CS2 Workbook: Object-Oriented Programming (Chapter 9)

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Contents

1

Classes: Introduction

1.1 Grouping Related Items into Objects

The physical world is made up of materials such as **wood**, **metal**, **plastic**, and **fabric**. To make sense of it, we group materials into higher-level concepts such as *chairs*, *tables*, and *televisions*. Similarly, in programming, we group lower-level data and functions into **objects**.

An **object** is a bundle of data (variables) and the operations (methods) that act on that data.

Example: Thinking in Objects

Object	Operations (Methods)
Chair	sit()
Couch	sit(), lie_down()
Drawer	<pre>put_item(), take_item()</pre>

Objects let us think about the world in terms of what things do, rather than what they are made of.

Participation Discussion

- What real-world object do you interact with daily that could be modeled as a class?
- What are its attributes (data) and behaviors (methods)?

1.1.1 Programs Viewed as Objects

A program consists of variables and functions, but object-oriented programming encourages us to group related data and actions together.

Object Type	Possible Actions
Restaurant	<pre>set_name(), add_cuisine(), add_review()</pre>
Hotel	<pre>set_name(), add_amenity(), add_review()</pre>

By organizing code this way, we create programs that are easier to read, extend, and maintain.

1.2 Abstraction and Information Hiding

Abstraction occurs when we use an interface (like an oven's knob) to hide complex inner details (like heating elements).

Objects simplify complexity by hiding details and exposing only essential operations.

- A car hides the details of its engine behind a steering wheel, pedals, and a dashboard.
- A Python object hides the details of its data, offering you methods like .append() or .lower().

1.3 Built-in Objects in Python

Python automatically provides built-in objects, like:

- str string data type (ex: "Hello")
- int integer data type (ex: 42)

Example:

```
s1 = "Hello!"
print(s1.upper())  # Output: HELLO!
i1 = 130
print(i1.bit_length())  # Output: 8
```

Even built-in types are objects with data and methods!

Reflection Questions

- 1. What does it mean to say "a program is made of objects"?
- 2. Why does abstraction make code easier to understand?
- 3. Can you think of three real-world items that could become classes in code?

Classes: Grouping Data

2.1 Why Group Data into Classes?

Many variables in a program are closely related and should be bundled together. For instance, a time value consists of hours and minutes. Instead of managing two separate variables, we can define a **class** that groups them into one logical unit.

A class defines a new data type that groups related data (called *attributes*) and the operations that act on them (called *methods*).

2.2 Constructing a Simple Class

The class Keyword

```
class ClassName:
    # Statement-1
    # Statement-2
    # ...
# Statement-N
```

A class defines both the data and the behaviors of an object. The example below defines a class named Time with two attributes.

Example: Defining a Class with Two Data Attributes

```
class Time:
    """A class that represents a time of day."""
    def __init__(self):
        self.hours = 0
        self.minutes = 0
```

Here, the __init__() function is a special method called a **constructor**. It runs automatically when a new object (or instance) of Time is created.

2.3Creating and Using an Object

```
my_time = Time()
my\_time.hours = 7
my_time.minutes = 15
print(f"{my_time.hours} hours and {my_time.minutes} minutes")
   Output:
```

7 hours and 15 minutes

Each variable created from the class (my_time) is called an instance. The attributes of that instance are accessed using the **dot operator** (.).

2.4 Multiple Instances of a Class

You can create multiple independent instances, each maintaining its own data.

```
time1 = Time()
time1.hours = 7
time1.minutes = 30
time2 = Time()
time2.hours = 12
time2.minutes = 45
print(f"{time1.hours} hours and {time1.minutes} minutes")
print(f"{time2.hours} hours and {time2.minutes} minutes")
```

Output:

```
7 hours and 30 minutes
12 hours and 45 minutes
```

Key Terms 2.5

class A grouping of related data and behaviors.

attribute A variable stored within a class or instance.

method A function that belongs to a class.

__init__ The constructor method called automatically when creating a new object.

self Refers to the instance itself within class methods.

instance An individual object created from a class.

2.6 Practice Activity

Activity 9.2.1 – Define and Instantiate a Class

```
class Person:
    def __init__(self):
        self.name = ""

person1 = Person()
person1.name = "Van"
print(f"This is {person1.name}")

Output:
```

This is Van

class BookData:

Activity 9.2.2 – Create Your Own Class

Define a class called BookData with three attributes: year_published, title, and num_chapters. Create an instance of the class and assign values to its attributes.

```
def __init__(self):
    self.year_published = 0
    self.title = "Unknown"
    self.num_chapters = 0

my_book = BookData()
```

my_book.year_published = 2001
my_book.title = "A Tale of Two Cities"
my_book.num_chapters = 45

print(f"{my_book.title} ({my_book.year_published}) has {my_book.num_chapters} chapters."

