

# Introduction to programming using Python

## Session 8

Matthieu Choplin

[matthieu.choplin1@city.ac.uk](mailto:matthieu.choplin1@city.ac.uk)

<http://moodle.city.ac.uk/>

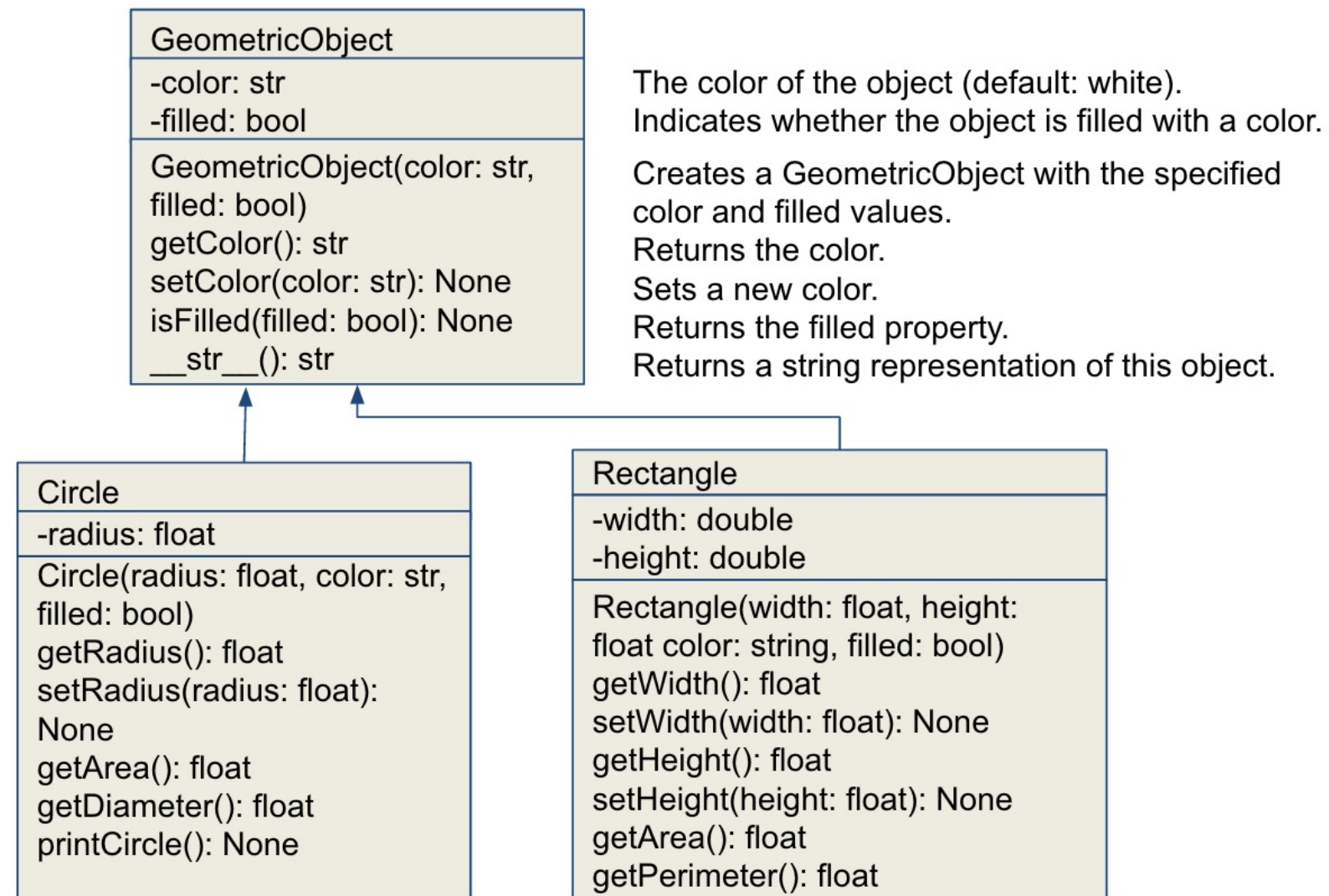
# Objectives

- To develop a subclass from a superclass through inheritance
- To override methods in the subclass
- To understand encapsulation in Python
- To explore the object class and its methods
- To understand polymorphism and dynamic binding
- To determine if an object is an instance of a class using the `isinstance` function
- To discover relationships among classes
- To design classes using composition and inheritance relationships

