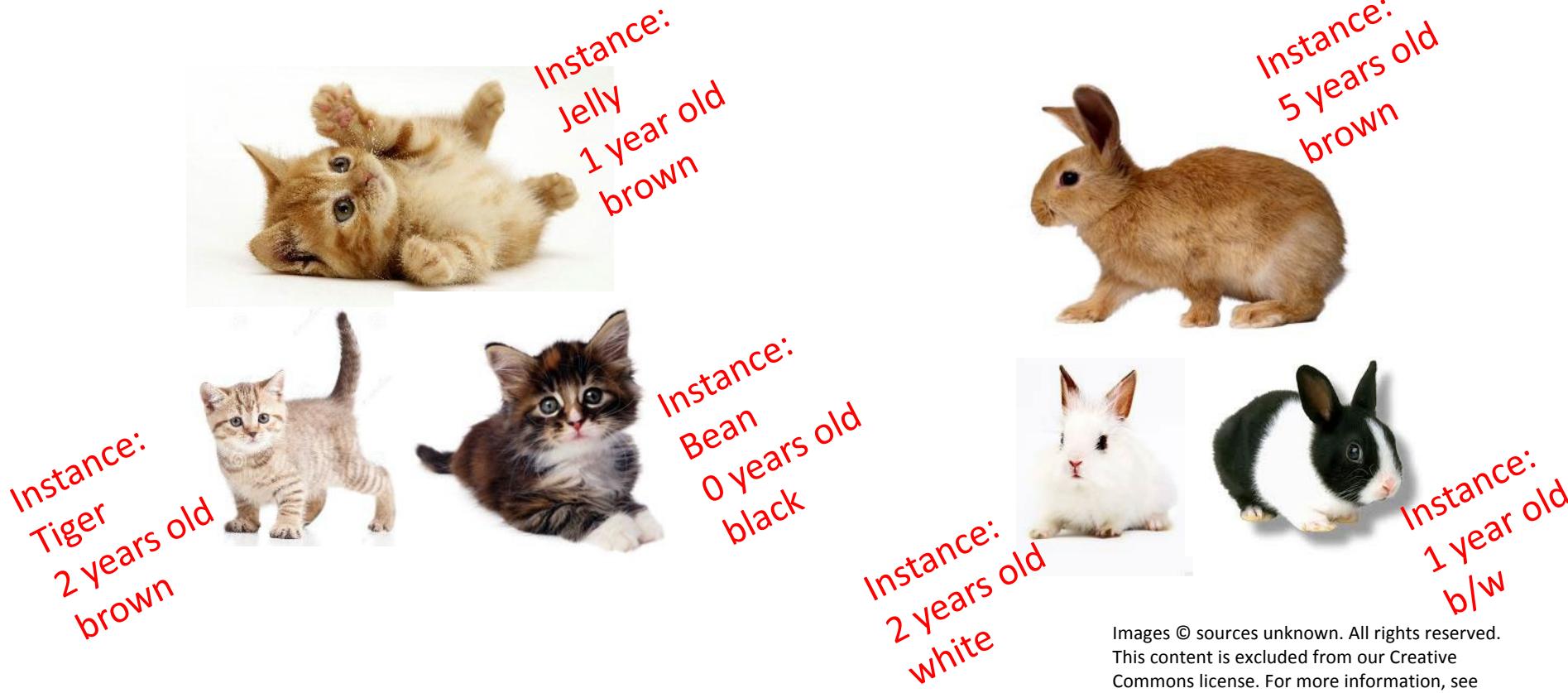


INHERITANCE

WHY USE OOP AND CLASSES OF OBJECTS?

- Mimic real life
- Group different objects part of the same type



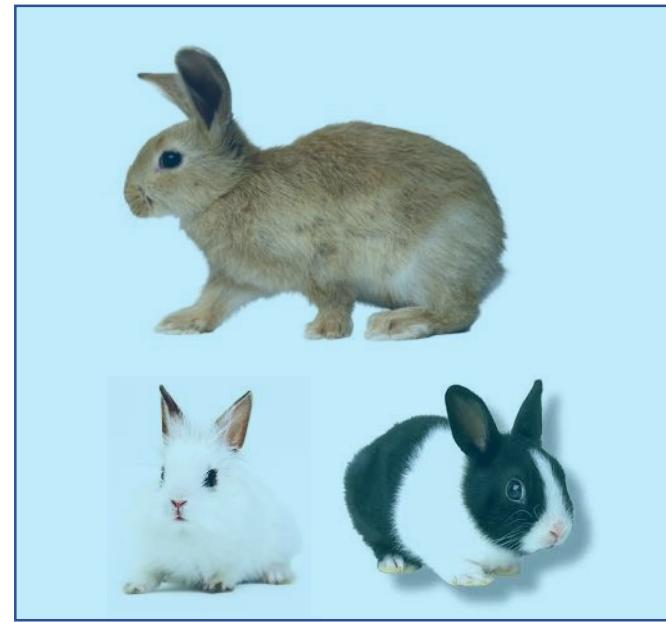
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WHY USE OOP AND CLASSES OF OBJECTS?

