Object-Oriented Programming in Python



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Introduction to OOP

Classes and Objects

Attributes and Properties

Inheritance

 ${\bf Polymorphism}$

 ${\bf Special\ Methods}$

Advanced Topics

Introduction to OOP



- ► A programming paradigm based on the concept of "objects"
- ▶ Objects contain:
 - ▶ Data (attributes/properties) information the object stores
 - ▶ **Behavior** (methods/functions) actions the object can perform
- ► Four fundamental principles:
 - ► Encapsulation: Bundling data with methods that operate on that data
 - ▶ **Abstraction**: Hiding complex implementation details
 - ▶ Inheritance: Creating hierarchical relationships between classes
 - ▶ **Polymorphism**: One interface with multiple implementations



- ► Modularity: Self-contained objects make code organization easier
- ► Reusability: Inheritance promotes code reuse (don't repeat yourself)
- ▶ Maintainability: Clear structure makes changes easier
- ► Scalability: Better for large, complex systems
- ▶ Flexibility: Polymorphism enables adaptable code
- ▶ Problem Solving: Models real-world entities effectively

Real-world Analogy

Think of objects like real-world things. A car has properties (color, model) and behaviors (drive, brake). OOP lets us model programs this way.



Python's Object-Oriented Nature

```
# Even primitive types are objects
num = 42
print(type(num)) # <class 'int'>
# Lists are objects with methods
my_list = [1, 2, 3]
my_list.append(4) # Calling a method
# Functions are objects
def greet():
    return "Hello"
print(type(greet)) # <class 'function'>
```

- Unlike some languages, Python treats everything as an object
- ► This means everything has attributes and methods
- ► Even basic operations like + are method calls behind the



Classes and Objects



Basic Class Structure

```
class ClassName:
    """Class docstring"""
    class_attribute = value # Shared by all instances

def __init__(self, parameters):
    """Initialize instance attributes"""
    self.instance_attribute = value

def method(self, parameters):
    """Method docstring"""

# Method implementation
```

Key components:

- ► class keyword starts the class definition
- ► Class name (PascalCase convention) e.g., MyClass
- ▶ Docstring describes what the class does
- ▶ ___init___ method (constructor) initializes new objects
- ► Instance methods define object behavior



```
from decimal import Decimal
  class Account:
      """Account class for maintaining bank balances"""
4
      def __init__(self, name, balance):
           """Initialize account with name and balance"""
          if balance < Decimal('0.00'):</pre>
7
               raise ValueError('Initial balance must be >=
8
       0.001)
          self.name = name
9
          self.balance = balance
      def deposit(self, amount):
           """Add money to the account"""
12
          if amount < Decimal('0.00'):
13
               raise ValueError('Deposit amount must be
14
      positive')
          self.balance += amount
```

Explanation

- ▶ Uses Decimal for precise financial calculations
- ▶ init validates initial balance
- ▶ deposit method validates deposit amount

Constructor Expression

```
from account import Account
  from decimal import Decimal
3
4 # Create an Account object
  account1 = Account('John Green', Decimal('50.00'))
6
  # Access attributes
8 print(account1.name) # 'John Green'
9 print(account1.balance) # Decimal('50.00')
  # Call methods
12 account1.deposit(Decimal('25.53'))
print(account1.balance) # Decimal('75.53')
```

Key points

- ▶ Objects are created by calling the class name like a function
- ▶ ___init___ is automatically called to initialize the object
- ► Methods are called using dot notation (object.method())
- ► Attributes are accessed using dot notation (object.attribute)

- ▶ self is a reference to the current object instance
- ▶ It's automatically passed as the first argument to methods
- ▶ Used to access instance attributes and other methods
- ► Example:
 - ▶ When you call account1.deposit(25.53), Python actually calls deposit(account1, 25.53)
- ► Why self?
 - ► Makes it clear you're working with instance data
 - ► Allows multiple objects of the same class to maintain their own state

Important

You must include **self** as the first parameter in all instance methods (but don't pass it when calling the method)



Attributes and Properties



Instance Attributes

- ▶ Unique to each object instance
- ► Created in ___init___ using self.attribute_name
- ► Each object has its own copy

```
class MyClass:
    def __init__(self, value):
        self.instance_attr = value # Unique to each
    instance

dobj1 = MyClass(1)
    obj2 = MyClass(2)
    print(obj1.instance_attr) # 1
    print(obj2.instance_attr) # 2
```

Class Attributes

- ▶ Shared by all instances of the class
- ▶ Defined directly in the class (not in methods)
- ▶ Useful for constants or shared data

```
class MyClass:
class_attr = 0  # Shared by all instances
print(MyClass.class_attr)  # 0
obj1 = MyClass()
obj2 = MyClass()
print(obj1.class_attr)  # 0
print(obj2.class_attr)  # 0
```

Caution

If you modify a class attribute through an instance, you actually create an instance attribute that shadows the class attribute!

