

Python III

Objects

~/IFT383/module-7

Introduction

- Python is an object-oriented language
 - The data types we have used are examples of objects
- An object defines the state of something and how we can interact with it
 - list
 - data is stored in indexes
 - list has functions that allow us to manipulate that data
 - `append()`, `reverse()`
 - string (`str`)
 - Stores data as a list of characters
 - `rstrip()`, `isalpha()`, `isnum()`

Class

- a **Class** is a blueprint used to create objects
- A class contains
 - properties
 - hold the state of our object
 - take the form of variables
 - actions
 - define how we can interact with an object
 - take the form of functions
- We use **instantiation** to create an object **instance** from a Class

Defining a class

- Parts of a class
 - name
 - data fields
 - methods
- Conventions
 - Class names start with an uppercase letter
 - MyClass, SodaCan, PickupTruck, Sedan
 - data field and function names start with a lowercase letter
 - Some people use cammelCase, others all lowercase
 - myProperty, myFunction(), myproperty, myfunction()

Class definition syntax

legacy-style definition

class Computer:

 # Data fields

 memory=2048

 cores=4

 power=False

 def __init__:

 pass

 # methods

 def powerOn(self):

 self.power=True

modern definition

class Computer(object):

 # Data fields

 memory=2048

 cores=4

 power=False

 def __init__:

 pass

 # methods

 def powerOn(self):

 self.power=True

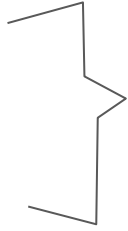
Creating objects

- Once a class is defined, it can be used to create objects using a constructor
 - Creates an object in memory according to the class definition
 - uses the `__init__` function to set up the new object
- Creating on object
 - Without any arguments
 - `myComputer = Computer()`
 - With arguments
 - `myComputer = Computer(4096, 2)`
 - Arguments are passed to the `__init__` function of the class

Class instantiation (Computer.py)

```
#!/usr/bin/python  
class Computer(object):
```

```
    # Data fields  
    memory=2048  
    cores=4  
    wireless=False  
    power=False
```



class variables

```
    def __init__(self, newMemory=None, newCores=None):  
        if type(newMemory) is int:  
            self.memory = newMemory  
        if type(newCores) is int:  
            self.cores = newCores  
        self.power=False
```

```
    def powerOn(self):  
        self.power=True
```



class method

Another class example (Pizza.py)

```
#!/usr/bin/python
class Pizza(object):
    slices=16
    temperature=75.0

    def __init__(self, slices=16, temperature=75.0):
        self.slices = slices
        self.temperature = temperature

    def hasSlices(self):
        if self.slices > 0:
            return True
        else:
            return False

    def eat(self, slices=1):
        if self.slices >= slices:
            self.slices -= slices
            return True
        else:
            return False
```

```
if __name__ == "__main__":
    myPizza = Pizza(8)
    while myPizza.hasSlices():
        print("Eating pizza...")
        myPizza.eat()
```


Variable Scope

- In the previous module; we say how global and local variable scope differs
- We now also have **instance** and **class** scopes
 - Instance
 - Defined within the methods of a class
 - available to instances of that object that call the method
 - Class variables
 - Defined as part of the class definition
 - Available to all instances of that class

Class vs Instance vars

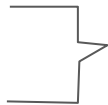
(SupremePizza.py)

```
#!/usr/bin/python  
class Pizza(object):  
    slices=16  
    temperature=75.0
```



Class variables

```
    def __init__(self, slices=16, temperature=75.0):  
        self.slices = slices  
        self.temperature = temperature  
        self.toppings = 'all'  
        self.crust = 'thin'
```



Instance variables

```
    def hasSlices(self):  
        if self.slices > 0:  
            return True  
        else:  
            return False
```

..]

Encapsulation

- In the previous examples; the programmer could manually modify the slices variable
 - This is considered a bad practice in Object-Oriented Programming
 - The functions in our class cannot reliably predict what the slices var will be
 - Example; the slices variable could be changed to a string
- Solution: encapsulation
 - Protect the variable from being modified outside the class
 - Provide functions that control how the variable can be accessed
 - This is the basis of encapsulation

Visibility modifiers

- Visibility modifiers in Python can be used to prevent direct access to class and instance variables
- **NOTE:** In Python, they are more conventional than technical; not a guarantee
- Public
 - Intended to be accessed and modified from outside of the object
 - Example; `myPizza.slices = "OM NOM NOM!"`
- Private
 - Intended to only be accessed by functions within the class itself
- Protected
 - Intended to only be accessed by functions within the class definition and functions of child classes
 - More on child classes when we cover inheritance

Visibility modifier naming convention

- Public
 - name starts with an uppercase or lowercase letter
- private
 - name starts with two underscores;
 - Example `__myVariable`
- Protected
 - name starts with a single underscore
 - Example: `_myVariable`