- Mimic real life
- Group different objects part of the same type



All instances of a type have the same data abstraction and behaviors



GROUPS OF OBJECTS HAVE ATTRIBUTES (RECAP)

■ Data attributes

- How can you represent your object with data?
- **What it is**

for a coordinate: x and y values

for an animal: age

■ Procedural attributes (behavior/operations/**methods**)

- How can someone interact with the object?
- **What it does**

for a coordinate: find distance between two

for an animal: print how long it's been alive

HOW TO DEFINE A CLASS (RECAP)

```
class definition      name      class parent
class Animal(object):
    def __init__(self, age):
        self.name = None
myanimal = Animal(3)
```

Special method to create an instance

One instance

name

class parent

Variable to refer to an instance of the class

What data initializes an Animal type

Mapped to self.age in class def

name is a data attribute even though an instance is not initialized with it as a param

GETTER AND SETTER METHODS

```
class Animal(object):
    def __init__(self, age):
        self.age = age
        self.name = None
    def __str__(self):
        return "animal:"+str(self.name)+": "+str(self.age)
```

- **Getters and setters** should be used outside of class to access data attributes

GETTER AND SETTER METHODS

```
class Animal(object):
    def __init__(self, age):
        self.age = age
        self.name = None
    def __str__(self):
        return "animal:"+str(self.name)+": "+str(self.age)
    def get_age(self):
        return self.age
    def get_name(self):
        return self.name
    def set_age(self, newage):
        self.age = newage
    def set_name(self, newname=""):
        self.name = newname
```

getter

setter

- **Getters and setters** should be used outside of class to access data attributes

AN INSTANCE and DOT NOTATION (RECAP)

- Instantiation creates an **instance of an object**

```
a = Animal(3)
```

- **Dot notation** used to access attributes (data and methods) though it is better to use getters and setters to access data attributes

```
a.age
```

```
a.get_age()
```

- access method
- best to use getters and setters

- access data attribute
- allowed, but not recommended

INFORMATION HIDING



- Author of class definition may **change data attribute** variable names

```
class Animal(object):  
    def __init__(self, age):  
        self.years = age  
    def get_age(self):  
        return self.years
```

Replaced age data attribute by years

- If you are **accessing data attributes** outside the class and class **definition changes**, may get errors
- Outside of class, use getters and setters instead
- Use `a.get_age()` NOT `a.age`
 - good style
 - easy to maintain code
 - prevents bugs

CHANGING INTERNAL REPRESENTATION

```
class Animal(object):
    def __init__(self, age):
        self.years = age
        self.name = None
    def __str__(self):
        return "animal:"+str(self.name)+": "+str(self.age)
    def get_age(self):
        return self.years
    def set_age(self, newage):
        self.years = newage
```

```
a.get_age()      # works
a.age            # error
```

Change internal rep from
self.age = age

Accessing methods works
correctly, but accessing data
attributes no longer works.

- **Getters and setters** should be used outside of class to access data attributes

PYTHON NOT GREAT AT INFORMATION HIDING



- Allows you to **access data** from outside class definition
`print(a.age)`
- Allows you to **write to data** from outside class definition
`a.age = 'infinite'`
- Allows you to **create data attributes** for an instance from outside class definition
`a.size = "tiny"`
- It's **not good style** to do any of these!

USE OUR NEW CLASS

```
def animal_dict(L):
    """ L is a list
    Returns a dict, d, mapping an int to an Animal object.
    A key in d is all non-negative ints, n, in L. A value
    corresponding to a key is an Animal object with n as its age. """
    d = {}
    for n in L:
        if type(n) == int and n >= 0:
            d[n] = Animal(n)
    return d

L = [2, 5, 'a', -5, 0]
```

Invoke the name of the class
with parameter n (i.e. the
age of that animal)

USE OUR NEW CLASS

- Python doesn't know how to call print recursively

```
def animal_dict(L):
    """ L is a list
    Returns a dict, d, mapping an int to an Animal object.
    A key in d is all non-negative ints n in L. A value corresponding
    to a key is an Animal object with n as its age. """
    d = {}
    for n in L:
        if type(n) == int and n >= 0:
            d[n] = Animal(n)
    return d

L = [2, 5, 'a', -5, 0]

animals = animal_dict(L)
print(animals)
```

Return is a dict mapping int:Animal
{2: <__main__.Animal object at 0x00000199AFF350A0>,
5: <__main__.Animal object at 0x00000199AFF35A30>,
0: <__main__.Animal object at 0x00000199AFF35D00>}

USE OUR NEW CLASS

```
def animal_dict(L):
    """ L is a list
    Returns a dict, d, mapping an int to an Animal object.
    A key in d is all non-negative ints n L. A value corresponding
    to a key is an Animal object with n as its age. """
    d = {}
    for n in L:
        if type(n) == int and n >= 0:
            d[n] = Animal(n)
    return d

L = [2, 5, 'a', -5, 0]

animals = animal_dict(L)
for n,a in animals.items():
    print(f'key {n} with val {a}')
```

Manually loop over animal
objects and access their data
attr through getter methods

key 2 with val animal:None:2
key 5 with val animal:None:5
key 0 with val animal:None:0

YOU TRY IT!

