



SI100B: Introduction to Information Science and Technology



Lecture 11



Object Oriented Programming

OBJECTS & TYPES

► **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”

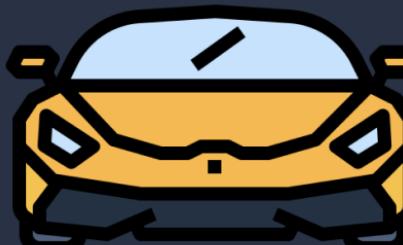
► **EVERY OBJECT HAS A TYPE**

- ▶ 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

Car States	Car Object	Car Behaviors
<ul style="list-style-type: none">• Color• Current speed• Fuel level		<ul style="list-style-type: none">• Starting the engine• Accelerating• Braking



REAL-LIFE EXAMPLES

- ▶ **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)



- ▶ 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



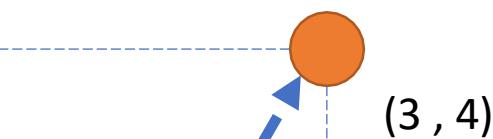
CREATING AND USING YOUR OWN TYPES WITH CLASSES

- ▶ 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



(1 , 1)

(3 , 4)

- ▶ 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):
```

special method to
create an instance
is double
underscore

```
        self.x = xval  
        self.y = yval
```

two data attributes
make up your type

