



# SI100B: Introduction to Information Science and Technology



## Lecture 11



# Object Oriented Programming

# OBJECTS & TYPES

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## ▶ **EVERYTHING IN PYTHON IS AN OBJECT**

- ▶ Can **create new objects** of some type
- ▶ Can **manipulate objects**
- ▶ Can **destroy objects**
  - ▶ Explicitly using `del` or just “forget” about them
  - ▶ Python system will reclaim destroyed or inaccessible objects – called “garbage collection”

## ▶ **EVERY OBJECT HAS A TYPE**

- ▶ This lecture: create new types with **class**



# OBJECTS & TYPES

---

- ▶ **Objects** of a specific **type** have...
  - ▶ An internal representation
    - ▶ Through data attributes
  - ▶ An interface for interacting with object
    - ▶ Through methods (i.e., procedural attributes)
    - ▶ Defines behaviors but hides implementation



# REAL-LIFE EXAMPLES

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- ▶ **Elevator**: a box that can change floors
  - ▶ Represent using length, width, height, max\_capacity, current\_floor
  - ▶ Move its location to a different floor, add people, remove people
- ▶ **Employee**: a person who works for a company
  - ▶ Represent using name, birth\_date, salary
  - ▶ Can change name or salary
- ▶ **Queue at a store**: first customer to arrive is the first one helped
  - ▶ Represent customers as a list of str names
  - ▶ Append names to the end and remove names from the beginning
- ▶ **Stack of pancakes**: first pancake made is the last one eaten
  - ▶ Represent stack as a list of str
  - ▶ Append pancake to the end and remove from the end



## EXAMPLE: [1,2,3,4] has type list

---

### ▶ How are lists **represented internally**?

- ▶ Does not matter for so much for us as users (private representation)



*follow pointer to  
the next index*

### ▶ How to **interface with, and manipulate,** lists?

- ▶ `L[i]`, `L[i:j]`, `+`
- ▶ `len()`, `min()`, `max()`, `del(L[i])`
- ▶ `L.append()`, `L.extend()`, `L.count()`, `L.index()`,  
`L.insert()`, `L.pop()`, `L.remove()`, `L.reverse()`,  
`L.sort()`

### ▶ Internal representation should be private

### ▶ Correct behavior may be compromised if you manipulate internal representation directly



# CREATING AND USING YOUR OWN TYPES WITH CLASSES

---

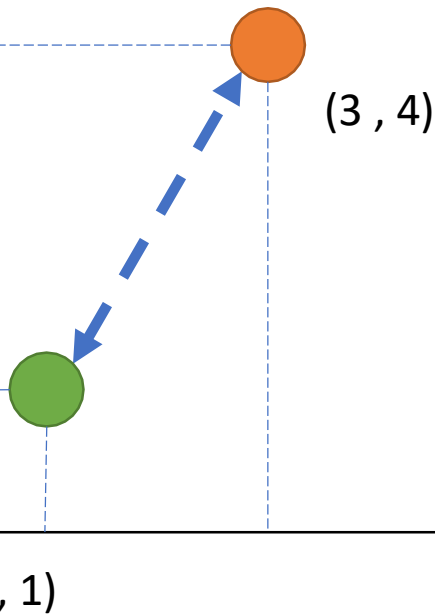
- ▶ Class = type of object
- ▶ **Creating** the class involves
  - ▶ Defining the class name
  - ▶ Defining class attributes
    - ▶ Data attributes: representation
    - ▶ Procedural attributes: interface
  - ▶ *for example, a list class*
- ▶ **Using** the class involves
  - ▶ Creating new **instances** of the class
  - ▶ Doing operations on the instances
  - ▶ *for example, `L=[1,2]` and `len(L)`*



# COORDINATE TYPE DESIGN DECISIONS

---

Can create **instances** of a  
Coordinate object



- ▶ Decide what **data** elements constitute an object
  - ▶ In a 2D plane
  - ▶ A coordinate is defined by an **x and y value**
- ▶ Decide **what to do** with coordinates
  - ▶ Tell us how far away the coordinate is on the x or y axes
  - ▶ Measure the **distance** between two coordinates





# DEFINE YOUR OWN TYPES

---

- ▶ Use the `class` keyword to define a new type

*class definition*  
*name/type*  
*class parent*

```
class Coordinate(object):  
    #define attributes here
```

- ▶ The word `object` means that `Coordinate` is a Python object and **inherits** all its attributes (will see in future lects)
  - ▶ Can be omitted
- ▶ Similar to `def`, indent code to indicate which statements are part of the **class definition**



# ATTRIBUTES

---

## ▶ Data attributes

- ▶ Think of data as other objects that represent the object
- ▶ *for example, a coordinate is made up of two numbers*

