

# COSC 2306

# Data Programming

OOP and Class

# Class and Object Attributes

```
class Person:
```

```
    population = 0
```

```
    def __init__(self, name):
```

```
        # Initializes the person.
```

```
        self.name = name
```

```
        print(f"Initializing {self.name}")
```

```
        # When this person is created, he/she adds to the population
```

```
        Person.population += 1
```

```
    def sayHi(self):
```

```
        # Greets the other person.
```

```
        print(f"Hi, my name is {self.name}")
```

```
p = Person('Tom')           >>> Initializing Tom
p.sayHi()                   >>> Hi, my name is Tom.
```

How about `print(p)` and `print(f"{p.sayHi()}")`?      Instance address and None

# Class and Object Attributes

```
def howMany(self):  
    #Prints the current population.  
    # There will always be at least one person  
    if Person.population == 1:  
        print("I am the only person here.")  
    else:  
        print(f"We have {Person.population} persons here.")
```

```
tom = Person('Tom')  
tom.sayHi()  
tom.howMany()
```

Initializing Tom  
Hi, my name is Tom.  
I am the only person here.

```
kate = Person('Kate')  
kate.sayHi()  
kate.howMany()
```

Initializing Kate  
Hi, my name is Kate.  
We have 2 persons here.

```
tom.sayHi()  
tom.howMany()
```

Hi, my name is Tom.  
We have 2 persons here.

# Operator overloading

## Binary Operators:

OPERATOR	MAGIC METHOD
+	<code>__add__(self, other)</code>
-	<code>__sub__(self, other)</code>
*	<code>__mul__(self, other)</code>
/	<code>__truediv__(self, other)</code>
//	<code>__floordiv__(self, other)</code>
%	<code>__mod__(self, other)</code>
**	<code>__pow__(self, other)</code>

source: <https://www.geeksforgeeks.org/operator-overloading-in-python/>

# Operator overloading

```
class A:
    def __init__(self, a):
        self.a = a

    # adding two objects
    def __add__(self, o):
        return self.a + o.a

ob1 = A(1)
ob2 = A(2)
ob3 = A("Geeks")
ob4 = A("For")

print(ob1 + ob2)           3
print(ob3 + ob4)         GeeksFor

# Actual working when Binary Operator is used.
print(A.__add__(ob1, ob2)) 3
print(A.__add__(ob3, ob4)) GeeksFor

#And can also be Understand as :
print(ob1.__add__(ob2))    3
print(ob3.__add__(ob4))   GeeksFor
```

# Operator overloading

## Comparison Operators :

OPERATOR	MAGIC METHOD
<	<code>__lt__(self, other)</code>
>	<code>__gt__(self, other)</code>
<=	<code>__le__(self, other)</code>
>=	<code>__ge__(self, other)</code>
==	<code>__eq__(self, other)</code>
!=	<code>__ne__(self, other)</code>

source: <https://www.geeksforgeeks.org/operator-overloading-in-python/>

# Operator overloading

```
class A:
    def __init__(self, a):
        self.a = a
    def __gt__(self, other):
        if(self.a>other.a):
            return True
        else:
            return False

ob1 = A(2)
ob2 = A(3)

if(ob1>ob2):
    print("ob1 is greater than ob2")
else:
    print("ob2 is greater than ob1")
```

ob2 is greater than ob1

# Inheritance

- One of the major benefits of object oriented programming is **reuse** of code
- One of the ways this is achieved is through the **inheritance** mechanism
- **Inheritance** can be best imagined as implementing a *type and subtype* relationship between classes
- Consider this example:

# Using Inheritance

```
class SchoolMember:
    # represents any school member
    def __init__(self, name, age):
        self.name = name
        self.age = age
        print (f"Initialized SchoolMember: {self.name}")
    def tell(self):
        print (f"Name: {self.name} Age: {self.age}")
```

# Using Inheritance

```
class Teacher(SchoolMember):  
    # represents a teacher  
    def __init__(self, name, age, salary):  
        SchoolMember.__init__(self, name, age)  
        self.salary = salary  
        print (f"Initialized Teacher: {self.name}")  
    def tell(self):  
        SchoolMember.tell(self)  
        print (f"Salary: {self.salary}")
```