# Definition

- Inheritance enables you to define a general class (a superclass) and later extend it to more specialized classes (subclasses).
- Example: a class Rectangle and a class Circle. They share common attributes and methods such as the attribute color.
- Common attributes and methods can be put in a parent class.
- Using inheritance enables to **avoid redundancy**

# UML representation of inheritance



# Superclasses and Subclasses

- The syntax of inheritance is:

```
class Child(Parent):  
    # class body
```

- If you want to call the method of the superclass, use `super()`
- In particular, call `super().__init__()` to get the superclass attributes accessible from the subclass

As an example, see the following programs:

- [GeometricObject.py](#)
- [CircleDerivedFromGeometricObject.py](#)
- [RectangleDerivedFromGeometricObject.py](#)
- [TestCircleRectangle.py](#)

# Try to fix the program

```
class A:
    def __init__(self, i = 0):
        self.i = i

class B(A):
    def __init__(self, j = 0):
        self.j = j

def main():
    b = B()
    print(b.i)
    print(b.j)
main()
```

👁 Solution

# Overriding Methods

A subclass inherits methods from a superclass. Sometimes it is necessary for the subclass to modify the implementation of a method defined in the superclass. This is referred to as **method overriding**.

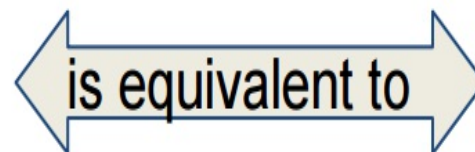
```
class Circle(GeometricObject):  
    # Other methods are omitted  
    # Override the __str__ method defined in GeometricOb  
    def __str__(self):  
        return super().__str__() + " radius: " + \  
            str(radius)
```



# The object Class

- Every class in Python is descended from the **object** class. If no inheritance is specified when a class is defined, the superclass of the class is object by default.

```
class Name:  
    ...
```



```
class Name(object):  
    ...
```

- There are more than a dozen methods defined in the object class. We discuss four methods `__new__()`, `__init__()`, `__str__()`, and `__eq__()` (other) here.

## The `__new__`, `__init__` Methods

- All methods defined in the object class are special methods with two leading underscores and two trailing underscores.
- The `__new__()` method is automatically invoked when an object is constructed. This method then invokes the `__init__()` method to initialize the object. Normally you should only override the `__init__()` method to initialize the data fields defined in the new class.

