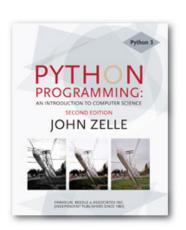
Python Programming: An Introduction To Computer Science



Chapter 10
Defining Classes



- To appreciate how defining new classes can provide structure for a complex program.
- To be able to read and write Python class definitions.
- To understand the concept of encapsulation and how it contributes to building modular and maintainable programs.



- To be able to write programs involving simple class definitions.
- To be able to write interactive graphics programs involving novel (programmer designed) widgets.

- In the last three chapters we've developed techniques for structuring the computations of the program.
- We'll now take a look at techniques for structuring the data that our programs use.
- So far, our programs have made use of objects created from pre-defined class such as Circle. In this chapter we'll learn how to write our own classes to create novel objects.



- In chapter five an *object* was defined as an active data type that knows stuff and can do stuff.
- More precisely, an object consists of:
 - 1. A collection of related information.
 - A set of operations to manipulate that information.



- The information is stored inside the object in *instance variables*.
- The operations, called *methods*, are functions that "live" inside the object.
- Collectively, the instance variables and methods are called the attributes of an object.

- A Circle object will have instance variables such as center, which remembers the center point of the circle, and radius, which stores the length of the circle's radius.
- The draw method examines the center and radius to decide which pixels in a window should be colored.

- The move method will change the value of center to reflect the new position of the circle.
- All objects are said to be an *instance* of some *class*. The class of an object determines which attributes the object will have.
- A class is a description of what its instances will know and do.

- New objects are created from a class by invoking a constructor. You can think of the class itself as a sort of factory for stamping out new instances.
- Consider making a new circle object: myCircle = Circle(Point(0,0),20)
- Circle, the name of the class, is used to invoke the constructor.

myCircle = Circle(Point(0,0), 20)

- This statement creates a new Circle instance and stores a reference to it in the variable myCircle.
- The parameters to the constructor are used to initialize some of the instance variables (center and radius) inside myCircle.

myCircle = Circle(Point(0,0), 20)

Once the instance has been created, it can be manipulated by calling on its methods:

```
myCircle.draw(win)
myCircle.move(dx, dy)
```

Cannonball Program Specification

- Let's try to write a program that simulates the flight of a cannonball or other projectile.
- We're interested in how far the cannonball will travel when fired at various launch angles and initial velocities.

Cannonball Program Specification

- The input to the program will be the launch angle (in degrees), the initial velocity (in meters per second), and the initial height (in meters) of the cannonball.
- The output will be the distance that the projectile travels before striking the ground (in meters).

Cannonball Program Specification

- The acceleration of gravity near the earth's surface is roughly 9.8 m/s/s.
- If an object is thrown straight up at 20 m/s, after one second it will be traveling upwards at 10.2 m/s. After another second, its speed will be .4 m/s. Shortly after that the object will start coming back down to earth.

Cannonball Program Specification

- Using calculus, we could derive a formula that gives the position of the cannonball at any moment of its flight.
- However, we'll solve this problem with simulation, a little geometry, and the fact that the distance an object travels in a certain amount of time is equal to its rate times the amount of time (d = rt).

- Given the nature of the problem, it's obvious we need to consider the flight of the cannonball in two dimensions: it's height and the distance it travels.
- Let's think of the position of the cannonball as the point (x, y) where x is the distance from the starting point and y is the height above the ground.

- Suppose the ball starts at position (0,0), and we want to check its position every tenth of a second.
- In that time interval it will have moved some distance upward (positive *y*) and some distance forward (positive *x*). The exact distance will be determined by the velocity in that direction.

- Since we are ignoring wind resistance, x
 will remain constant through the flight.
- However, y will change over time due to gravity. The y velocity will start out positive and then become negative as the ball starts to fall.



