Object-Oriented Programming and Abstraction

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The Principles of OOP

- Object-oriented programming (often abbreviated to OOP) was invented in Norway in the 1960s but was not adopted widely for more than a decade.
- Object-orientation is defined by two principles, both of which I mentioned on Wednesday during my discussion of classes and objects in Python:
  - ***Encapsulation***—The principle that data values and the methods that manipulate them should be integrated into a single coherent structure called an object.
  - ***Inheritance***—The idea that objects and the classes that those objects represent form hierarchies that allow new classes to share behavior with classes at higher levels in the hierarchy.
- Today's lecture focuses on the use of encapsulation to define both the values and operations on rational numbers.

Rational Numbers

- Section 9.3 illustrates the idea of encapsulation by defining a class called **`Rational`** to represent ***rational numbers***, which are simply the quotient of two integers.
- Rational numbers can be useful in cases in which you need exact calculation with fractions. Even if you use a **`double`**, the floating-point number 0.1 represented internally is actually an approximation. The rational number 1 / 10 is exact.
- Rational numbers support the standard arithmetic operations:

Addition:

$$\frac{a}{b} + \frac{c}{d} = \frac{ad + bc}{bd}$$

Subtraction:

$$\frac{a}{b} - \frac{c}{d} = \frac{ad - bc}{bd}$$

Multiplication:

$$\frac{a}{b} \times \frac{c}{d} = \frac{ac}{bd}$$

Division:

$$\frac{a}{b} \div \frac{c}{d} = \frac{ad}{bc}$$

Implementing the `Rational` Class

- The next three slides show the initial version of the **`Rational`** class along with some brief annotations.
- As you read through the code, the following features are worth special attention:
  - *The constructor checks that rational numbers obey certain rules*. These rules are described in more detail in the text but include reducing the fraction to lowest terms.
  - *For now, operations are specified using the receiver syntax.* When you apply an operator to two **`Rational`** values, one of the operands is the receiver and the other is passed as an argument, as in

```
r1.add(r2)
```

The `Rational` Class

```
# File: rational.py

"""
This module defines a class for representing rational numbers.
"""

import math

class Rational:

# Implementation note
# -------------------
# The Rational class ensures that every number has a unique
# internal representation by guaranteeing that the following
# conditions hold:
#    1. The denominator must be greater than 0.
#    2. The number 0 is always represented as 0/1.
#    3. The fraction is always reduced to lowest terms.
```

The `Rational` Class

```
    def __init__(self, num, den=1):
        """Creates a new Rational object from num and den."""
        if den == 0:
            raise ValueError("Illegal denominator value")
        if num == 0:
            den = 1
        elif den < 0:
            den = -den
            num = -num
        g = math.gcd(abs(num), den)
        self._num = num // g
        self._den = den // g

    def __str__(self):
        """Returns the string representation of this object."""
        if self._den == 1:
            return str(self._num)
        else:
            return str(self._num) + "/" + str(self._den)
```

The `Rational` Class

```
    def add(self, r):
        """Creates a new Rational by adding r to self."""
        return Rational(self._num * r._den + self._den * r._num,
                        self._den * r._den)

    def sub(self, r):
        """Creates a new Rational by subtracting r from self."""
        return Rational(self._num * r._den - self._den * r._num,
                        self._den * r._den)

    def mul(self, r):
        """Creates a new Rational by multiplying self by r."""
        return Rational(self._num * r._num, self._den * r._den)

    def div(self, r):
        """Creates a new Rational by dividing self by r."""
        return Rational(self._num * r._den, self._den * r._num)
```

Simulating Rational Calculation

- The next slide works through all the steps in the calculation of a simple program that adds three rational numbers.

$$\frac{1}{2} + \frac{1}{3} + \frac{1}{6}$$

- With rational arithmetic, the computation is exact. If you use floating-point arithmetic, the result looks like this:

PyCharm

```
>>> 1/2 + 1/3 + 1/6
0.9999999999999999
>>>
```

Tracing Rational Addition

```
def RationalSum():
    def __str__(self):
        if self._den == 1:
            return str(self._num)
        else:
            return str(self._num) + "/" + str(self._den)
```

self

$\frac{1}{1}$

RationalSum
1/2 + 1/3 + 1/6 = 1

Overloading the Arithmetic Operators

- The receiver syntax used in the **`RationalSum`** program makes the program hard to read, particularly for people unfamiliar with object-oriented programming.
- The program would be much clearer if you could replace

```
a.add(b).add(c)
```

  with the more familiar expression

```
a + b + c
```

- Unlike most modern languages, Python allows you to do just that. Each operator is associated with a special method name specifying how that operator should be implemented by the defining class. This technique is called ***operator overloading***.

Redefining Addition

- As an example, you can define addition for the **`Rational`** class by providing a definition for the **`__add__`** method. If you make use of the fact that the **`Rational`** class has an **`add`** method, the definition of the **`__add__`** operator looks like this:

```
def __add__(self, rhs):
    return self.add(rhs)
```

- Although this simple implementation works, it is better for clients if one can mix types in an expression.
- As long as the **`Rational`** operand appears to the left of the **`+`** operator, the **`__add__`** method can define mixed-type addition by checking the type of **`rhs`**. If the **`Rational`** operand can appear on the right, you need to define the method **`__radd__`** as well. The code for overloading **`+`** in both directions appears on the next slide.

