Python's Magic Methods

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Methods

- We define methods on a class
- We then invoke them via an instance
- (We're going to ignore static and class methods)
- The method is found via attribute lookup:
 - Object -> object's class -> super -> ... -> object

Method naming

- We can use whatever method names we want!
- So long as we take "self" as a parameter, Python doesn't really dictate the names that we use

Except.

- Except for the so-called "magic methods"
- These methods are rarely called directly!
- Rather, they're called automatically by Python, typically as the result of invoking an operator

___init___

- __init__ is the first method that many Python programmers learn about.
- It's not really a constructor, since the new object already exists when __init__ is invoked.

___len__

- When you call len(x), it looks for __len__
- Don't call __len__ directly; rather use len()
- You can, of course, return whatever you want, which is the point — whatever is appropriate for your object

Example

```
class Book(object):
    def __init__(self, title, author, num_pages):
        self.title = title
        self.author = author
        self.num_pages = num_pages
    def __len__(self):
        return self.num_pages
>>> b = Book('The Terrible Two', 'Mac Barnett', 224)
\Rightarrow\Rightarrow len(b)
224
```

Really magic methods

 Most people who learn about Python object learn about __init__, __len__, and probably __repr__ and __str__.

But the magic methods go way beyond that!

__add__

- Add two elements together
- _add__ gets two parameters
 - self
 - Another object
- How do you add them? That's up to you!
- Typically, you'll return a new instance of the same class

Example

```
class Foo(object):
    def __init__(self, x):
       self.x = x
    def __add__(self, other):
       return Foo(self.x + other.x)
    def __repr__(self):
      return "Instance of f, x = \{\}".format(self.x)
f1 = Foo(10)
f2 = Foo(20)
print(f1 + f2)
```

__iadd__

- We can also address what happens when += is invoked
- This is not the same as __add__!
- The expectation is that you'll change the state of the current object, and then return self.

Example

```
class Foo(object):
    def __init__(self, x):
       self.x = x
    def __iadd__(self, other):
      self.x += other.x
      return self
    def __repr__(self):
       return "Instance of f, x = \{\}".format(self.x)
f1 = Foo(10)
f2 = Foo(20)
f1 += f2
print("Now f1 = {}".format(f1))
```

Making __add__ flexible

- Remember, the second argument can be anything
- If we want, we can play games with that checking for attributes

Example

```
class Foo(object):
   def __init__(self, x):
        self.x = x
   def __add__(self, other):
        if hasattr(other, 'x'):
            return Foo(self.x + other.x)
        else:
            return Foo(self.x + other)
  def __repr__(self):
        return "Instance of f, x = {}".format(self.x)
f1 = Foo(10)
f2 = Foo(20)
print("f1 + f2 = {}".format(f1 + f2))
print("f1 + 10 = {})".format(f1 + 50))
```

Reversible?

What if we now say

```
print("10 + f1 = {}".format(50 + f1))
```

What will Python do?

```
f1 + 10 = Instance of f, x = 60
Traceback (most recent call last):
  File "./foo.py", line 29, in <module>
    print("10 + f1 = {}".format(50 + f1))
TypeError: unsupported operand type(s) for
+: 'int' and 'Foo'
```

__radd__

 Auto-reversing: We get self and other, and now invoke our previously defined __add__:

```
def __radd__(self, other):
    return self.__add__(other)
```

How does this work?

- Python tries to do it the usual way
- It gets NotImplemented back
 - Not an exception!
 - An instance of Not ImplementedType!
- Python then tries (in desperation) to turn things around... and thus, __radd__

Type conversions

- You probably know about __str__ already
- But what about __int__? Or even __hex__?

Example

```
def __int__(self):
    return int(self.x)

def __hex__(self):
    return hex(int(self.x))
```

Boolean conversions

 Your object will always be considered True in a boolean context, unless you define __nonzero__
 (__bool__ in Python 3)

Example

```
class Foo(object):
    pass
f = Foo()
>>> bool(f)
True
```

But with ___nonzero__...

```
class Foo(object):
     def __init__(self, x):
          self.x = x
     def __nonzero__(self):
          return bool(self.x)
\Rightarrow\Rightarrow f = Foo(1)
>>> bool(f)
True
\Rightarrow\Rightarrow f = Foo(0)
>>> bool(f)
False
```

Format

 Originally, Python used the % syntax for pseudointerpolation:

```
name = 'Reuven'
print('Hello %s' % name)
```

 But there are lots of problems with it, so it's better to use str.format

str.format

```
name = 'Reuven'
print('Hello {0}'.format(name))
```

Pad it!

```
name = 'Reuven'
print('Hello, {0:20}!'.format(name))
```

Move right

```
print('Hello, {0:>20}!'.format(name))
```

Custom formats

- It turns out that our objects can also handle these custom formats!
- If we define __format__ on our object, then it'll get the format code (i.e., whatever comes after the :)
- We can then decide what to do with it

```
class Person(object):
    def __init__(self, given, family):
        self.given = given
        self.family = family
    def __format__(self, format):
       if format == 'familyfirst':
            return "{} {}".format(self.family, self.given)
      elif format == 'givenfirst':
           return "{} {}".format(self.given, self.family)
      else:
          return "BAD FORMAT CODE"
```

Using it

```
>>> p = Person('Reuven', 'Lerner')
>>> "Hello, {}".format(p)
'Hello, BAD FORMAT CODE'
>>> "Hello, {:familyfirst}".format(p)
'Hello, Lerner Reuven'
>>> "Hello, {:givenfirst}".format(p)
'Hello, Reuven Lerner'
```

Pickle

- Pickle allows you to serialize, or marshall objects
- You can then store them to disk, or send them on the network
- Pickle works with most built-in Python data types, and classes built on those types

Pickling simple data

```
import pickle

d = {'a':1, 'b':2}

p = pickle.dumps(d)

new_d = pickle.loads(p)
```

Custom pickling

- Define some magic methods (of course) to customize your pickling:
- __getstate___ returns a dictionary that should reflect the object. Want to add to (or remove from) what is being pickled? Just modify a copy of self.__dict__ and return it!
- Don't modify the dictionary itself...

Example

```
class Foo(object):
    def __init__(self, x):
        self.x = x
    def __getstate__(self):
        odict = self.__dict__.copy()
        odict['y'] = self.x * 2
        return odict
\Rightarrow\Rightarrow f = Foo(10)
>>> p = pickle.dumps(f)
>>> new_f = pickle.loads(p)
>>> vars(new_f)
{'x': 10, 'y': 20}
```

Equality

- What makes two object equal?
- By default in Python, they're only equal if their ids are equal
- (Yes, every object has a unique ID number use the "id" function to find it!)
- You change this by defining __eq_!

Changing equality

```
class Foo(object):
    def __init__(self, x):
         self.x = x
    def __eq__(self, other):
        return self.x == other.x
>>> f1 = Foo(10)
\Rightarrow\Rightarrow f2 = Foo(10)
>>> f1 == f2
```

True

Hashing

- If two objects are equal, then maybe they should hash to the same value, right?
- We can set the __hash__ attribute to be a method that returns whatever we want

Playing with __hash___

```
class Foo(object):
    def __init__(self, x):
         self.x = x
    def __hash__(self):
         return hash(self.x)
>>> f = Foo('a')
\Rightarrow\Rightarrow hash(f)
12416037344
>>> hash('a')
12416037344
f = Foo(1)
>>> hash(f)
1
```

Messing around with hashing

- What if we have __hash__ return a random number each time?
- That will have some interesting consequences...

Questions?

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