# Using Inheritance

```
class Student(SchoolMember):  
    # represents a student  
    def __init__(self, name, age, marks):  
        SchoolMember.__init__(self, name, age)  
        self.marks = marks  
        print (f"Initialized Student: {self.name}")  
    def tell(self):  
        SchoolMember.tell(self)  
        print (f"Marks: {self.marks}")
```

# Using Inheritance

```
t = Teacher('Feng', 38, 100000)
```

```
s = Student('Tom', 21, 85)
```

```
members = [t, s]
```

```
for member in members:
```

```
    member.tell() # works for instances of Student & Teacher
```

```
Initialized SchoolMember: Feng
```

```
Initialized Teacher: Feng
```

```
Initialized SchoolMember: Tom
```

```
Initialized Student: Tom
```

```
Name: Feng Age: 38
```

```
Salary: 100000
```

```
Name: Tom Age: 21
```

```
Marks: 85
```

# Multiple Inheritance

- Python supports a limited form of **multiple inheritance** as well
- A class definition with multiple base classes looks as follows:

```
class DerivedClassName(Base1, Base2, Base3):  
    <statement-1>  
    ...  
    <statement-N>
```
- The only rule necessary to explain the semantics is the resolution rule used for class attribute references

# Multiple Inheritance

- Resolution rule: depth-first, left-to-right
  - if an attribute is not found in DerivedClassName, it is searched in Base1
  - then (recursively) in the base classes of Base1
  - and only if it is not found there, it is searched in Base2
  - and so on
- A well-known problem: a class derived from two classes that happen to have a common base class
  - the instance will have a single copy of “instance variables” or data attributes used by the common base class

# Attributes access

Python **does not** enforce access control to class resources

## Convention:

```
class Point:
    def __init__(self):
        self.someAttribute      #public (any place)
        self._someOtherAttribute #protected (class derived from it)
        self.__secretAttribute  #private (within the class)
```

# Container

Container: any object that holds an arbitrary number of other objects

- built-in containers: *tuple, list, set, dict*
- more container types are in the *collection* module

# Iterators

Most container objects can be looped using a for statement:

```
for element in [1, 2, 3]:  
    print element
```

```
for element in (1, 2, 3):  
    print element
```

```
for key in {'one':1, 'two':2}:  
    print key
```

# Iterators

```
for char in "123":  
    print char  
for line in open("myfile.txt"):  
    print line
```

- This style of access is clear, concise, and convenient
- The use of **iterators** pervades and unifies Python
- Behind the scenes, the for statement calls **iter()** on the container object
- The function returns an **iterator** object that defines the method **next()** which accesses elements in the container one at a time
- When there are no more elements, **next()** raises a **StopIteration** exception which tells the for loop to terminate

# Iterators

```
>>> s = 'abc'
```

```
>>> it = iter(s)
```

```
>>> print(it)
```

```
<iterator object at 0x00A1DB50>
```

```
>>> print(next(it))
```

```
'a'
```

```
>>> print(next(it))
```

```
'b'
```

# Iterators

```
>>> print(next(it))
```

```
'c'
```

```
>>> print(next(it))
```

- Traceback (most recent call last):

```
File "<pyshell#6>", line 1, in -toplevel
```

```
    it.next()
```

```
StopIteration
```

# Iterators

- Having seen the mechanics behind the `iterator` protocol, it is easy to add `iterator` behavior to our classes
- Define a `__iter__()` method which returns an object with a `next()` method
- `__iter__()` must return the iterator object itself, other operations are optional (similar as `__init__()`)

# Iterators

```
class Reverse:
    #Iterator for looping over a sequence backwards
    def __init__(self, data):
        self.data = data
        self.index = len(data)
    def __iter__(self):
        return self
    def next(self):
        if self.index == 0:
            raise StopIteration
        self.index = self.index - 1
        return self.data[self.index]
```

# Iterators

```
for char in Reverse('spam'):  
    print char
```

m

a

p

s