see that we can manage
  - Users
  - groups, and
  - permissions
- Each object given an Admin declaration shows up on the main index page, as shown in Figure:



- Links to add and change objects lead to two pages we refer to as object **change lists** and **edit forms**. **Change lists are essentially index pages of objects** in the system, as shown in Figure:



- A number of **options control** which fields appear on these lists and the appearance of extra features like **date drill-downs**, **search fields**, and **filter interfaces**.

- Edit forms are used to modify existing objects and create new ones shown in Figure:

- Each field defined in model appears here, and notice that fields of different types get different widgets (e.g., date/time fields have calendar controls, foreign keys use a select box, etc.).
- The admin interface also handles input validation.
- Try leaving a required field blank or putting an invalid time into a time field – generate errors when try to save, as shown in Figure:

- When edit an existing object, a History button will show in the upper-right corner of the window. Every change made through the admin interface is logged, and you can examine this log by clicking the History button ----->

Date/time	User	Action
Nov. 12, 2006, 11:21 a.m.	jacob	
Nov. 12, 2006, 11:22 a.m.	jacob	Changed publication date.
Nov. 12, 2006, 11:22 a.m.	jacob	Changed publication date.
Nov. 12, 2006, 11:22 a.m.	jacob	Changed publisher.
Nov. 12, 2006, 11:23 a.m.	jacob	Changed title and publisher.
Nov. 12, 2006, 11:23 a.m.	jacob	Changed title.



- When **delete an existing object**, the **admin interface asks to confirm the delete action to avoid costly mistakes**. Deletions also cascade; the **deletion confirmation page shows all the related objects that will be deleted as well** as shown in Figure:



### Users, Groups, and Permissions

- Since **logged in as a superuser**, have **access to create, edit, and delete any object**.
- The **admin interface has a user permissions system** that can use to give other users access only to the portions of the interface that they need.
- Edit these users and permissions through the admin interface** like any other object.
- The **link to the User and Group models** is there on the **admin index** along with all the objects defined ourselves.
- User objects** have the **standard username, password, e-mail, and real name fields** we might expect, along with a set of fields that define what the user is allowed to do in the admin interface.
- There's a set of **three flags**:
  - The **"is active"** flag controls whether the user is active at all. If this **flag is off**, the **user has no access to any URLs that require login**.
  - The **"is staff"** flag controls **whether the user is allowed to log in to the admin interface** (i.e., whether that user is considered a "staff member" in the organization). Since this **same user system can be used to control access to public (i.e., nonadmin) sites**, **this flag differentiates between public users and administrators**.
  - The **"is superuser"** flag gives the **user full, unfettered access to every item in the admin interface**; regular permissions are ignored.
- "Normal" admin users—that is, active, nonsuperuser staff members—are granted access that depends on a set of assigned permissions.
- Each object editable through the admin interface has three permissions**:
  - Create permission
  - Edit permission, and
  - Delete permission.
- Assigning permissions to a user grants the user access to do what described by those permissions.
- We can **also assign users to groups**.
- A **group** is a set of permissions to apply to all members of that group. **Groups** are useful for **granting identical permissions to a large number of users**.

