

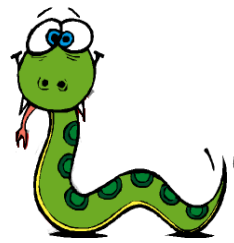


Classes and Objects

Chapter 11

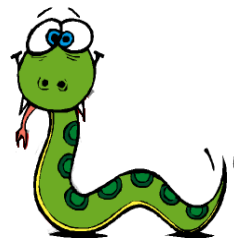
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Defining new data types



- We have used many of Python's built-in types: Strings, Tuples, Lists, Dictionaries.
- However, applications often have specific requirements that cannot be modelled well with these data types.
- Programming languages (Python) provide mechanisms to define new data types.
- Creating a new type is (a little) more complicated than the other options, but it has advantages that will be apparent soon.

Defining a point type



- We will create a type called Point that represents a point in two-dimensional space.
- Notation: (x, y) represents the point x units to the right and y units up from the origin.
- There are several ways we might represent points in Python:
 - store the coordinates separately in two variables, 1 and 2.
 - store the coordinates as elements in a list or tuple.
 - create a new type to represent points as objects.

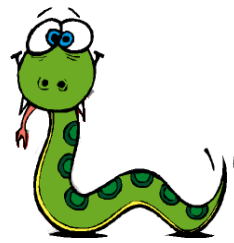
Example



- Implementing a point with a lists.
- The type include a function that is able to move points.

```
>>> point = [0, 0]
>>> def move(p, x, y):
...     p[0] = x
...     p[1] = y
...
>>> move(point, 4, 5)
>>> point
[4, 5]
```

Problems



- This implementation has several problems:
 - We can use the len function on a point .
 - We can change the coordinates of point without using the move function.
 - We can modify the internal structure of a point, for example deleting a field or adding more values with the append function.
 - The type function returns 'list' as a type.
- In summary it does not behave like a built-in data types.



Example

```
>>> len(punto)
2
>>> type(punto)
<class 'list'>
>>> punto[1:1] = [5, 6]
>>> punto
[4, 5, 6, 5]
>>>
```

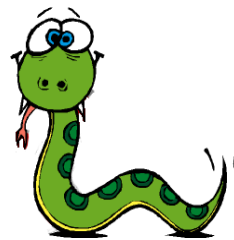


Types as Classes

- A user-defined type is also called a **class**.
- A class definition looks like this:

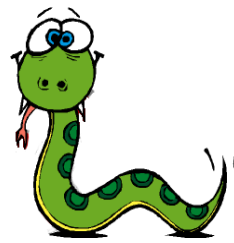
```
class Point:  
  
    def __init__(self, x, y):  
        self.x = x  
        self.y = y
```

Defining classes

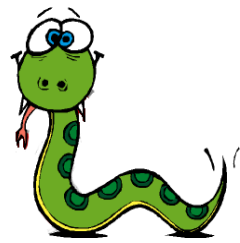


- This header indicates that the new class is a Point, which is a kind of object, which is a built-in type.
- Defining a class named Point creates a class object. Then you can define variables and functions inside a class definition.
- The init method (short for “initialization”) is a special method that gets invoked when an object is instantiated (created). Its full name is `__init__` (two underscore characters, followed by init, and then two more underscores).
- For a good programming style I recommend to define init as a first method of the class: this makes the structure of objects clear.

`__init__` method.



- It is common for the parameters of `init` to have the same names as the attributes.
- The parameter **`self`** refers to the created object and must be the first argument.
- The `init` indicates that the `point` class has two attributes.
- The syntax `self.x` and `self.y` denotes object attributes. The notation adopted is similar to that adopted for modules.

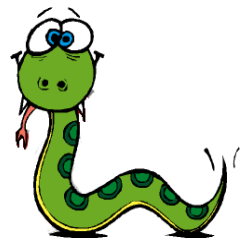


Objects and instances

- To create a Point, you call Point as if it were a function. This function calls the `__init__` method automatically when this is defined.

```
blank = Point(0, 0)
```

The reference to the new object is assigned to variable blank.