## ▶ Methods (i.e., procedural attributes)

- ▶ Think of methods as functions that only work with this class
- ▶ How to interact with the object
- ▶ *for example you can define a distance between two coordinate objects but there is no meaning to a distance between two list objects*



# Initialize data attributes

- ▶ Use a **special method called `__init__`** to initialize some data attributes or perform initialization operations when creating an instance of class

```
class Coordinate(object):
```

```
    def __init__(self, xval, yval):
```

```
        self.x = xval
```

```
        self.y = yval
```

special method to  
create an instance  
— is double  
underscore

two data attributes  
make up your type

parameter to  
refer to an  
instance of the  
class without  
having created  
one yet

what data initializes a  
Coordinate object

- ▶ `self` allows you to create **variables that belong to this object**
- ▶ Without `self`, you are just creating regular variables!

# ACTUALLY CREATING AN INSTANCE OF A CLASS

Recall the `__init__` method in the class def:

```
def __init__(self, xval, yval):  
    self.x = xval  
    self.y = yval
```

- ▶ Don't provide argument for `self`, Python does this automatically

```
c = Coordinate(3, 4)  
origin = Coordinate(0, 0)
```

create a new object  
of type  
Coordinate and  
pass in 3 and 4 to  
the `__init__`

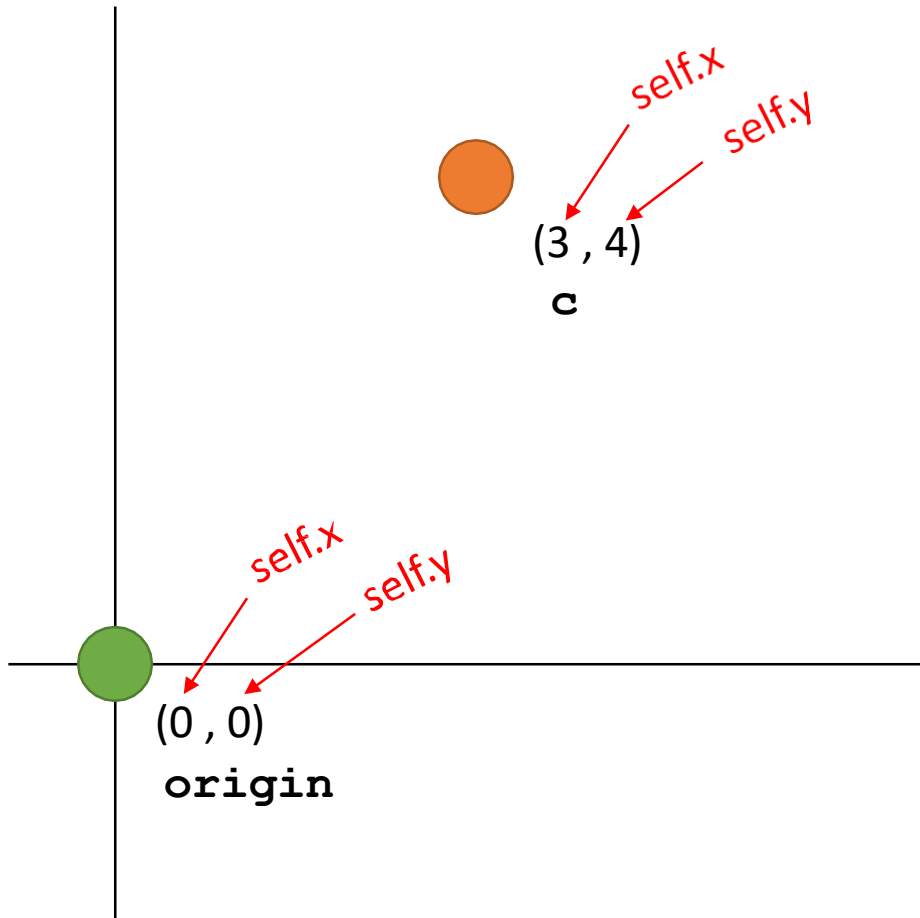
- ▶ Data attributes of an instance are called **instance variables**
  - ▶ Data attributes are accessible with dot notation for the lifetime of the object
  - ▶ All instances have these data attributes, but with different values!

```
print(c.x)  
print(origin.x)
```

use the dot  
notation to access  
an attribute of  
instance `c`



# VISUALIZING INSTANCES: draw it



The template for a  
Coordinate type

```
class Coordinate(object):  
    def __init__(self, xval, yval):  
        self.x = xval  
        self.y = yval
```

