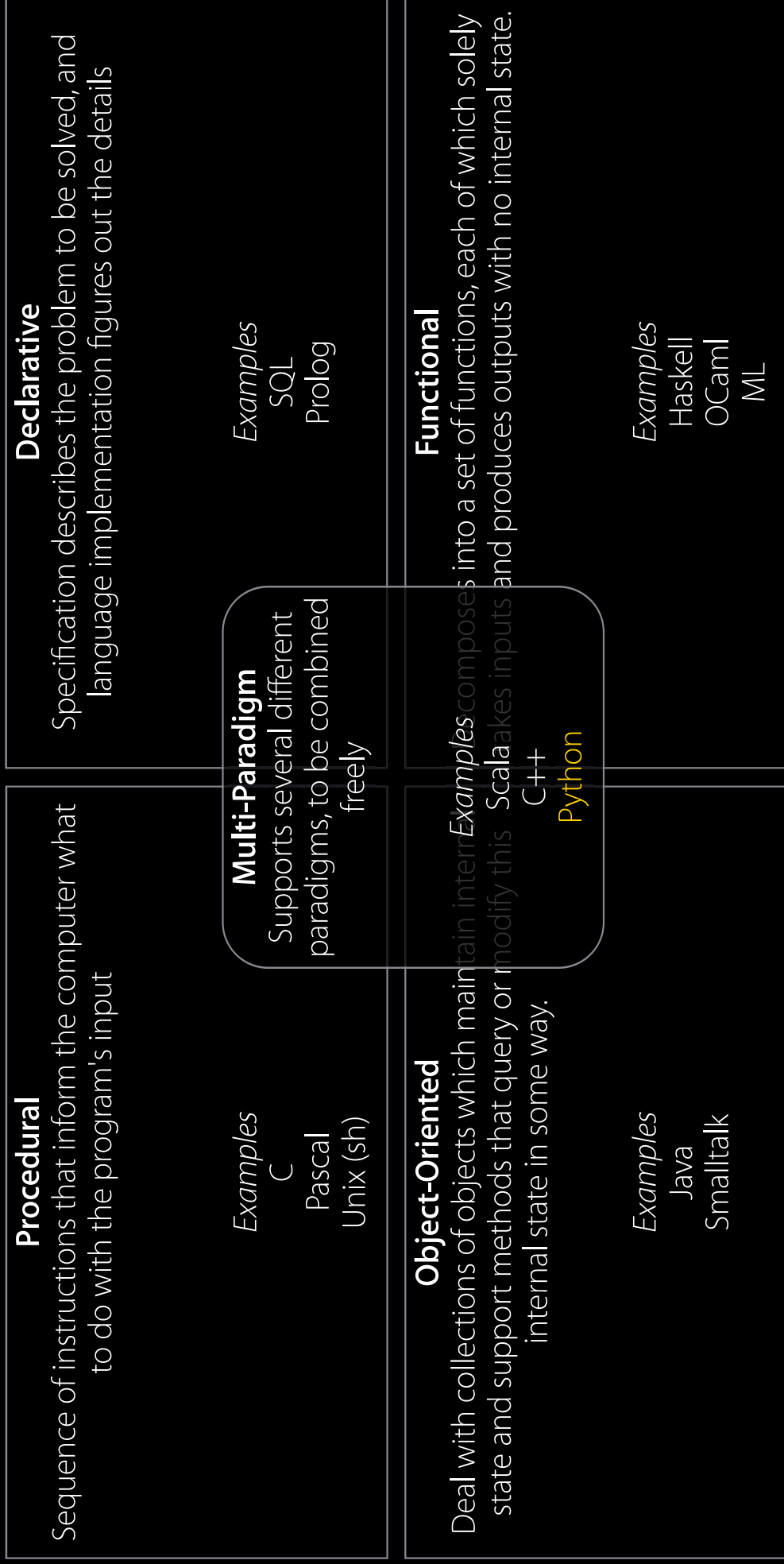


Object-Oriented Python

Recall: Programming Paradigms



Objects, Names, Attributes

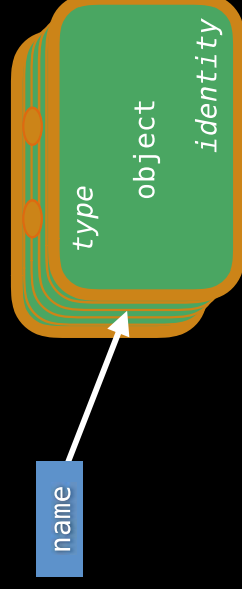
Recall: Some Definitions

An *object* has identity

A *name* is a reference to an object

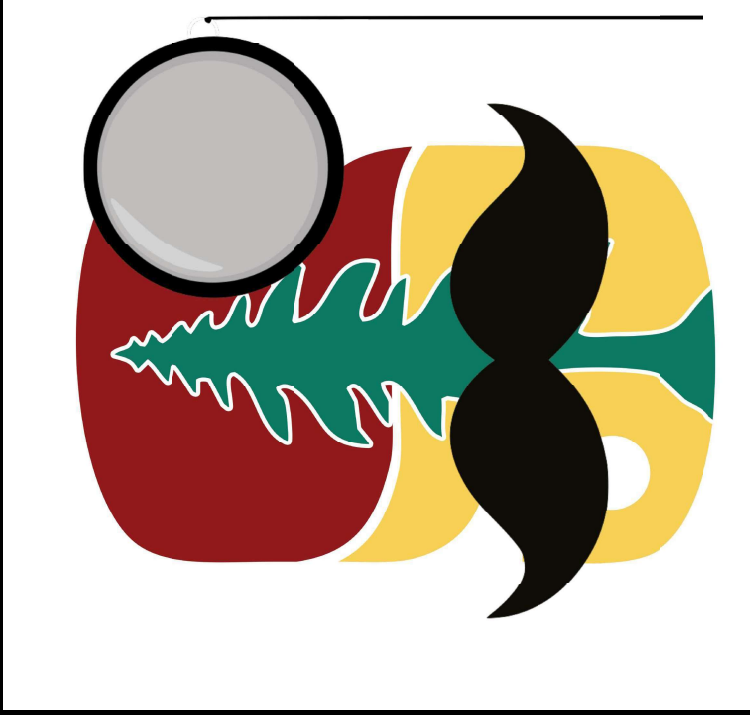
A *namespace* is an associative mapping from names to objects

An *attribute* is any name following a dot ('.')



Classes

First Look at Classes



New Syntax
Class Objects
Instance Objects
Methods vs. Functions

Who says Python isn't classy?

Class Definition Syntax

The `class` keyword introduces
a new class definition

`class` `ClassName:`

`<statement>`

`<statement>`

■ ■ ■

Must be executed
to have effect (like `def`)

Class Definitions

Statements are usually assignments or function definitions

Entering a class definition creates a new "namespace"-ish

Really, a special `__dict__` attribute where others live

Exiting a class definition creates a class object

Defining a class `==` creating a class object (like `int`, `str`)

Defining a class `!=` instantiating a class

Wait, What?

Class Objects vs. Instance Objects

Defining a class creates a *class object*

Supports attribute reference and instantiation

Instantiating a class object creates an *instance object*

Only supports attribute reference

Class Objects

Support (1) attribute references
and (2) instantiation

Class Attribute References

Class Attribute References

```
class MyClass:
    """A simple example class"""