- ▶ Python doesn't have true private attributes like some languages
- ► Convention: prefix with _ for "internal use"
- ▶ Name mangling: ___name becomes _ClassName___name
 - ▶ Python changes the name to make it harder to access accidentally
 - ► Not truly private, just harder to access

```
self.__private_attr = value # Becomes
_MyClass__private_attr
```

- ▶ Properties provide controlled access to attributes
 - ► Allow validation when getting/setting values
 - ▶ Maintain consistent interface if implementation changes



```
class Time:
      def __init__(self, hour=0, minute=0, second=0):
          self.hour = hour # Uses hour property setter
3
          self.minute = minute
4
          self.second = second
6
      @property
      def hour(self):
8
           """Get the hour"""
          return self._hour
      Ohour setter
12
      def hour(self, hour):
13
           """Set the hour with validation"""
14
          if not (0 <= hour < 24):
15
              raise ValueError(f'Hour ({hour}) must be
16
      0-23!)
          self._hour = hour
      # Similar properties for minute and second
18
```

Explanations

- ▶ @property defines a getter method
- ▶ @attribute.setter defines a setter method
- ► Allows validation when setting values

Property Access

```
t = Time(hour=12, minute=30, second=45)
2 # Getting values (calls @property)
3 print(t.hour) # 12
4 # Setting values (calls @hour.setter)
5 t.hour = 15
6 print(t.hour) # 15
7 # Invalid assignment raises ValueError
8 t.hour = 25 # ValueError: Hour (25) must be 0-23
```

Benefits of Properties

- ► Validation when setting values
- ► Computed attributes (calculate values on the fly)
- ▶ Maintains consistent interface if implementation changes
- ► Allows you to add behavior to attribute access



Inheritance



Syntax

```
class BaseClass:

# Base class implementation

class DerivedClass(BaseClass):

# Derived class implementation
```

Key Concepts

- ▶ "is-a" relationship (DerivedClass is a BaseClass)
- ► Subclass inherits all attributes and methods
- ► Can override or extend base class functionality
- ▶ super() accesses base class methods

Real-world Example

A Car is a Vehicle. A Student is a Person. Inheritance

models these "is-a" relationships.



```
class CommissionEmployee:
      """Base class for commission employees"""
      def __init__(self, first_name, last_name, ssn,
3
                    gross_sales, commission_rate):
4
          self._first_name = first_name
          self._last_name = last_name
          self._ssn = ssn
          self.gross_sales = gross_sales
8
          self.commission_rate = commission_rate
9
      def earnings(self):
          return self.gross_sales * self.commission_rate
      def __repr__(self):
12
          return (f'CommissionEmployee: {self.first_name}'
13
                   f'{self.last_name}\nssn: {self.ssn}\n'
14
                   f'gross sales: {self.gross_sales:.2f}\n'
15
                   f'commission rate: {self.commission_rate
16
      :.2f}')
```

- ▶ Base class for employees paid by commission
- Contains common attributes and methods.



```
class SalariedCommissionEmployee(CommissionEmployee):
      """Employee with salary plus commission"""
      def __init__(self, first_name, last_name, ssn,
3
                    gross sales, commission rate,
4
      base salary):
          super().__init__(first_name, last_name, ssn,
                           gross_sales, commission_rate)
          self.base_salary = base_salary
      def earnings(self):
8
          return super().earnings() + self.base_salary
9
      def __repr__(self):
10
          return ('Salaried' + super().__repr__()+
                  f'\nbase salary:{self.base_salary:.2f}')
12
```

- ► Inherits from CommissionEmployee
- ► Adds base_salary attribute
- ► Overrides earnings() to include base salary
- ► Uses super() to call parent class methods



Creating and Using Objects

Key points:

- ► Subclass inherits all base class attributes/methods
- ► Can override methods (earnings, ___repr___)
- ▶ super() calls base class implementation