# The `__str__` Method

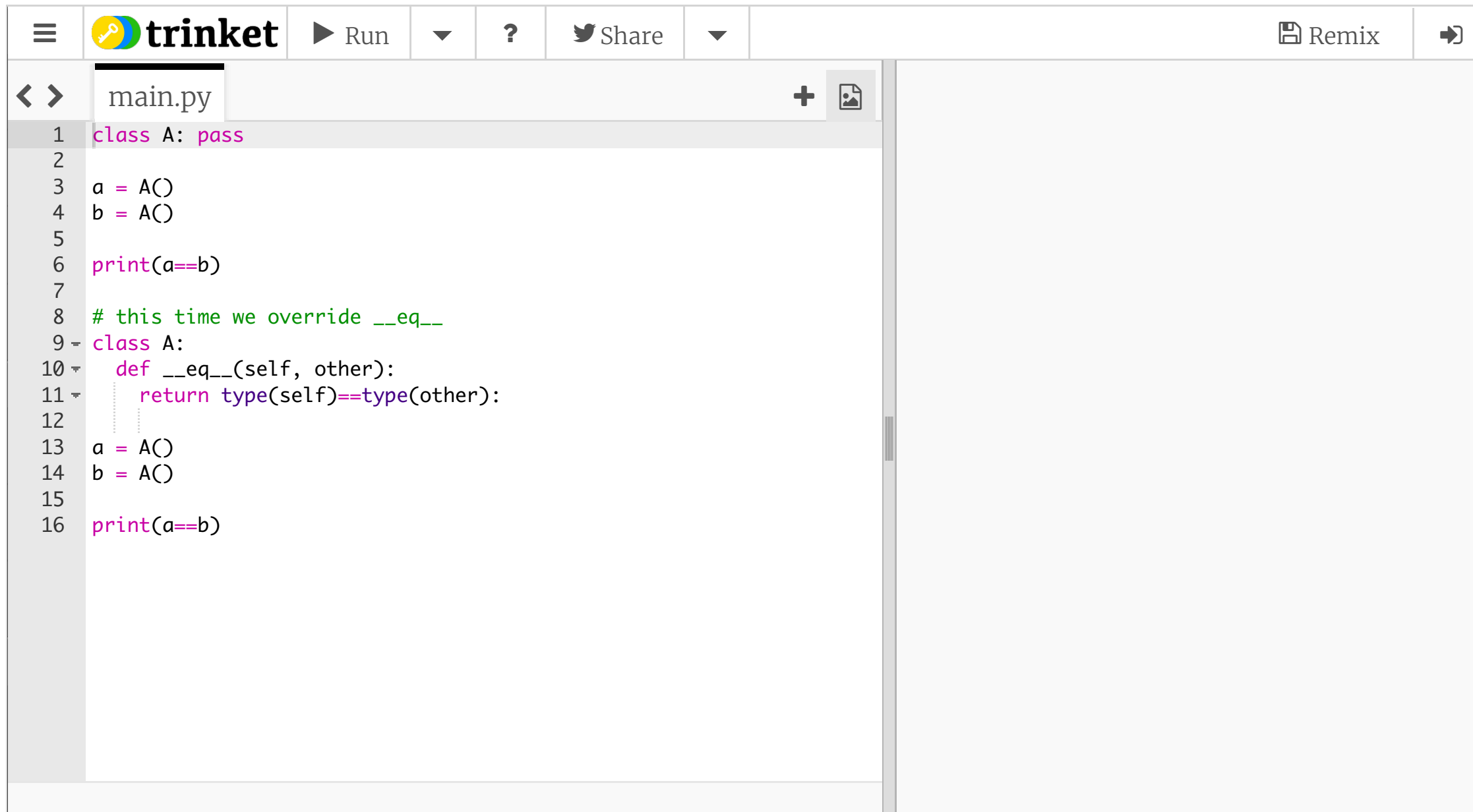
- The `__str__()` method returns a string representation for the object. By default, it returns a string consisting of a class name of which the object is an instance and the object's memory address in hexadecimal.

```
def __str__(self):  
    return "color: " + self.__color + \  
           " and filled: " + str(self.__filled)
```

# The `__eq__` Method

- The `__eq__(other)` method returns `True` if two objects are the same. By default, `x.__eq__(y)` (i.e., `x == y`) returns `False`, but `x.__eq__(x)` is `True`. You can override this method to return `True` if two objects have the same contents.