    num = 12345
    def greet(self):
        return "Hello world!"

# Attribute References
MyClass.num    # => 12345          (int object)
MyClass.greet  # => <function f> (function object)
```

Warning! Class attributes can be written to by the client

Class Instantiation

Class Instantiation

No new

Classes are instantiated using parentheses
and an optional argument list

x = MyClass(args)

"Instantiating" a class constructs an instance object of that class object.
In this case, x is an instance object of the MyClass class object

Custom Constructor using `__init__`

```
class Complex:
    def __init__(self, realpart=0, imagpart=0):
        self.real = realpart
        self.imag = imagpart
```

Class instantiation calls the special method `__init__` if it exists

```
# Make an instance object `c`!
c = Complex(3.0, -4.5)
c.real, c.imag # => (3.0, -4.5)
```

You can't overload `__init__`!
Use keyword arguments or factory methods

Instance Objects

Only support attribute references

Data Attributes

```
c = Complex(3.0, -4.5)
```

```
# Get attributes
```

```
c.real, c.imag # => (3.0, -4.5)
```

```
# Set attributes
```

```
c.real = -9.2
```

```
c.imag = 4.1
```

```
= "instance variables"  
= "data members"
```

Instance Attribute Reference Resolution

```
class MyOtherClass():  
    num = 12345  
    def __init__(self):  
        self.num = 0  
  
x = MyOtherClass()  
print(x.num)  # 0 or 12345?  
del x.num  
print(x.num)  # 0 or 12345?
```