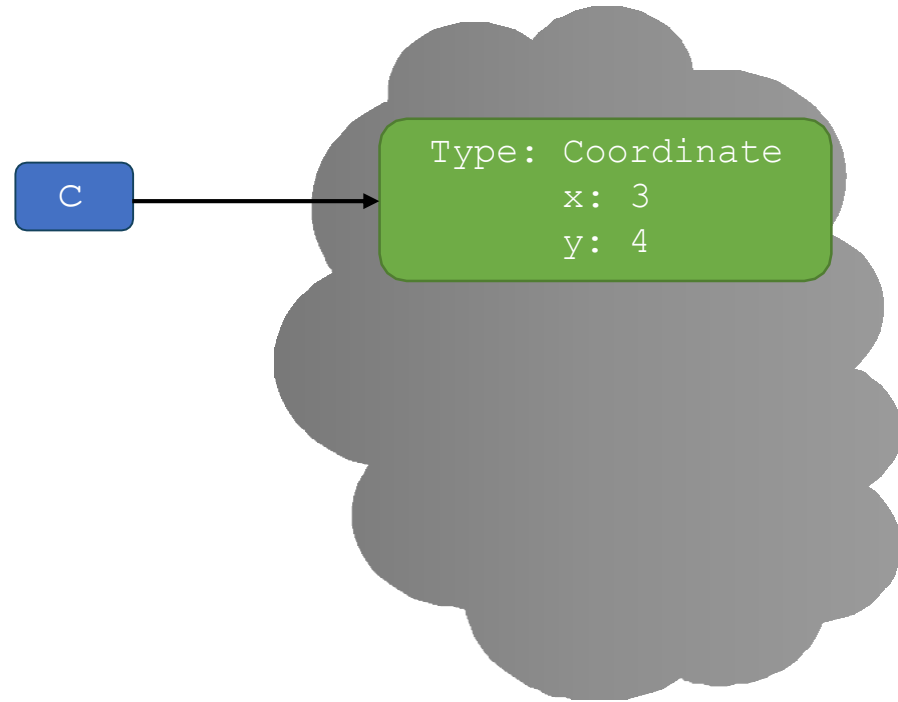
```
c = Coordinate(3,4)  
origin = Coordinate(0,0)  
print(c.x)  
print(origin.x)
```

Code to make actual  
tangible Coordinate  
objects (aka instances)

# VISUALIZING INSTANCES

---

- ▶ Suppose we create an instance of a coordinate  
`c = Coordinate(3, 4)`
- ▶ Think of this as creating a structure in memory
- ▶ Then evaluating `c.x` looks up the structure to which `c` points, then finds the binding for `x` in that structure



# VISUALIZING INSTANCES: in memory

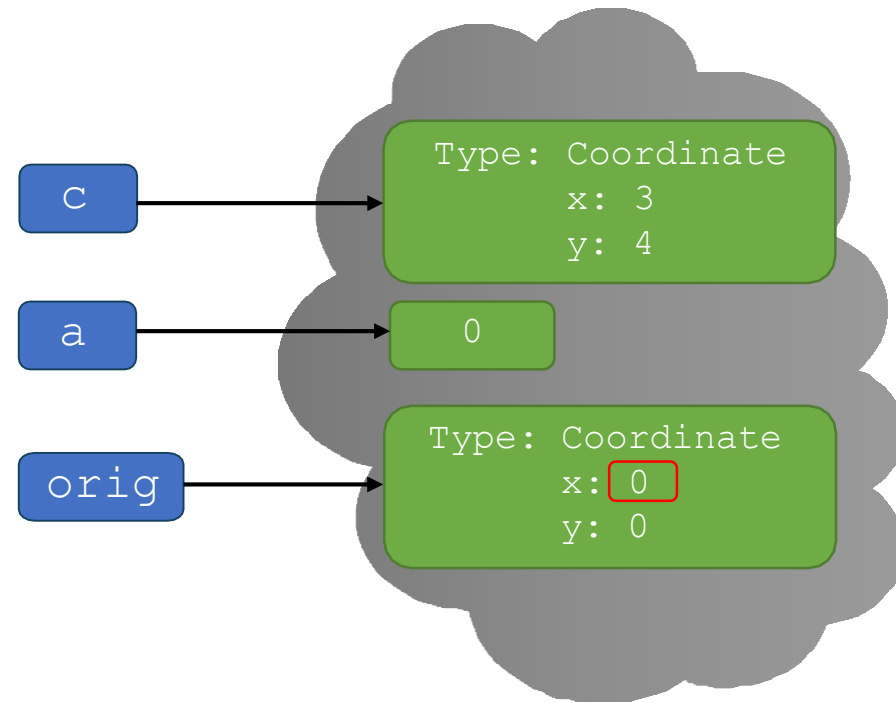
---

- ▶ Make another instance using a variable

```
a = 0
```

```
orig = Coordinate(a,a)
```

```
orig.x
```



# WHAT IS A METHOD?

---

- ▶ Procedural attribute
  - ▶ Think of it like a **function that works only with this class**