Output:

A Tale of Two Cities (2001) has 45 chapters.

Reflection Questions

- 1. What is the difference between a class and an instance?
- 2. Why is the self keyword required in class definitions?
- 3. How does __init__() help organize data?

Visual Summary

../images/grouping_data_into_classes.png

Instance Methods

3.1 What Are Instance Methods?

A **method** is a function that belongs to a class. An **instance method** operates on a specific object created from that class.

Each method must include the special first parameter self, which refers to the current instance of the class.

3.2 Example: Adding a Method to a Class

```
class Time:
    def __init__(self):
        self.hours = 0
        self.minutes = 0

    def print_time(self):
        print(f"Hours: {self.hours}", end=" ")
        print(f"Minutes: {self.minutes}")

time1 = Time()
time1.hours = 7
time1.minutes = 15
time1.print_time()

Output:
Hours: 7 Minutes: 15
```

3.3 Understanding self

The first parameter self provides a reference to the instance itself. When a method is called using dot notation, like time1.print_time(), Python automatically passes the instance

 $({\tt time1})$ as the first argument.

3.4 Adding Behavior to a Class

You can add more methods to model real behavior. The example below shows an Employee class with a method that calculates pay.

```
class Employee:
    def __init__(self):
        self.wage = 0
        self.hours_worked = 0

    def calculate_pay(self):
        return self.wage * self.hours_worked

alice = Employee()
    alice.wage = 9.25
    alice.hours_worked = 35
    print(f"Alice's Net Pay: ${alice.calculate_pay():.2f}")
        Output:
Alice's Net Pay: $323.75
```

3.5 Common Mistake: Forgetting self

If you forget to include self as the first parameter of a method, Python will raise an error:

```
class Employee:
    def __init__(self):
        self.wage = 0
        self.hours_worked = 0

    def calculate_pay():
        return self.wage * self.hours_worked

alice = Employee()
    alice.wage = 9.25
    alice.hours_worked = 35
print(alice.calculate_pay())
        Error:

TypeError: calculate_pay() takes 0 positional arguments but 1 was given
```

3.6 Practice: Define and Use a Method

Example Activity 9.3.1 – Adding a Method

```
class Person:
    def __init__(self):
        self.first_name = ""

    def print_name(self):
        print(f"He is {self.first_name}")

person1 = Person()
person1.first_name = "Bob"
person1.print_name()
Output:

He is Bob
```

3.7 Challenge: Seat Class with Instance Method

```
class Seat:
    def __init__(self):
        self.row = 0
        self.col = 0

    def print_attributes(self):
        print(f"Row: {self.row}, Column: {self.col}")

seat1 = Seat()
seat1.row = 3
seat1.col = 5
seat1.print_attributes()
```

Output:

```
Row: 3, Column: 5
```

Visual Summary

images/oven_abstraction_example.png

Class and Instance Object Types

9.4.1 Understanding Class vs. Instance Objects

A class in Python acts as a **factory** that creates **instance objects**. Each instance has its own data (attributes), but shares the same methods defined in the class.

```
class Time:
    def __init__(self):
        self.hours = 0
        self.minutes = 0

time1 = Time()
time2 = Time()
time1.hours = 5
time2.hours = 7
```

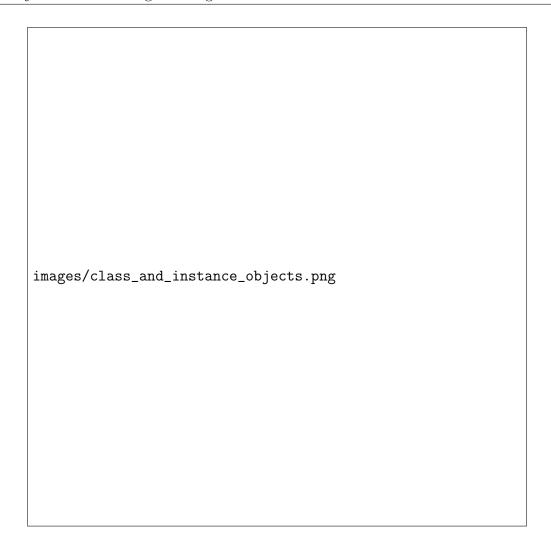
9.4.2 Class Attributes vs. Instance Attributes