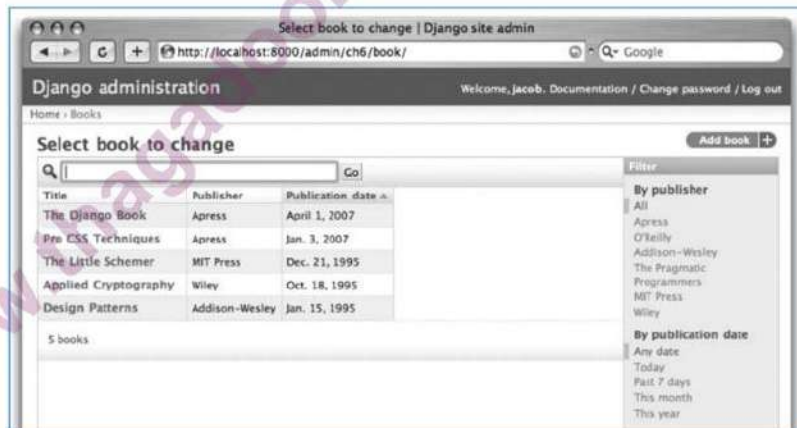
### Customizing Admin Interfaces

- Customize the way the admin interface looks and behaves in a number of ways.
- The **change list** for our books shows only the string representation of the model we added to its `__str__`.
- This **works fine for just a few books**, but if **we had hundreds or thousands of books**, it would be **very hard to locate a single needle in the haystack**.
- Can easily add some **display**, **searching**, and **filtering** functions to this interface.
- Change the **Admin** declaration as follows:

```
class Book(models.Model):
    title = models.CharField(maxlength=100)
    authors = models.ManyToManyField(Author)
    publisher = models.ForeignKey(Publisher)
    publication_date = models.DateField()

    class Admin:
        list_display = ('title', 'publisher', 'publication_date')
        list_filter = ('publisher', 'publication_date')
        ordering = ('-publication_date',)
        search_fields = ('title',)
```

- These four lines of code dramatically change our list interface, as shown in Figure:



- Each of those lines instructed the admin interface to construct a different piece of this interface:
  - The **`list_display`** option **controls which columns appear in the change list table**. By default, the change list displays only a single column that contains the object's string representation. Here, we've changed that to show the title, publisher, and publication date.
  - The **`list_filter`** option **creates the filtering bar on the right side of the list**. We've allowed filtering by date (which allows to see only books published in the last week, month, etc.) and by publisher. The filters show up as long as there are at least two values to choose from. You can instruct the admin interface to filter by any field, **but foreign keys, dates, Booleans, and fields with choices attribute work best**.
  - The **`ordering`** option controls the order in which the objects are presented in the admin interface (In this example, ordering by **publication date**, with the most recent first.)



- Finally, the **search\_fields** option creates a field that allows text searches. It allows searches by the title field (so you could type Django to show all books with “Django” in the title).
- Using these options, with only a few lines of code, make a very powerful, production-ready interface for data editing.

### Customizing the Admin Interface’s Look and Feel

- It’s easy to change, though, using Django’s template system. The Django admin site is powered by Django itself, and its interfaces use Django’s own template system.
- The **TEMPLATE\_DIRS** setting specifies a list of directories to check when loading Django templates. To customize Django’s admin templates, simply copy the relevant stock admin template from the Django distribution into one of the directories pointed to by **TEMPLATE\_DIRS**.
- The admin site finds the “Django administration” header by looking for the template **admin/base\_site.html**.
- By default, this template lives in the Django admin template directory, **django/contrib/admin/templates**, which can find by looking in Python site-packages directory, or wherever Django was installed.
- To customize this **base\_site.html** template, copy that template into an admin subdirectory of whichever directory we’re using in **TEMPLATE\_DIRS**.
- For example, if **TEMPLATE\_DIRS** includes “/home/mytemplates”, then copy **django/contrib/admin/templates/admin/base\_site.html** → **/home/mytemplates/admin/base\_site.html**.
- Next, edit the new **admin/base\_site.html** file to replace the generic Django text with own site’s name as to see fit.
- Any of Django’s default admin templates can be **overridden**. To override a template, copy **base\_site.html** from the default directory into custom directory and make changes to the copy.

### Customizing the Admin Index Page

- By default, **Django admin index** displays all available applications, according to **INSTALLED\_APPS** setting, sorted by the name of the application. If we want to change this order to make it easier to find the applications looking for. The **index is probably the most important page of the admin interface**, so it should be easy to use.
  - The template to customize is **admin/index.html**. (Remember to copy **admin/index.html** to your custom template directory as in the previous example.)
  - Edit the file, and see it uses a template tag called **{% get\_admin\_app\_list as app\_list %}**. This tag retrieves every installed Django application. Instead of using the tag, you can hard-code links to object-specific admin pages in whatever way you think is best.
  - Django offers another shortcut - Run the command “**\$ python manage.py adminindex**” to get a chunk of template code for inclusion in the admin index template. It is a useful starting point.
-

