OBJECT ORIENTED PROGRAMMING & LINKED LISTS Solutions

COMPUTER SCIENCE MENTORS 61A

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1 Object Oriented Programming

Object oriented programming is a paradigm that organizes relationships among data into **objects** and **classes**. For example, we can write a `Car` class to represent the concept of cars in general:

```
class Car:
    wheels = 4
    def __init__(self):
        self.gas = 100

    def drive(self):
        self.gas -= 10
        print("Current gas level:", self.gas)

my_car = Car()
```

To represent an individual car, we can then create a new instance of `Car` by "calling" the class. Doing so will automatically construct a new object of type `Car`, pass it into the `__init__` method (also called the **constructor**), and then return it. Often, the `__init__` method will initialize the **instance attributes** of an object, which represent the state of an individual object. In this case, the `__init__` method initially sets the `gas` instance attribute of each car to 100.

Classes can also have **class attributes**, which are variables shared by all instances of a class. In the above example, `wheels` is shared by all instances of the `Car` class.

Instance methods are special functions that act on the instances of a class. We've already

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seen the `__init__` method. We can call instance methods by using the dot notation we use for instance attributes:

```
>>> my_car.drive()
Current gas level: 90
```

In instance methods, `self` is the instance from which the method was called. We don't have to explicitly pass in `self` because, when we call an instance method from an instance, the instance is automatically passed into the first parameter of the method by Python. That is, `my_car.drive()` is exactly equivalent to the following:

```
>>> Car.drive(my_car)
Current gas level: 80
```

Inheritance is an important feature of object oriented programs. In addition to making our code more concise, it allows us to create classes based on other classes in a similar way to how real-world categories are often divided into smaller subcategories.

For example, the `HybridCar` class may inherit from the `Car` class:

```
class HybridCar(Car):
    def __init__(self):
        super().__init__()
        self.battery = 100

    def drive(self):
        super().drive()
        self.battery -= 5
        print("Current battery level:", self.gas)

    def brake(self):
        self.battery += 1

my_hybrid = HybridCar()
```

By default, the child class inherits all of the attributes and methods of its parent class. So from the `HybridCar` instance `my_hybrid`, we can call `my_hybrid.drive()` and access `my_hybrid.wheels`, for example. When dot notation is used on an instance, Python will first check the instance to see if the attribute exists, then the instance's class, and then its parent class, etc. If Python goes all the way up the class tree without finding the attribute, an `AttributeError` is thrown.

Additional or redefined instance and class attributes can be added in a child class. We can also **override** inherited instance methods by redefining them in the child class. If we would like to call the parent class's version of a method, we can use **`super`**`()` to access it.

__str__ is special method to convert an object to a human-readable string. It may be invoked by directly calling **str** on an object. Additionally, whenever we call **print**() on an object, it will call the __str__ method of that object and print whatever value the __str__ call returned.

The **__repr__** method also returns a string representation of an object. However, the representation created by **repr** is not meant to be human readable, and it should contain all information about the object. When you evaluate some object in the Python interpreter, it will automatically call **repr** on that object and then print out the string that **repr** returns.

For example, if we had a Person class with a name instance variable, we can create a __repr__ and __str__ method like so:

```
def __str__(self):
    return "Hello, my name is " + self.name

def __repr__(self):
    return f"Person({repr(self.name)})"

>>> nobel_laureate = Person("Carolyn Bertozzi")
>>> str(nobel_laureate)
'Hello, my name is Carolyn Bertozzi'

>>> print(nobel_laureate)
Hello, my name is Carolyn Bertozzi

>>> repr(nobel_laureate)
'Person("Carolyn Bertozzi")'

>>> nobel_laureate
Person("Carolyn Bertozzi")

>>> [nobel_laureate]
[Person("Carolyn Bertozzi")]
```

(In an **f-string**, which is a string with an f in front of it, the expressions in curly braces are evaluated and their values [converted into strings] are inserted into the f-string, allowing us to customize the f-string based on what the expressions evaluate to.)

__str__, __repr__, and __init__ are a just a few examples of double-underscored "magic" methods that implement all sorts of special built-in and syntactical features of Python.