Overloading Addition on Both Sides

```
def __add__(self, rhs):
    if type(rhs) is int:
        return self.add(Rational(rhs))
    elif type(rhs) is Rational:
        return self.add(rhs)
    else:
        return NotImplemented

def __radd__(self, lhs):
    if type(lhs) is int:
        return Rational(lhs).add(self)
    elif type(lhs) is Rational:
        return lhs.add(self)
    else:
        return NotImplemented
```

Operator Methods in Python

`__add__`	`__radd_`	Redefines the `+` operator
`__sub__`	`__rsub__`	Redefines the `-` operator
`__mul__`	`__rmul__`	Redefines the `*` operator
`__truediv__`	`__rtruediv__`	Redefines the `/` operator
`__floordiv__`	`__rfloordiv_`	Redefines the `//` operator
`__mod__`	`=_rmod__`	Redefines the `%` operator
`__pow__`	`__rpow__`	Redefines the `**` operator
`__neg__`	(not applicable)	Redefines the unary `-` operator
`__eq__`	(symmetric)	Redefines the `==` operator
`__ne__`	(symmetric)	Redefines the `!=` operator
`__lt__`	(inferred from `>`)	Redefines the `<` operator
`__gt__`	(inferred from `<`)	Redefines the `>` operator
`__le__`	(inferred from `>=`)	Redefines the `<=` operator
`__ge__`	(inferred from `<=`)	Redefines the `>=` operator

Type Abstraction

- One of the most important advantages of the object-oriented paradigm is the idea of **type abstraction**, in which the goal is to think about types in terms of their high-level behavior rather than their low-level implementation.
- In computer science, types that are defined by their behavior are called **abstract data types** or **ADT**s.
- Python includes several built-in abstract types, and you have already seen a few implementations of abstract types, such as the `Rational` we just discussed last time.
- We'll spend the rest of lecture discussing strategies on how to define your own abstract data types.

Remembering Pig Latin

- One of the largest examples we covered while teaching JavaScript strings was a program that translated text from English to Pig Latin. We revisited that same program when we discussed Python's support for strings.
- Both Pig Latin translators decomposed the problem into two functions: a `toPigLatin` function that divides the input into words and a `wordToPigLatin` function that translates a single word to its Pig Latin equivalent. The first phase of this operation is completely independent of Pig Latin domain.
- It would be useful to have a package that divides input strings into individual units that have integrity as a unit, as words do in English. Since the same idea applies in contexts beyond human languages, computer scientists use the term **token** to define these units. A library that returns individual tokens from an input source is called a **token scanner**.

Designing a Token Scanner

- Section 12.2 in the Python reader describes a general library class called **`TokenScanner`**, which is implemented for several programming languages just as our graphics package is.
- The text also implements a small piece of that library that exports the following methods:

`scanner.setInput(str)` Sets the input for this scanner to the specified string or input stream.
`scanner.hasMoreTokens()` Returns **`true`** if more tokens exist, and **`false`** at the end of the token stream.
`scanner.nextToken()` Returns the next token from the token stream, and `""` at the end.
`scanner.ignoreWhitespace()` Tells the scanner to ignore whitespace characters.

- These methods are the primary **`TokenScanner`** methods you need for your next assignment.

A Simple `TokenScanner` Class

```
# File: tokenscanner.py

"""
This file implements a simple token scanner class.
"""

# A token scanner is an abstract data type that divides
# a string into tokens, which are strings of consecutive
# characters that form logical units.  This simplified
# version recognizes two token types:
#
#   1. A string of consecutive letters and digits
#   2. A single character string
   .
   .
   .
```

A Simple `TokenScanner` Class

```
class TokenScanner:

    def __init__(self, source=""):
        self._source = source
        self._nch = len(source)
        self._cp = 0
        self._ignoreWhitespaceFlag = False

    def setInput(self, source):
        self._source = source
        self._nch = len(source)
        self._cp = 0
```

A Simple `TokenScanner` Class

```
def nextToken(self):
    if self._ignoreWhitespaceFlag:
        self._skipWhitespace()
    if self._cp == self._nch:
        return ""
    token = self._source[self._cp]
    self._cp += 1
    if token.isalnum():
        while (self._cp < self._nch and
               self._source[self._cp].isalnum()):
            token += self._source[self._cp]
            self._cp += 1
    return token

def hasMoreTokens(self):
    if self._ignoreWhitespaceFlag:
        self._skipWhitespace()
    return self._cp < self._nch
```

A Simple `TokenScanner` Class

```
    def ignoreWhitespace(self):
        self._ignoreWhitespaceFlag = True

# Private methods

    def _skipWhitespace(self):
        while (self._cp < self._nch and
               self._source[self._cp].isspace()):
            self._cp += 1
```

Using `TokenScanner` in `PigLatin`

```
# File: PigLatin.py

from tokenscanner import PigLatin

def toPigLatin(line):
    result = ""
    scanner = TokenScanner(line)
    while scanner.hasMoreTokens():
        token = scanner.nextToken()
        if token.isalpha():
            token = wordToPigLatin(token)
        result += token
    return result
```

The End