**Reasons to use Admin Interfaces (When and Why to Use the Admin Interface) (P-94)**

- We think Django's admin interface is outstanding - call it one of Django's "killer features."
  - The **admin interface is extremely useful for editing data**. If **have any sort of data entry tasks**, the admin interface simply can't be beat.
  - Django's admin interface especially shines when nontechnical users need to be able to enter data; that's the purpose behind the feature.
  - At the newspaper where Django was first developed, development of a typical online feature—a special report on water quality in the municipal supply, say—goes something like this:
    - The reporter responsible for the story meets with one of the developers and goes over the available data.
    - The developer designs a model around this data and then opens up the admin interface to the reporter.
    - While the reporter enters data into Django, the programmer can focus on developing the publicly accessible interface.
  - The admin interface useful in a few other cases:
    - **Inspecting data models**: The first thing we do when we've defined a new model is to call it up in the admin interface and enter some dummy data. This is usually when we find any data modeling mistakes; having a graphical interface to a model quickly reveals problems.
    - **Managing acquired data**: There's little actual data entry associated with a site like <http://chicagocrime.org>, **since most of the data comes from an automated source**. However, when problems with the automatically acquired data crop up, it's useful to be able to go in and edit that data easily.
-



Form Processing (P95-98) - Creating Feedback forms (P98-101)  
 - Form submissions (P101-102), custom validation (P103-105), creating Model Forms (P105-106) - URLConf Tricks (P107-120), Other URLConfs (P120-122).

### Form Processing (P95-98)

- Next piece of the puzzle: **building views that take input from readers**. Start by making a simple **search form “by hand”** and looking at **how to handle data submitted from the browser**. From there, the control move on to using Django’s forms framework.
- The **Web is all about search**. Two of the Net’s **biggest success stories, Google and Yahoo**, built their multibillion-dollar businesses around search. Nearly every site sees a large percentage of traffic coming to and from its search pages. Often **the difference between a site’s success or failure is the quality of its search**.
- Start by adding the search view to our **URLconf (mysite.urls)** - adding something like **(r'^search/\$', 'mysite.books.views.search')** to the set of URL patterns.
- Next, we’ll write this search view into our view module (**mysite.books.views**):

```
from django.db.models import Q
from django.shortcuts import render_to_response
from mysite.books.models import Book

def search(request):
    query = request.GET.get('q', '')
    if query:
        qset = (
            Q(title__icontains=query) |
            Q(authors__first_name__icontains=query) |
            Q(authors__last_name__icontains=query)
        )
        results = Book.objects.filter(qset).distinct()
    else:
        results = []
    return render_to_response("books/search.html", {
        "results": results,
        "query": query
    })
```

- First, there’s **request.GET**. This is how you access GET data from Django; POST data is accessed through a similar **request.POST** object. These **objects behave exactly like standard Python dictionaries**.
- GET and POST are the two methods that browsers use to send data to a server. Most of the time, you’ll see them in HTML form tags: **<form action="/books/search/" method="get">**
- This instructs the browser to submit the form data to the URL **/books/search/** using the GET method.
- So the line **query = request.GET.get('q', '')** looks for a GET parameter named **q** and returns an empty string if that parameter wasn’t submitted.
- The **get()** method here is the one that every Python dictionary has - it is **not safe to assume** that **request.GET** contains a **'q'** key, so we use **get('q', '')** to provide a default fallback value of



" (the empty string). If we merely accessed the variable using `request.GET['q']`, that code would raise a `KeyError` if `q` wasn't available in the GET data.

- **Q (QuerySet)** objects are used to build up complex queries—in this case, searching for any books where *either the title or the name of one of the authors* matches the search query.
- In these queries, ***icontains*** is a **case-insensitive search** that uses the **SQL LIKE** operator in the underlying database.
- Since **searching against a many-to-many field**, it's possible for the **same book to be returned more than once by the query** (e.g., a book with two authors who both match the search query). Adding ***.distinct()*** to the **filter lookup eliminates any duplicate results**.
- There's still no template for this search view, however. This should do the trick:

```
<!DOCTYPE HTML PUBLIC "-//W3C/DTD HTML 4.01//EN">
<html lang="en">
<head>
  <title>Search {% if query %}Results{% endif %}</title>
</head>
<body>
  <h1>Search</h1>
  <form action="." method="GET">
    <label for="q">Search: </label>
    <input type="text" name="q" value="{{ query|escape }}">
    <input type="submit" value="Search">
  </form>

  {% if query %}
    <h2>Results for "{{ query|escape }}":</h2>

    {% if results %}
      <ul>
        {% for book in results %}
          <li>{{ book }}</li>
        {% endfor %}
      </ul>
    {% else %}
      <p>No books found</p>
    {% endif %}
  {% endif %}
</body>
</html>
```

### The "Perfect Form"

- Forms can often be a major cause of frustration for the users of your site. Let's consider the behavior of a hypothetical perfect form:
  - Forms should ask the user for some information, accessibility and usability matter here, so **smart use of the HTML element and useful contextual help are important**.
  - The submitted data should be subjected to extensive validation. The golden rule of Web application security is "never trust incoming data," so **validation is essential**.

