

## **Object Oriented Programming**



## #11

#### Serdar ARITAN

Biomechanics Research Group, Faculty of Sports Sciences, and Department of Computer Graphics Hacettepe University, Ankara, Turkey



### Python String format() Method

#### **Customizing String Formatting**

The format() method formats the specified value(s) and insert them inside the string's placeholder.

The placeholder is defined using curly brackets: { }.

The format() method returns the formatted string.

```
txt = "For only {price:.2f} dollars!"
print(txt.format(price = 49))
txt1 = "My name is {fname}, I'm {age}".format(fname = "Serdar", age = 55)
txt2 = "My name is {0}, I'm {1}".format("Serdar", 55)
txt3 = "My name is {}, I'm {}".format("Serdar", 55)
```



#### Python String format() Method

**Customizing String Formatting** 

```
[:<] Left aligns [:>] Right aligns [:^] Center aligns
txt = "We have {:<8} students."</pre>
print(txt.format(38))
We have 38
                 students.
txt = "We have {:^8} students."
print(txt.format(38))
We have
        38
                 students.
[:b] Binary [:c] Unicode [:d] Decimal [:f] Fixed point
txt = "We have {:b} students."
print(txt.format(38))
We have 100110 students.
txt = "We have {:c} students."
print(txt.format(38))
We have & students.
txt = "We have {:.2f} students."
print(txt.format(38))
We have 38.00 students.
```



Blueprint that describes a house



Instances of the house described by the blueprint





#### **Changing the String Representation of Instances**

To change the <u>string representation</u> of an instance, define the <u>\_\_str\_()</u> and <u>\_\_repr\_()</u> methods. For example:

```
class Pair:
    def __init__(self, x, y):
        self.x = x
        self.y = y
    def __repr__(self):
            return 'Pair({0.x!r}, {0.y!r})'.format(self)
    def __str__(self):
            return '({0.x!s}, {0.y!s})'.format(self)
```

The <u>\_repr\_()</u> method returns the code representation of an instance, and is usually the text you would type to re-create the instance. The <u>\_str\_()</u> method <u>converts the instance to a string</u>, and is the output produced by the <u>str()</u> and <u>print()</u> functions.



**Changing the String Representation of Instances** 

```
class Pair:
        def init (self, x, y):
                self.x = x
                self.y = y
        def repr (self):
                #return 'Pair({0.x!r}, {0.y!r})'.format(self)
                #return 'Pair(%r, %r)' % (self.x, self.y)
                return f'Pair({self.x}, {self.y})`
        def str (self):
                #return '({0.x!s}, {0.y!s})'.format(self)
                #return '(%s, %s)' % (self.x, self.y)
                return f'({self.x}, {self.y})`
```

!r (repr), !s (str) and !a (ascii) were kept around just to ease compatibility with the str.format alternative, you don't need to use them with f-strings.

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**Customizing String Formatting** 

```
formats = {
            'row' : '{d.x}-{d.y}',
            col' : ' n{d.x} n{d.y}'
class Pair:
         def init (self, x, y):
                   self.x = x
                   self.y = y
         def repr (self):
                   return 'Pair({0.x!r}, {0.y!r})'.format(self)
         def str (self):
                   return '({0.x!s}, {0.y!s})'.format(self)
         def format (self, code):
                   if code == '':
                             code = 'row'
                   fmt = formats[code]
                   return fmt.format(d=self)
```



#### **Customizing String Formatting**

The <u>format</u>() method provides a hook into Python's string formatting function-ality. It's important to emphasize that the interpretation of format codes is entirely up to the class itself.

```
>>> p = Pair(3,4)
>>> p
Pair(3, 4)
>>> format(p, 'col')
'\n3\n4'
>>> print(p)
(3, 4)
>>> print('The pair is {:col}'.format(p))
The pair is
3
4
>>> print('The pair is {:row}'.format(p))
The pair is 3-4
```



```
import random
# The Coin class simulates a coin that can be flipped.
class Coin:
```

```
def init (self):
    self.sideup = 'Heads'
def toss(self):
    if random.randint(0, 1) == 0:
        self.sideup = 'Heads'
    else:
        self.sideup = 'Tails'
def get sideup(self):
    return self.sideup
```



```
# The main function.
def main():
# Create an object from the Coin class
   my \ coin = Coin()
    # Display the side of the coin that is facing up
    print('This side is up:', my coin.get sideup())
    # Toss the coin
    print('I am tossing the coin...')
    my coin.toss()
    # Display the side of the coin that is facing up
```

print('This side is up:', my\_coin.get\_sideup())