Example

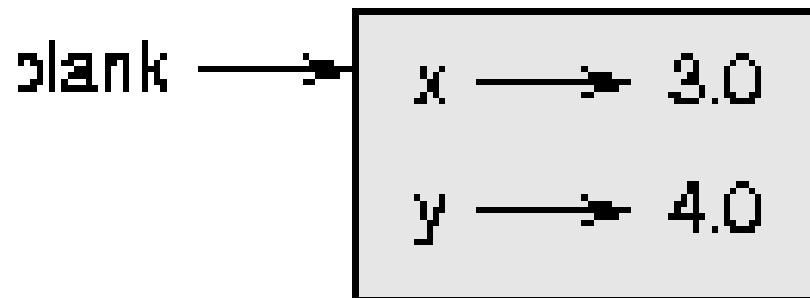
```
>>> blank.x
0
>>> blank.y
0
>>> blank
<__main__.Point instance at 0xb7f75c2c>
>>>
>>> type(blank)
<class '__main__.Point'>
>>>
```



Example

- Objects are mutable:

```
>>> blank.x = 3.0  
>>> blank.y = 4.0
```





Example

Using the dot notation.

```
>>> print (blank.y)
4.0
>>> x = blank.x
>>> print (x)
3.0
```

Note that variable `x` and attribute `X` are different.



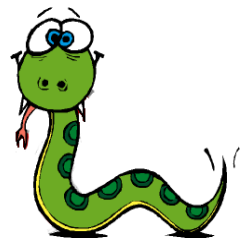
Printing an object

```
>>> blank
<__main__.Point instance at 0xb7f75c2c>

# this is just a reference

def printPoint(p):
    print('(' + str(p.x) + ', ' + str(p.y) + ')')
```

Note that when an object is given as an argument to a function the reference is passed.



Default values

- We can assign default values to parameters of functions.
- The same is true for methods.

```
def alwaysprint (x=0) :  
    ...     print (x)  
    ...  
>>> alwaysprint (1)  
1  
>>> alwaysprint ()  
0
```



Examples

```
def find(str, ch):
    index = 0
    while index < len(str):
        if str[index] == ch:
            return index
        index = index + 1
    return -1
```

```
def find(str, ch, start=0):
    index = start
    while index < len(str):
        if str[index] == ch:
            return index
        index = index + 1
    return -1
```

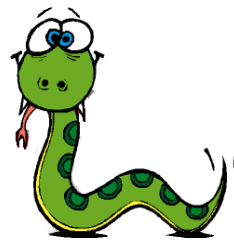



Improving the point definition

```
class Point:
    def __init__(self, x=0, y=0):
        self.x = x
        self.y = y

    def __str__(self):
        return '(' + str(self.x) + ', ' + str(self.y) + ')'

    def move(self, a, b):
        self.x = a
        self.y = b
```



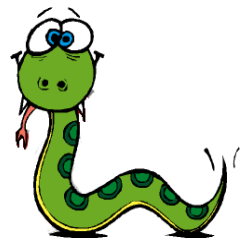
Example

```
>>> p = Point(3, 4)
>>> str(p)
'(3, 4)'
```

Note that: `__str__` overrides the standard behavior of `str`

```
>>> p = Point(3, 4)
>>> print(p)
(3, 4)
```

The `str` function is called while printing an object



Executing a script

```
class Point:
    def __init__(self, x=0, y=0):
        self.x = x
        self.y = y

    def __str__(self):
        return '(' + str(self.x) + ', ' + str(self.y) + ') '

    def muovi(self, a, b):
        self.x = a
        self.y = b

b = Point(4, 5)
b.move(6, 7)
print(b)
```

Objects are mutable!



Example

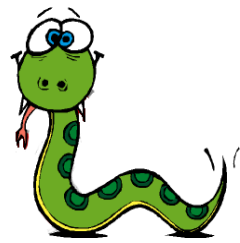
```
>>> p1 = Point(3, 4)
>>> p2 = Point(3, 4)
>>> p1 == p2
False
>>> p2 = p1
>>> p1 == p2
True
```



Example

- deep equality for points.

```
def samePoint(p1, p2) :  
    return (p1.x == p2.x) and (p1.y == p2.y)
```