- If the user has made any mistakes, the form should be **redisplayed with detailed, informative error messages**. The original data should be prefilled, to save the user from having to re-enter everything.
- The form should continue to redisplay until all of the fields have been correctly filled.
- Constructing the perfect form seems like a lot of work! Thankfully, **Django's forms framework is designed to do most of the work for you**. You provide a description of the form's fields, the validation rules, and a simple template, and Django does the rest. **The result is a "perfect form" with very little effort.**

### Creating Feedback forms (P98-101)

- The **best way to build a site that people love is to listen to their feedback**. Many sites appear to have forgotten this; they hide their contact details behind layers of FAQs, and they seem to make it as difficult as possible to get in touch with an actual human being.
- When a site has millions of users, this may be a reasonable strategy. When we are trying to build up an audience, though, we should actively encourage feedback at every opportunity.
- Let's **build a simple feedback form and use it to illustrate Django's forms framework in action**.
- Forms in Django are created in a similar way to models: declaratively, using a Python class.
- Here's the class for our simple form. By convention, we'll insert it into a new forms.py file within our application directory.

```
from django import newforms as forms

TOPIC_CHOICES = (
    ('general', 'General enquiry'),
    ('bug', 'Bug report'),
    ('suggestion', 'Suggestion'),
)

class ContactForm(forms.Form):
    topic = forms.ChoiceField(choices=TOPIC_CHOICES)
    message = forms.CharField()
    sender = forms.EmailField(required=False)
```

- A Django form is a **subclass of `django.newforms.Form`**, just as a Django model is a subclass of **`django.db.models.Model`**. The **`django.newforms`** module also contains a number of Field classes (a full list is available in Django's documentation at <http://www.djangoproject.com/documentation/0.96/newforms/>).
- Our **`ContactForm`** consists of **three fields**:
  - a **topic**, which is a choice among three options;
  - a **message**, which is a character field; and
  - a **sender**, which is an email field and is optional (because even anonymous feedback can be useful).
- There are a number of other field types available, and you can write your own if they don't cover your needs.
- The **form object itself knows how to do a number of useful things**. It can **validate a collection of data**, it can **generate its own HTML "widgets"**, it can construct a set of useful error messages and it can even draw the entire form for us.



- In views.py:

```
from django.shortcuts import render_to_response
from mysite.books.forms import ContactForm

def contact(request):
    form = ContactForm()
    return render_to_response('contact.html', {'form': form})
```

and in contact.html:

```
<!DOCTYPE HTML PUBLIC "-//W3C//DTD HTML 4.01//EN">
<html lang="en">
<head>
  <title>Contact us</title>
</head>
<body>
  <h1>Contact us</h1>
  <form action="." method="POST">
    <table>
      {{ form.as_table }}
    </table>
    <p><input type="submit" value="Submit"></p>
  </form>
</body>
</html>
```

- `{{ form.as_table }}` --> `form` is our **ContactForm** instance, as passed to **render\_to\_response**. **as\_table** is a method on that object that renders the form as a sequence of table rows (`as_ul` or `as_p` can also be used).
- The generated HTML looks like this:

```
<tr>
  <th><label for="id_topic">Topic:</label></th>
  <td>
    <select name="topic" id="id_topic">
      <option value="general">General enquiry</option>
      <option value="bug">Bug report</option>
      <option value="suggestion">Suggestion</option>
    </select>
  </td>
</tr>
<tr>
  <th><label for="id_message">Message:</label></th>
  <td><input type="text" name="message" id="id_message" /></td>
</tr>
<tr>
  <th><label for="id_sender">Sender:</label></th>
  <td><input type="text" name="sender" id="id_sender" /></td>
</tr>
```

- Note that the `<table>` and `<form>` tags are not included; you need to define those yourself in the template, which gives you control over how the form behaves when it is submitted.