- Input the simulation parameters: angle, velocity, height, interval.
- Calculate the initial position of the cannonball: xpos, ypos
- Calculate the initial velocities of the cannonball: xvel, yvel
- While the cannonball is still flying:
 - Update the values of xpos, ypos, and yvel for interval seconds further into the flight
- Output the distance traveled as xpos

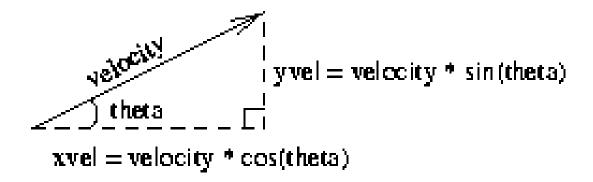
Using step-wise refinement:

```
def main():
    angle = eval(input("Enter the launch angle (in degrees): "))
    vel = eval(input("Enter the initial velocity (in meters/sec): "))
    h0 = eval(input("Enter the initial height (in meters): "))
    time = eval(input("Enter the time interval between position calculations: "))
```

Calculating the initial position for the cannonball is also easy. It's at distance 0 and height h0!

```
xpos = 0

ypos = h0
```



 If we know the magnitude of the velocity and the angle theta, we can calculate

```
yvel=velocity*sin(theta)and xvel=velocity*cos(theta).
```

• Our input angle is in degrees, and the Python math library uses radians, so theta = $(\pi*angle)/180$.

```
theta = (angle * pi)/180.0
xvel = vel * cos(theta)
yvel = vel * sin(theta)
```

In the main loop, we want to keep updating the position of the ball until it reaches the ground:

```
while ypos >= 0.0:
```

• We used >= 0 so the loop will start if the ball starts out on the ground.

- Each time through the loop we want to update the state of the cannonball to move it time seconds farther.
- Since we assume there is no wind resistance, xvel remains constant.
- Say a ball is traveling at 30 m/s and is 50 m from the firing point. In one second it will be 50 + 30 meters away. If the time increment is .1 second it will be 50 + 30*.1 = 53 meters.
- xpos = xpos + time * xvel

- Working with yvel is slightly more complicated since gravity causes the yvelocity to change over time.
- Each second, yvel must decrease by
 9.8 m/s, the acceleration due to gravity.
- In 0.1 seconds the velocity will be 0.1(9.8) = .98 m/s.
- \blacksquare yvel1 = yvel 9.8 * time

- To calculate how far the cannonball travels over the interval, we need to calculate its average vertical velocity over the interval.
- Since the acceleration due to gravity is constant, the vertical distance is the average of the starting and ending velocities times the length of the interval:

```
ypos = ypos + time * (yvel + yvel1)/2.0
```

Designing Programs

```
# cball1.py
    Simulation of the flight of a cannon ball (or other projectile)
    This version is not modularized.
from math import pi, sin, cos
def main():
    angle = eval(input("Enter the launch angle (in degrees): "))
    vel = eval(input("Enter the initial velocity (in meters/sec): "))
    h0 = eval(input("Enter the initial height (in meters): "))
    time = eval(input("Enter the time interval between position calculations: "))
    radians = (angle * pi)/180.0
    xpos = 0
    ypos = h0
    xvel = vel * cos(radians)
    yvel = vel * sin(radians)
    while ypos >= 0:
        xpos = xpos + time * xvel
        yvel1 = yvel - 9.8 * time
        ypos = ypos + time * (yvel + yvel1)/2.0
        vvel = yvel1
    print("\nDistance traveled: {0:0.1f} meters." .format(xpos)
main()
```

- During program development, we employed step-wise refinement (and top-down design), but did not divide the program into functions.
- While this program is fairly short, it is complex due to the number of variables.

```
def main():
    angle, vel, h0, time = getInputs()
    xpos, ypos = 0, h0
    xvel, yvel = getXYComponents(vel, angle)
    while ypos >= 0:
        xpos, ypos, yvel = updateCannonBall(time, xpos, ypos, xvel, yvel)
    print("\nDistance traveled: {0:0.1f} meters.".format(xpos)
```

 It should be obvious what each of these helper functions does based on their name and the original program code.