1. What would Python display? Write the result of executing the following code and prompts. If nothing would happen, write ”Nothing”. If an error occurs, write ”Error”.

```
class ForceWielder():
    force = 25

    def __init__(self, name):
        self.name = name

    def train(self, other):
        other.force += self.force / 5

    def __str__(self):
        return self.name

class Jedi(ForceWielder):
    lightsaber = "blue"

    def __str__(self):
        return "Jedi " + self.name

    def __repr__(self):
        return f"Jedi({repr(self.name)})"

class Sith(ForceWielder):
    lightsaber = "red"
    num_sith = 0

    def __init__(self, name):
        super().__init__(name)
        Sith.num_sith += 1
        if self.num_sith != 2:
            print("Two there should be. No more, no less.")

    def __str__(self):
        return "Darth " + self.name

    def __repr__(self):
        return f"Sith({repr(self.name)})"
```

```
>>> anakin = Jedi("Anakin")
>>> anakin.lightsaber, anakin.force
```

```
("blue", 25)
```

```
>>> obiwan = Jedi("Obi-wan")
>>> anakin.master = obiwan
>>> anakin.master
```

```
Jedi("Obi-wan")
```

```
>>> Jedi.master
```

```
AttributeError
```

```
>>> obiwan.force += anakin.force
>>> obiwan.force, anakin.force
```

```
(50, 25)
```

```
>>> obiwan.train(anakin)
>>> obiwan.force, anakin.force
```

```
(50, 35.0)
```

```
>>> Jedi.train(obiwan, anakin)
>>> obiwan.force, anakin.force
```

```
(50, 45.0)
```

```
>>> sidious = Sith("Sidious")
```

```
Two there should be. No more, no less.
```

```
>>> ForceWielder.train(sidious, anakin)
>>> anakin.lightsaber = "red"
>>> anakin.lightsaber, anakin.force
```

```
("red", 50.0)

>>> Jedi.lightsaber

"blue"

>>> print(Sith("Vader"), Sith("Maul").num_sith)

Two there should be. No more, no less.
Darth Vader 3

>>> rey = ForceWielder("Rey")
>>> rey

<__main__.ForceWielder object>

>>> rey.lightsaber

AttributeError
```

2. Let's slowly build a Bear from start to finish using OOP!

   (a) First, let's build a `Bear` class for our basic bear. Bear instances should have an attribute `name` that holds the name of the bear and an attribute `organs`, an initially empty list of the bear's organs. The Bear class should have an attribute `bears`, a list that stores the name of each bear.

```
class Bear:
    """
    >>> oski = Bear('Oski')
    >>> oski.name
    'Oski'
    >>> oski.organs
    []
    >>> Bear.bears
    ['Oski']
    >>> winnie = Bear('Winnie')
    >>> Bear.bears
    ['Oski', 'Winnie']
    """

    bears = []
    def __init__(self, name):
        self.name = name
        self.organs = []
        Bear.bears.append(self.name)
```

   Note that just doing `bears.append(self.name)` will result in an error! There is no `bears` variable in the `__init__` function frame.

(b) Next, let's build an `Organ` class to put in our bear. `Organ` instances should have an attribute `name` that holds the name of the organ and an attribute `bear` that holds the bear it belongs to. The `Organ` class should also have an instance method `discard(self)` that removes the organ from `Organ.organ_count` and the bear's organs list.

The `Organ` class should contain a dictionary `organ_count` that maps the name of each bear to the number of organs it has.

Hint: We may need to change the representation of this object for our doc tests to be correct.

```
class Organ:
    """
    >>> oski, winnie = Bear('Oski'), Bear('Winnie')
    >>> oski_liver = Organ('liver', oski)
    >>> Organ.organ_counts
    {'Oski': 1}
    >>> winnie_stomach = Organ('stomach', winnie)
    >>> winnie_liver = Organ('liver', winnie)
    >>> winnie.organs
    [stomach, liver]
    >>> winnie_liver.discard()
    >>> Organ.organ_counts
    {'Oski': 1, 'Winnie': 1}
    >>> winnie.organs
    [stomach]
    """

    organ_counts = {}

    def __init__(self, name, bear):
        self.name = name
        self.bear = bear
        if bear.name in Organ.organ_counts:
            Organ.organ_counts[bear.name] += 1
        else:
            Organ.organ_counts[bear.name] = 1
        bear.organs.append(self)
```

```
    def discard(self):
        Organ.organ_counts[self.bear.name] -= 1
        self.bear.organs.remove(self)

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

Without the `__repr__`, an Organ returns `<__main__.Organ object>` instead of its name in `Organ.organs`.

Organs do not inherit from Bear, nor should they. Inheritance is used in **is a** relationships, not **has a**.

(c) Now, let's design a `Heart` class that inherits from the `Organ` class. When a heart is created, if its bear does not already have a heart, it creates a `heart` attribute for that bear. If a bear already has a heart, the old `heart` is discarded and replaced with the new one. The bear's organs list and `Organ.organ_count` should be updated appropriately.

Hint: you can use **`hasattr`** to check if a bear has a heart attribute.