# DEFINE A METHOD FOR THE Coordinate CLASS

---

```
class Coordinate(object):  
    def __init__(self, xval, yval):  
        self.x = xval  
        self.y = yval  
  
    def distance(self, other):  
        x_diff_sq = (self.x - other.x) ** 2  
        y_diff_sq = (self.y - other.y) ** 2  
        return (x_diff_sq + y_diff_sq) ** 0.5
```

- ▶ Python always passes the object as the first argument
  - ▶ Convention is to use **self** as the name of the first argument of all methods
- ▶ Other than `self` and dot notation, methods behave just like functions (take params, do operations, return)



# HOW TO CALL A METHOD?

---

- ▶ The “.” **operator** is used to access any attribute
  - ▶ A data attribute of an object (e.g., `c.x`)
  - ▶ A method of an object (e.g., `c.distance(orig)`)

- ▶ Dot notation

`<object_variable>.<method>(<parameters>)`

*Object to call  
method on, becomes  
self in the class def*

*Name of  
method*

*Not including self.  
self is the obj  
before the dot!*

- ▶ Familiar?

```
my_list.append(4)
```

```
my_list.sort()
```



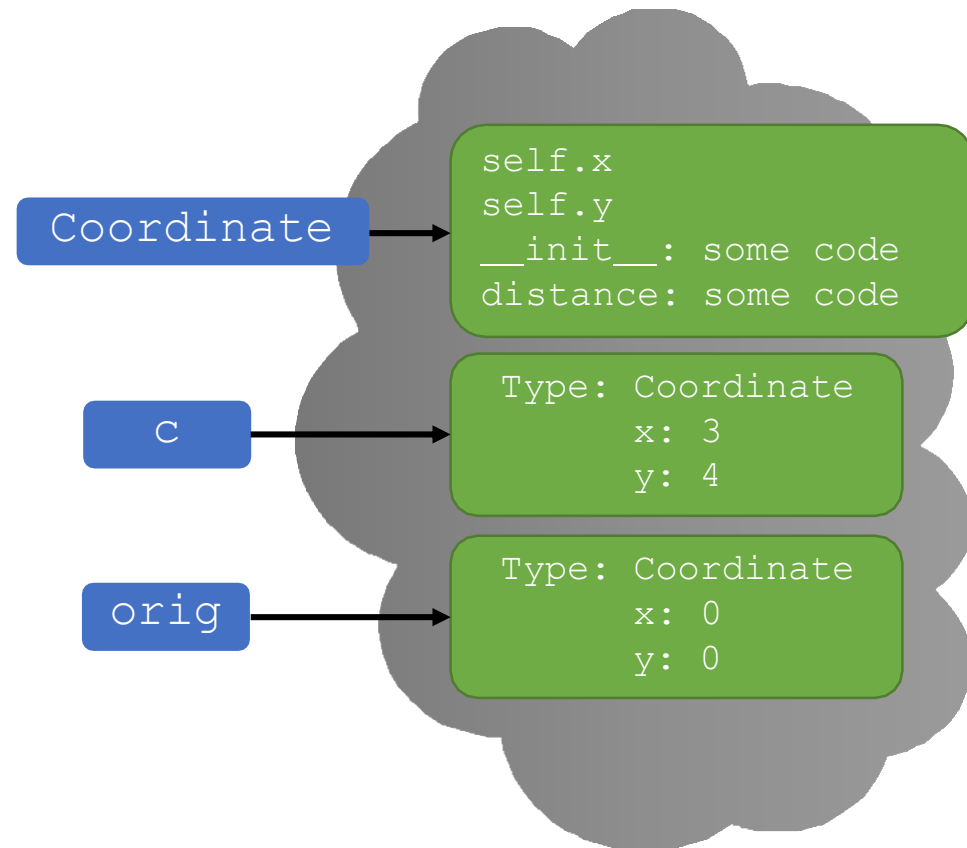
# VISUALIZING INVOCATION

---

- ▶ Coordinate class is an object in memory
  - ▶ From the class definition

- ▶ Create two Coordinate objects

```
c = Coordinate(3, 4)
orig = Coordinate(0, 0)
```