- Write a function that meets this spec.

```
def make_animals(L1, L2):  
    """ L1 is a list of ints and L2 is a list of str  
        L1 and L2 have the same length  
        Creates a list of Animals the same length as L1 and L2.  
        An animal object at index i has the age and name  
        corresponding to the same index in L1 and L2, respectively. """
```

#For example:

```
L1 = [2,5,1]  
L2 = ["blobfish", "crazyant", "parafox"]  
animals = make_animals(L1, L2)  
print(animals)      # note this prints a list of animal objects  
for i in animals: # this loop prints the individual animals  
    print(i)
```

BIG IDEA

Access data attributes

(stuff defined by self.xxx)

through methods – it's
better style.

HIERARCHIES

Animal



Cat

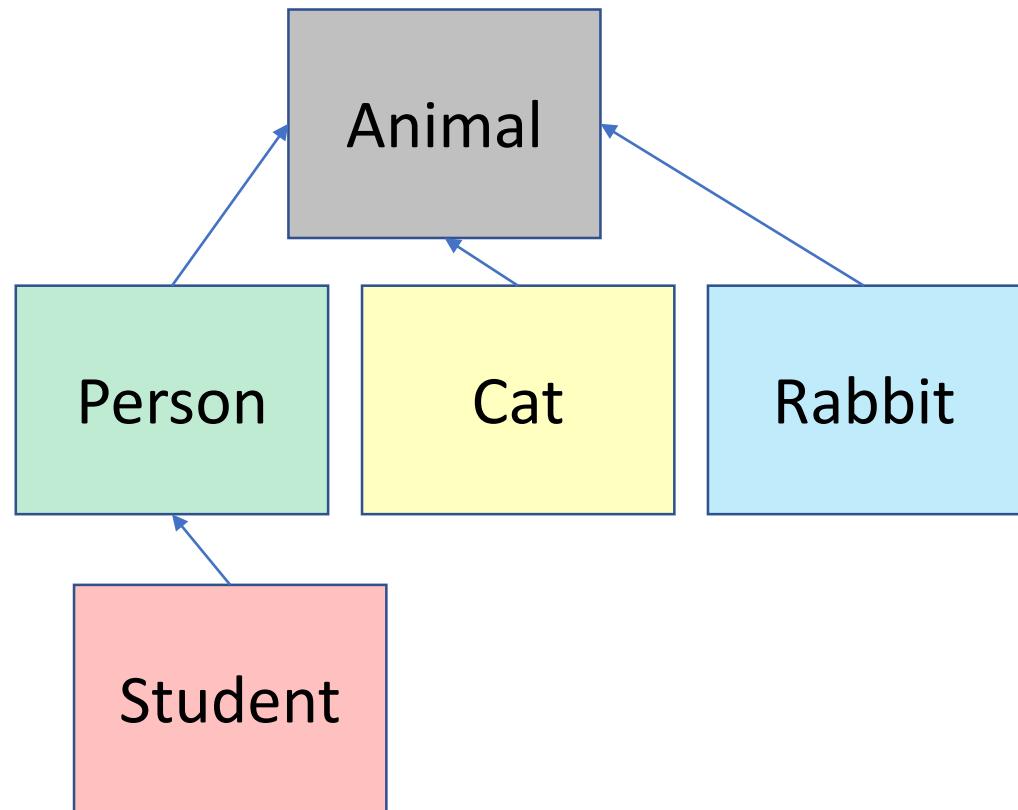


Rabbit



HIERARCHIES

- **Parent class** (superclass)
- **Child class** (subclass)
 - **Inherits** all data and behaviors of parent class
 - **Add more info**
 - **Add more behavior**
 - **Override** behavior



INHERITANCE: PARENT CLASS

```
class Animal(object):
    def __init__(self, age):
        self.age = age
        self.name = None
    def get_age(self):
        return self.age
    def get_name(self):
        return self.name
    def set_age(self, newage):
        self.age = newage
    def set_name(self, newname=""):
        self.name = newname
    def __str__(self):
        return "animal:"+str(self.name)+": "+str(self.age)
```

- everything is an object
- class object
implements basic
operations in Python, like
binding variables, etc

SUBCLASS CAT

INHERITANCE: SUBCLASS

Add new
functionality via
speak method

```
class Cat(Animal):
    def speak(self):
        print("meow")
    def __str__(self):
        return "cat:"+str(self.name)+": "+str(self.age)
```

Inherits all attributes of Animal:

__init__()
age, name
get_age(), get_name()
set_age(), set_name()
__str__()

Overrides __str__

- Add new functionality with speak ()
 - Instance of type Cat can be called with new methods
 - Instance of type Animal throws error if called with Cat's new method
- __init__ is not missing, uses the Animal version

WHICH METHOD TO USE?

- Subclass can have **methods with same name** as superclass
- For an instance of a class, look for a method name in **current class definition**
- If not found, look for method name **up the hierarchy** (in parent, then grandparent, and so on)
- Use first method up the hierarchy that you found with that method name

SUBCLASS PERSON

```

class Person(Animal):
    def __init__(self, name, age):
        Animal.__init__(self, age)
        self.set_name(name)
        self.friends = []
    def get_friends(self):
        return self.friends.copy()
    def add_friend(self, fname):
        if fname not in self.friends:
            self.friends.append(fname)
    def speak(self):
        print("hello")
    def age_diff(self, other):
        diff = self.age - other.age
        print(abs(diff), "year difference")
    def __str__(self):
        return "person:" + str(self.name) + ":" + str(self.age)

```

Parent class is Animal

Call Animal constructor to run lines of code in Animal's init

Call Animal's method

Add a new data attribute

New methods

Override Animal's str method

YOU TRY IT!