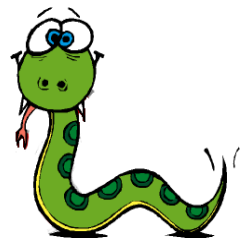


A rectangle object

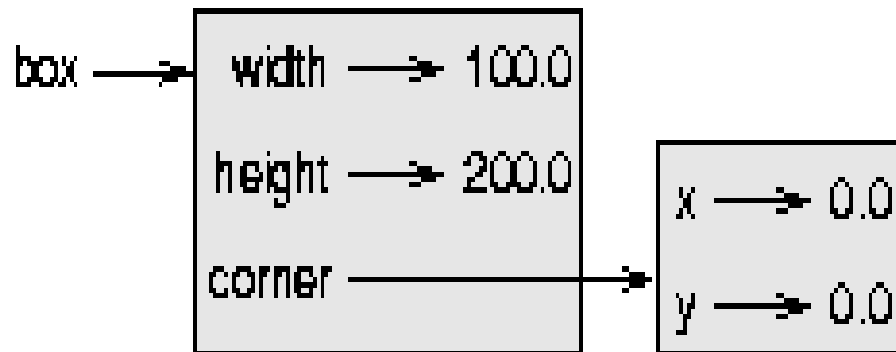
```
class Rectangle:  
    def __init__(self, width, height, x, y) :  
        self.corner = Point(x, y)  
        self.width = width  
        self.height = height
```

```
box = Rectangle(100.0, 200.0, 0.0, 0.0)
```

NB. the point object is part of the rectangle object.



Compound Objects



Access to compound objects:

```
>>> print(box.corner.x)
```



Instances as return values

```
def findCenter(box):  
    p = Point()  
    p.x = box.corner.x + box.width/2.0  
    p.y = box.corner.y + box.height/2.0  
    return p
```

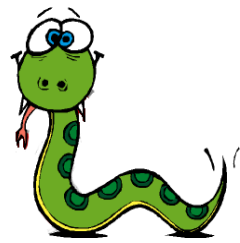
```
>>> center = findCenter(box)  
>>> printPoint(center)  
(50.0, 100.0)
```




Object Cloning

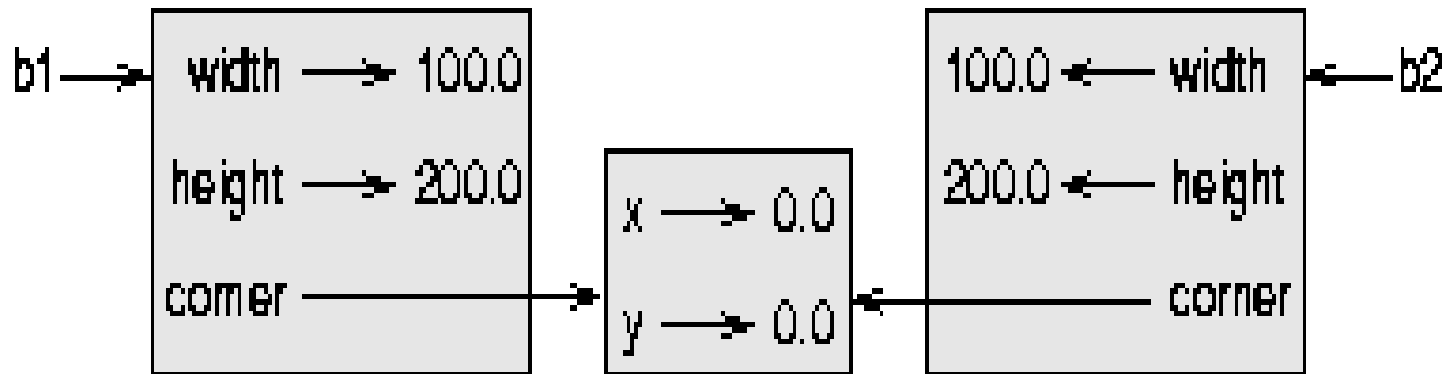
- Aliasing can also occur for objects.
- It is recommended to copy objects to avoid aliasing.
- The copy module provide this functionality.

```
>>> import copy
>>> p1 = Point(3, 4)
>>> p2 = copy.copy(p1)
>>> p1 == p2
False
>>> samePoint(p1, p2)
True
```



Example

- Warning the function `copy.copy` (the function copy of module `copy`) implements shallow copying only.