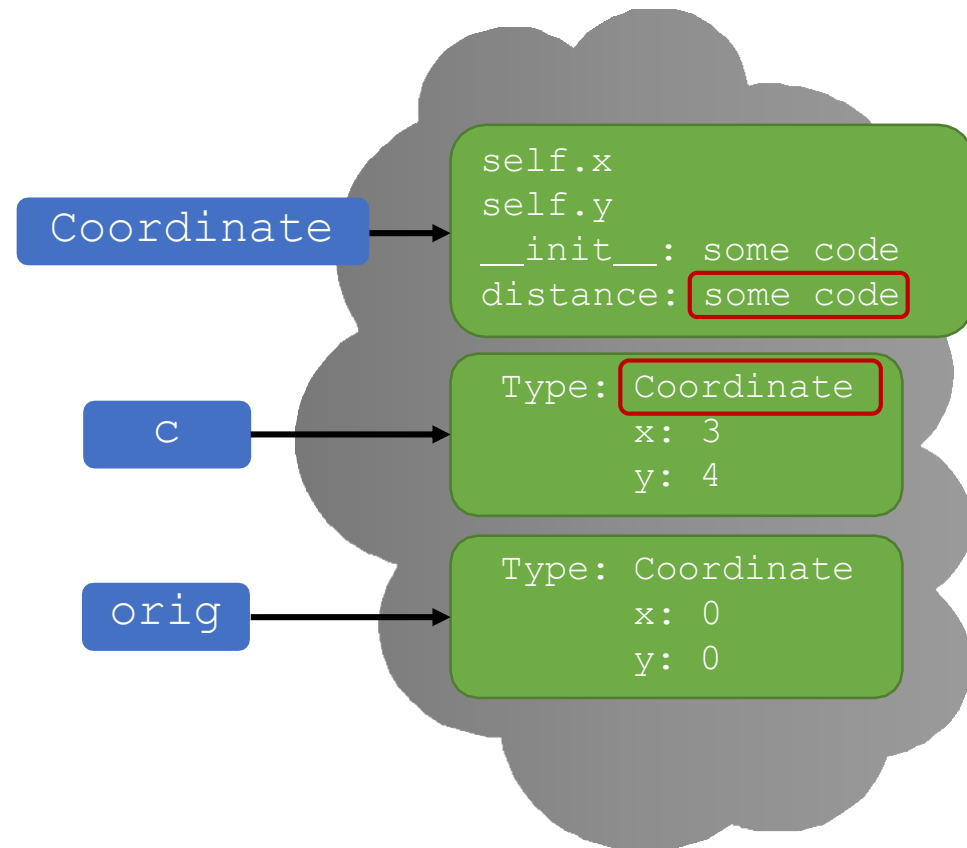
# VISUALIZING INVOCATION

---

## ► Evaluate the method call

`c.distance(orig)`

- (1) The object is before the dot
- (2) Looks up the type of `c`
- (3) The method to call is after the dot.
- (4) Finds the binding for `distance` in that object class
- (5) Invokes that method with `c` as `self` and `orig` as other



# HOW TO USE A METHOD

---

## ► Conventional way

```
c = Coordinate(3, 4)
```

```
zero = Coordinate(0, 0)
```

```
c.distance(zero)
```

object to  
call  
method  
on, this is  
self in the  
class def

name of  
method

parameters not  
including `self`  
(`self` is  
implied to be `c`)

## ► Equivalent to

```
c = Coordinate(3, 4)
```

```
zero = Coordinate(0, 0)
```

```
Coordinate.distance(c,  
zero)
```

name of  
class (NOT  
an object of  
type  
`Coordinate`)

name of  
method

parameters, including an  
object to call the method  
on, representing `self`



# BIG IDEA

---

The `.` operator accesses either data attributes or methods.

Data attributes are defined with `self.something`

Methods are functions defined inside the class with `self` as the first parameter.



# IMPLEMENTING THE CLASS vs USING THE CLASS

---

- ▶ Write code from two different perspectives
- ▶ **Implementing** a new object type with a class
  - ▶ **Define** the class
  - ▶ Define **data attributes** (WHAT IS the object)
  - ▶ Define **methods** (HOW TO use the object)
- ▶ Class abstractly captures **common** properties and behaviors
- ▶ **Using** the new object type in code
  - ▶ Create **instances** of the object type
  - ▶ Do **operations** with them
- ▶ Instances have **specific values** for attributes



# Object Oriented Programming (OOP)

---

- ▶ Bundle **related data into packages** together with **procedures that work on them** through well-defined interfaces
- ▶ **Modular** development
  - ▶ Implement and test behavior of each class separately
  - ▶ Increased modularity reduces complexity

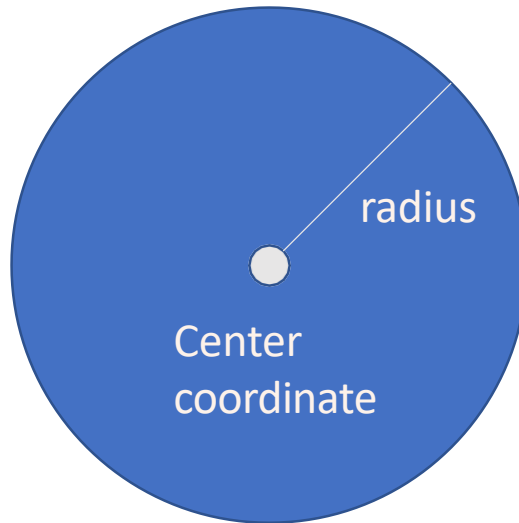




# USING CLASSES TO BUILD OTHER CLASSES

---

- ▶ Example: use Coordinates to build Circles
- ▶ Our implementation will use **2 data attributes**
  - ▶ Coordinate object representing the center
  - ▶ int object representing the radius