- This version of the program is more concise!
- The number of variables has been reduced from 10 to 8, since theta and yvell are local to getXYComponents and updateCannonBall, respectively.
- This may be simpler, but keeping track of the cannonball still requires four pieces of information, three of which change from moment to moment!

- All four variables, plus time, are needed to compute the new values of the three that change.
- This gives us a function with five parameters and three return values.
- Yuck! There must be a better way!

- There is a single real-world cannonball object, but it requires four pieces of information: xpos, ypos, xvel, and yvel.
- Suppose there was a Projectile class that "understood" the physics of objects like cannonballs. An algorithm using this approach would create and update an object stored in a single variable.

Using our *object-based* approach:

```
def main():
    angle, vel, h0, time = getInputs()
    cball = Projectile(angle, vel, h0)
    while cball.getY() >= 0:
        cball.update(time)
    print("\nDistance traveled: {0:0.1f} meters.".format(cball.getX()))
main()
```

To make this work we need a Projectile class that implements the methods update, getX, and getY.

- A normal die (singular of dice) is a cube with six faces, each with a number from one to six.
- Some games use special dice with a different number of sides.
- Let's design a generic class MSDie to model multi-sided dice.

- Each MSDie object will know two things:
 - How many sides it has.
 - It's current value
- When a new MSDie is created, we specify n, the number of sides it will have.

- We have three methods that we can use to operate on the die:
 - roll set the die to a random value between 1 and n, inclusive.
 - setValue set the die to a specific value
 (i.e. cheat)
 - getValue see what the current value is.

```
>>> die1 = MSDie(6)
>>> die1.getValue()
>>> die1.roll()
>>> die1.getValue()
5
>>> die2 = MSDie(13)
>>> die2.getValue()
>>> die2.roll()
>>> die2.getValue()
>>> die2.setValue(8)
>>> die2.getValue()
8
```

- Using our object-oriented vocabulary, we create a die by invoking the MSDie constructor and providing the number of sides as a parameter.
- Our die objects will keep track of this number internally as an instance variable.
- Another instance variable is used to keep the current value of the die.
- We initially set the value of the die to be 1 because that value is valid for any die.
- That value can be changed by the roll and setRoll methods, and returned by the getValue method.

```
# msdie.py
      Class definition for an n-sided die.
from random import randrange
class MSDie:
    def __init__(self, sides):
        self.sides = sides
        self.value = 1
    def roll(self):
        self.value = randrange(1, self.sides+1)
    def getValue(self):
        return self.value
    def setValue(self, value):
        self.value = value
```

Class definitions have the form

```
class <class-name>:
     <method-definitions>
```

- Methods look a lot like functions! Placing the function inside a class makes it a method of the class, rather than a stand-alone function.
- The first parameter of a method is always named self, which is a reference to the object on which the method is acting.

- Suppose we have a main function that executes diel.setValue(8).
- Just as in function calls, Python executes the following four-step sequence:
 - main suspends at the point of the method application. Python locates the appropriate method definition inside the class of the object to which the method is being applied. Here, control is transferred to the setValue method in the MSDie class, since die1 is an instance of MSDie.

The formal parameters of the method get assigned the values supplied by the actual parameters of the call. In the case of a method call, the first formal parameter refers to the object:

```
self = die1
value = 8
```

The body of the method is executed.

- Control returns to the point just after where the method was called. In this case, it is immediately following diel.setValue(8).
- Methods are called with one parameter, but the method definition itself includes the self parameter as well as the actual parameter.

The self parameter is a bookkeeping detail. We can refer to the first formal parameter as the self parameter and other parameters as normal parameters. So, we could say setValue uses one normal parameter.

- Objects contain their own data. Instance variables provide storage locations inside of an object.
- Instance variables are accessed by name using our dot notation:
 - <object>.<instance-var>
- Looking at setValue, we see self.value refers to the instance variable value inside the object. Each MSDie object has its own value.