- Write a function according to this spec.

```
def make_pets(d):  
    """ d is a dict mapping a Person obj to a Cat obj  
    Prints, on each line, the name of a person, a colon, and the  
    name of that person's cat """  
    pass  
  
p1 = Person("ana", 86)  
p2 = Person("james", 7)  
c1 = Cat(1)  
c1.set_name("furball")  
c2 = Cat(1)  
c2.set_name("fluffsphere")  
  
d = {p1:c1, p2:c2}  
make_pets(d)  # prints ana:furball  
                #           james:fluffsphere
```

BIG IDEA

A subclass can
use a parent's attributes,
override a parent's attributes, or
define new attributes.

Attributes are either data or methods.

SUBCLASS STUDENT

```
import random

class Student(Person):
    def __init__(self, name, age, major=None):
        Person.__init__(self, name, age)
        self.major = major

    def change_major(self, major):
        self.major = major

    def speak(self):
        r = random.random()
        if r < 0.25:
            print("I have homework")
        elif 0.25 <= r < 0.5:
            print("I need sleep")
        elif 0.5 <= r < 0.75:
            print("I should eat")
        else:
            print("I'm still zooming")

    def __str__(self):
        return "student:"+str(self.name)+":"+str(self.age)+":"+str(self.major)
```

Bring in functions from random library
Inherits Person and Animal attributes
Person __init__ takes care of all initializations
Adds new data

- I looked up how to use the random library in the python docs
- random() method gives back float in [0, 1]

SUBCLASS RABBIT

CLASS VARIABLES AND THE Rabbit SUBCLASS

- **Class variables** and their values are shared between all instances of a class

```
class Rabbit(Animal):
    tag = 1
    def __init__(self, age, parent1=None, parent2=None):
        Animal.__init__(self, age)
        self.parent1 = parent1
        self.parent2 = parent2
        self.rid = Rabbit.tag
    Rabbit.tag += 1
```

Shared class variable

parent class

instance variable

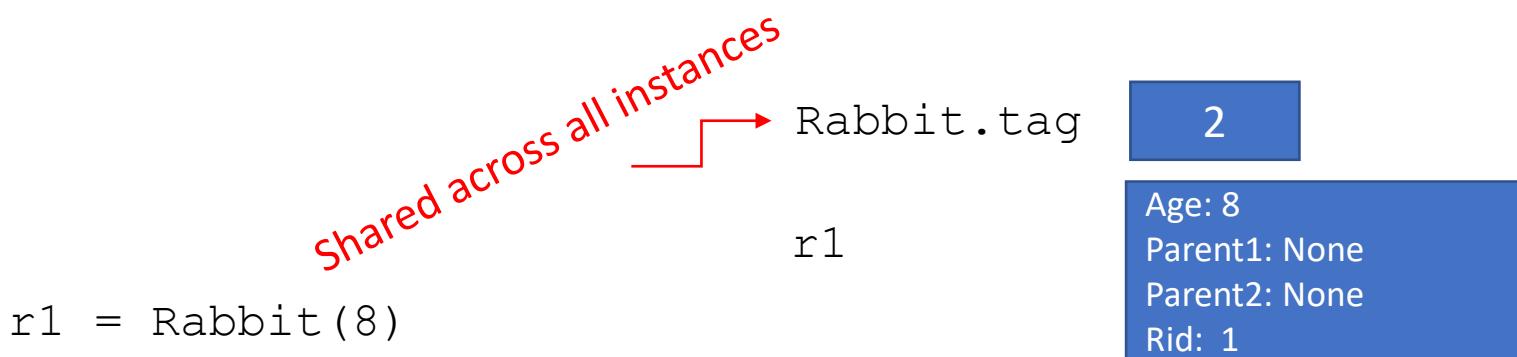
Access shared class variable

Incrementing class variable changes it for all instances that may reference it

- tag used to give **unique id** to each new rabbit instance

RECALL THE `__init__` OF Rabbit

```
def __init__(self, age, parent1=None, parent2=None):
    Animal.__init__(self, age)
    self.parent1 = parent1
    self.parent2 = parent2
    self.rid = Rabbit.tag
    Rabbit.tag += 1
```



RECALL THE `__init__` OF Rabbit

```
def __init__(self, age, parent1=None, parent2=None):
    Animal.__init__(self, age)
    self.parent1 = parent1
    self.parent2 = parent2
    self.rid = Rabbit.tag
    Rabbit.tag += 1
```

Shared across all instances

```
r1 = Rabbit(8)  
r2 = Rabbit(6)
```

r1
Rabbit.tag

3

Age: 8
Parent1: None
Parent2: None
Rid: 1

r2

Age: 6
Parent1: None
Parent2: None
Rid: 2

RECALL THE `__init__` OF Rabbit

```
def __init__(self, age, parent1=None, parent2=None):
    Animal.__init__(self, age)
    self.parent1 = parent1
    self.parent2 = parent2
    self.rid = Rabbit.tag
    Rabbit.tag += 1
```

Shared across all instances

r1 = Rabbit(8)

r2 = Rabbit(6)

r3 = Rabbit(10)