# Override `__eq__`



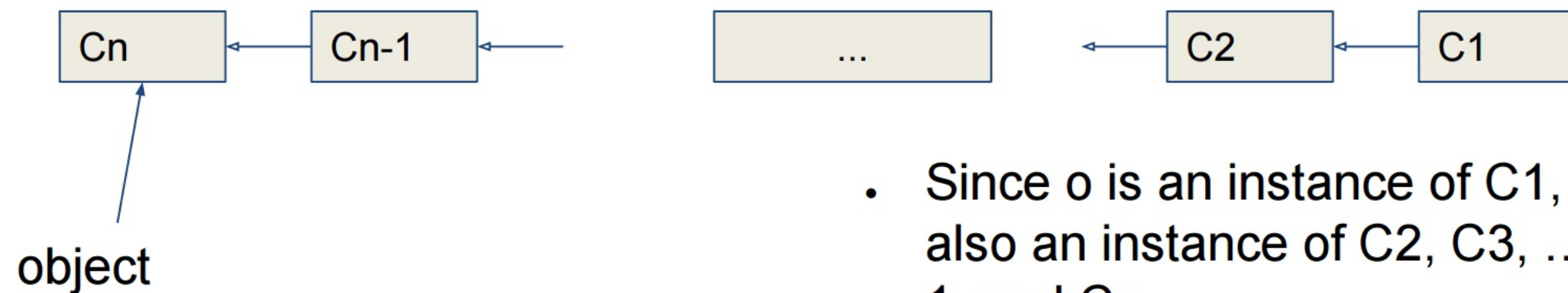
```
1 class A: pass
2
3 a = A()
4 b = A()
5
6 print(a==b)
7
8 # this time we override __eq__
9 class A:
10     def __eq__(self, other):
11         return type(self)==type(other):
12
13 a = A()
14 b = A()
15
16 print(a==b)
```

# Polymorphism

- The inheritance relationship enables a subclass to inherit features from its superclass with additional new features.
- A subclass is a specialization of its superclass; every instance of a subclass is also an instance of its superclass, but not vice versa. For example, every circle is a geometric object, but not every geometric object is a circle. Therefore, you can always pass an instance of a subclass to a parameter of its superclass type.
- Examples:
  - [PolymorphismDemo.py](#) [RectangleFromGeometricObject.py](#)  
[CircleFromGeometricObject.py](#)
  - [Animals.py](#)