- Label elements are included, making forms accessible out of the box.
- Our form is currently using a `<input type="text">` widget for the message field. We don't want to restrict our users to a single line of text, so we'll swap in a `<textarea>` widget instead:

```
class ContactForm(forms.Form):
    topic = forms.ChoiceField(choices=TOPIC_CHOICES)
    message = forms.CharField(widget=forms.Textarea())
    sender = forms.EmailField(required=False)
```

- The forms framework separates out the presentation logic for each field into a set of widgets.
- Each field type has a default widget, but you can easily override the default, or provide a custom widget of your own.
- Now, submitting the form does not actually do anything. Let's hook in our validation rules:

```
def contact(request):
    if request.method == 'POST':
        form = ContactForm(request.POST)
    else:
        form = ContactForm()
    return render_to_response('contact.html', {'form': form})
```

- A form instance can be in one of **two states**: **bound** or **unbound**.
  - A **bound** instance is **attached to a dictionary** (or dictionary-like object) and **knows how to validate and redisplay the data from it**.
  - An **unbound** form has **no data associated with it** and **simply knows how to display itself**.
- Try clicking **Submit** on the **blank form**. The **page should redisplay, showing a validation error that informs us that our message field is required**.
- Try entering an **invalid email address** as well. The **EmailField** knows how to validate email addresses, at least to a reasonable level of doubt.

### **Form submissions - Processing the Submission (P101-102)**

- Once the user has filled the form to the point that it passes our validation rules, we need to do something useful with the data.
- In this case, we want to construct and send an email containing the user's feedback. We'll use **Django's email package** to do this.
- First, though, we need to tell if the data is valid, and if it is, we need access to the validated data. The **forms framework does more than just validate the data; it also converts it into Python types**.
- Our **contact form only deals with strings**, but if we were to use an **IntegerField** or **DateTimeField**, the forms framework would ensure that we got back a **Python integer** or **datetime object**, respectively.
- To tell whether a form is bound to valid data, call the **is\_valid()** method:

```
form = ContactForm(request.POST)
if form.is_valid():
    # Process form data
```



- Now we need access to the data. We could pull it straight out of `request.POST` - miss the type conversions performed by the forms framework. Instead, we use `form.clean_data`:

```
if form.is_valid():
    topic = form.clean_data['topic']
    message = form.clean_data['message']
    sender = form.clean_data['sender']
    # ...
```

- Finally, we need to record the user's feedback. The easiest way to do this is to **email it to a site administrator**. We can do that using the `send_mail` function:

```
from django.core.mail import send_mail

# ...

send_mail(
    'Feedback from your site, topic: %s' % topic,
    message, sender,
    ['administrator@example.com']
)
```

- The `send_mail` function has four required arguments: the **email subject**, the **email body**, the **"from" address**, and a **list of recipient addresses**. `send_mail` is a convenient wrapper around Django's `EmailMessage` class, which provides advanced features such as attachments, multipart emails, and full control over email headers. Having sent the feedback email, redirect user to a static confirmation page. The finished view function looks like this:

```
from django.http import HttpResponseRedirect
from django.shortcuts import render_to_response
from django.core.mail import send_mail
from forms import ContactForm

def contact(request):
    if request.method == 'POST':
        form = ContactForm(request.POST)
        if form.is_valid():
            topic = form.cleaned_data['topic']
            message = form.cleaned_data['message']
            sender = form.cleaned_data.get('sender', 'noreply@example.com')
            send_mail(
                'Feedback from your site, topic: %s' % topic,
                message, sender,
                ['administrator@example.com']
            )
            return HttpResponseRedirect('/contact/thanks/')
    else:
        form = ContactForm()
    return render_to_response('contact.html', {'form': form})
```

**Custom validation (P103-105)**

- There are a number of ways to hook custom validation into a Django form.
- If our rule is something we will reuse repeatedly, we can create a custom field type.
- Most **custom validations are one-off affairs**, though, and **can be tied directly to the form class**.
- We want additional validation on the message field, so we need to add a **clean\_message** method to our form:

```
class ContactForm(forms.Form):
    topic = forms.ChoiceField(choices=TOPIC_CHOICES)
    message = forms.CharField(widget=forms.Textarea())
    sender = forms.EmailField(required=False)

    def clean_message(self):
        message = self.cleaned_data.get('message', '')
        num_words = len(message.split())
        if num_words < 4:
            raise forms.ValidationError("Not enough words!")
        return message
```