Rabbit.tag

r1

r2

r3

4

Age: 8
Parent1: None
Parent2: None
Rid: 1

Age: 6
Parent1: None
Parent2: None
Rid: 2

Age: 10
Parent1: None
Parent2: None
Rid: 3

Rabbit GETTER METHODS

```
class Rabbit(Animal):
    tag = 1
    def __init__(self, age, parent1=None, parent2=None):
        Animal.__init__(self, age)
        self.parent1 = parent1
        self.parent2 = parent2
        self.rid = Rabbit.tag
        Rabbit.tag += 1
    def get_rid(self):
        return str(self.rid).zfill(5)
    def get_parent1(self):
        return self.parent1
    def get_parent2(self):
        return self.parent2
```

Method on a string to pad
the beginning with zeros
for example, 00001 not 1

- getter methods specific
for a Rabbit class
- there are also getters
get_name and get_age
inherited from Animal

WORKING WITH YOUR OWN TYPES

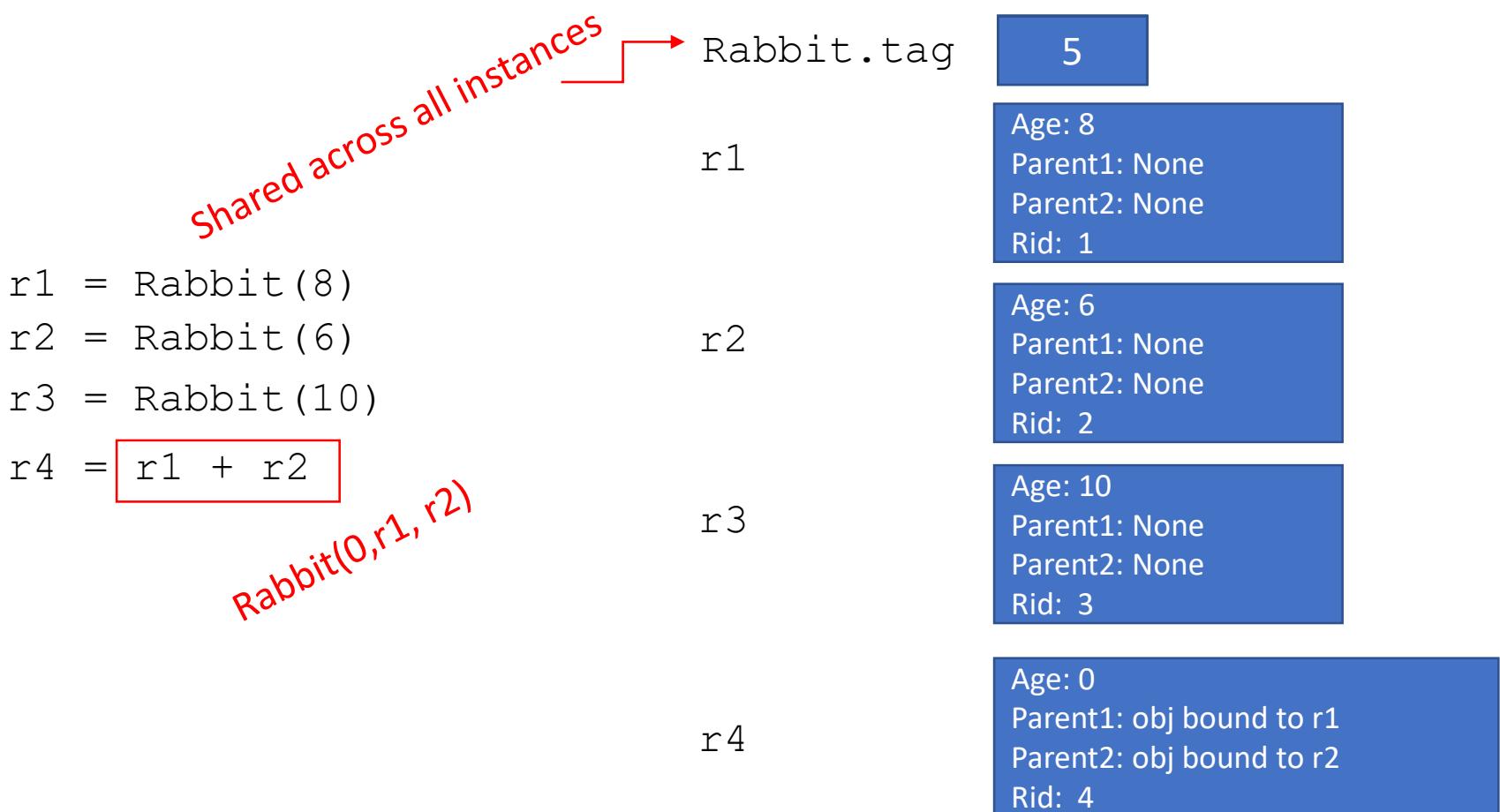
```
def __add__(self, other):  
    # returning object of same type as this class  
    return Rabbit(0, self, other)
```

recall Rabbit's `__init__(self, age, parent1=None, parent2=None)`

- Define **+ operator** between two Rabbit instances
 - Define what something like this does: `r4 = r1 + r2` where `r1` and `r2` are Rabbit instances
 - `r4` is a new Rabbit instance with age 0
 - `r4` has `self` as one parent and `other` as the other parent
 - In `__init__`, **parent1 and parent2 are of type Rabbit**