Attribute references first search the instance's
__dict__ attribute, then the class object's

Setting Data Attributes

You can set attributes on instance (and class) objects
on the fly (we used this in the constructor!)

```
c.counter = 1
```

```
while c.counter < 10:
```

```
    c.counter = x.counter * 2
```

```
    print(c.counter)
```

```
del c.counter # Leaves no trace
```

```
# prints 1, 2, 4, 8
```

Setting attributes actually inserts into the instance object's `__dict__` attribute

Recall: A Sample Class

```
class MyClass:
    """A simple example class"""
    num = 12345
    def greet(self):
        return "Hello world!"
```

Calling Methods

```
x = MyClass()
x.greet() # 'Hello world!'
# Weird... doesn't `greet` accept an argument?

print(type(x.greet)) # method
print(type(MyClass.greet)) # function

print(x.num is MyClass.num) # True
print(x.greet is MyClass.greet) # False
```

Methods vs. Functions

Methods vs. Functions

A *method* is a function bound to an object

`method` \approx `(object, function)`

Methods calls invoke special semantics

`object.method(arguments)` = `function(object, arguments)`

Example:



Pizza

```
class Pizza:
    def __init__(self, radius, toppings, slices=8):
        self.radius = radius
        self.toppings = toppings
        self.slices_left = slices

    def eat_slice(self):
        if self.slices_left > 0:
            self.slices_left -= 1
        else:
            print("Oh no! Out of pizza")

    def __repr__(self):
        return '{} pizza'.format(self.radius)
```

Pizza

```
p = Pizza(14, ("Pepperoni", "Olives"), slices=12)
print(Pizza.eat_slice)
# => <function Pizza.eat_slice>

print(p.eat_slice)
# => <bound method Pizza.eat_slice of 14" Pizza>

method = p.eat_slice
method.__self__ # => 14" Pizza
method.__func__ # => <function Pizza.eat_slice>

p.eat_slice() # Implicitly calls Pizza.eat_slice(p)
```

Class and Instance Attributes



Class and Instance Variables

```
class Dog:
    kind = 'Canine'          # class variable shared by all instances

    def __init__(self, name):
        self.name = name    # instance variable unique to each instance

a = Dog('Astro')
pb = Dog('Mr. Peanut Butter')

a.kind      # 'Canine' (shared by all dogs)
pb.kind     # 'Canine' (shared by all dogs)
a.name      # 'Astro' (unique to a)
pb.name     # 'Mr. Peanut Butter' (unique to pb)
```

Warning

```
class Dog:
    tricks = []

    def __init__(self, name):
        self.name = name

    def add_trick(self, trick):
        self.tricks.append(trick)
```

What could go wrong?

Warning

```
d = Dog('Fido')
e = Dog('Buddy')
d.add_trick('roll over')
e.add_trick('play dead')
d.tricks # => ['roll over', 'play dead'] (shared value)
```


Did we Solve It?

```
class Dog:
    # Let's try a default argument!
    def __init__(self, name='', tricks=[]):
        self.name = name
        self.tricks = tricks

    def add_trick(self, trick):
        self.tricks.append(trick)
```

Hmm...

```
d = Dog('Fido')
```

```
e = Dog('Buddy')
```

```
d.add_trick('roll over')
```

```
e.add_trick('play dead')
```

```
d.tricks # => ['roll over', 'play dead'] (shared value)
```

Solution

```
class Dog:
    def __init__(self, name):
        self.name = name
        self.tricks = [] # New list for each dog

    def add_trick(self, trick):
        self.tricks.append(trick)
```

Solution

```
d = Dog('Fido')
e = Dog('Buddy')
d.add_trick('roll over')
e.add_trick('play dead')
d.tricks # => ['roll over']
e.tricks # => ['play dead']
```

Privacy and Style

Keep an Eye Out!

Nothing is truly private!

Clients can modify *anything*

"With great power..."



Stylistic Conventions

A method's first parameter should always be `self`

Why? Explicitly differentiate instance and local variables

Method calls already provide the calling object as the first argument to the class function

Attribute names prefixed with a leading underscore are intended to be private (e.g. `_spam`)

Use verbs for methods and nouns for data attributes

Inheritance

Parentheses indicate inheritance

```
class DerivedClassName(BaseClassName) :  
    pass
```

Any expression is valid

Facts about Single Inheritance

A class object 'remembers' its base class

Python 3 class objects inherit from object (by default)

Method and attribute lookup begins in the derived class

Proceeds down the chain of base classes

Derived methods override (shadow) base methods

Like `virtual` in C++

Multiple Inheritance

"The Dreaded Diamond Pattern"

Multiple Inheritance

Base classes are separated by commas

```
class Derived(Base1, Base2, ..., BaseN) :  
    pass
```

Order matters!

