

Introduction to Computer Programming

Week 5.1: Classes



A short recap

In the last two weeks, we have looked at:

- Different types of variables (strings, lists, tuples)
- Writing our own functions that perform operations on these data types

We also saw that some variables have their own functions that can be accessed using a dot (.)

```
In [1]: L = ['red', 'blue', 'green']
L.append('yellow')
L.sort()
print(L)

['blue', 'green', 'red', 'yellow']
```

Classes

A **class** is a data type that combines data with functions that operate on that data.

We can use the previous example to see that lists are classes: they store data (e.g. colours) and functions (e.g. append, sort).

Python is special because all built-in data "types" are, in fact, classes!

```
In [2]: L = ['red', 'blue', 'green']
print(type(L))

<class 'list'>
```

This shows that *L* is an **object** of a class called list

Aims

In these slides, we'll learn:

- How to define our own classes and hence types of variables
- How to redefine (or **overload**) operators like + and * to work on our new variable types

The structure of a class

A class typically has:

Attributes: these are variables that contain the "data" that is stored in each object of the class

Methods: these are functions defined in the class that operate on the attributes

Defining a class involves writing functions that store attributes and operate on them.

Defining a class

Example: Let's build a class, called MyFraction, to store fractions exactly, e.g. in the form

$$\frac{1}{4}$$

This class will have functions that:

- Convert the fraction to a float (e.g. converts 1/4 into 0.25)
- Automatically simplifies fractions (e.g. converts 2/4 into 1/2)
- Print the fraction nicely (like shown above)
- Multiplies two fractions

Getting started: the class definition

Like functions, we need to write a line that tells Python we are about to define a class. This looks like:

```
class MyFraction():
    # indented code (usually function definitions)
```

A few points:

- The `class` keyword is used to indicate a class is about to be defined (similar to `def` for functions)
- The convention is to begin the name of the class with a capital letter
- The empty round brackets `()` means that class `MyFraction` is not a subclass. We'll learn more about subclasses in the Week 5.2 slides

Getting started: the constructor

Every class needs a **constructor**.

A constructor is a special function called `__init__` that is defined in the class and is automatically called when objects of that class are created.

The constructor is responsible for creating the object and its **attributes** (variables associated with each object in the class)

Note the two underscores (`__`) that come before and after `init`

The first argument to `__init__` **must** be a variable called *self* (more on this later)

Therefore, we can begin to build our constructor using:

```
class MyFraction():
    # constructor
    def __init__(self):
        # lines of code to define attributes
```

Now let's think about the attributes we would like each `MyFraction` object to have

Each fraction needs a numerator and a denominator. Therefore, each object in `MyFraction` will have attributes called *num* and *den*

Let's add these attributes to the constructor and set them to empty lists for now:

```
In [ ]:
```

Having defined the constructor, we can now create an object of type `MyFraction` by running

```
In [ ]:
```

The attributes of *a* can be accessed by using dots (.)

```
In [ ]:
```

Let's take a closer look at the constructor function:

```
def __init__(self):
    self.num = []
    self.den = []
```

When we run `a = MyFraction()` the following steps occur:

1. An object of type `MyFraction`, called *a*, is created
2. The function `__init__` is called and *self* is assigned the value of *a*
3. The attributes *num* and *den* are created and these become part of the new object *a*

Therefore, the variable *self* is used as a reference for the object that is being created

Improving the constructor

Now we'll change the constructor so that the attributes *num* and *den* are assigned values that are passed as arguments to the class when the object is created

This will allow us to create the fraction $a = 1/2$ by calling

```
a = MyFraction(1,2)
```

We can do this by adding arguments to the `__init__` function (not the class definition!)

```
In [2]: class MyFraction():
# improved constructor
def __init__(self):
# assign attributes
self.num = []
self.den = []
```

```
In [ ]:
```

Adding functions to classes

Now that we can create objects, we can add **methods** that operate on these objects

Methods are simply functions that are defined in the class. These are defined in the usual way, except the first argument **must** be *self*

Example: Add a function to compute the floating point value of a fraction.

```
In [3]: class MyFraction():
# constructor
def __init__(self, num, den):
# assign attributes
self.num = num
self.den = den
self.simplify()

# compute floating point value
def calc_float(self):
return self.num / self.den
```

We can call the method `calc_float` using a dot (.)

```
In [ ]:
```

Notice that when calling `calc_float`, we do not pass any arguments. However, the function definition expects one argument (*self*). What is happening here?