RECALL THE `__init__` OF Rabbit

```
def __init__(self, age, parent1=None, parent2=None):
    Animal.__init__(self, age)
    self.parent1 = parent1
    self.parent2 = parent2
    self.rid = Rabbit.tag
    Rabbit.tag += 1
```



SPECIAL METHOD TO COMPARE TWO Rabbits

- Decide that two rabbits are equal if they have the **same two parents**

```
def __eq__(self, other):  
    parents_same = (self.p1.rid == oth.p1.rid and self.p2.rid == oth.p2.rid)  
    parents_opp = (self.p2.rid == oth.p1.rid and self.p1.rid == oth.p2.rid)  
    return parents_same or parents_opp
```

Booleans
checking
r1+r2 or
r2+r1

- Compare ids of parents since **ids are unique** (due to class var)
- Note you can't compare objects directly
 - For ex. with `self.parent1 == other.parent1`
 - This calls the `__eq__` method over and over until call it on `None` and gives an `AttributeError` when it tries to do `None.parent1`

BIG IDEA

Class variables are
shared between all
instances.

If one instance changes it, it's changed for every instance.

OBJECT ORIENTED PROGRAMMING

- Create your own **collections of data**
- **Organize** information
- **Division** of work
- Access information in a **consistent** manner

- Add **layers** of complexity
 - Hierarchies
 - Child classes inherit data and methods from parent classes
- Like functions, classes are a mechanism for **decomposition** and **abstraction** in programming

ITERATORS

Lists, tuples, dictionaries, and sets are all iterable objects. They are iterable *containers* which you can get an iterator from.

All these objects have a `iter()` method which is used to get an iterator:

```
mytuple = ("apple", "banana", "cherry")
myit = iter(mytuple)

print(next(myit))
print(next(myit))
print(next(myit))

[✓] 0.0s
```

- apple
- banana
- cherry

ITERATORS

To create an object/class as an iterator you have to implement the methods `__iter__()` and `__next__()` to your object.

As you have learned in the [Python Classes/Objects](#) chapter, all classes have a function called `__init__()`, which allows you to do some initializing when the object is being created.

The `__iter__()` method acts similar, you can do operations (initializing etc.), but must always return the iterator object itself.

The `__next__()` method also allows you to do operations, and must return the next item in the sequence.

```
▶ ▾ class MyNumbers:
    def __iter__(self):
        self.a = 1
        return self

    def __next__(self):
        x = self.a
        self.a += 1
        return x

myclass = MyNumbers()
myiter = iter(myclass)

print(next(myiter))
print(next(myiter))
print(next(myiter))
print(next(myiter))
print(next(myiter))

[2] ✓ 0.0s
...
1
2
3
4
5
```

ITERATORS

The example above would continue forever if you had enough `next()` statements, or if it was used in a `for` loop.

To prevent the iteration from going on forever, we can use the `StopIteration` statement.

In the `__next__()` method, we can add a terminating condition to raise an error if the iteration is done a specified number of times:

```
class MyNumbers:
    def __iter__(self):
        self.a = 1
        return self

    def __next__(self):
        if self.a <= 4:
            x = self.a
            self.a += 1
            return x
        else:
            raise StopIteration

myclass = MyNumbers()
myiter = iter(myclass)

for x in myiter:
    print(x)
```

[4] ✓ 0.0s

... 1
2
3
4
5

GENERATORS

A generator function is a special type of function that returns an iterator object. Instead of using return to send back a single value, generator functions use yield to produce a series of results over time. This allows the function to generate values and pause its execution after each yield, maintaining its state between iterations.

```
def fun(max):
    cnt = 1
    while cnt <= max:
        yield cnt
        cnt += 1

ctr = fun(5)
for n in ctr:
    print(n)
```

Output

```
1
2
3
4
5
```

GENERATORS

Creating a generator in Python is as simple as defining a function with at least one `yield` statement. When called, this function doesn't return a single value; instead, it returns a generator object that supports the iterator protocol.

```
# A generator function that yields 1 for first time,
# 2 second time and 3 third time
def fun():
    yield 1
    yield 2
    yield 3

# Driver code to check above generator function
for val in fun():
    print(val)
```

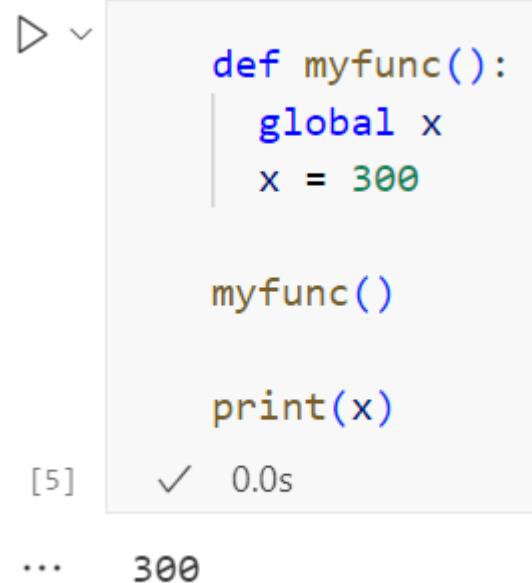
Output

```
1
2
3
```

SCOPE

If you need to create a global variable, but are stuck in the local scope, you can use the `global` keyword.