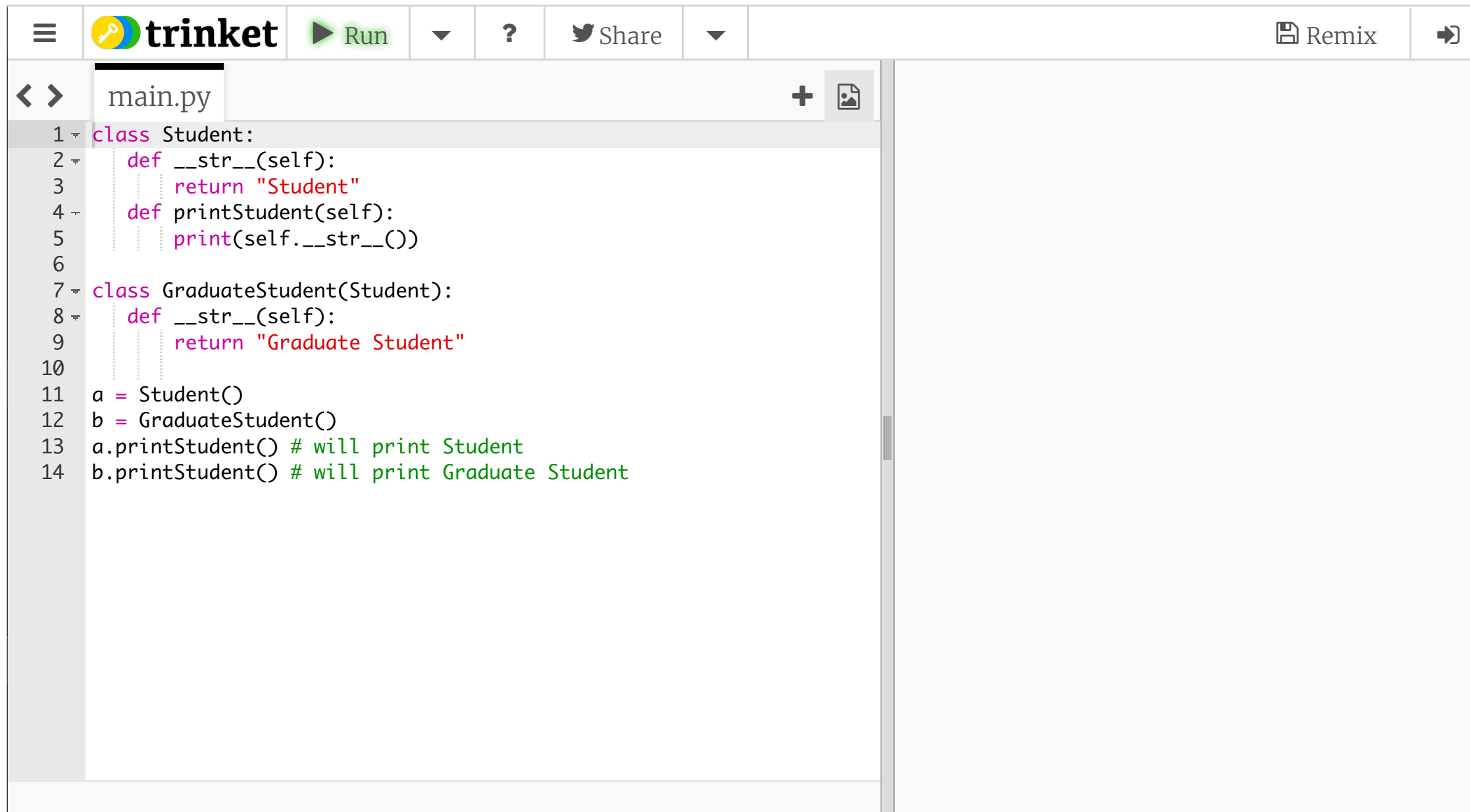
# Dynamic Binding

Dynamic binding works as follows: Suppose an object  $o$  is an instance of classes  $C_1, C_2, \dots, C_{n-1}$ , and  $C_n$ , where  $C_1$  is a subclass of  $C_2$ ,  $C_2$  is a subclass of  $C_3$ , ..., and  $C_{n-1}$  is a subclass of  $C_n$ . That is,  $C_n$  is the most general class, and  $C_1$  is the most specific class. In Python,  $C_n$  is the object class. If  $o$  invokes a method  $p$ , Python searches the implementation for the method  $p$  in  $C_1, C_2, \dots, C_{n-1}$  and  $C_n$ , in this order, until it is found. Once an implementation is found, the search stops and **the first-found implementation is invoked**.



- Since  $o$  is an instance of  $C_1$ ,  $o$  is also an instance of  $C_2, C_3, \dots, C_{n-1}$ , and  $C_n$

# Dynamic Binding: example



```
1 class Student:
2     def __str__(self):
3         return "Student"
4     def printStudent(self):
5         print(self.__str__())
6
7 class GraduateStudent(Student):
8     def __str__(self):
9         return "Graduate Student"
10
11 a = Student()
12 b = GraduateStudent()
13 a.printStudent() # will print Student
14 b.printStudent() # will print Graduate Student
```