```
class Heart(Organ):
    """
    >>> oski, winnie = Bear('Oski'), Bear('Winnie')
    >>> hasattr(oski, 'heart')
    False
    >>> oski_heart = Heart('small heart', oski)
    >>> oski.heart
    small heart
    >>> oski.organs
    [small heart]
    >>> new_heart = Heart('big heart', oski)
    >>> oski.heart
    big heart
    >>> oski.organs
    [big heart]
    >>> Organ.organ_counts["Oski"]
    1
    """


    def __init__(self, name, bear):
        if hasattr(bear, 'heart'):
            bear.heart.discard()
        bear.heart = self
        Organ.__init__(self, name, bear)
```

Since Hearts are Organs, we can use Organ's `discard` method to remove an old heart easily, without breaking any abstraction barriers. We also can use `Organ.__init__` instead of repeating code.

2 Linked Lists

Linked lists are a recursive data structure for representing sequences. They consist of a series of "links," each of which has two attributes: `first` and `rest`. The `first` attribute contains the value of the link (which can be an integer, string, list, even another linked list!). The `rest` attribute, on the other hand, is a pointer to another link or `Link.empty`, which is just an empty linked list.

For example, `Link(1, Link(2, Link(3)))` is a linked list representation of the sequence $1, 2, 3$.

Like trees, linked lists naturally lend themselves to recursive problem solving. Consider the following example, in which we double every value in linked list. We mutate the current link and then recursively double the rest.

```
def double_values(link):
     if link is not Link.empty:
        link.first *= 2 # we mutate the value inside of the link
        double_val(link.rest) # we mutate the values in the rest
                              # of the linked list
    # if the link is empty then do nothing
```

For each of the following problems, assume linked lists are defined as follows:

```
class Link:
    empty = ()
    def __init__(self, first, rest=empty):
        assert rest is Link.empty or isinstance(rest, Link)
        self.first = first
        self.rest = rest

    def __repr__(self):
        if self.rest is not Link.empty:
            rest_repr = ', ' + repr(self.rest)
        else:
            rest_repr = ''
        return 'Link(' + repr(self.first) + rest_repr + ')'

    def __str__(self):
        string = '<'
        while self.rest is not Link.empty:
            string += str(self.first) + ' '
            self = self.rest
        return string + str(self.first) + '>'
```

1. What will Python output? Draw box-and-pointer diagrams along the way.

```
>>> a = Link(1, Link(2, Link(3)))
```

```
+---+---+   +---+---+   +---+---+
| 1 | --|->| 2 | --|->| 3 | / |
+---+---+   +---+---+   +---+---+
```

```
>>> a.first
```

```
1
```

```
>>> a.first = 5
```

```
+---+---+   +---+---+   +---+---+
| 5 | --|->| 2 | --|->| 3 | / |
+---+---+   +---+---+   +---+---+
```

```
>>> a.first
```

5

```
>>> a.rest.first
```

2

```
>>> a.rest.rest.rest.rest.first
```

Error: tuple object has no attribute rest (Link.empty has no rest)

```
>>> a.rest.rest.rest = a
```

```
   +---+---+  +---+---+  +---+---+
+->| 5 | --|->| 2 | --|->| 3 | --|--+
|  +---+---+  +---+---+  +---+---+  |
|                                   |
+-----------------------------------+
```

```
>>> a.rest.rest.rest.rest.first
```

```
2
```

```
>>> repr(Link(1, Link(2, Link(3, Link.empty))))
```

```
"Link(1, Link(2, Link(3)))"
```

```
>>> Link(1, Link(2, Link(3, Link.empty)))
```

```
Link(1, Link(2, Link(3)))
```

```
>>> str(Link(1, Link(2, Link(3))))
```

```
'<1 2 3>'
```

```
>>> print(Link(Link(1), Link(2, Link(3))))
```

```
<<1> 2 3>
```

2. Write a function `skip`, which takes in a `Link` and skips every other element in the linked list.

(a) First, implement `skip` non-mutatively. That is, return a new linked list with every other element skipped, and do not modify the original linked list.