Example 2

```
def growRect(box, dwidth, dheight) :  
    box.width = box.width + dwidth  
    box.height = box.height + dheight
```

```
def moveRect(box, nx, ny) :  
    box.corner.x = nx  
    box.corner.y = ny
```



Deep Copy

```
>>> b2 = copy.deepcopy(b1)
```

```
# and now no aliasing arises between b1 and b2
```

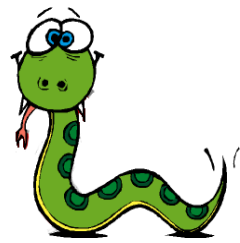
```
def growRect(box, dwidth, dheight) :  
    import copy  
    newBox = copy.deepcopy(box)  
    newBox.width = newBox.width + dwidth  
    newBox.height = newBox.height + dheight  
    return newBox
```



Example a Time object

```
class Time:
    def __init__(self, hours=0, minutes=0, seconds=0):
        self.hours = hours
        self.minutes = minutes
        self.seconds = seconds
    def __str__(self):
        temp = str(self.hours)+' ':'+str(self.minutes)
        return temp+' ':'+str(self.seconds)
```

```
>>> time = Time(11, 59, 30)
>>> print(time)
11:59:30
```

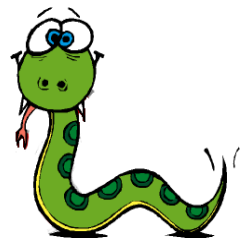


Operator overloading

- The ability to change built-in operators to adapt them to user defined data types (str is an example). +, *, ==, >, < can be overloaded too.

```
class Point:
    # previously defined methods here...

    def __add__(self, other):
        return Point(self.x + other.x, self.y + other.y)
```



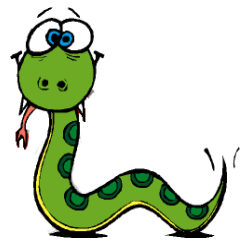
Example

```
>>> p1 = Point(3, 4)
>>> p2 = Point(5, 7)
>>> p3 = p1 + p2
>>> print(p3)
(8, 11)
```



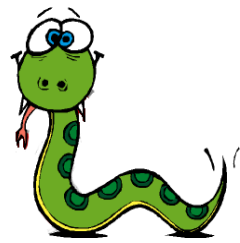
More overloading

- $p1 + p2$ is equivalent to $p1.__add__(p2)$
- It means to apply the method `__add__` to object $p1$.
- Infix notation is more declarative and convenient.
- Other overloaded operators are:
 - `__mul__`
 - `__rmul__`
 - `__lt__`, `__gt__`, `__le__`, `__ge__`, `__eq__`, and `__ne__`



Example

```
def __mul__(self, other):  
    return self.x * other.x + self.y * other.y  
  
def __rmul__(self, other):  
    return Point(other * self.x, other * self.y)
```



Exercise 1

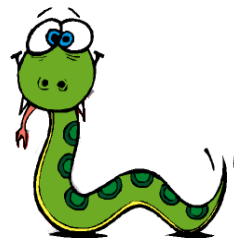
- Define a student Class with name, surname and matricola data.
- Define the `__str__` method for the student.



Exercise 2

- Define a circle object.
- Two circles are equal if they have the same radius define the `!=` and `==` operators for circle defining the `__eq__` and `__neq__` methods.

```
bank = [['Mauro', '1111', 700], ['Johanna', '2222', 40000]]
```



```
def create_account(b):
    name = raw_input('Account name: ')
    psw = raw_input('Password: ')
    amount = input('Euro: ')
    b.append([name, psw, amount])
    print "crated an account for ", name
    return None

def get_user_index(b, n):
    i = 0
    while i < len(b):
        if b[i][0] == n:
            return i
        i = i + 1
    print('user ', n, ' is not allowed to access this bank')
    return None

def check_psw(account):
    for j in range(3):
        psw = input('Give me your pin: ')
        if psw == account[1]:
            return True
    return False

def cash_dispenser(b):
    while True:
        card = input('Give me your card name: ')
        i = get_user_index(b, card)
        if i == None:
            continue
        if check_psw(b[i]):
            amount = int(input('Give me how much you want to withdraw : '))
            if b[i][2] >= amount:
                b[i][2] = b[i][2] - amount
                print('here are your ', amount, ' Euro')
            else:
                print('Operation not allowed')
```