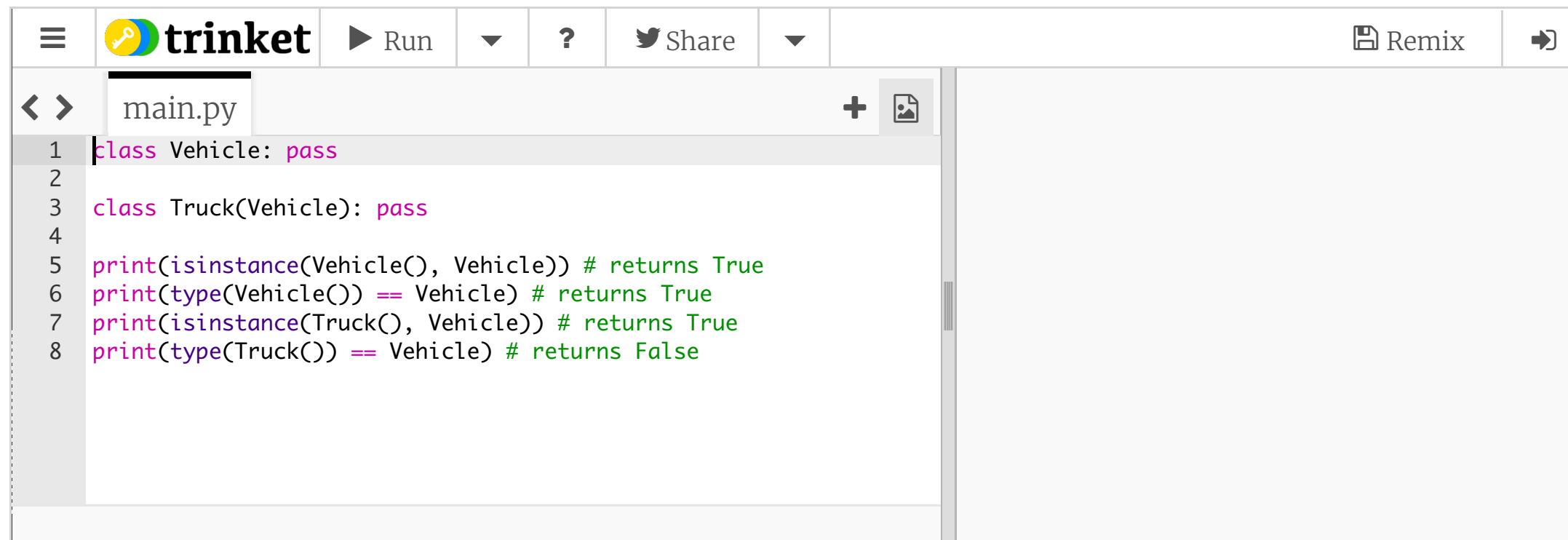


# The isinstance Function

- The isinstance function can be used to determine if an object is an instance of a class.
- See the example program [isinstanceDemo.py](#)

# isinstance() compared to type()

- isinstance take into account inheritance, an instance of a derived class is an instance of a base class too



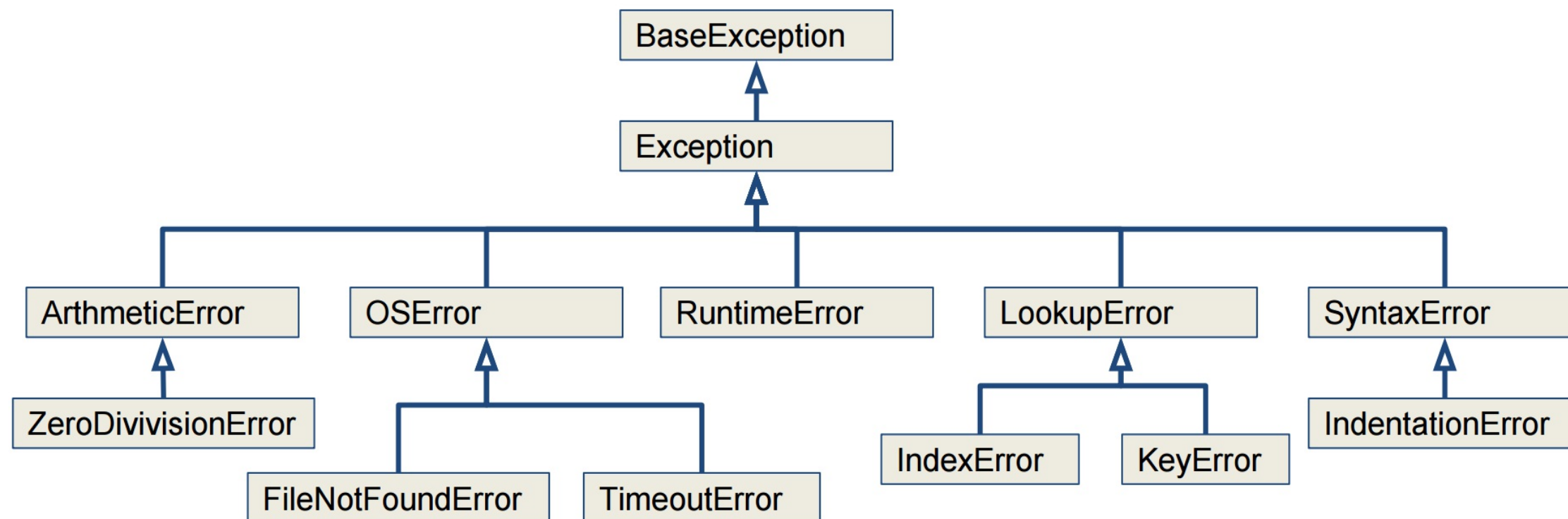
```
1 class Vehicle: pass
2
3 class Truck(Vehicle): pass
4
5 print(isinstance(Vehicle(), Vehicle)) # returns True
6 print(type(Vehicle()) == Vehicle) # returns True
7 print(isinstance(Truck(), Vehicle)) # returns True
8 print(type(Truck()) == Vehicle) # returns False
```