- Certain methods have special meaning.
 These methods have names that start and end with two _'s.
- ___init___ is the object contructor. Python calls this method to initialize a new MSDie. ___init___ provides initial values for the instance variables of an object.

 Outside the class, the constructor is referred to by the class name:

```
die1 = MSDie(6)
```

- When this statement is executed, a new MSDie object is created and ___init___ is executed on that object.
- The net result is that die1.sides is set to 6 and die1.value is set to 1.

- Instance variables can remember the state of a particular object, and this information can be passed around the program as part of the object.
- This is different than local function variables, whose values disappear when the function terminates.

- This class will need a constructor to initialize instance variables, an update method to change the state of the projectile, and getX and getY methods that can report the current position.
- In the main program, a cannonball can be created from the initial angle, velocity, and height:

```
cball = Projectile(angle, vel, h0)
```



- The Projectile class must have an __init__ method that will use these values to initialize the instance variables of cball.
- These values will be calculated using the same formulas as before.

class Projectile:

```
def __init__(self, angle, velocity, height):
    self.xpos = 0.0
    self.ypos = height
    theta = radians(angle)
    self.xvel = velocity * cos(theta)
    self.yvel = velocity * sin(theta)
```

• We've created four instance variables (self.???). Since the value of theta is not needed later, it is a normal function variable.

 The methods to access the X and Y position are straightforward.

```
def getY(self):
    return self.ypos

def getX(self):
    return self.xpos
```

The last method is update, where we'll take the time interval and calculate the update X and Y values.

```
def update(self, time):
    self.xpos = self.xpos + time * self.xvel
    yvel1 = self.yvel - 9.8 * time
    self.ypos = self.ypos + time * (self.yvel + yvel1) / 2.0
    self.yvel = yvel1
```

yvell is a temporary variable.



- A class is useful for modeling a real-world object with complex behavior.
- Another common use for objects is to group together a set of information that describes a person or thing.
 - Eg., a company needs to keep track of information about employees (an Employee class with information such as employee's name, social security number, address, salary, etc.)



- Grouping information like this is often called a *record*.
- Let's try a simple data processing example!
- A typical university measures courses in terms of credit hours, and grade point averages are calculated on a 4 point scale where an "A" is 4 points, a "B" is three, etc.

• Grade point averages are generally computed using quality points. If a class is worth 3 credit hours and the student gets an "A", then he or she earns 3(4) = 12 quality points. To calculate the GPA, we divide the total quality points by the number of credit hours completed.

- Suppose we have a data file that contains student grade information.
- Each line of the file consists of a student's name, credit-hours, and quality points.

```
Adams, Henry 127 228
Comptewell, Susan 100 400
DibbleBit, Denny 18 41.5
Jones, Jim 48.5 155
Smith, Frank 37 125.33
```

- Our job is to write a program that reads this file to find the student with the best GPA and print out their name, credithours, and GPA.
- The place to start? Creating a Student class!
- We can use a Student object to store this information as instance variables.

class Student:
 def __init__(self, name, hours, qpoints):
 self.name = name
 self.hours = float(hours)
 self.qpoints = float(qpoints)

- The values for hours are converted to float to handle parameters that may be floats, ints, or strings.
- To create a student record:

 aStudent = Student("Adams, Henry", 127, 228)
- The coolest thing is that we can store all the information about a student in a single variable!



 We need to be able to access this information, so we need to define a set of accessor methods.

```
def getName(self):
    return self.name

def getHours(self):
    return self.hours

def getQPoints(self):
    return self.qpoints

def gpa(self):
    return self.qpoints/self.hours
```

For example, to print a student's name you could write:

```
print aStudent.getName()
```