# Call the main function
main()



```
===== RESTART: CoinToss.py =====
This side is up: Heads
I am tossing the coin...
This side is up: Tails
>>>
===== RESTART: CoinToss.py =====
This side is up: Heads
I am tossing the coin...
This side is up: Tails
>>>
===== RESTART: CoinToss.py =====
This side is up: Heads
I am tossing the coin...
This side is up: Heads
```



```
# The main function.
def main():
# Create an object from the Coin class
   my \ coin = Coin()
    # Display the side of the coin that is facing up
    print('This side is up:', my coin.get_sideup())
    # Toss the coin
    print('I am tossing the coin...')
    my coin.toss()
    # But now We are going to cheat!
   my coin.sideup = 'Tails'
    # Display the side of the coin that is facing up
    print('This side is up:', my coin.get sideup())
```

# Call the main function
main()

#### PYTHON PROGRAMMING

#### CLASSES AND OBJECT-ORIENTED PROGRAMMING

===== RESTART: CoinToss.py ===== This side is up: Heads I am tossing the coin... This side is up: Tails >>> ===== RESTART: CoinToss.py ===== This side is up: Heads I am tossing the coin... This side is up: Tails >>> ===== RESTART: CoinToss.py ===== This side is up: Heads I am tossing the coin... This side is up: Tails



```
# The main function.
def main():
# Create an object from the Coin class
   my \ coin = Coin()
    # Display the side of the coin that is facing up
    print('This side is up:', my coin.get_sideup())
    # Toss the coin
    print('I am tossing the coin...')
    my coin.toss()
    # Delete the proporties!
    del my coin.sideup
    # Display the side of the coin that is facing up
    print('This side is up:', my coin.get sideup())
```

# Call the main function
main()

#### 

```
===== RESTART: CoinToss.py =====
This side is up: Heads
I am tossing the coin...
Traceback (most recent call last):
  File "CoinToss.py", line 32, in <module>
    main()
  File "CoinToss.py", line 29, in main
    print('This side is up:', my coin.get sideup())
  File "CoinToss.py", line 14, in get sideup
    return self.sideup
AttributeError: 'Coin' object has no attribute 'sideup'
```

#### PYTHON PROGRAMMING

#### CLASSES AND OBJECT-ORIENTED PROGRAMMING

Rather than relying on language features to encapsulate data, Python programmers are expected to observe certain naming conventions concerning the intended usage of data and methods. The first convention is that any name that starts with a single leading underscore ( \_ ) should always be assumed to be <u>internal implementation</u>. For example:

Python doesn't actually prevent someone from accessing internal names. However, doing so is considered <u>impolite</u>, and may result in fragile code.



Indicating Privacy Using Double Underscores ( \_\_\_\_)

Python does not enforce this separation between the designer and programmer. All methods and instance variables are public, so both designers and programmers have access. Python does provide support for the designer to indicate attributes that the programmer should not modify directly. Whenever a class designer names an attribute with two leading underscores, this is a message to anyone using the class that the designer considers this a private variable. No one should change or modify its value. To prevent this change from accidentally happening. They can be accessed outside the class, but we must add ClassName to the start.