- NB: the instance are created on the fly here, we do not pass them to a variable

# The hierarchy of the type of Exceptions

You can find the full hierarchy on

<https://docs.python.org/3/library/exceptions.html#exception-hierarchy>



# Defining Custom Exception Classes

See how we inherit from *RuntimeError* in the class

`InvalidRadiusException` in the example

[CircleWithCustomException.py](#) and how we use it in

[TestCircleWithCustomException.py](#)

# Encapsulation

- The syntax we have seen so far for data encapsulation is to use 2 underscore in front of the attribute we want to hide, which forces us to use getter and setter to access and modify the field.

```
class C:
    def __init__(self, x):
        self.__x = x

    def getX(self):
        return self.__x

    def setX(self, x):
        self.__x = x
```

# Encapsulation and data mangling

- The use of double leading underscores causes the name to be **mangled** to something else. Specifically, the private attributes in the preceding class get renamed to `_C_x`. At this point, you might ask what purpose such name mangling serves. The answer is inheritance - such attributes cannot be overridden via inheritance. For example:

```
class C:
    def __init__(self, x):
        self.__x = x

class A(C):
    def __init__(self):
        super().__init__(2)
        # Does not override C.__x
        self.__x = 1

a = A()
print(a._A__x)
print(a._C__x)
```

# Encapsulation in a more pythonic way

- We can use **property** to customize access to an attribute

```
class C:
    def __init__(self, x):
        self.setX(x)

    def getX(self):
        return self.__x

    def setX(self, x):
        if x < 0:
            self.__x = 0
        elif x > 1000:
            self.__x = 1000
        else:
            self.__x = x

    x = property(getX, setX)
```

# Equivalent using decorators

```
class P:
    def __init__(self, x):
        self.x = x

    @property
    def x(self):
        return self.__x

    @x.setter
    def x(self, x):
        if x < 0:
            self.__x = 0
        elif x > 1000:
            self.__x = 1000
        else:
            self.__x = x
```

Properties should only be used in cases where you actually need to perform extra processing on attribute access

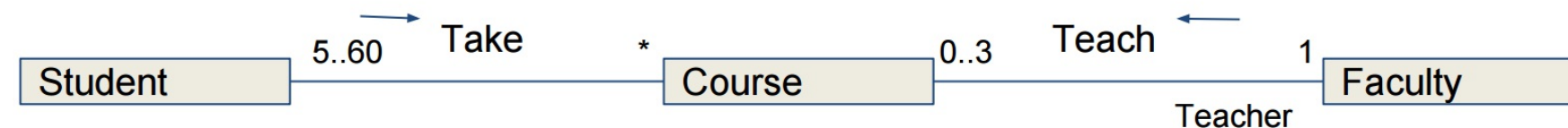


# Relationships among Classes

- Association
- Aggregation
- Composition
- Inheritance

# Association

- Association represents a general binary relationship that describes an activity between two classes.



```
class Student:
    def addCourse(self,
        courses):
        # add course
        # to a list
```