A class attribute is shared by all instances, while an **instance attribute** is unique to each object.

```
class MarathonRunner:
    race_distance = 42.195  # Class attribute

def __init__(self):
    self.speed = 0  # Instance attribute

runner1 = MarathonRunner()
runner2 = MarathonRunner()
runner1.speed = 7.5
runner2.speed = 3.0
print(f"Runner1: {runner1.speed}, Runner2: {runner2.speed}")
```



9.4.3 Key Concept Summary

- Class Object: A template that defines data and behavior.
- Instance Object: A unique copy created from the class.
- Class Attribute: Shared by all instances.
- Instance Attribute: Belongs only to one instance.

9.4.4 Practice Activity

Modify the code below to add a method print_attributes() that prints both the class attribute and the instance attribute values.

```
class PhoneNumber:
    area_code = "405"

def __init__(self):
    self.number = "555-1234"
```

TODO: Add print_attributes method

What happens if you change the class attribute after creating multiple instances?

Class Example: Seat Reservation System

9.5 Class Example – Airline Seat Reservation System

A class can represent a real-world entity that manages its own data and actions. The example below models a simple airline seat reservation system. Each Seat object stores a passenger's name and the amount paid.

```
class Seat:
    def __init__(self):
        self.first_name = ""
        self.last_name = ""
        self.paid = 0.0
    def reserve(self, f_name, l_name, amt_paid):
        self.first_name = f_name
        self.last_name = l_name
        self.paid = amt_paid
    def make_empty(self):
        self.first_name = ""
        self.last_name = ""
        self.paid = 0.0
    def is_empty(self):
        return self.first_name == ""
    def print_seat(self):
        print(f"{self.first_name} {self.last_name}, Paid: {self.paid:.2f}")
def make_seats_empty(seats):
    for s in seats:
        s.make_empty()
```

```
def print_seats(seats):
    for i in range(len(seats)):
        print(f"{i}:", end=" ")
        seats[i].print_seat()
num_seats = 5
available_seats = []
for i in range(num_seats):
    available_seats.append(Seat())
command = input("Enter command (p/r/q):\n")
while command != "q":
    if command == "p": # Print seats
        print_seats(available_seats)
    elif command == "r": # Reserve a seat
        seat_num = int(input("Enter seat num:\n"))
        if not available_seats[seat_num].is_empty():
            print("Seat not empty")
        else:
            fname = input("Enter first name:\n")
            lname = input("Enter last name:\n")
            paid = float(input("Enter amount paid:\n"))
            available_seats[seat_num].reserve(fname, lname, paid)
    else:
        print("Invalid command.")
    command = input("Enter command (p/r/q):\n")
```

Discussion

This example demonstrates:

- Encapsulation of related data and behaviors within a class.
- The use of methods to modify and access object state.
- A program structure that makes expansion (like saving or loading seats) simple.

Class Constructors

9.6 Overview

A class constructor is a special method that defines how new objects are created and initialized. In Python, the constructor method is named __init__(). Constructors are used to set up instance attributes and can accept parameters to configure each new object.

Adding Parameters to a Constructor

```
class RaceTime:
    def __init__(self, start_time, end_time, distance):
        """Initialize race data."""
        self.start_time = start_time  # Format: "H:MM"
        self.end_time = end_time
        self.distance = distance  # In miles

# Create RaceTime objects
time_jason = RaceTime("3:15", "7:45", 26.21875)
time_bobby = RaceTime("3:15", "6:30", 26.21875)
```

Listing 6.1: A simple constructor with parameters.

Here, each new object receives its starting time, ending time, and race distance. This is more powerful than setting everything to zero — each instance can have its own data immediately upon creation.