# CIRCLE CLASS: DEFINITION and INSTANCES

---

```
class Circle(object):
```

```
    def __init__(self, center, radius):
```

```
        self.center = center
```

```
        self.radius = radius
```

Data  
attributes,  
do not need  
to have the  
same names  
as params

Will be a Coordinate object

Will be an int

```
center = coordinate(2,2)
```

```
my_circle = Circle(center, 2)
```



# CIRCLE CLASS: DEFINITION and INSTANCES

---

```
class Circle(object):
```

```
    def __init__(self, center, radius):
```

```
        self.center = center
```

```
        self.radius = radius
```

```
    def is_inside(self, point):
```

```
        """ Returns True if point is in self, False otherwise """
```

```
        return point.distance(self.center) < self.radius
```

*self is a Circle object*

*point is a Coordinate object*

*Coordinate object*

*Method called on  
a Coordinate obj*

*Coordinate object*

```
center = Coordinate(2, 2)
```

```
my_circle = Circle(center, 2)
```

```
p = Coordinate(1,1)
```

```
print(my_circle.is_inside(p))
```

*Method that only works with obj of type Circle*

*Circle object*

*Coordinate object*



# EXAMPLE: FRACTIONS

---

- ▶ Create a **new type** to represent a number as a fraction
- ▶ **Internal representation** is two integers
  - ▶ Numerator
  - ▶ Denominator
- ▶ **Interface** a.k.a. **methods** a.k.a **how to interact** with `Fraction` objects
  - ▶ Add, subtract
  - ▶ Invert the fraction
- ▶ Let's write it together!



# NEED TO CREATE INSTANCES

---

```
class SimpleFraction(object):  
    def __init__(self, n, d):  
        self.num = n  
        self.denom = d
```



# MULTIPLY FRACTIONS

---

```
class SimpleFraction(object):
```

```
    def __init__(self, n, d):
```

```
        self.num = n
```

```
        self.denom = d
```

```
    def times(self, oth):
```

```
        top = self.num*oth.num
```

```
        bottom = self.denom*oth.denom
```

```
    return top/bottom
```

SimpleFraction objects so they each have  
\* num  
\* denom

Access num or denom to do the math



# ADD FRACTIONS

---

```
class SimpleFraction(object):  
    def __init__(self, n, d):  
        self.num = n  
        self.denom = d  
  
    .....  
    def plus(self, oth):  
        top = self.num*oth.denom + self.denom*oth.num  
        bottom = self.denom*oth.denom  
        return top/bottom
```



# LET'S TRY IT OUT


---


```
f1 = SimpleFraction(3, 4)
```

```
f2 = SimpleFraction(1, 4)
```

```
print(f1.num)            3
```

```
print(f1.denom)          4
```

```
print(f1.plus(f2))       1.0
```

```
print(f1.times(f2))      0.1875
```





# YOU TRY IT!

---

- ▶ Add two methods to invert fraction object according to the specs below:

```
class SimpleFraction(object):
    """A number represented as a fraction"""
    def __init__(self, num, denom):
        self.num = num
        self.denom = denom

    def get_inverse(self):
        """Returns a float representing 1/self"""

    def invert(self):
        """Sets self's num to denom and vice versa.
        Returns None."""

# Example:
f1 = SimpleFraction(3, 4)
print(f1.get_inverse()) # prints 1.33333333 (note this one returns value)
f1.invert() # acts on data attributes internally, no return
print(f1.num, f1.denom) # prints 4 3
```





# Dunder Methods

# LET'S TRY IT OUT WITH MORE THINGS

---

```
f1 = SimpleFraction(3, 4)
```

```
f2 = SimpleFraction(1, 4)
```

```
print(f1.num)           → 3
```

```
print(f1.denom)         → 4
```

```
print(f1.plus(f2))      → 1.0
```

```
print(f1.times(f2))     → 0.1875
```

*What if we want to keep as a fraction?*

```
print(f1)
```

**<\_\_main\_\_.SimpleFraction object at 0x00000234A8C41DF0>**

```
print(f1 * f2)
```

**Error!**

*And what if we want to have  
print and \* work as we would  
expect?*



# SPECIAL OPERATORS IMPLEMENTED WITH DUNDER METHODS

---

- ▶ +, -, \*, /, ==, <, >, len, print, and many others are shorthand notations
  - ▶ “syntactic sugar”
- ▶ Behind the scenes, these **get replaced by a method!**  
<https://docs.python.org/3/reference/datamodel.html#basic-customization>
- ▶ Can **override** these to work with your class