parameter to what data initializes a
refer to an instance of the
Coordinate object
class without having created
one yet

- ▶ `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__`

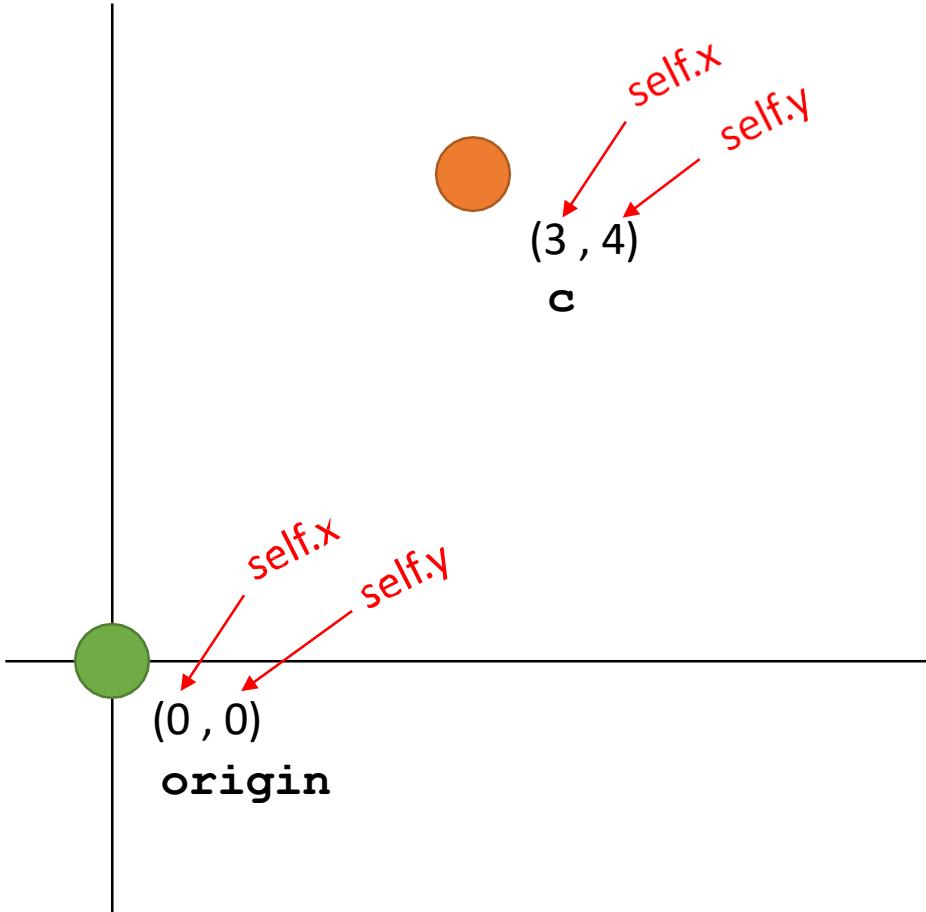
- ▶ Data attributes of an instance are called **instance variables**
 - ▶ Data attributes are accessible with dot notation for the lifetime of the object
 - ▶ All instances have these data attributes, but with different values!

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

use the dot
notation to access
an attribute of
instance c



VISUALIZING INSTANCES: draw it



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

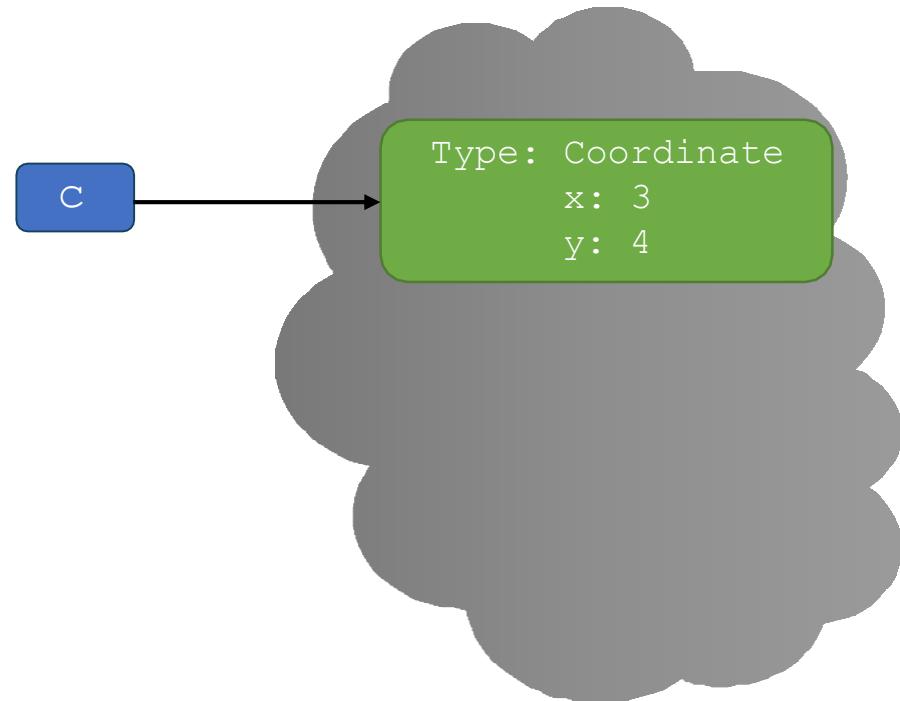
```
c = Coordinate(3, 4)  
origin = Coordinate(0, 0)  
print(c.x)  
print(origin.x)
```

The template for a
Coordinate type

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



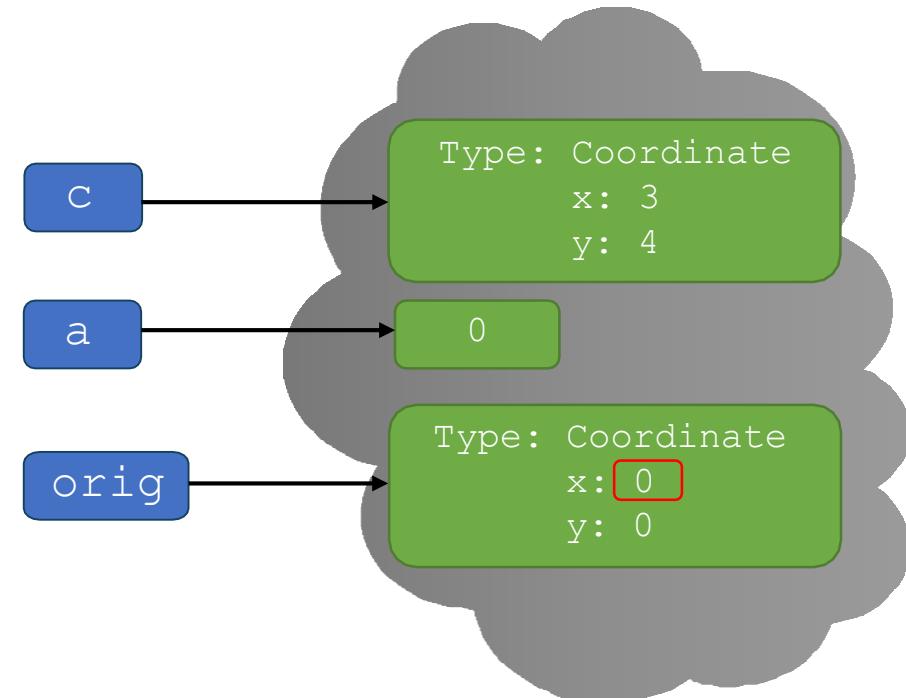
VISUALIZING INSTANCES: in memory

- ▶ 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()
```

