

Object-Oriented Programming and Abstraction

Jerry Cain

CS 106AX

November 6, 2023

slides leveraged from those constructed by Eric Roberts

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-oriented programming is defined by two principles, both of which I mentioned on Friday 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

$\frac{1}{1}$

1

36

36

36

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

<code>__add__</code>	<code>__radd__</code>	Redefines the + operator
<code>__sub__</code>	<code>__rsub__</code>	Redefines the - operator
<code>__mul__</code>	<code>__rmul__</code>	Redefines the * operator
<code>__truediv__</code>	<code>__rtruediv__</code>	Redefines the / operator
<code>__floordiv__</code>	<code>__rfloordiv__</code>	Redefines the // operator
<code>__mod__</code>	<code>__rmod__</code>	Redefines the % operator
<code>__pow__</code>	<code>__rpow__</code>	Redefines the ** operator
<code>__neg__</code>	(not applicable)	Redefines the unary - operator
<code>__eq__</code>	(symmetric)	Redefines the == operator
<code>__ne__</code>	(symmetric)	Redefines the != operator
<code>__lt__</code>	(inferred from >)	Redefines the < operator
<code>__gt__</code>	(inferred from <)	Redefines the > operator
<code>__le__</code>	(inferred from >=)	Redefines the <= operator
<code>__ge__</code>	(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 **ADTs**.
- 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.
- 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