Attribute Resolution

Attribute lookup is (almost) depth-first, left-to-right

Officially, "C3 superclass linearization" ([Wikipedia](#))

Class objects have a (hidden) function attribute `.mro()`

Shows linearization of base classes

Attribute Resolution In Action

```
class A: pass
class B: pass
class C: pass
class D: pass
class E: pass
class K1(A, B, C): pass
class K2(D, B, E): pass
class K3(D, A): pass
class Z(K1, K2, K3): pass
```

```
Z.mro() # [Z, K1, K2, K3, D, A, B, C, E, object]
```

Magic Methods

Magic Methods

Python uses `__init__` to build classes

Overriding `__init__` lets us hook into the language

What else can we do? Can we define classes that act like:

iterators? lists?

sets? dictionaries?

numbers?

comparables?

Implementing Magic Methods

```
class MagicClass:
    def __init__(self): ...
    def __contains__(self, key): ...
    def __add__(self, other): ...
    def __iter__(self): ...
    def __next__(self): ...
    def __getitem__(self, key): ...
    def __len__(self): ...
    def __lt__(self, other): ...
    def __eq__(self, other): ...
    def __str__(self): ...
    def __repr__(self): ... # And even more...
```

Some Magic Methods

```
x = MagicClass()
y = MagicClass()
str(x)    # => x.__str__()
x == y    # => x.__eq__(y)

x < y     # => x.__lt__(y)
x + y     # => x.__add__(y)
iter(x)   # => x.__iter__()
next(x)   # => x.__next__()
len(x)    # => x.__len__()
el in x    # => x.__contains__(el)
```

Many, many more

[Link 1](#)

[Link 2](#)

[Link 3](#)

Example: Point

```
class Point:
```

```
    def __init__(self, x=0, y=0):
```

```
        self.x = x
```

```
        self.y = y
```

```
    def rotate_90_CC(self):
```

```
        self.x, self.y = -self.y, self.x
```

```
    def __add__(self, other):
```

```
        return Point(self.x + other.x, self.y + other.y)
```

```
    def __str__(self):
```

```
        return "Point({0}, {1})".format(self.x, self.y)
```

Example

```
o = Point()
print(o)          # Point(0, 0)

p1 = Point(3, 5)
p2 = Point(4, 6)
print(p1, p2)     # Point(3, 5) Point(4, 6)

p1.rotate_90_cc()
print(p1)         # Point(-5, 3)

print(p1 + p2)    # Point(-1, 9)
```

OOP Case Study: Errors and Exceptions

Syntax Errors

"Errors before execution"

```
>>> while True print('Hello world')
```

```
File "<stdin>", line 1
```

```
while True print('Hello world')
```

^

Error is detected at the token preceding the arrow

SyntaxError: invalid syntax

Exceptions

"Errors during execution"

```
>>> 10 * (1/0)
Traceback (most recent call last):
  File "<stdin>", line 1
ZeroDivisionError: division by zero

>>> 4 + spam*3
Traceback (most recent call last):
  File "<stdin>", line 1
NameError: name 'spam' is not defined

>>> '2' + 2
Traceback (most recent call last):
  File "<stdin>", line 1
TypeError: Can't convert 'int' object to str implicitly
```

And More

KeyboardInterrupt

UnboundLocalError

SystemExit

StopIteration

SyntaxError

AttributeError

ZeroDivisionError

KeyError

IndexError

NotImplementedError

TypeError

OSError

NameError

Handling Exceptions

What's Wrong?

```
def read_int():  
    """Reads an integer from the user (broken)"""  
    return int(input("Please enter a number: "))
```

What happens if the user enters a nonnumeric input?

Solution

```
def read_int():  
    """Reads an integer from the user (fixed)"""  
    while True:  
        try:  
            x = int(input("Please enter a number: "))  
            break  
        except ValueError:  
            print("Oops! Invalid input. Try again...")  
    return x
```

Mechanics of try statement

- 1) Attempt to execute the try clause
- 2a) If no exception occurs, skip the except clause. Done!
- 2b) If an exception occurs, skip the rest of the try clause.
- 2bi) If the exception's type matches (/ is a subclass of) that named by except, then execute the except clause. Done!
- 2bii) Otherwise, hand off the exception to any outer try statements. If unhandled, halt execution. Done!