- This new method will be called after the default field validator (in this case, the validator for a required **CharField**). Because the field data has already been partially processed, we need to pull it out of the form's **clean\_data** dictionary.
- We simply use a combination of **len()** and **split()** to **count the number of words**. If the user has **entered too few words**, we raise a **ValidationError**.
- The string attached to this exception will be displayed to the user as an item in the error list.
- It is **important that we explicitly return the value for the field at the end of the method**. This allows us to modify the value (or convert it to a different Python type) within our custom validation method. **If we forget, the return statement and then None will be returned, and the original value will be lost.**

**A Custom Look and Feel (P105-106)**

- The quickest way to customize the **form's presentation is with CSS**. The list of errors in particular could do with some visual enhancement, and the **<ul>** has a class attribute of **errorlist** for that exact purpose. The following CSS really makes our errors stand out:
- While it's convenient to have our form's HTML generated for us, in many cases the default rendering won't be right for our application.
- **{{ form.as\_table }}** and friends are useful shortcuts while we develop our application, but everything about the way a form is displayed can be overridden, mostly within the template itself.
- Each field widget (**<input type="text">**, **<select>**, **<textarea>**, or similar) can be rendered individually by accessing **{{ form.fieldname }}**.

```
<style type="text/css">
    ul.errorlist {
        margin: 0;
        padding: 0;
    }
    .errorlist li {
        background-color: red;
        color: white;
        display: block;
        font-size: 10px;
        margin: 0 0 3px;
        padding: 4px 5px;
    }
</style>
```



- Any errors associated with a field are available as `{{ form.fieldname.errors }}`. We can use these form variables to construct a custom template for our contact form:

```
<form action="." method="POST">
  <div class="fieldWrapper">
    {{ form.topic.errors }}
    <label for="id_topic">Kind of feedback:</label>
    {{ form.topic }}
  </div>
  <div class="fieldWrapper">
    {{ form.message.errors }}
    <label for="id_message">Your message:</label>
    {{ form.message }}
  </div>
  <div class="fieldWrapper">
    {{ form.sender.errors }}
    <label for="id_sender">Your email (optional):</label>
    {{ form.sender }}
  </div>
  <p><input type="submit" value="Submit"></p>
</form>
```

- `{{ form.message.errors }}` will display as a `<ul class="errorlist">` if errors are present and a blank string if the field is valid (or the form is unbound).
- We can also treat `form.message.errors` as a **Boolean** or **even iterate over** it as a list, for example

```
<div class="fieldWrapper{% if form.message.errors %} errors{% endif %}">
  {% if form.message.errors %}
    <ol>
      {% for error in form.message.errors %}
        <li><strong>{{ error|escape }}</strong></li>
      {% endfor %}
    </ol>
  {% endif %}
  {{ form.message }}
</div>
```

- In the case of validation errors, this will add an "errors" class to the containing and display the **list of errors in an ordered list**.

**Creating Model Forms (P105-106)**

- An important principle in software development that Django tries to adhere to is **Don't Repeat Yourself (DRY)**.
- Our **Publisher** model class says that a publisher has a **name**, **address**, **city**, **state\_province**, **country**, and **website**.
- Duplicating this information in a form definition would break the DRY rule. Instead, we can use a useful shortcut: **form\_for\_model()**:

```
from models import Publisher
from django.newforms import form_for_model

PublisherForm = form_for_model(Publisher)
```

**PublisherForm** is a Form subclass, just like the **ContactForm** class we created manually earlier on. We can use it in much the same way:

```
def add_publisher(request):
    if request.method == 'POST':
        form = PublisherForm(request.POST)
        if form.is_valid():
            form.save()
            return HttpResponseRedirect('/add_publisher/thanks/')
    else:
        form = PublisherForm()
    return render_to_response('add_publisher.html', {'form': form})
```

- The **add\_publisher.html** file is almost identical to our original **contact.html** template, so it has been omitted.
- Since forms derived from models are often used to save new instances of the model to the database, the form class created by **form\_for\_model** includes a convenient **save()** method.
- **form\_for\_instance()** is a related method that can create a pre-initialized form from an instance of a model class. This is useful for creating "edit" forms.