- How can we use these tools to find the student with the best GPA?
- We can use an algorithm similar to finding the max of n numbers! We could look through the list one by one, keeping track of the best student seen so far!

```
Get the file name from the user
Open the file for reading
Set best to be the first student
For each student s in the file
   if s.gpa() > best.gpa
      set best to s
Print out information about best
```

```
# gpa.py
  Program to find student with highest GPA
class Student:
   def __init__(self, name, hours, qpoints):
      self.name = name
      self.hours = float(hours)
     self.qpoints = float(qpoints)
   def getName(self):
      return self.name
   def getHours(self):
      return self.hours
   def getQPoints(self):
     return self.qpoints
   def gpa(self):
     return self.qpoints/self.hours
def makeStudent(infoStr):
   name, hours, qpoints = infoStr.split("\t")
   return Student(name, hours, gpoints)
```

```
def main():
    filename = input("Enter name the grade file: ")
    infile = open(filename, 'r')
    best = makeStudent(infile.readline())
    for line in infile:
        s = makeStudent(line)
        if s.gpa() > best.gpa():
            best = s
    infile.close()
    print("The best student is:", best.getName())
    print ("hours:", best.getHours())
    print("GPA:", best.gpa())

if __name__ == '__main__':
    main()
```

Encapsulating Useful Abstractions

- Defining new classes (like Projectile and Student) can be a good way to modularize a program.
- Once some useful objects are identified, the implementation details of the algorithm can be moved into a suitable class definition.



- The main program only has to worry about what objects can do, not about how they are implemented.
- In computer science, this separation of concerns is known as *encapsulation*.
- The implementation details of an object are encapsulated in the class definition, which insulates the rest of the program from having to deal with them.

Encapsulating Useful Abstractions

- One of the main reasons to use objects is to hide the internal complexities of the objects from the programs that use them.
- From outside the class, all interaction with an object can be done using the interface provided by its methods.

Encapsulating Useful Abstractions

One advantage of this approach is that it allows us to update and improve classes independently without worrying about "breaking" other parts of the program, provided that the interface provided by the methods does not change.

Putting Classes in Modules

- Sometimes we may program a class that could useful in many other programs.
- If you might be reusing the code again, put it into its own module file with documentation to describe how the class can be used so that you won't have to try to figure it out in the future from looking at the code!

- You are already familiar with "#" to indicate comments explaining what's going on in a Python file.
- Python also has a special kind of commenting convention called the docstring. You can insert a plain string literal as the first line of a module, class, or function to document that component.

- Why use a docstring?
 - Ordinary comments are ignored by Python
 - Docstrings are accessible in a special attribute called ___doc__.
- Most Python library modules have extensive docstrings. For example, if you can't remember how to use random:

```
>>> import random
>>> print random.random.__doc__
random() -> x in the interval [0, 1).
```

Docstrings are also used by the Python online help system and by a utility called PyDoc that automatically builds documentation for Python modules. You could get the same information like this:

```
>>> import random
>>> help(random.random)
Help on built-in function random:
random(...)
  random() -> x in the interval [0, 1).
```

- To see the documentation for an entire module, try typing help(module_name)!
- The following code for the projectile class has docstrings.

Module Documentation

```
# projectile.py
"""projectile.py
Provides a simple class for modeling the flight of projectiles."""
from math import pi, sin, cos
class Projectile:
    """Simulates the flight of simple projectiles near the earth's
    surface, ignoring wind resistance. Tracking is done in two
    dimensions, height (y) and distance (x)."""
    def __init__(self, angle, velocity, height):
        """Create a projectile with given launch angle, initial
        velocity and height."""
        self.xpos = 0.0
        self.ypos = height
        theta = pi * angle / 180.0
        self.xvel = velocity * cos(theta)
        self.yvel = velocity * sin(theta)
```

Module

Module Documentation

```
def update(self, time):
    """Update the state of this projectile to move it time seconds
    farther into its flight"""
    self.xpos = self.xpos + time * self.xvel
    yvel1 = self.yvel - 9.8 * time
    self.ypos = self.ypos + time * (self.yvel + yvel1) / 2.0
    self.yvel = yvel1

def getY(self):
    "Returns the y position (height) of this projectile."
    return self.ypos

def getX(self):
    "Returns the x position (distance) of this projectile."
    return self.xpos
```