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```
class NewClass (object):
           def init (self, attribute='default', name='Instance'):
              self.name = name
                                           # public attribute
              self. attribute = attribute # a " private " attribute
          def str (self):
              return '{} has attribute {}'.format(self.name, self. attribute)
       >>> inst1 = NewClass(name='Monty', attribute='Python')
       >>> print(inst1)
       Monty has attribute Python
       >>> print(inst1. attribute) (
       Traceback (most recent call last):
         File "<pyshell#4>", line 1, in <module>
          print(inst1. attribute)
       AttributeError: 'NewClass' object has no attribute ' attribute'
       >>> dir(inst1)
       ['_NewClass_attribute', '__class__', '__delattr__', '__dict__', '__dir__', '__doc__',
       '_eq_', '_format_', '_ge_', '_getattribute_', '_gt_', '_hash_',
       '___init__', '__le__', '__lt__', '__module__', '__ne__', '__new__', '__reduce__',
       ' reduce ex ', ' repr ', ' setattr ', ' sizeof ', ' str ',
       ' subclasshook ', ' weakref ', 'name']
       >>> print(inst1. NewClass attribute)
       Python
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```



A property is a special member of a class.

```
pi = 3.14159
class Circle:
       def init (self, radius):
       self.radius = radius
       @property
       def area(self):
              return self. class . pi * self.radius ** 2
       @property
       def perimeter(self):
              return 2 * self. class . pi * self.radius
```



A property is a special member of a class.

```
>>> c = Circle(4.0)
>>> c.radius
4.0
                      # Notice lack of ()
>>> c.area
50.26548245743669
>>> c.perimeter
                      # Notice lack of ()
25.132741228718345
>>> c.perimeter = 5
Traceback (most recent call last):
  File "<pyshell#24>", line 1, in <module>
    c.perimeter = 5
AttributeError: can't set attribute
```





Creating an Instance <u>Without</u> Invoking <u>\_\_init\_\_</u>.

```
>>> ======= RESTART: ========
>>> c = Circle. new (Circle)
>>> c
return 'Circle(r = {0.radius!r})'.format(self)
AttributeError: 'Circle' object has no attribute 'radius'
>>> setattr(c, 'radius', 5)
>>> c
Circle(r = 5)
>>> c.perimeter
31.4159
p = getattr(c, 'perimeter')
>>> p
```

```
31.4159
```



A property is a special member of a class. It gets and sets a value.

```
class Person:
    def init (self, first name):
        self.first name = first name
p = Person('Serdar')
print(p.first name)
p.first name = 48
print(p.first name)
del p.first name
print(p.first name)
```





```
class Person:
        def init (self, first name):
            self.first name = first name
        # Getter function
        (property
        def first name(self):
            return self. first name
name
        # Setter function
rst
        @first name.setter
        def first name(self, value):
Ч.
            if not isinstance(value, str):
                raise TypeError('Expected a string')
def
            self. first name = value
        # Deleter function (optional)
        @first name.deleter
        def first name(self):
            raise AttributeError('Can't delete attribute')
```



```
A>>> a = Person('Serdar')
>>> a.first name = 48
Traceback (most recent call last):
  File "<pyshell#8>", line 1, in <module>
    a.first name = 48
  File "ManagedAttributes.py", line 15, in first name
    raise TypeError('Expected a string')
TypeError: Expected a string
>>> del a.first name
Traceback (most recent call last):
  File "<pyshell#9>", line 1, in <module>
    del a.first name
  File "ManagedAttributes.py", line 21, in first_name
    raise AttributeError("Can't delete attribute")
AttributeError: Can't delete attribute
```





```
class Person:
        def init (self, first name):
            self.set first name(first name)
        # Getter function
        def get first name(self):
name
            return self. first name
        # Setter function
        def set first name(self, value):
            if not isinstance(value, str):
                raise TypeError('Expected a string')
            self. first name = value
1
        # Deleter function (optional)
        def del first name(self):
            raise AttributeError("Can't delete attribute")
        # Make a property from existing get/set methods
        name = property(get_first name, set first name, del first name)
```

#### PYTHON PROGRAMMING

```
>>> a = Person('Serdar')
>>> a.name = 48
File "ManagedAttributes.py", line 15, in first_name
    raise TypeError('Expected a string')
TypeError: Expected a string
>>> del a.name
File "ManagedAttributes.py", line 21, in first_name
    raise AttributeError("Can't delete attribute")
AttributeError: Can't delete attribute
>>> a.set_first_name('Canan')
>>> a.get_first_name()
'Canan'
```





Inheritance and the "Is a" Relationship

When one object is a specialized version of another object, there is an "is a" relationship between them. For example, a grasshopper is an insect. Here are a few other examples of the "is a" relationship:

- A car is a vehicle.
- A flower is a plant.
- A rectangle is a shape.
- A football player is an athlete.
- A destroyer is a ship

When an "is a" relationship exists between objects, it means that the specialized object has all of the characteristics of the general object, plus additional characteristics that make it special. In object-oriented programming, inheritance is used to create an "is a" relationship among classes.