# SPECIAL OPERATORS IMPLEMENTED WITH DUNDER METHODS

---

► Define them with **double underscores** before/after

<code>__add__(self, other)</code>	→	<code>self + other</code>
<code>__sub__(self, other)</code>	→	<code>self - other</code>
<code>__mul__(self, other)</code>	→	<code>self * other</code>
<code>__truediv__(self, other)</code>	→	<code>self / other</code>
<code>__eq__(self, other)</code>	→	<code>self == other</code>
<code>__lt__(self, other)</code>	→	<code>self &lt; other</code>
<code>__len__(self, other)</code>	→	<code>len(self)</code>
<code>__str__(self, other)</code>	→	<code>print(self)</code>
<code>__float__(self, other)</code>	→	<code>float(self)</code> i.e. cast
<code>__pow__(self, other)</code>	→	<code>self**other</code>

... and others

---



# BIG IDEA

---

Special operations we've been using are just methods behind the scenes.

Things like: `print`, `len`, `+`, `*`, `-`, `/`, `,`, `<=`, `>=`, `==`, `!=`, `[]` and many others!



# PRINT REPRESENTATION OF AN OBJECT

---

```
>>> c = Coordinate(3,4)
>>> print(c)
<__main__.Coordinate object at 0x7fa918510488>
```

- ▶ **Uninformative** print representation by default
- ▶ Define a **\_\_str\_\_ method** for a class
- ▶ Python calls the **\_\_str\_\_** method when used with `print` on your class object
- ▶ You choose what it does! Say that when we print a `Coordinate` object, want to show

```
>>> print(c)
<3,4>
```



# DEFINING YOUR OWN PRINT METHOD

---

```
class Coordinate(object):  
    def __init__(self, xval, yval):  
        self.x = xval  
        self.y = yval  
    def distance(self, other):  
        x_diff_sq = (self.x-other.x)**2  
        y_diff_sq = (self.y-other.y)**2  
        return (x_diff_sq + y_diff_sq)**0.5  
    def __str__(self):  
        return "<" + str(self.x) + ", " + str(self.y) + ">"
```

name of  
special  
method

must  
return a  
string





# EXAMPLE: FRACTIONS WITH DUNDER METHODS

---

- ▶ The `Fraction` class
  - ▶ Add, sub, mult, div to work with `+`, `-`, `*`, `/`
  - ▶ Print representation, convert to a float
  - ▶ Invert the fraction
- ▶ Let's write it together!



# CREATE & PRINT INSTANCES

---

```
class Fraction(object):  
    def __init__(self, n, d):  
        self.num = n  
        self.denom = d  
    def __str__(self):  
        return str(self.num) + "/" + str(self.denom)
```

Concatenation means that  
every piece has to be a str



# LET'S TRY IT OUT

---

```
f1 = Fraction(3, 4)
```

```
f2 = Fraction(1, 4)
```

```
f3 = Fraction(5, 1)
```

```
print(f1)  3/4
```

```
print(f2)  1/4
```

```
print(f3)  5/1
```

**Ok, but looks weird!**



# YOU TRY IT!

---

- ▶ Modify the str method to represent the Fraction as just the numerator, when the denominator is 1. Otherwise its representation is the numerator then a / then the denominator.

```
class Fraction(object):  
    def __init__(self, n, d):  
        self.num = n  
        self.denom = d  
  
    def __str__(self):  
        return str(self.num) + "/" + str(self.denom)
```

```
# Example:  
a = Fraction(1,4)  
b = Fraction(3,1)  
print(a)           # prints 1/4  
print(b)           # prints 3
```



# COMPARING METHOD vs DUNDER METHOD

---

```
class SimpleFraction(object):  
    def __init__(self, n, d):  
        self.num = n  
        self.denom = d  
  
    .....  
    def times(self, oth):  
        top=self.num*oth.num  
        bottom=self.denom*oth.denom  
        return top/bottom
```

When we use this method, Python evaluates and returns this expression, which creates a float

```
class Fraction(object):  
    def __init__(self, n, d):  
        self.num = n  
        self.denom = d  
  
    .....  
    def __mul__(self, oth):  
        top=self.num*oth.num  
        bottom=self.denom*oth.denom  
        return Fraction(top, bottom)
```

Note: we are creating and returning a new instance of a Fraction



# LETS TRY IT OUT

---

```
a = Fraction(1, 4)
```

```
b = Fraction(3, 4)
```

```
c = a * b
```

```
print(c)
```

➡ **3/16**

Uses `__str__` for a  
Fraction object

Calls the  
`__mul__` method  
behind the scenes.  
This method returns  
`Fraction(3,16)`



# CLASSES CAN HIDE DETAILS

---

- ▶ These are all equivalent

```
print(a * b)
```

```
print(a.__mul__(b))
```

```
print(Fraction.__mul__(a, b))
```

Shorthand (nice and clear!)  
Call to dunder method, bad style with dunder methods!