Complete RaceTime Example

```
self.start_hrs = start_hrs
        self.start_mins = start_mins
        self.end_hrs = end_hrs
        self.end_mins = end_mins
        self.distance = dist
    def print_time(self):
        if self.end_mins >= self.start_mins:
            minutes = self.end_mins - self.start_mins
            hours = self.end_hrs - self.start_hrs
        else:
            minutes = 60 - self.start_mins + self.end_mins
            hours = self.end_hrs - self.start_hrs - 1
        print(f"Time to complete race: {hours}:{minutes:02d}")
    def print_pace(self):
        total_minutes = (self.end_hrs * 60 + self.end_mins) - \
                         (self.start_hrs * 60 + self.start_mins)
        pace = total_minutes / self.distance
        print(f"Average pace: {pace:.2f} mins/mile")
# Example interaction
distance = 5.0
start_hrs = int(input("Enter starting time hours: "))
start_mins = int(input("Enter starting time minutes: "))
end_hrs = int(input("Enter ending time hours: "))
end_mins = int(input("Enter ending time minutes: "))
race_time = RaceTime(start_hrs, start_mins, end_hrs, end_mins,
  \hookrightarrow distance)
race_time.print_time()
race_time.print_pace()
```

Listing 6.2: RaceTime class with methods.

Default Constructor Parameters

Constructors can also include default values for convenience. This reduces repetition and helps when typical defaults are common.

Listing 6.3: Employee class with default parameters.

Constructors in Practice: Student Example

Listing 6.4: Constructor with several defaults.

Constructor Exercises

- 1. Modify Employee so that it tracks yearly pay in addition to hourly.
- 2. Add a method is_manager() that returns True if wage ; 12.
- 3. Rewrite RaceTime so that it accepts total minutes instead of hours and minutes separately.

Class Interfaces

Overview

A class interface defines the set of methods that a programmer uses to interact with an instance of a class. The interface describes *what* operations can be performed on an object, while the **implementation** describes *how* those operations work internally.

In this section, we will explore:

- How to design class interfaces for readability and reuse.
- How to separate interface from implementation.
- The use of internal methods to simplify class logic.

Key Idea: A well-designed class acts like a mini toolbox—you can use its tools (the methods) without worrying about how each tool is built inside.

7.1 Example: The RaceTime Class Interface

Consider the following example that models a simple race timer. The interface includes three methods:

- __init__() creates a new RaceTime instance.
- print_time() prints the time to complete the race.
- print_pace() prints the average pace per mile.

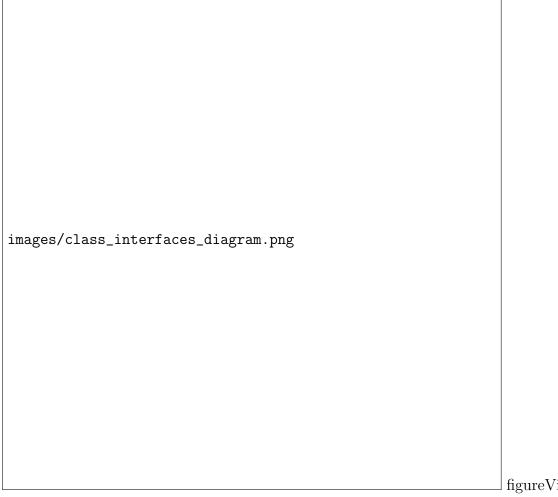
```
class RaceTime:
    def __init__(self, start_time, end_time, distance):
        self.start_time = start_time
        self.end_time = end_time
        self.distance = distance

def print_time(self):
```

```
# Implementation details hidden from user
def print_pace(self):
    # Implementation details hidden from user
```

Listing 7.1: A class interface consists of methods to interact with an instance.

Instructor Note: Emphasize that users of the class only need to know how to call print_time() or print_pace(), not how they compute their results internally.



figureVisual

overview of a class interface and its hidden implementation.

Internal (Private) Methods 7.2

Sometimes, a class includes internal helper methods that are not meant to be accessed directly. By convention, these methods begin with an underscore (_), signaling to programmers that they are used only inside the class.

```
class RaceTime:
    def __init__(self, start_hrs, start_mins, end_hrs, end_mins,
       \hookrightarrow dist):
        self.start_hrs = start_hrs
        self.start_mins = start_mins
        self.end_hrs = end_hrs
        self.end_mins = end_mins
        self.dist = dist
    def print_time(self):
        total_time = self._diff_time()
        print(f"Time to complete race: {total_time[0]}:{total_time
           \hookrightarrow [1]:02}")
    def print_pace(self):
        total_time = self._diff_time()
        total_minutes = total_time[0]*60 + total_time[1]
        print(f"Avg pace (mins/mile): {total_minutes / self.dist:.2f
           \hookrightarrow }")
    def _diff_time(self):
        """Internal helper method"""
        if self.end_mins >= self.start_mins:
            minutes = self.end_mins - self.start_mins
            hours = self.end_hrs - self.start_hrs
        else:
             minutes = 60 - self.start_mins + self.end_mins
            hours = self.end_hrs - self.start_hrs - 1
        return (hours, minutes)
```

Listing 7.2: RaceTime class with internal helper method.

