



# Object Oriented Programming in Python

- PoPI

# Objects

- **Object-oriented programming** is a particular methodology of programming (approach to organise code)
- Widely used since **90s**
- Code is written around an **object**, which is
  - **data** – a current state
  - **methods** – operations that can access/change the state
- **Example:** cash register id 2346
  - **data:**
    - number of items currently registered/counted (7)
    - total price (£32)
  - **methods:**
    - **add** an item with a given price
    - **check** the total price ("Your total is N")
    - **check** the number of items ("You have M items")
    - **clear** the register (before starting to process next operation)



# Objects (cont)

```
def main():
```

```
➤ register2346.addItem(15.56)
```

```
#adds an item of that price
```

```
➤ register2346.addItem(12.10)
```

```
#adds another item
```

```
➤ M = register2346.getCount()
```

```
# M gets value 2 as we have 2 items
```

```
➤ N = register2346.getTotal()
```

```
# N gets value 17.66 as it is the total
```

```
➤ register2346.clear()
```

```
# clear the data (set num of items and  
total to 0)
```

```
➤ register2346.addItem(5.05)
```

```
➤ register5375.addItem(3.34)
```

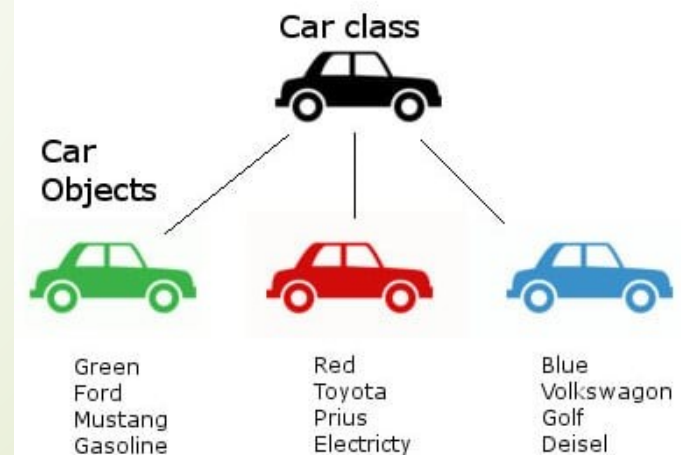
```
# here we work with another register of  
the same type
```

What does it mean that `register2346` and `register5375` are of the same type?

# Classes



- A **class** is a recipe or a “**blueprint**” for creating (many) **objects**
  - such as `register2346`, `register5375`, `register10000`,...
  - they are called **instances** of a class
  - a class can be named `CashRegister`
- A class is specified by
  - **variables names** to store state/data of each object of the class
  - methods specified by
    - method **names**
    - required **arguments** to call them
    - their **implementations**





# Class Example



```
class CashRegister :  
    def clear(self) :                # method  
        self._itemCount = 0        # variable to store number of items  
        self._totalPrice = 0.0     # variable to store total  
  
    def addItem(self, price) :      # method  
        self._itemCount = self._itemCount + 1  
        self._totalPrice = self._totalPrice + price  
  
    def getTotal(self) :            # method  
        return self._totalPrice  
  
    def getCount(self) :           # method  
        return self._itemCount
```

# Class Example (cont.)

- ▶ Creating objects as instances of a class:

```
def main():
```

```
    register2346 = CashRegister()
```

```
    #an instance of the class (=object) created
```

```
    register5375 = CashRegister()
```

```
    #another instance of the class (=object) created
```

```
    register2346.addItem(5.05)
```

```
    register5375.addItem(3.34)
```

```
    ...
```





# Constructors: Motivation

- The previous program **won't run** (as well as this one)  
`register2346 = CashRegister()`  
`register2346.addItem(5.05)`
- Why?
- It would run if **modified**  
`register2346 = CashRegister()`  
`register2346.clear()`  
`register2346.addItem(5.05)`
- The variables `_itemCount` and `_totalPrice` were not initialised (by `0` and `0.0`)
- To automatically initialise such variables when an object is created  
`register2346 = CashRegister()`  
use **constructors**

# Constructors

- Has a reserved name `__init__` but arguments may vary

```
class CashRegister :  
    def __init__(self) :  
        self._itemCount = 0  
        self._totalPrice = 0.0  
    def ...
```

- Alternatively, to the first `__init__` we can define

```
def __init__(self, discount) :  
    self._itemCount = 0  
    self._totalPrice = - discount
```

- We can then do in the main program depending on what we defined:

```
register2346 = CashRegister() or register2346 = CashRegister(50)
```

- Constructors** can perform **any actions** inside the body but they **must, first, initialise all the variables** that describe state/data of objects of this class

- Though `__init__` defined as a method **never call it explicitly**

```
register2346.__init__()
```



# Methods and Self

- You define a method of a class

```
def methodname(self, arg1, ..., argN)
```

- And you call it in the main program as follows

```
object.methodname(arg1,..., argN)
```

- What if we want to call a method of a class from another method

```
class CashRegister :
```

```
    def addItem(self, price):
```

```
        call getTotal() to check current total and only add if it is <=100
```

- to which object should I “talk” to to getTotal()?