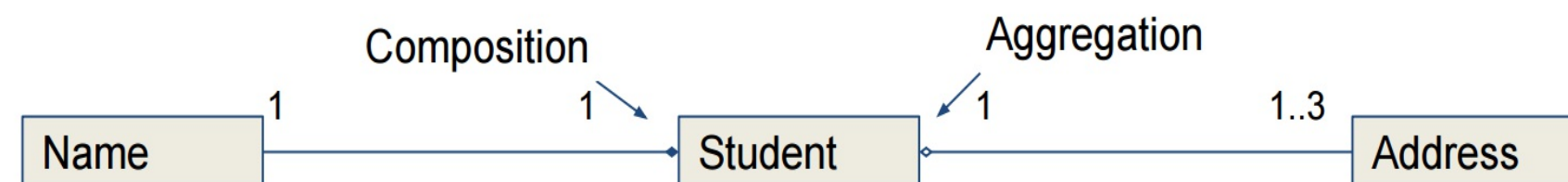
```
class Course:
    def addStudent(self,
        student):
        # add student
        # to a list
    def setFaculty(self,
        faculty):
```

```
class Faculty:
    def addCourse(self,
        course):
        # add course
        # to a list
```

- The association relations are implemented using data fields and methods in classes.

# Aggregation and Composition

- Aggregation is a special form of association, which represents an ownership relationship between two classes. Aggregation models the has-a relationship. If an object is exclusively owned by an aggregated object, the relationship between the object and its aggregated object is referred to as composition.



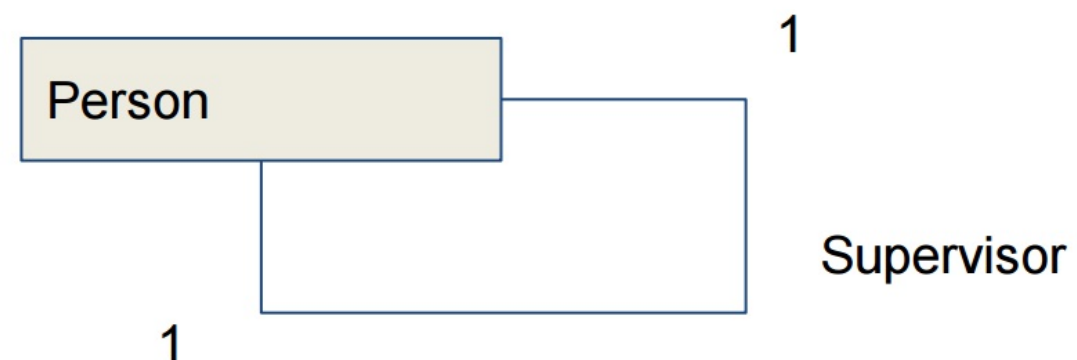
```
class Name:
    ...
```

```
class Student:
    def __init__(self, name, addresses):
        self.name = name
        self.addresses = addresses
```

```
class Addresses:
    ...
```

# Aggregation Between Same Class objects

- Aggregation may exist between objects of the same class. For example, a person may have a supervisor.



```
class Person:
    def __init__(self, supervisor):
        self.supervisor = supervisor
```

# is-a relationship vs has-a relationship

- Inheritance is for the **is-a** relationship
- Composition and aggregation is for the **has-a** relationship

# Multiple inheritance

- Syntax for multiple inheritance:

```
class Child(ParentA, ParentB):  
    # rest of the class
```

# The Course Class

Course
-courseName: str -student: list
Course(courseName: str) getCourseName(): str addStudent(student: str): None dropStudent(student: str) getStudents(): list getNumberOfStudents(): list

The name of the course

An array to store the students  
for the course

Create a course with the specified name

Returns the course name

Adds a new student to the course

Drops a student from the course

Returns the students for the course

Returns the number of students for the course

- See the programs:
  - [TestCourse.py](#) to see how it is used
  - [Course.py](#) to see how it is implemented