Providing access to data

- For class variables marked as protected or private; access is provided via methods
- Accessor
 - Returns the current value of the class variable, but does not modify it
 - Names typically follow the pattern of; `getVariableName()`
 - Example; `getSlices()`
- Mutator
 - Provide a mechanism for updating class variables
 - Naming convention; `setVariableName(newValue)`
 - Example; `setSlices(24)`

Visibility modifiers (ProtectedPizza.py)

```
#!/usr/bin/python
```

```
class ProtectedPizza(object):
```

```
    __slices=16
```

```
    __temperature=75.0
```

“private” class variables

```
    def __init__(self, slices=16, temperature=75.0):
```

```
        self.__slices = slices
```

```
        self.__temperature = temperature
```

```
    def hasSlices(self):
```

```
        if self.__slices > 0:
```

```
            return True
```

```
        else:
```

```
            return False
```

```
    def getSlices(self):
```

```
        return self.__slices
```

Accessor

```
    def setSlices(self, newVal):
```

```
        if type(newVal) is int:
```

```
            self.__slices = newVal;
```

Mutator

Inheritance

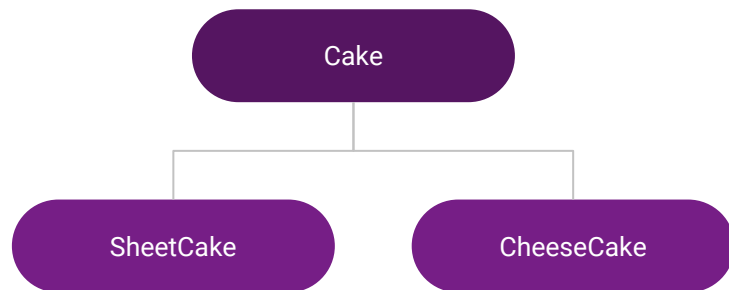
Inheritance

- A foundational concept of Object-Oriented Programming (OOP)
- A mechanism for adding functionality to a parent class by creating a child class
- Child classes
 - inherit methods and properties from their parent class
 - Can implement additional functions and properties specific to the child class
 - Can override (supercede) elements inherited from their parent class
- Programmers sometimes use the shorthand 'is-a' to describe inheritance
 - a PickupTruck is-a Vehicle
 - a SupremePizza is-a Pizza

Designing for inheritance

What properties and functions are common to all types of cake?

- calories
- sugar
- eat()
- What properties or functions are unique to the children?
 - sheet cake
 - length, width
 - Cheesecake
 - circumference



Inheritance example (Cake.py)

```
#!/usr/bin/python
class Cake(object):
    _calories = 0
    def __init__(self, calories=5000):
        self._calories = calories

    def getCalories(self):
        return self._calories

class SheetCake(Cake):
    length=0
    width=0

class CheeseCake(Cake):
    radius=0
```

Overriding methods

- Child classes can override the methods/functions of parent classes
- This replaces the behavior of the parent function with that of the child
- Any parent function can be overridden; including `__init__`

```
class Cake(object):  
    _calories = 0  
    def __init__(self, calories=5000):  
        self._calories = calories  
  
    def getCalories(self):  
        return self._calories
```

```
class SheetCake(Cake):  
    length=0  
    width=0  
    def __init__(self, calories=5000, length=24, width=12):  
        self._calories = calories  
        self.length = length  
        self.width = width
```

Operator Overloading

- How operators interact with an object is defined on the 'object' class
 - Recall from the Cake example; Cake was a child of 'object'
- We can *overload* these to define the behavior between an object and an operator
- Addition
 - `__add__(self, other)` # where other is the other object being added
- Subtraction
 - `__sub__(self, other)`
- Multiplication
 - `__mul__(self, other)`
- Division
 - `__truediv__(self, other)`

Even more operators!

- `<`, `<=`, `==`, `!=`, `>`, `>=`
 - `__lt__`, `__le__`, `__eq__`, `__ne__`, `__gt__`, `__ge__`
 - All take (self, other) as arguments
- `[index]`
 - If your object is accessed like a list; you can perform an action here too!
 - `__getitem__(self, index)`
- `len()`
 - Your object is used with the `len()` function
 - `__len__(self)`
- `str()`
 - Your object is being converted to a string
 - `__str__(self)`

Operator overloading (Cake.py)

```
class Cake(object):  
    _calories = 0  
    def __init__(self, calories=5000):  
        self._calories = calories  
  
    def getCalories(self):  
        return self._calories  
  
    def __str__(self):  
        return "I am a delicious cake consisting of %d calories!" % (self._calories)  
  
    def __eq__(self, other):  
        return self._calories == other._calories  
  
    def __add__(self, other):  
        return Cake(self._calories + other._calories)
```