Working with Multiple Modules

Our main program can import from the projectile module in order to solve the original problem!

```
# cball4.py
    Simulation of the flight of a cannon ball (or other projectile)
    This version uses a separate projectile module file
from projectile import Projectile
def getInputs():
    a = eval(input("Enter the launch angle (in degrees): "))
    v = eval(input("Enter the initial velocity (in meters/sec): "))
    h = eval(input("Enter the initial height (in meters): "))
    t = eval(input("Enter the time interval between position calculations: "))
    return a, v, h, t
def main():
    angle, vel, h0, time = getInputs()
    cball = Projectile(angle, vel, h0)
    while cball.getY() >= 0:
        cball.update(time)
    print("\nDistance traveled: {0:0.1f} meters.".format(cball.getX())
```

Working with Multiple Modules

- If you are testing a multi-module Python program, you need to be aware that reloading a module may not behave as you expect.
- When Python first imports a given module, it creates a module object that contains all the things defined in the module (a namespace). If a module imports successfully (no syntax errors), subsequent imports do not reload the module. Even if the source code for the module has been changed, re-importing it into an interactive session will not load the updated version.

Working with Multiple Modules

The easiest way – start a new interactive session for testing whenever any of the modules involved in your testing are modified. This way you're guaranteed to get a more recent import of all the modules you're using.



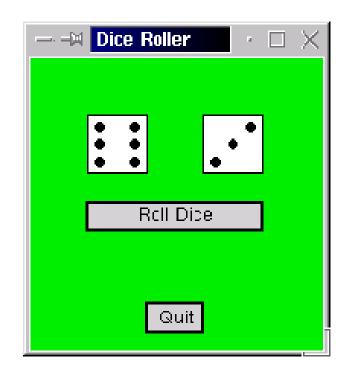
- One very common use of objects is in the design of graphical user interfaces (GUIs).
- Back in chapter 5 we talked about GUIs being composed of visual interface objects known as widgets.
- The Entry object defined in our graphics library is one example of a widget.



- Let's build a couple useful widgets!
- Consider a program that rolls a pair of six-sided dice.
- The program will display the dice graphically and provide two buttons, one for rolling the dice and one for quitting the program.



- There are two kinds of widgets: buttons and dice.
- The two buttons will be examples of the Button class, while the dice images will be provided by dieView.



- Most modern GUIs have buttons with 3dimensional look and feel. Our simple graphics package does not have the machinery to produce buttons that appear to depress as they are clicked.
- All we can do is report back where the mouse was clicked after the click has been completed.

- Our buttons will be rectangular regions in a graphics window where user clicks can influence the behavior of the running application.
- We need a way to determine whether a button has been clicked.
- It would be nice to be able to activate and deactivate (gray-out) individual buttons.

- Constructor Create a button in a window. We will specify the window, location/size of the button, and the label on the button.
- Activate Set the state of the button to active.
- **Deactivate** Set the state of the button to inactive.

- Clicked— Indicate if the button was clicked. If the button is active, this method will determine if the point clicked is inside the button region. The point will have to be sent as a parameter to the method.
- getLabel— Returns the label string of a button. This is provided so that we can identify a particular button.

- To support these operations, our buttons will need a number of instance variables.
- For example, buttons are drawn as a rectangle with some text centered on it. Invoking the activate and deactivate methods will change the appearance of the buttons.

- Saving the Rectangle and Text objects as instance variables means we will be able to control the width of the outline and color of the label.
- Let's try writing these methods and build up a list of possible instance variables! Once we have the list, we can write the constructor to initialize them.

- In activate, we can signal a button is active by making its outline thicker and making the label text black.
- def activate(self):
 "Sets this button to 'active'. "
 self.label.setFill('black')
 self.rect.setWidth(2)
 self.active = True
- Remember, self refers to the button object.
- Our constructor will have to initialize self.label as an appropriate Text object and self.rect as a rectangle object.
- Self.active also has a Boolean instance variable to remember whether or not the button is currently inactive.

