Object Oriented Programming

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Organizing data

Lists:

```
>>> vectors_x = [0, 1, 2]
>>> vectors_y = [0, 1, 1]
>>> (vectors_x[2], vectors_y[2])
(2, 1)
```

Nested lists:

```
>>> vectors = [[0, 0], [1, 1], [2, 1]]
>>> vectors[2]
[2, 1]
```

Dictionaries:

Everything is an object

Python supports many different kinds of data:

```
42 3.14159 'Hello World!' [1, 1, 2, 3, 5, 8] {'name': 'Jack', 'age': 25} True
```

- every object has:
 - a type;
 - an internal data representation (primitive or composite);
 - a set of procedures (functions) for interaction.
- an object is an instance of a type:
 - 42 is an instance of type int;
 - 'Hello World!' is an instance of type str.

Object oriented programming

- create new objects;
- manipulate objects;
- destroy objects:
 - explicitly del;
 - or just "forget" about them: Python will destroy inaccessible objects in a process called garbage collection.

Objects are data abstraction:

- 1. internal data representation using attributes (member variables);
- 2. an interface (for interaction):
 - procedures (member functions);
 - defines behaviour, but hides implementation.

Working with objects

- 1. creating a class:
 - define the class name;
 - define the class attributes (member functions).
- 2. using the class:
 - create new instances of a class;
 - manipulating these instances.

Define your own types

Use the keyword class to define a new type:

- with as parent the object type;
- and Vector as name.

```
class Vector(object):
    """2d vector class."""

def __init__(self, x=0, y=0):
    """Initializes a new 2d vector; default: (0, 0)."""
    self.x = x
    self.y = y
```

More on attributes

Data and procedures (functions) that "belong" to the class:

- Data attributes: the objects that make up the class:
 - a 2d vector is made up of two numbers (x and y).
- Methods (procedures):
 - functions that only work with this class;
 - how to interact with the object;
 - e.g., calculate the length of a vector.

self is the current instance of a class.

def __init__(self, ...) is a special method to create new instances of a class.

Creating an instance of a class

```
>>> origin = Vector()
>>> v1 = Vector(2, 1)
>>> print(v1.x, origin.y)
```

- don't provide anything for the self argument; Python does that automatically;
- use the dot to access an attribute of an instance;
- x is a member variable.

Hiding information — separation of concerns

- Sometimes we would like to hide attributes to the outside world, i.e., only usable inside the class.
- in Python we prefix an attribute with _ (underscore) to make it private:

```
class Vector(object):
    def __init__(self, x=0, y=0):
        self.x = x
        self.y = y
        self._secret = 42  # this is allowed
```

we agree not to access this attribute directly:

```
>>> v1 = Vector(1, 2)
>>> print(v1._secret) # this is forbidden
```

Add a method to the Vector class

```
class Vector(object):
    def __init__(self, x=0, y=0):
        self.x = x
        self.y = y

def distance(self, other):
    dx = (self.x - other.x) ** 2
    dy = (self.y - other.y) ** 2
    return (dx + dy) ** .5
```

To use the newly created method:

```
>>> origin.distance(v1)
```

Print representation of an object

```
>>> v1 = Vector(4, 3)
>>> print(v1)
<__main__.Vector object at 0x7f41ab878450>
```

- per default uninformative;
- define the special method def __str__(self);
- Python calls the __str__ method automatically when using the print function;
- we are in control of what is printed, e.g., for the vector class:

```
>>> print(v1)
<4, 3>
```

Own print method

```
The __str__ function must return a string.
class Vector(object):
    def __init__(self, x=0, y=0):
        self.x = x
        self.y = y
    def distance(self, other):
        dx = (self.x - other.x) ** 2
        dy = (self.y - other.y) ** 2
        return (dx + dy) ** .5
    def __str__(self):
        return '<' + str(self.x) + ', ' + str(self.y) + '>'
```

More on types

• get the type of an instance:

```
>>> v1 = Vector(4, 3)
>>> print(type(v1))
<class '__main__.Vector'>
```

that also works for the class:

```
>>> print(type(Vector))
<type 'type'>
```

use isinstance() to check if an object is a vector:

```
>>> print(isinstance(v1, Vector))
True
```

what happens here:

```
>>> print(v1.distance(4))
```

Special operators

- define special operators like: +,-,==,<,>,len(),... see: https://docs.python.org/3/reference/datamodel.html# basic-customization
- these can be overloaded to work with your class (keep it sensible);
- using the double underscore notation:

```
__add__(self, other) # self + other
__sub__(self, other) # self - other
__eq__(self, other) # self == other
__lt__(self, other) # self < other
__len__(self) # len(self)</pre>
```

Example of an overloaded operator

```
class Vector(object):
    def __add__(self, other):
        return Vector(self.x + other.x, self.y + other.y)
Important: return the right type, e.g., the addition of two vectors results
in a vector (not a string)!
>>> v1 = Vector(1, -6)
>>> v2 = Vector(3. 4.5)
>>> print(v1 + v2)
<4. -1.5>
```

The power of OOP

- Bundle together objects that share:
 - common (data) attributes;
 - methods that manipulate these attributes.
- Abstract away implementation by specifying interfaces and behaviour;
- Use inheritance (not covered here) to give an even nicer (layered) abstraction;
- Create own data type on top of what Python provides;
- Reuse code: wrapping code in classes prevents collision of function names;
- Many libraries heavily use classes.

Questions?

Assignment

```
class Fraction(object):
    def __init__(self, numerator, denominator=1):
        self.numerator = numerator
        self.denominator = denominator
```

Use the skeleton to implement a Fraction class containing two integers: numerator and denominator.

- add, subtract, e.g., $\frac{1}{2} + \frac{2}{3} = \frac{7}{6}$;
- print representation, convert to float;
- invert a fraction;
- . . .

```
see: https://github.com/lumc-python/oop
or go directly to: https://classroom.github.com/a/8BnbL9fD
```