Conveniences

```
try:
    distance = int(input("How far? "))
    time = car.speed / distance
    car.drive(time)
except ValueError as e:
    print(e)
except ZeroDivisionError:
    print("Division by zero!")
except (NameError, AttributeError):
    print("Bad Car")
except:
    print("Car unexpectedly crashed!")
```

Bind a name to the exception instance

Catch multiple exceptions

"Wildcard" catches everything



Good Python:
Don't Be a Pokemon Trainer

Solution?

```
def read_int():  
    """Reads an integer from the user (fixed?)"""  
    while True:  
        try:  
            x = int(input("Please enter a number: "))  
            break  
        except:  
            print("Oops! Invalid input. Try again...")  
    return x
```

Oops! Now we can't CTRL+C to escape

Raising Exceptions

The raise keyword

```
>>> raise NameError('Why hello there!')
```

```
Traceback (most recent call last):
```

```
File "<stdin>", line 1, in <module>
```

```
NameError: Why hello there!
```

You can raise either instance objects
or class objects

```
>>> raise NameError
```

```
Traceback (most recent call last):
```

```
File "<stdin>", line 1, in <module>
```

```
NameError
```

raise within except clause

```
try:
    raise NotImplementedError("TODO")
except NotImplementedError:
    print('Looks like an exception to me!')
    raise

# Looks like an exception to me!
# Traceback (most recent call last):
#   File "<stdin>", line 2, in <module>
# NotImplementedError: TODO
```

Re-raises the currently active exception

Good Python: Using else

```
try:
    ...
except ...:
    ...
else:
    do_something()
```

Code that executes if the try clause does not raise an exception

Why? Avoid accidentally catching an exception raised by something other than the code being protected

Example: Database Transactions

```
try:
    update_the_database()
except TransactionError:
    rollback()
    raise
else:
    commit()
```

If the commit raises an exception,
we might actually *want* to crash

Aside: Python Philosophy

Coding for the Common Case

Don't check if a file exists, then open it.

Just try to open it!

Handle exceptional cases with an except clause (or two)
(avoids race conditions too)

Don't check if a queue is nonempty before popping

Just try to pop the element!

Good Python: Custom Exceptions

Custom Exceptions

```
class Error(Exception):  
    """Base class for errors in this module."""  
    pass  
  
class BadLoginError(Error):  
    """A user attempted to login with  
    an incorrect password."""  
    pass
```

Don't misuse existing exceptions
when the real error is something else!

You can define an `__init__` method to be fancy

Clean-Up Actions

The finally clause

Executed upon leaving
the try/except/else block

```
try:
    raise NotImplementedError
finally:
    print('Goodbye, world!')

# Goodbye, world!
# Traceback (most recent call last):
#   File "<stdin>", line 2, in <module>
# NotImplementedError
```

How **finally** works

Always executed before leaving the try statement.

Unhandled exceptions (not caught, or raised in except) are re-raised after finally executes.

Also executed "on the way out" (break, continue, return)

Note: with ... as ...

This is what enables us to use with ... as ...

with open(filename) as f:

raw = f.read()

is (almost) equivalent to

f = open(filename)

f.__enter__()

try:

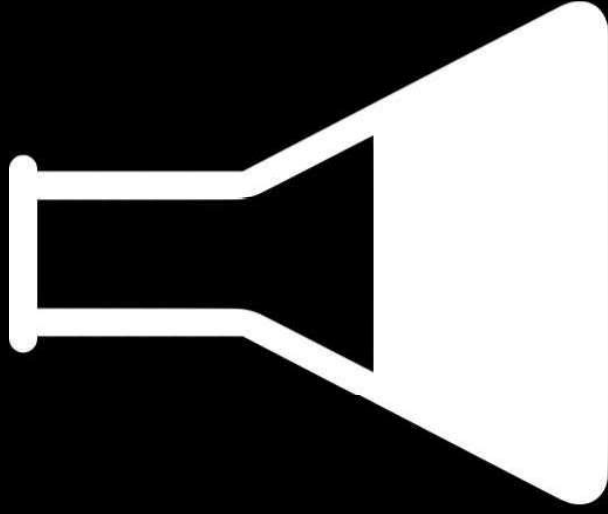
raw = f.read()

finally:

f.__exit__() # Closes the file

Surprisingly useful and flexible!

Lab Time



Building Basic Classes
Fun with Inheritance
Magic Methods a.k.a. 007