Explicit class call, passing in val for self, bad style in general!

- ▶ Every operation in Python comes back to a method call
- ▶ The first instance makes clear the operation, without worrying about the internal details! **Abstraction at work**



# CAST TO A float

---

```
class Fraction(object):  
    def __init__(self, n, d):  
        self.num = n  
        self.denom = d  
  
    .....  
    def __float__(self):  
        return self.num/self.denom
```

A float since it does  
the division directly

```
c = a * b
```

```
print(c)
```



3/16

```
print(float(c))
```



0.1875

Repr for Fraction(3,16)





# LETS TRY IT OUT SOME MORE

---

```
a = Fraction(1,4)
```

```
b = Fraction(2,3)
```

```
c = a * b
```

```
print(c)  2/12
```

- ▶ Not quite what we might expect? It's not reduced.
- ▶ Can we fix this?



# ADD A METHOD

---

```
class Fraction(object):
```

```
.....
```

```
def reduce(self):
```

```
    def gcd(n, d):
```

```
        while d != 0:
```

```
            (d, n) = (n%d, d)
```

```
        return n
```

```
    if self.denom == 0:
```

```
        return None
```

```
    elif self.denom == 1:
```

```
        return self.num
```

```
    else:
```

```
        greatest_common_divisor = gcd(self.num, self.denom)
```

```
        top = int(self.num/greatest_common_divisor)
```

```
        bottom = int(self.denom/greatest_common_divisor)
```

```
        return Fraction(top, bottom)
```

Function to find the  
greatest common divisor

Call it inside the method

Still want a Fraction object back

```
c = a*b
```

```
print(c)
```

```
print(c.reduce())
```

➡ 2/12

➡ 1/6



# WE HAVE SOME IMPROVEMENTS TO MAKE

---

```
class Fraction(object):
```

```
.....
```

```
def reduce(self):
```

```
    def gcd(n, d):
```

```
        while d != 0:
```

```
            (d, n) = (n%d, d)
```

```
        return n
```

```
    if self.denom == 0:
```

```
        return None
```

```
    elif self.denom == 1:
```

```
        return self.num
```

```
    else:
```

```
        greatest_common_divisor = gcd(self.num, self.denom)
```

```
        top = int(self.num/greatest_common_divisor)
```

```
        bottom = int(self.denom/greatest_common_divisor)
```

```
        return Fraction(top, bottom)
```

*Is this a good idea?  
It does not return a Fraction so  
can no longer add or multiply  
this by other Fractions*



# CHECK THE TYPES, THEY'RE DIFFERENT

---

```
a = Fraction(4,1)
```

```
b = Fraction(3,9)
```

```
ar = a.reduce() ➡ 4
```

```
br = b.reduce() ➡ 1/3
```

```
print(ar, type(ar)) ➡ 4 <class 'int'>
```

```
print(br, type(br)) ➡ 1/3 <class '__main__.Fraction'>
```

```
print( ar * br )
```

Error! It's trying to multiply an  
**int** with a **Fraction**.  
We never defined how to do this –  
only a Fraction with another Fraction



# YOU TRY IT!

---

- ▶ Modify the code to return a Fraction object when denominator is 1

```
class Fraction(object):
    def reduce(self):
        def gcd(n, d):
            while d != 0:
                (d, n) = (n%d, d)
            return n
        if self.denom == 0:
            return None
        elif self.denom == 1:
            return self.num
        else:
            greatest_common_divisor = gcd(self.num, self.denom)
            top = int(self.num/greatest_common_divisor)
            bottom = int(self.denom/greatest_common_divisor)
            return Fraction(top, bottom)
```



# MORE IMPROVEMENTS

---

## ► But what if...

```
a = Fraction(4,1)
print( a * 2 )
```

## ► More improvement

```
class Fraction(object):
    .....
    def __mul__(self, oth):
        if type(oth) == Fraction:
            top=self.num*oth.num
            bottom=self.denom*oth.denom
        elif type(oth) == int:
            top=self.num*oth
            bottom=self.denom
        else:
            raise TypeError
        return Fraction(top, bottom)
```



# Type-Checking

---

- ▶ It is generally not recommended to use

```
type(oth) == Fraction
```

- ▶ Instead, use `instance()` to check if an object is a `Fraction`

```
instance(oth, Fraction)
```

- ▶ Why?

- ▶ Inheritance...



# OOP Summary

---

- ▶ Bundle **related data into packages** together with **procedures that work on them** through well-defined interfaces
  - ▶ **Dunder** methods behind the scenes of common operations
- ▶ Advantages?
  - ▶ Code is **organized** and **modular**, thus easy to **maintain**
  - ▶ Bundling data and behaviors means you can **use objects consistently**
  - ▶ It's easy to **build upon** objects to make more complex objects