Common Relationships

- ► CommunityMember hierarchy (single inheritance)
- ► Shape hierarchy (multiple levels)
- ▶ "is-a" vs "has-a" (inheritance vs composition)
- ▶ Single inheritance: class inherits from one base class
- ► Multiple inheritance: class inherits from multiple base classes (advanced)
- ► Composition: class contains objects of other classes ("has-a" relationship)

Polymorphism



- ▶ **Definition**: Ability to present the same interface for different underlying forms
- ► Two forms in Python:
 - ▶ Inheritance-based: Method overriding in subclasses
 - ▶ Duck typing: Objects with compatible interfaces
- ► Enables "programming in the general"
- ► Makes systems extensible

Real-world Analogy

The "drive" operation works differently for cars, trucks, and motorcycles, but they all can be "driven". Polymorphism lets us treat them all as "drivable" objects.

Output:

- ▶ Different string representations
- ▶ Different earnings calculations
- ► Same interface (earnings() method)
- ► We can process different types uniformly
- ► Each object responds appropriately to the same method



Definition

"If it walks like a duck and quacks like a duck, it must be a duck"

```
class WellPaidDuck:
    def __repr__(self):
        return 'I am a well-paid duck'

def earnings(self):
        return Decimal('1_000_000.00')

# Works with same interface
employees.append(WellPaidDuck())
for employee in employees:
    print(employee)
    print(f'{employee.earnings():.2f}\n')
```

- ▶ Python doesn't care about inheritance if the interface matches
- ▶ Any object with earnings() can be used polymorphically
- ► More flexible than inheritance-based polymorphism Multimedia university of Kenya

- ► Flexibility: New types can be added without changing existing code
- ► Maintainability: Changes are localized
- ▶ Extensibility: Easy to add new functionality
- ► Readability: Code expresses intent clearly
- ▶ Reusability: Generic algorithms work with many types

Key Point

Polymorphism lets you write code that works with objects at a higher level of abstraction, making your code more general and reusable.

Special Methods



Method	Purpose
init	Object initialization
repr	Official string representation
str	Informal string representation
$__format___$	Custom string formatting
eq	== operator
lt,le	<, $<=$ operators
gt,ge	>, $>$ = operators
add	+ operator
sub	- operator
iadd	+= operator
isub	-= operator

- ▶ Special methods start and end with double underscores
- ► They enable operator overloading and other Python features
- Called automatically by Python in specific situations, multimedia university.

```
class Complex:
      """Complex number with overloaded operators"""
2
      def __init__(self, real, imaginary):
3
           self.real = real
4
          self.imaginary = imaginary
5
      def __add__(self, right):
6
           """Overload + operator"""
           return Complex(self.real + right.real,
8
                          self.imaginary + right.imaginary)
9
      def __iadd__(self, right):
10
           """Overload += operator"""
           self.real += right.real
12
           self.imaginary += right.imaginary
13
          return self
14
      def __repr__(self):
15
           """Return string representation"""
16
           return (f'({self.real} ' +
17
                  ('+' if self.imaginary >= 0 else '-') +
18
                  f' {abs(self.imaginary)}i)')
19
```

Complex Number Operations

```
1 x = Complex(2, 4)
2 y = Complex(5, -1)
3 print(x)  # (2 + 4i)
4 print(y)  # (5 - 1i)
5 z = x + y  # Calls __add__
6 print(z)  # (7 + 3i)
7
8 x += y  # Calls __iadd__
9 print(x)  # (7 + 3i)
```

Benefits:

- ► Natural syntax for mathematical operations
- ► Consistent with built-in types
- ► Makes classes more intuitive to use



```
\_\_repr\_\_\_vs \_\_\_str\_\_\_
```

- ▶ ___repr___: Official, unambiguous representation
 - ► Used by repr() function
 - ► Should look like constructor call
 - ► Fallback for ___str___ if not defined
- ► ___str___: Informal, readable representation
 - ► Used by str() and print()
 - ► More user-friendly

```
class Card:
def __repr__(self):
    return f"Card(face='{self.face}', suit='{self.
    suit}')"

def __str__(self):
    return f'{self.face} of {self.suit}'

def __format__(self, format_spec):
    return f'{str(self):{format_spec}}'
```