7.3 Abstract Data Types (ADTs) and Information Hiding

A class can also represent an **Abstract Data Type (ADT)**, which hides the details of how data is stored or manipulated internally. The ADT provides a public interface for the user while keeping private methods and variables hidden.

- The user sees the interface (the public methods).
- The developer maintains control of the internal logic.
- This separation prevents accidental misuse and simplifies debugging.

In Python, private members are not enforced, but the underscore convention signals to other programmers that a method is intended for internal use only.

"An ADT is like a vending machine—you press a button, and magic happens inside."

7.4 Quick Review

- 1. The **interface** of a class defines what users can do with it.
- 2. The **implementation** defines how it does those things.
- 3. Internal methods usually begin with an underscore (_).
- 4. A well-designed class separates its interface from its implementation.

Participation Check

- True or False: A class interface consists of methods that a programmer should use to modify or access the class.
- True or False: Internal methods should begin with an underscore in their name.
- True or False: Internal methods cannot be called outside the class.
- True or False: A well-designed class separates its interface from its implementation.

Next Up: In Section 9.8, we'll learn about *class customization*—defining how objects behave with built-in operators like ==, <, or +.

Class Customization

9.8 Class Customization

Class customization is the process of defining how an instance of a class should behave for certain operations—such as printing, comparing, or arithmetic. Python provides *special method names* (sometimes called "dunder methods") that begin and end with double underscores. By defining these, programmers can customize how built-in behaviors interact with objects.

Implementing __str__(): Custom Printing

Example 9.8.1: Implementing __str__ alters how the class is printed.

Normal Printing:

Customized Printing:

```
class Toy:
     def __init__(self, name,
         \hookrightarrow price, min_age):
           self.name = name
           self.price = price
           self.min_age = min_age
     def __str__(self):
           return (f"{self.name}
               \hookrightarrow costs only ${self.
               \hookrightarrow price:.2f}. "
                      f"Not for
                          \hookrightarrow children
                          \hookrightarrow under {self
                          \hookrightarrow .min_age}!"
                          \hookrightarrow )
truck = Toy("Monster Truck XX",
   \hookrightarrow 14.99, 5)
print(truck)
```

Output:

Monster Truck XX costs only \$14.99. Not for children under 5!

Try It: Customizing Print Output

```
class Car:
    def __init__(self, make, model, year, miles, price):
        self.make = make
        self.model = model
        self.year = year
        self.miles = miles
        self.price = price

# FIXME: add __str__() to format output
```

Desired output example:

```
1989 Chevrolet Blazer:
Mileage: 115000
Sticker price: $3250
```

Operator Overloading

Python also allows classes to redefine built-in operators such as <, >, ==, and +. This is done through special methods such as $_-lt_-$, $_-eq_-$, etc.

Example 9.8.2: Overloading the i Operator

```
class Time:
    def __init__(self, hours, minutes):
        self.hours = hours
        self.minutes = minutes

def __str__(self):
        return f"{self.hours}:{self.minutes:02d}"

def __lt__(self, other):
    if self.hours < other.hours:
        return True
    elif self.hours == other.hours:
        return self.minutes < other.minutes
    return False</pre>
```

These comparison methods are known as **rich comparison methods**.

\mathbf{Method}	Operator
lt	less than (i)
le	less than or equal $(i=)$
gt	greater than (¿)
ge	greater than or equal $(\xi=)$
eq	equal $(==)$
ne	not equal $(!=)$

Practice: Comparing Quarterbacks

Challenge: Used Car Comparison

Defining __str__ for Custom Output

Challenge: Define __str__ for a simple CarRecord class.

```
class CarRecord:
    def __init__(self):
        self.year_made = 0
        self.car_vin = ""

    def __str__(self):
        return f"Year: {self.year_made}, VIN: {self.car_vin}"

my_car = CarRecord()
my_car.year_made = 2009
my_car.car_vin = "ABC321"
print(my_car)
```

Output:

Year: 2009, VIN: ABC321

Reflection

- How does __str__ help make debugging easier?
- Why might you overload comparison operators for a custom class?
- What risks exist when customizing too many class behaviors?

Summary:

- Class customization uses special method names (e.g., __str__, __lt__, __eq__).
- Enables clean printing, sorting, and comparison of class instances.
- Encourages readable, intuitive code design.