The first argument of the method (*self*) is automatically set equal to the object preceding the dot (.)

Simplifying fractions

Now we'll write a function called `simplify` that reduces a fraction to its simplest form

Example: The fraction $a = 2/4$ will be reduced to $a = 1/2$.

To do this, we'll import the `math` module, which has a function to compute the greatest common divisor (gcd) of two integers

In addition, to automate the simplification, we'll call `simplify` from within the constructor

```
In [4]: import math

class MyFraction():
# constructor
def __init__(self, num, den):
# assign attributes
self.num = num
self.den = den
self.simplify()

# compute floating point value
def calc_float(self):
return self.num / self.den

# simplify the fraction
```

Printing the fraction nicely - a clunky way

Now we'll add a function to print the fraction in a way that is ready to read, e.g.

$$\frac{1}{2}$$

The clunky way to do this is by adding a function called `nice_print` to the class

```
In [5]: class MyFraction():
# constructor
def __init__(self, num, den):
# assign attributes
self.num = num
self.den = den
self.simplify()

# compute floating point value
def calc_float(self):
return self.num / self.den

# simplify the fraction
def simplify(self):
gcd = math.gcd(self.num, self.den)
self.num = int(self.num / gcd)
self.den = int(self.den / gcd)

# print the fraction in a nice way
```

Printing the fraction nicely - the elegant way

Given that Python already has a print function, wouldn't it be nice if we could use this to print the fraction?

Problem: If we try to do this now, then it doesn't work correctly:

```
In [12]: a = MyFraction(2,4)
print(a)

<__main__.MyFraction object at 0x7f119021ba60>
```

The reason is because the `print` function expects a string, not a `MyFraction` object. Using `str(a)` to convert *a* into a string doesn't work either

Solution: We can overwrite (or **overload**) built-in Python functions so they can be applied to objects from user-defined classes

In this example, we'll overload the `str` function, which creates a string out of an object

This is done by defining a function called `__str__` in the class

```
In [6]: class MyFraction():
# constructor
def __init__(self, num, den):
# assign attributes
self.num = num
self.den = den
self.simplify()

# compute floating point value
def calc_float(self):
return self.num / self.den

# simplify the fraction
def simplify(self):
gcd = math.gcd(self.num, self.den)
self.num = int(self.num / gcd)
self.den = int(self.den / gcd)

# overloading Python's str function.
def __str__(self):
return ' ' + str(self.num) + '\n--\n' + ' ' + str(self.den)

# overloading the * operator
```

Operator overloading

We can also overload operators such as + and * so they can be applied to objects

Example: Overload the multiplication operator * so that we can multiply two fractions as $a * b$, e.g.

$$\frac{1}{2} * \frac{4}{5} = \frac{4}{10} = \frac{2}{5}$$

The * operator is overloaded by defining a function `__mul__` in the class

However, multiplication is a binary operation, so it requires two arguments (e.g. $a * b$)

- The first argument will be *self*, corresponding to *a*
- The second argument will be *other*, corresponding to *b*

We must also ensure that this function returns an object of type `MyFraction`

```
In [7]: class MyFraction():
# constructor
def __init__(self, num, den):
# assign attributes
self.num = num
self.den = den
self.simplify()

# simplify the fraction
def simplify(self):
gcd = math.gcd(self.num, self.den)
self.num = int(self.num / gcd)
self.den = int(self.den / gcd)

# overloading Python's str function.
def __str__(self):
return ' ' + str(self.num) + '\n--\n' + ' ' + str(self.den)

# overloading the * operator
```

Overloadable operators

Many operators in Python can be overloaded. Here's a list of some common operators and the corresponding function that must be defined in a class

Operator	Function name
+	<code>__add__</code>
-	<code>__sub__</code>
*	<code>__mul__</code>
/	<code>__truediv__</code>
//	<code>__floordiv__</code>
%	<code>__mod__</code>
**	<code>__pow__</code>

Summary

- **Classes** are data structures that contain data and functions
- **Objects** are specific instances in a class
- **Attributes** are variables that belong to an object
- **Methods** are functions that belong to an object
- **Overloading** allows built-in functions and operators to be re-defined so they can be applied to new types of objects

See Week5-CompletedExamples on Blackboard for the full class definition