Inheritance involves a superclass and a subclass. The superclass is the <u>general class</u> and the subclass is the <u>specialized class</u>. You can think of the subclass as an extended version of the superclass. The subclass inherits attributes and methods from the superclass without any of them having to be rewritten. Furthermore, new attributes and methods may be added to the subclass, and that is what makes it a specialized version of the superclass.

Superclasses are also called base classes, and subclasses are also called derived classes. Either set of terms is correct. For consistency, this course we will use the terms <u>superclass</u> and <u>subclass</u>.





A class can inherit from one or more other classes in Python. The class we want to derive from must first be defined. The derived class is specified in the parentheses after the class name.

```
class A:
    def width(self):
        print("a, width called")
class B(A):
    def size(self):
        print("b, size called")
# Create new class instance.
b = B()
# Call method on B.
b.size()
# Call method from derived class.
b.width()
```





Correct use of the super() function is actually one of the most poorly understood aspects of Python. Occasionally, you will see code written that directly calls a method in a parent like this.





```
class Base:
   def init (self):
       print('Base. init ')
class A(Base):
   def init (self):
       Base. init (self)
       print('A. init ')
class B(Base):
   def init (self):
       Base. init (self)
       print('B. init ')
class C(A,B):
   def init (self):
       A. init (self)
       B. init (self)
       print('C. init ')
```



You'll see that the **Base**.\_\_init\_\_() method gets invoked **twice** 

>>> c = C()
Base. init
A. \_\_init\_
Base. init\_
B. \_\_init\_
C. \_\_init\_\_
>>>



```
class Base:
   def init (self):
       print('Base. init ')
class A(Base):
   def init (self):
       super(). init ()
       print('A. init ')
class B(Base):
   def init (self):
       super().__init__()
       print('B. init ')
class C(A,B):
   def init (self):
       super(). init ()
       print('C. init ')
```



each \_\_init\_\_() method only gets called once

>>> c = C()
Base.\_\_init\_\_
B.\_\_init\_\_
A.\_\_init\_\_
C.\_\_init\_\_
>>> C.\_\_mro\_\_
(<class '\_\_main\_\_.C'>, <class '\_\_main\_\_.A'>, <class
'\_\_main\_\_.B'>, <class '\_\_main\_\_.Base'>, <class 'object'>)

For every class that we define, Python computes what's known as a method resolution order (MRO) list. The MRO list is simply a linear ordering of all the base classes.



Inheritance in Python is easier and more flexible than inheritance in compiled languages such as Java and C++ because the dynamic nature of Python doesn't force as many restrictions on the language.

```
class Square:
       def init (self, side=1, x=0, y=0):
              self.side = side
              self.x = x
                                                 Same Behaviour
              self.y = y
class Circle:
       def init (self, radius=1, x=0, y=0):
              self.radius = radius
              self.x = x 
              self.y = y
```



Instead of defining the x and y variables in each shape class, abstract them out into a general **Shape** class, and have each class defining an actual shape inherit from that general class.

```
class Shape:
     def init (self, x, y):
       self.x = x
       self.y = y
                                     Says Square inherits from Shape
class Square (Shape) : 🧲
       def init (self, side=1, x=0, y=0):
              super(). init _(x, y)
               self.side = side
                                     Must call init method of Shape
class Circle(Shape):
       def init (self, r=1, x=0, y=0):
             __super(). init (x, y)
               self.radius = r
```



There are two requirements in using an inherited class in Python. The first requirement is defining the inheritance hierarchy, which you do by giving the classes inherited from, in parentheses, immediately after the name of the class being defined with the class keyword. In the previous code, Circle and Square both inherit from Shape. The second and more subtle element is the necessity to explicitly call the \_\_\_\_init\_\_\_\_ method of inherited classes. Python doesn't automatically do this for you, but you can use the super function to have Python figure out which inherited class to use. This is accomplished in the example code by the super(). init (x, y) lines. Instead of using super, we could call Shape's init by explicitly naming the inherited class using Shape. init (self, x, y) which would also call the Shape initialization function with the instance being initialized.