```
def skip(lst):
    """
    >>> a = Link(1, Link(2, Link(3, Link(4))))
    >>> a
    Link(1, Link(2, Link(3, Link(4))))
    >>> b = skip(a)
    >>> b
    Link(1, Link(3))
    >>> a
    Link(1, Link(2, Link(3, Link(4)))) # Unchanged
    """
    if ______________________________________________:
        ____________________________________________
    elif ____________________________________________:
        ____________________________________________
    ________________________________________________
```

```
    if lst is Link.empty:
        return Link.empty
     elif lst.rest is Link.empty:
        return Link(lst.first)
    return Link(lst.first, skip(lst.rest.rest))
```

Base cases:

- When the linked list is empty, we want to return a new Link.empty.
- If there is only one element in the linked list (aka the next element is empty), we want to return a new linked list with that single element.

Recursive case:
All other longer linked lists can be reduced down to either a single element or empty linked list depending on whether it has odd or even length. Therefore, we want to keep the first element, and recurse on the element after the next (skipping the immediate next element with `lst.rest.rest`). To build a new linked list, we can add new links to the end of the linked list by calling skip recursively inside the `rest` argument of the `Link` constructor.

(b) Now, implement `skip` mutatively. That is, mutate the original list so that every other element is skipped. Do not call the `Link` constructor, and do not return anything.

```
def skip(lst):
    """
    >>> a = Link(1, Link(2, Link(3, Link(4))))
    >>> skip(a)
    >>> a
    Link(1, Link(3))
    """
```

```
def skip(lst): # Recursively
    if lst is Link.empty or lst.rest is Link.empty:
        return
    lst.rest = lst.rest.rest
    skip(lst.rest)
```

```
def skip(lst): # Iteratively
    while lst is not Link.empty and lst.rest is not
      Link.empty:
        lst.rest = lst.rest.rest
        lst = lst.rest
```

Because this problem is mutative, we should never be creating a new list - we should never have `Link(x)`, or the creation of a new Link instance, anywhere in our code! Instead, we'll be reassigning `lst.rest`.

In order to skip a node, we can assign `lst.rest = lst.rest.rest`. If we have lst assigned to a link list that looks like the following:

```
1 -> 2 -> 3 -> 4 -> 5
```

Setting `lst.rest = lst.rest.rest` will take the arrow that points form 1 to 2 and change it to point from 1 to 3. We can see this by evaluating `lst.rest.rest`. `lst.rest` is the arrow that comes from 1, and `lst.rest.rest` is the link with 3.

Once we've created the following list:

```
1 -> 3 -> 4 -> 5
```

we just need to call skip on the rest of the list. If we call skip on the list that starts at 3, we'll skip over the link with 4 and set the pointer from 3 to point to the link with 5. This is the behavior that we want! Therefore, our recursive call is `skip(lst.rest)`, since `lst.rest` is now the link that contains 3.

3. **(Optional)** Write `has_cycle` which takes in a `Link` and returns `True` if and only if there is a cycle in the `Link`. Note that the cycle may start at any node and be of any length. Try writing a solution that keeps track of all the links we've seen. Then try to write a solution that doesn't store those witnessed links (consider using two pointers!).

```python
def has_cycle(s):
    """
    >>> has_cycle(Link.empty)
    False
    >>> a = Link(1, Link(2, Link(3)))
    >>> has_cycle(a)
    False
    >>> a.rest.rest.rest = a
    >>> has_cycle(a)
    True
    """

    seen = []
    while s:
        if s in seen:
            return True
        seen.append(s)
        s = s.rest
    return False

    # Challenge solution

    if s is Link.empty:
        return False
    slow, fast = s, s.rest
    while fast is not Link.empty:
        if fast.rest is Link.empty:
            return False
        elif fast is slow or fast.rest is slow:
            return True
        slow, fast = slow.rest, fast.rest.rest
    return False
```