The code for deactivate is very similar:

```
def deactivate(self):
    "Sets this button to 'inactive'."
    self.label.setFill('darkgrey')
    self.rect.setWidth(1)
    self.active = 0
```

- Let's work on the clicked method.
- The graphics package has the getMouse method to see if and where the mouse has been clicked.
- If an application needs to get a button click, it will have to first call getMouse and then see which button, if any, the point is inside of.

```
pt = win.getMouse()
if button1.clicked(pt):
    # Do button1 stuff
elif button2.clicked(pt):
    # Do button2 stuff
elif button3.clicked(pt):
    # Do button3 stuff
...
```

The main job of the clicked method is to determine whether a given point is inside the rectangular button.

- The point is inside the button if its x and y coordinates lie between the extreme x and y values of the rectangle.
- This would be easiest if the button object had the min and max values of x and y as instance variables.

```
def clicked(self, p):
    "RETURNS true if button active and p is inside"
    return self.active and \
        self.xmin <= p.getX() <= self.xmax and \
        self.ymin <= p.getY() <= self.ymax</pre>
```

- For this function to return True, all three parts of the Boolean expression must be true.
- The first part ensures that only active buttons will return that they have been clicked.
- The second and third parts ensure that the *x* and *y* values of the point that was clicked fall between the boundaries of the rectangle.

The only part that is left is to write the constructor:

```
def __init__ (self, win, center, width, height, label):
    """ Creates a rectangular button, eg:
    qb = Button(myWin, Point(30,25), 20, 10, 'Quit') """

    w,h = width/2.0, height/2.0
    x,y = center.getX(), center.getY()
    self.xmax, self.xmin = x+w, x-w
    self.ymax, self.ymin = y+h, y-h
    p1 = Point(self.xmin, self.ymin)
    p2 = Point(self.xmax, self.ymax)
    self.rect = Rectangle(p1,p2)
    self.rect.setFill('lightgray')
    self.rect.draw(win)
    self.label = Text(center, label)
    self.label.draw(win)
    self.deactivate()
```

 Buttons are positioned by providing a center point, width, and height.

- The purpose of the DieView class is to graphically display the value of a die.
- The face of the die is a square/rectangle, and the pips/spots on the die are circles.
- As before, the DieView class will have a constructor and a method.

- constructor Create a die in a window. We will specify the window, the center point of the die, and the size of the die as parameters.
- setValue Change the view to show a given value. The value to display will be passed as a parameter.

- Clearly, the hardest part of this will be to turn on the pips on the die to represent the current value of the die.
- One approach is to pre-place the pips, and make them the same color as the die. When the spot is turned on, it will be redrawn with a darker color.