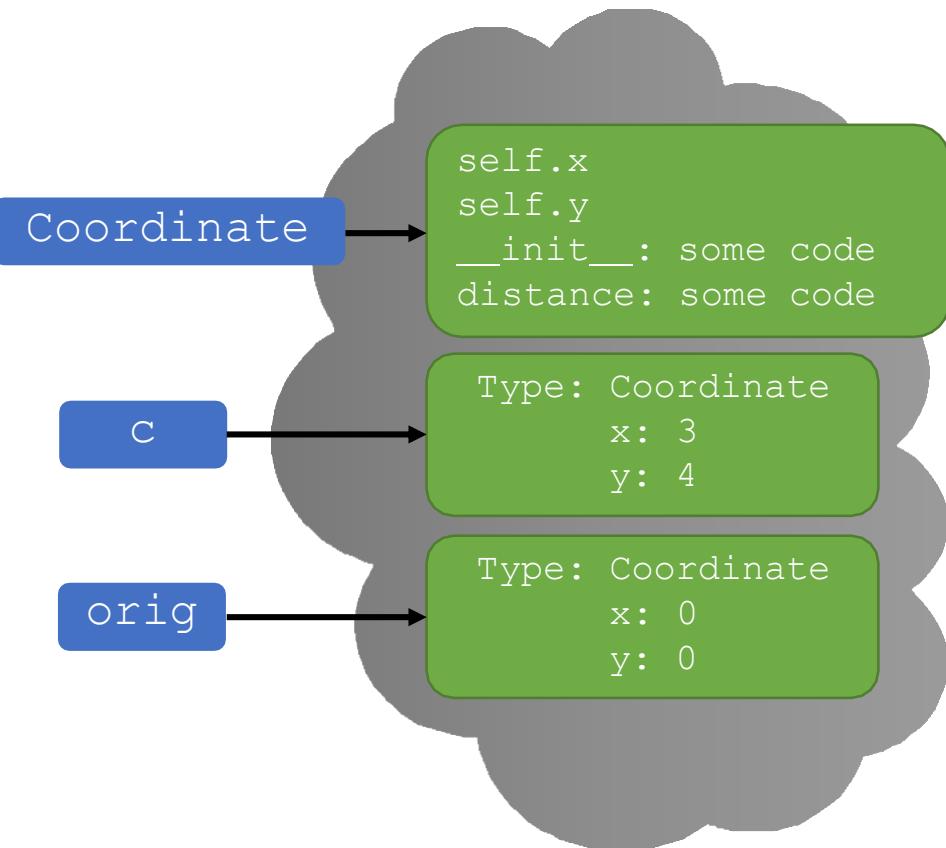
VISUALIZING INVOCATION

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

- ▶ Create two Coordinate objects

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

```
orig = Coordinate(0, 0)
```