The `global` keyword makes the variable global.



A screenshot of a Jupyter Notebook cell. The code defines a function `myfunc` that sets a global variable `x` to 300. It then prints the value of `x`. The output shows the code, the function call, the print statement, and the result "300".

```
def myfunc():
    global x
    x = 300

myfunc()

print(x)

[5]    ✓  0.0s

...      300
```

SCOPE

To change the value of a global variable inside a function, refer to the variable by using the `global` keyword:

```
x = 300

def myfunc():
    global x
    x = 200

myfunc()

print(x)

[6] ✓ 0.0s
...
... 200
```

SCOPE

The `nonlocal` keyword is used to work with variables inside nested functions.

The `nonlocal` keyword makes the variable belong to the outer function.

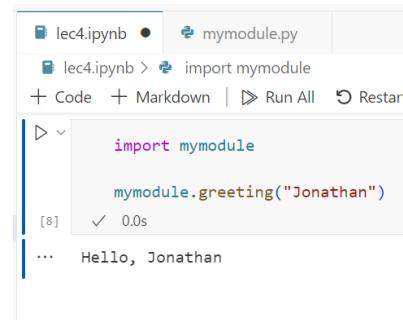
```
def myfunc1():
    x = "Jane"
    def myfunc2():
        nonlocal x
        x = "hello"
        myfunc2()
    return x

print(myfunc1())

[7] ✓ 0.0s
... hello
```

MODULES

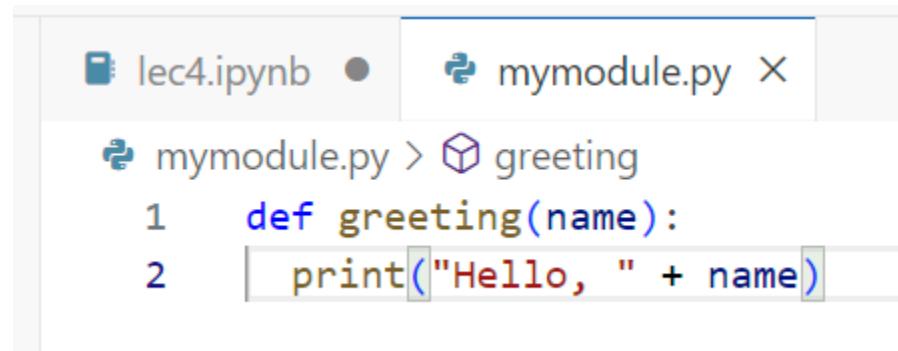
To create a module just save the code you want in a file with the file extension `.py`:



A screenshot of a Jupyter Notebook interface. The top bar shows two files: 'lec4.ipynb' and 'mymodule.py'. Below the bar are buttons for '+ Code', '+ Markdown', 'Run All', and 'Restart'. A code cell contains the following Python code:

```
import mymodule  
  
mymodule.greeting("Jonathan")
```

The cell output shows a green checkmark and '0.0s' execution time, followed by the text 'Hello, Jonathan'.



A screenshot of a Jupyter Notebook interface. The top bar shows 'lec4.ipynb' and 'mymodule.py'. The 'mymodule.py' tab is active. Below the tabs, the code for the 'greeting' function is displayed:

```
mymodule.py > greeting  
1 def greeting(name):  
2     print("Hello, " + name)
```

MODULES

The module can contain functions, as already described, but also variables of all types (arrays, dictionaries, objects etc):

The screenshot shows a Jupyter Notebook environment with two files open:

- lec4.ipynb**: A code cell containing:

```
import mm1

a = mm1.person1["age"]
print(a)
```

The cell output is: [15] 36
- mm1.py**: A Python file containing:

```
person1 = {
    "name": "John",
    "age": 36,
    "country": "Norway"
}
```

MODULES

You can create an alias when you import a module, by using the `as` keyword



```
import mm1 as m  
  
a = m.person1["age"]  
print(a)
```

[17]

✓ 0.0s

... 36

MODULES

There are several built-in modules in Python, which you can import whenever you like.



```
import platform  
  
x = platform.system()  
print(x)  
[18]    ✓  0.0s
```

... Windows

Using the dir() Function

There is a built-in function to list all the function names (or variable names) in a module. The `dir()` function

```
import platform

x = dir(platform)
print(x)

[19] ✓ 0.0s
...
...  ['_Processor', '_WIN32_CLIENT_RELEASES', '_WIN32_SERVER_RELEASES']
```

DATETIME

A date in Python is not a data type of its own, but we can import a module named `datetime` to work with dates as date objects.



```
import datetime  
  
x = datetime.datetime.now()  
  
print(x.year)  
print(x.strftime("%A"))
```

[21] ✓ 0.0s

... 2025
Monday

DATETIME

To create a date, we can use the `datetime()` class (constructor) of the `datetime` module.

The `datetime()` class requires three parameters to create a date: year, month, day.

```
▶ ~ import datetime  
      x = datetime.datetime(2020, 5, 17)  
      print(x)  
[22] ✓ 0.0s  
... 2020-05-17 00:00:00
```

DATETIME

The `datetime` object has a method for formatting date objects into readable strings.