- to this object itself, therefore we write

```
class CashRegister :
```

```
    def addItem(self, price):
```

```
        tot = self.getTotal()
```

```
        if tot <=100: self._itemCount = self._itemCount + 1 ...
```

# Methods and Self (cont)

- It is the same with **variables**

```
class CashRegister :
```

```
    def clear(self) :
```

```
        self._itemCount = 0          # update _itemCount of this object itself
```

- Sometimes we need to distinguish object itself from **other**:

```
class CashRegister :
```

```
    def copy(self, other) :           #copy the state of other cash register to this one
```

```
        self._itemCount = other._itemCount
```

```
        self._totalPrice = other._totalPrice
```

- In the main program

```
...
```

```
register2346.copy(register5375)
```

- 

• • •

[illegible]

# Encapsulation

- In Java, C++ and other languages we can **declare** that some **variables/methods are restricted** (cannot be accessed from functions/methods outside of the defining class)

```
class CashRegister
{
    private int _totalPrice
}
```

- In Python **no restrictions** but a **convention**:
  - Methods and variables of the shape **\_name** are **restricted/private**
  - You are **not supposed** to call them outside of the class definition code

```
def main():
    ...
    register2346._totalPrice = 1000
```

# Assigning Object Variables

- Consider the following code

```
register2346 = CashRegister()
```

```
register5375 = CashRegister()
```

```
register2346.addItem(5.05)
```

```
register5375.addItem(5.05)
```

# thus, objects register2346 and  
register5375 have identical content

```
print(register2346 == register5375)
```

```
>> False
```

- Why?
- When `register2346 = CashRegister()` is executed:
  - A **new piece** of memory is allocated
  - A **reference** to that memory is stored in the variable `register2346` (recall lecture on **Memory and References**)
  - `register2346` and `register5375` point to different pieces of memory and therefore are **not equal**



# Assigning Object Variables (cont.)

- To check for content equality:

```
class CashRegister :
```

```
    def isEqual(self, other):
```

```
        if self._itemCount == other._itemCount and self._totalPrice == other._totalPrice:
```

```
            return True
```

```
        else: return False
```

```
    ...
```

```
def main():
```

```
    register2346 = CashRegister()
```

```
    register5375 = CashRegister()
```

```
    register2346.addItem(5.05)
```

```
    register5375.addItem(5.05)
```

```
    print(register2346.isEqual(register5375))
```

```
>> True
```



# Operators Overloading

- ▶ If you want `==` to work in the same way as `isEqual(self, other)` you can!
  - ▶ Use operator **overloading** feature
- ▶ `isEqual` should change to have a standard name `__eq__`, two arguments `self` and `y`, and return `True` or `False` i.e.,

```
class CashRegister :  
    def __eq__(self, y):  
        if self._itemCount == y._itemCount and self._totalPrice == y._totalPrice:  
            return True  
        else: return False
```

- ▶ Then we can do:  

```
register2346 = CashRegister()  
register5375 = CashRegister()  
print(register2346 == register5375)  
>> True
```

# Operators Overloading (cont.)

➤ You can overload not only ==

Expression	Method Name	Returns	Description
$x + y$	<code>__add__(self, y)</code>	object	Addition
$x - y$	<code>__sub__(self, y)</code>	object	Subtraction
$x * y$	<code>__mul__(self, y)</code>	object	Multiplication
$x / y$	<code>__truediv__(self, y)</code>	object	Real division
$x // y$	<code>__floordiv__(self, y)</code>	object	Floor division
$x \% y$	<code>__mod__(self, y)</code>	object	Modulus
$x ** y$	<code>__pow__(self, y)</code>	object	Exponentiation
$x == y$	<code>__eq__(self, y)</code>	Boolean	Equal
$x != y$	<code>__ne__(self, y)</code>	Boolean	Not equal
$x < y$	<code>__lt__(self, y)</code>	Boolean	Less than
$x <= y$	<code>__le__(self, y)</code>	Boolean	Less than or equal
$x > y$	<code>__gt__(self, y)</code>	Boolean	Greater than
$x >= y$	<code>__ge__(self, y)</code>	Boolean	Greater than or equal
$-x$	<code>__neg__(self)</code>	object	Unary minus
<code>abs(x)</code>	<code>__abs__(self)</code>	object	Absolute value
<code>float(x)</code>	<code>__float__(self)</code>	float	Convert to a floating-point value
<code>int(x)</code>	<code>__int__(self)</code>	integer	Convert to an integer value
<code>str(x)</code> <code>print(x)</code>	<code>__repr__(self)</code>	string	Convert to a readable string
$x = \text{ClassName}()$	<code>__init__(self)</code>	object	Constructor

# In Python Every Data Type is a Class

## ► Lists

```
lst = list([1, 2, 3])      # constructor
lst1 = [4,5,6]            # the same as previous, simplified syntax
lst.append(lst1)          # a method
```

► Operators `[]` are also overridden, e.g., `lst[2]` could be `lst.__getitem__(2)`

## ► Strings

```
str = string("abc")      # constructor
str1 = "def"             # the same as previous, simplified syntax
str2 = str1 + str2        # effectively str2 = str.__add__(str2) overridden
```

## ► Integers

```
a = 3                    # constructor
b = a + 2                # effectively b = a.__add__(2) overridden
```

## ► Floats

```
f = 1.0                  # constructor
print(f.is_integer())
>> True
```