Inheritance comes into effect when you attempt to use a method that isn't defined in the base classes but is defined in the superclass. To see this, let's define another method in the Shape class called move, which will move a shape by a given displacement.

```
class Shape:
    def __init__(self, x, y):
        self.x = x
        self.y = y
    def move(self, delta_x, delta_y):
        self.x = self.x + delta_x
        self.y = self.y + delta_y
```



```
>>> ==
>>> class Shape:
        def init (self, x, y):
                 self.x = x
                 self.y = y
        def move(self, delta x, delta y):
                 self.x = self.x + delta x
                 self.y = self.y + delta y
>>> class Circle(Shape):
        def init (self, r=1, x=0, y=0):
                 super(). init (x, y)
                 self.radius = r
>>> c = Circle(1)
>>> c.move(3, 4)
>>> c.x
3
>>> c.y
4
```



Inheritance allows an instance to inherit attributes of the class. Instance variables are associated with object instances, and only one instance variable of a given name exists.

```
class P:
    z = "hello"
    def set p(self):
        self.x = "Class P"
    def print p(self):
        print(self.x)
class C(P):
    def set c(self):
        self.x = "Class C"
    def print c(self):
        print(self.x)
```





```
>>> c = C()
>>> c.set p()
>>> c.print_p()
Class P
>>> c.print_c()
Class P
>>> c.set c()
>>> c.print c()
Class C
>>> c.print p()
Class C
>>>
```

The object c in this example is an instance of class C. C inherits from P but c doesn't inherit from some invisible instance of class P.







Similarly, if you try setting z through the instance c, a new instance variable is created, and you end up with three different variables.





When comparing objects, a **hash** code can be used for <u>better speed</u>. A dictionary uses hashes. With <u>hash</u> we can implement custom hash computations on a class. If one value is unique on the class, it makes an excellent hash.

```
class Snake:
```

```
def __init__ (self, name, color, unique_id):
    self.name = name
    self.color = color
    self.unique_id = unique_id
def __hash__ (self):
    # Hash on a unique value of the class.
    return int(self.unique_id)
```

```
# Hash now is equal to the unique ID values used.
p = Snake("Python", "green", 55)
print(hash(p))
p = Snake("Python", "green", 105)
print(hash(p))
```



```
int_val = 42
str_val = 'bco601'
flt_val = 45.356
```

```
# Printing the hash values.
# Notice Integer value doesn't change
print("The integer hash value is : " + str(hash(int_val)))
print("The string hash value is : " + str(hash(str_val)))
print("The float hash value is : " + str(hash(flt val)))
```

The integer hash value is : 42 The string hash value is : 5061135356237158578 The float hash value is : 820880111280078893



# tuple are immutable
tuple\_val = (1, 2, 3, 4, 5)

# list are mutable
list\_val = [1, 2, 3, 4, 5]

# Printing the hash values.
print("The tuple hash value is : " + str(hash(tuple\_val)))
print("The list hash value is : " + str(hash(list\_val)))

The tuple hash value is : -5659871693760987716 TypeError: unhashable type: 'list'



```
class Student:
    def init (self, name, age):
       self.name = name
        self.age = age
    def eq (self, other):
        if isinstance(other, Student):
            return self.name == other.name and self.age == other.age
        return False
    def hash (self):
       return hash((self.name, self.age))
# Creating instances
person1 = Student("Nihat", 30)
person2 = Student("Duru", 25)
person3 = Student("Nihat", 30)
# Using the custom objects in a set
students = {person1, person2, person3}
print(len(students)) #2 person1 and person3 are equal and have the same hash
```





#### # Checking hashes

print(hash(person1)) # Output: hash value of person1
print(hash(person2)) # Output: hash value of person2
print(hash(person3)) # Output: same hash value as person1

-6256235285033312628 4911415774109879472 -6256235285033312628





#### # Creating instances

- person1 = Student("Nihat", 30)
- person2 = Student("Duru", 25)

person3 = Student("Nihat", 30.1)

#### -6256235285033312628 4911415774109879472 1570563656813361925

- Usually comparing objects (which may involve several levels of recursion) is expensive.
- Preferably, the hash () function is an order of magnitude less expensive.
- Comparing two hashes is easier than comparing two objects.