Advanced Topics



Key Features

- ► Autogenerate ___init___, __repr___, ___eq___
- ► Concise syntax with type hints
- ▶ Default values & type annotations
- ► Frozen (immutable) instances

```
1 from dataclasses import dataclass
2 from typing import ClassVar, List
  @dataclass
  class Card:
      FACES: ClassVar[List[str]] = ['Ace', '2', '3', ...,
      'King']
      SUITS: ClassVar[List[str]] = ['Hearts', 'Diamonds',
6
      . . . 1
      face: str
7
      suit: str
8
      @property
10
      def image_name(self):
          return f'{self.face_of_{self.suit}.png'
12
```

- ▶ @dataclass decorator does the magic
- ► Class attributes use ClassVar
- ► Data attributes use type hints



Data Class Example

```
from carddataclass import Card

# Autogenerated __init__
c1 = Card(Card.FACES[0], Card.SUITS[3]) # Ace of Spades

# Autogenerated __repr__
print(c1) # Card(face='Ace', suit='Spades')

# Autogenerated __eq__
c2 = Card(Card.FACES[0], Card.SUITS[3])
print(c1 == c2) # True

# Custom property
print(c1.image_name) # 'Ace_of_Spades.png'
```

- ► Less boilerplate code
- ► Clear, concise syntax
- ▶ Still full Python classes with all capabilities



- ▶ Less Boilerplate: Autogenerated methods
- ▶ Type Hints: Better documentation and IDE support
- ► Immutability: Frozen instances
- ► Flexibility: Can add methods and properties
- ▶ Interoperability: Works with existing code
- ▶ **Performance**: Optimized attribute access

When to Use Data Classes

- ▶ When you need a class mainly to store data
- ▶ When you want automatic string representations
- ▶ When you want to reduce repetitive code

```
def maximum(value1, value2, value3):
       """Return the maximum of three values.
2
       >>> maximum(3, 1, 2)
3
4
       3
       >>> maximum(1.5, 2.5, 1.0)
5
       2.5
6
       >>> maximum('a', 'c', 'b')
       151
8
       .....
9
       max_value = value1
10
       if value2 > max_value:
           max_value = value2
12
       if value3 > max_value:
13
           max value = value3
14
      return max_value
15
16
17 if __name__ == '__main__':
18
       import doctest
       doctest.testmod(verbose=True)
19
```

- ► Tests in docstrings
- > > followed by expected output
- ► doctest.testmod() runs the tests
- ► Great for simple unit tests

► LEGB Rule:

- ► Local inside current function
- ► Enclosing for nested functions
- ► Global module level
- ▶ Built-in Python built-ins
- ► Class Namespace: Contains class attributes
- ▶ Object Namespace: Contains instance attributes
- ▶ Module Namespace: Global to the module
- ▶ Built-in Namespace: Python's built-in names

Key Point

Python searches namespaces in LEGB order when looking up names

Key Steps

```
1 import pandas as pd
2 from scipy import stats
  import seaborn as sns
4 # Load data
5 nyc = pd.read_csv('ave_hi_nyc_jan_1895-2018.csv')
6 nyc.columns = ['Date', 'Temperature', 'Anomaly']
7 # Clean data
8 nyc.Date = nyc.Date.floordiv(100)
9 # Calculate regression
  slope, intercept = stats.linregress(
      x=nyc.Date, y=nyc.Temperature)[:2]
12 # Predict future temperature
13 predicted = slope * 2019 + intercept
```

- ▶ Uses pandas for data handling
- ► Uses scipy.stats for regression
- Uses seaborn for visualization



- ► Uses pandas for data handling
- ► Uses scipy.stats for regression
- ▶ Uses seaborn for visualization

- ▶ OOP is a powerful paradigm for organizing complex programs
- ▶ Python provides flexible and expressive OOP capabilities
- ► Key concepts: encapsulation, inheritance, polymorphism
- ► Special methods enable operator overloading
- ► Advanced features like data classes reduce boilerplate
- ▶ Proper design leads to maintainable, extensible code

Next Steps

- ► Practice creating your own classes
- ► Experiment with inheritance hierarchies
- ► Try implementing operator overloading
- ► Explore data classes for simple data containers



- ▶ Python Documentation: Classes
- ▶ "Fluent Python" by Luciano Ramalho
- ▶ "Python Cookbook" by David Beazley and Brian K. Jones
- ▶ "Design Patterns in Python" by Peter Ullrich
- ▶ Python Standard Library: dataclasses, abc, enum

Online Resources

- ► Real Python OOP Tutorials
- ► Python Official Documentation
- ► Stack Overflow for specific questions

Thank You! Questions?