- A standard die will need seven pips -- a column of three on the left and right sides, and one in the center.
- The constructor will create the background square and the seven circles. setValue will set the colors of the circles based on the value of the die.

```
# dieview.py
     A widget for displaying the value of a die
from graphics import *
class DieView:
    """ DieView is a widget that displays a graphical representation
    of a standard six-sided die."""
    def __init__(self, win, center, size):
        """Create a view of a die, e.g.:
           d1 = GDie(myWin, Point(40,50), 20)
        creates a die centered at (40,50) having sides
        of length 20."""
        # first defind some standard values
        self.win = win
        self.background = "white" # color of die face
        self.foreground = "black" # color of the pips
        self.psize = 0.1 * size # radius of each pip
       hsize = size / 2.0 # half of size
        offset = 0.6 * hsize # distance from center to outer pip
```

```
# create a square for the face
cx, cy = center.getX(), center.getY()
p1 = Point(cx-hsize, cy-hsize)
p2 = Point(cx+hsize, cy+hsize)
rect = Rectangle(p1, p2)
rect.draw(win)
rect.setFill(self.background)
# Create 7 circles for standard pip locations
self.pip1 = self.__makePip(cx-offset, cy-offset)
self.pip2 = self.__makePip(cx-offset, cy)
self.pip3 = self.__makePip(cx-offset, cy+offset)
self.pip4 = self.__makePip(cx, cy)
self.pip5 = self.__makePip(cx+offset, cy-offset)
self.pip6 = self.__makePip(cx+offset, cy)
self.pip7 = self.__makePip(cx+offset, cy+offset)
self.setValue(1)
```

```
def \underline{\underline{}} makePip(self, x, y):
       """Internal helper method to draw a pip at (x,y)"""
       pip = Circle(Point(x,y), self.psize)
       pip.setFill(self.background)
       pip.setOutline(self.background)
       pip.draw(self.win)
       return pip
   def setValue(self, value):
       """ Set this die to display value."""
       # turn all pips off
       self.pip1.setFill(self.background)
       self.pip2.setFill(self.background)
       self.pip3.setFill(self.background)
       self.pip4.setFill(self.background)
       self.pip5.setFill(self.background)
       self.pip6.setFill(self.background)
       self.pip7.setFill(self.background)
```

```
# turn correct pips on
       if value == 1:
           self.pip4.setFill(self.foreground)
      elif value == 2:
           self.pip1.setFill(self.foreground)
           self.pip7.setFill(self.foreground)
       elif value == 3:
           self.pip1.setFill(self.foreground)
           self.pip7.setFill(self.foreground)
           self.pip4.setFill(self.foreground)
       elif value == 4:
           self.pip1.setFill(self.foreground)
           self.pip3.setFill(self.foreground)
           self.pip5.setFill(self.foreground)
           self.pip7.setFill(self.foreground)
       elif value == 5:
           self.pip1.setFill(self.foreground)
           self.pip3.setFill(self.foreground)
           self.pip4.setFill(self.foreground)
           self.pip5.setFill(self.foreground)
           self.pip7.setFill(self.foreground)
       else:
           self.pip1.setFill(self.foreground)
           self.pip2.setFill(self.foreground)
           self.pip3.setFill(self.foreground)
           self.pip5.setFill(self.foreground)
           self.pip6.setFill(self.foreground)
           self.pip7.setFill(self.foreground)
```

Things to notice:

- The size of the spots being 1/10 of the size of the die was determined by trial and error.
- We define and calculate various attributes of the die in the constructor and then use them in other methods and functions within the class so that if we wanted to change the appearance, all those values and the code to go with them is in one place, rather than throughout the class.

___makePip is a helper function to draw each of the seven pips on the die. Since it is only useful within DieView, it's appropriate to make it a class method. It's name starts with ___ to indicate that its use is "private" to the class and is not intended to be used outside the class.

```
# roller.py
# Graphics program to roll a pair of dice. Uses custom widgets
# Button and GDie.
from random import randrange
from graphics import GraphWin, Point
from button import Button
from dieview import DieView
def main():
    # create the application window
    win = GraphWin("Dice Roller")
    win.setCoords(0, 0, 10, 10)
    win.setBackground("green2")
    # Draw the interface widgets
    die1 = DieView(win, Point(3,7), 2)
    die2 = DieView(win, Point(7,7), 2)
    rollButton = Button(win, Point(5, 4.5), 6, 1, "Roll Dice")
    rollButton.activate()
    quitButton = Button(win, Point(5,1), 2, 1, "Quit")
```

```
# Event loop
   pt = win.getMouse()
   while not quitButton.clicked(pt):
        if rollButton.clicked(pt):
            value1 = randrange(1,7)
            die1.setValue(value1)
            value2 = randrange(1,7)
            die2.setValue(value2)
            quitButton.activate()
        pt = win.getMouse()

# close up shop
   win.close()
```

- The visual interface is built by creating the two DieViews and two Buttons.
- The roll button is initially active, but the quit button is deactivated. This forces the user to roll the dice at least once.
- The event loop is a sentinel loop that gets mouse clicks and processes them until the user clicks on the quit button.

- The if within the loop ensures that the dice are rolled only when the user clicks the roll button.
- Clicking a point that is not inside any button causes the loop to iterate without doing anything.