Method <u>Overloading</u> is a feature that allows a class to <u>have two or</u> <u>more methods having same name</u>, if their argument lists are different. Argument lists could differ in –

1. Number of parameters.

2. Data type of parameters.

3. Sequence of Data type of parameters.

Method overloading is also known as Static Polymorphism.

```
def add_bullet(sprite, start, direction, speed):
    def add_bullet(sprite, start, to, speed, acceleration):
    # For bullets that are controlled by a script
    def add_bullet(sprite, script):
    # for bullets with curved paths
    def add bullet(sprite, curve, speed):
```



```
class Character(object):
   # your character init and other methods go here
   def add bullet(self, sprite=default, start= 0,
                 direction=None):
       if direction is None:
            # just use sprite and start
       else:
            # use sprite, start and direction
# direction will be none, so enter the 'if' clause
add bullet(`hollowPoint', 100 )
# direction isn't None, it's 90, so enter the 'else' clause
add bullet('hollowPoint', 100, 90 )
```





```
class Character(object):
    # your character __init__ and other methods go here
    def add_bullet(self, *args, **kwargs):
        # args -- tuple of anonymous arguments
        # kwargs -- dictionary of named arguments
```

# \*args, \*\*kwargs ???





```
>>> def f(*args, **kwargs):
       print ('args: ', args, ' kwargs: ', kwargs)
>>> f('a')
args: ('a',) kwargs: {}
>>> f('bullet = hollow')
args: ('bullet = hollow',) kwargs: {}
>>> f( bullet = 'hollow')
args: () kwargs: {'bullet': 'hollow'}
>>> f('hollowPoint', 100 )
args: ('hollowPoint', 100) kwargs: {}
>>> f('hollowPoint', 100, 90)
args: ('hollowPoint', 100, 90) kwargs: {}
>>> f('hollowPoint', 100, 90, speed = 120)
args: ('hollowPoint', 100, 90) kwargs: {'speed': 120}
>>>
```



Serializing a object is the process of converting the object to a stream of bytes that can be saved to a file for later retrieval. In Python, object serialization is called **pickling**. The Python standard library provides a module named **pickle** that has various functions for serializing, or pickling, objects. Once you import the pickle module, you perform the following steps to pickle an object:

- You open a file for binary writing.
- You call the pickle module's dump method to pickle the object and write it to the specified file.
- After you have pickled all the objects that you want to save to the file, you close the file.



>>> import pickle





```
>>> import pickle
```

```
>>> input_file = open('phonebook.dat', `rb')
>>> pb = pickle.load(input_file)
>>> pb
{'SA': '312-2976893', 'Hacettepe': '312-2970000', 'SBF': '312-
2976890'}
>>> input_file.close()
```





import pickle

```
class SimpleObject:
```

```
def __init__(self, name):
    self.name = name
    l = list(name)
    l.reverse()
    self.name_backwards = ''.join(l)
    return
```

```
data = []
data.append(SimpleObject('pickle'))
data.append(SimpleObject('cPickle'))
data.append(SimpleObject('last'))
```

```
output_file = open('mySimpleObjects.dat', 'wb')
pickle.dump(data, output_file)
output_file.close()
```



```
import pickle
```

```
input_file = open('mySimpleObjects.dat', 'rb')
mydata = pickle.load(input_file)
for i, o in enumerate(mydata):
    print(f'myData {i} : {o.name} ({o.name backwards})')
```

```
input_file.close()
```

```
myData 0 : pickle (elkcip)
myData 1 : cPickle (elkciPc)
myData 2 : last (tsal)
```