The method is called `strftime()`, and takes one parameter, `format`, to specify the format of the returned string:



[23]

```
import datetime  
  
x = datetime.datetime(2018, 6, 1)  
  
print(x.strftime("%B"))
```

✓ 0.0s

... June

Python math

The `min()` and `max()` functions can be used to find the lowest or highest value in an iterable

The `abs()` function returns the absolute (positive) value of the specified number

The `pow(x, y)` function returns the value of x to the power of y (x^y)

```
x = min(5, 10, 25)
y = max(5, 10, 25)

print(x)
print(y)
[24] ✓ 0.0s
...
... 5
25
```

```
x = abs(-7.25)

print(x)
[25] ✓ 0.0s
...
... 7.25
```

```
▷ ▾ x = pow(4, 3)

print(x)
[26] ✓ 0.0s
...
... 64
```

Python math

Python has also a built-in module called `math`, which extends the list of mathematical functions.

The `math.sqrt()` method for example, returns the square root of a number

```
▶ ~ import math  
  
          x = math.sqrt(64)  
  
          print(x)  
[27]    ✓  0.0s  
  
...     8.0
```

Python math

The `math.ceil()` method rounds a number upwards to its nearest integer, and the `math.floor()` method rounds a number downwards to its nearest integer, and returns the result



```
import math

x = math.ceil(1.4)
y = math.floor(1.4)

print(x) # returns 2
print(y) # returns 1
```

[28]

✓ 0.0s

...

2

1

JSON

Python has a built-in package called `json`, which can be used to work with JSON data.

JSON is text, written with JavaScript object notation.

If you have a JSON string, you can parse it by using the `json.loads()` method.



```
import json

# some JSON:
x = '{ "name":"John", "age":30, "city":"New York"}'

# parse x:
y = json.loads(x)

# the result is a Python dictionary:
print(y["age"])

[29] ✓ 0.0s
```

... 30

JSON

If you have a Python object, you can convert it into a JSON string by using the `json.dumps()` method.

```
import json

# a Python object (dict):
x = {
    "name": "John",
    "age": 30,
    "city": "New York"
}

# convert into JSON:
y = json.dumps(x)

# the result is a JSON string:
print(y)
```

[30] ✓ 0.0s

... {"name": "John", "age": 30, "city": "New York"}

JSON

You can convert Python objects of the following types, into JSON strings:

- dict
- list
- tuple
- string
- int
- float
- True
- False
- None

```
▶ ▾ import json

print(json.dumps({"name": "John", "age": 30}))
print(json.dumps(["apple", "bananas"]))
print(json.dumps(("apple", "bananas")))
print(json.dumps("hello"))
print(json.dumps(42))
print(json.dumps(31.76))
print(json.dumps(True))
print(json.dumps(False))
print(json.dumps(None))

[31] ✓ 0.0s
...
{"name": "John", "age": 30}
["apple", "bananas"]
["apple", "bananas"]
"hello"
42
31.76
true
false
null
```

JSON

When you convert from Python to JSON, Python objects are converted into the JSON (JavaScript) equivalent:

Python	JSON
dict	Object
list	Array
tuple	Array
str	String
int	Number
float	Number
True	true
False	false
None	null

JSON

You can also define the separators, default value is (" ", ", " : " "), which means using a comma and a space to separate each object, and a colon and a space to separate keys from values:

```
▶ ~
import json

x = {
    "name": "John",
    "age": 30,
    "married": True,
    "divorced": False,
    "children": ("Ann","Billy"),
    "pets": None,
    "cars": [
        {"model": "BMW 230", "mpg": 27.5},
        {"model": "Ford Edge", "mpg": 24.1}
    ]
}

print(json.dumps(x, indent=4, separators=(". ", " = ")))
[33] ✓ 0.0s
...
{
    "name" = "John".
    "age" = 30.
    "married" = true.
    "divorced" = false.
    "children" = [
        "Ann".
        "Billy"
    ].
    "pets" = null.
```

JSON

The `json.dumps()` method has parameters to order the keys in the result

```
▷ v
  json.dumps(x, indent=4, sort_keys=True)
[34] ✓ 0.0s
...
... '{\n    "age": 30,\n    "cars": [\n        {\n            "model": "BMW 230",\n            "mpg": 27.5\n        },\n        {\n            "model": "F0
```

JSON

The JSON package in Python has a function called `json.dumps()` that helps in converting a dictionary to a JSON object. It takes two parameters:

- **dictionary** – the name of a dictionary which should be converted to a JSON object.
- **indent** – defines the number of units for indentation

```
import json

# Data to be written
dictionary = {
    "name": "sathiyajith",
    "rollno": 56,
    "cgpa": 8.6,
    "phonenumber": "9976770500"
}

# Serializing json
json_object = json.dumps(dictionary, indent=4)

# Writing to sample.json
with open("sample.json", "w") as outfile:
    outfile.write(json_object)
```

Output:

```
{
    "name": "sathiyajith",
    "rollno": 56,
    "cgpa": 8.6,
    "phonenumber": "9976770500"
}
```

JSON

The JSON package has `json.load()` function that loads the JSON content from a JSON file into a dictionary.
It takes one parameter:

- **File pointer:** A file pointer that points to a JSON file.



```
import json

with open("sample-data.json","r") as openfile:
    data = json.load(openfile)

print(data)
```

[11]

... {'totalCount': '400', 'imdata': [{}{'l1PhysIf': {'attributes': {'adminSt':