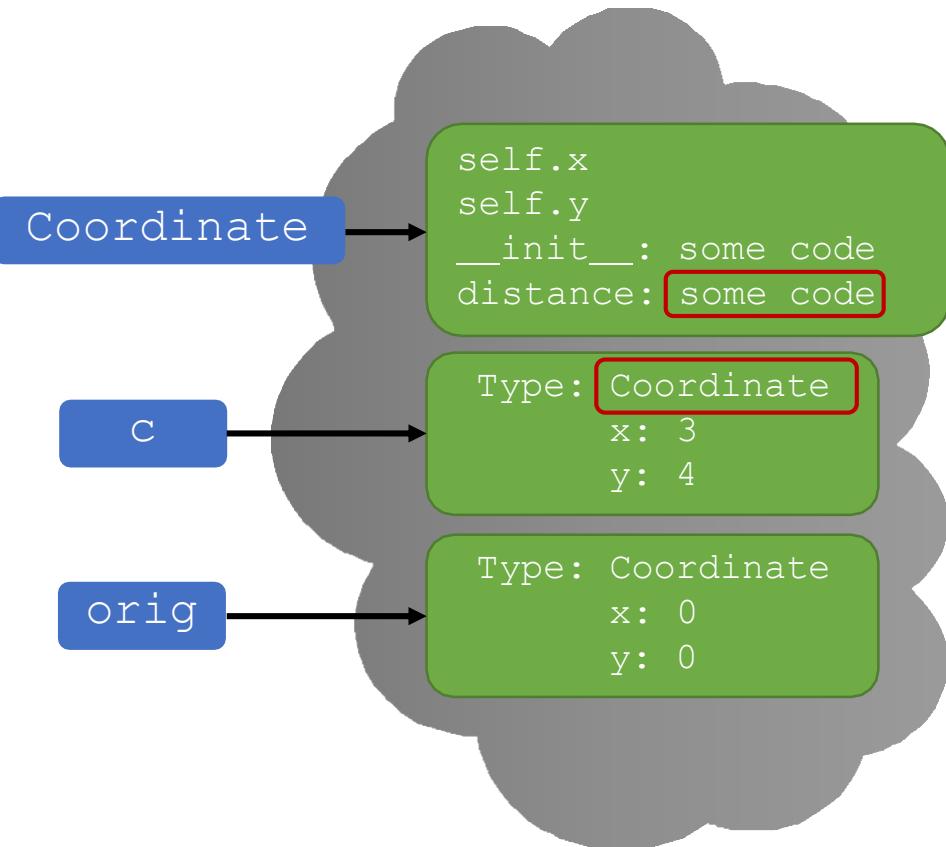


VISUALIZING INVOCATION

- ▶ 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



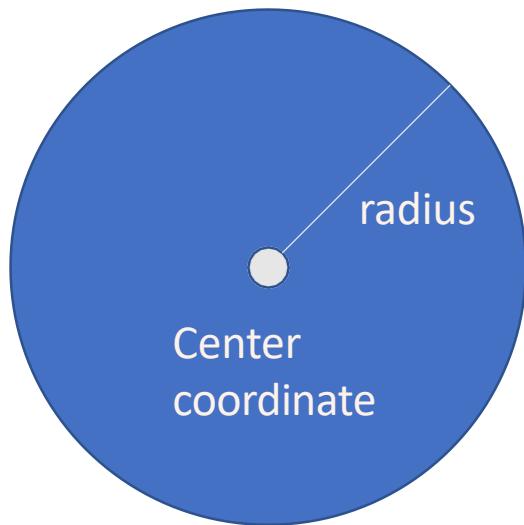
Object Oriented Programming (OOP)

- ▶ 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
```

Coordinate object

Method called on
a Coordinate obj

self is a Circle object

point is a Coordinate object

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

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

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

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

Circle object

Coordinate object

Method that only works with obj of type Circle



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"""\n    def __init__(self, num, denom):  
        self.num = num  
        self.denom = denom\n\n    def get_inverse(self):  
        """Returns a float representing 1/self"""\n\n    def invert(self):  
        """Sets self's num to denom and vice versa.  
        Returns None."""\n\n# 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 < 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) i.e. cast</code>
<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)
```



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 `isinstance()` to check if an object is a `Fraction`
`isinstance(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

