

Object-Oriented Programming Principles

Building Better Software

Organizing code around objects for better structure and reusability

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Learning Objectives

By the end of this lesson, you will be able to:

1. **Explain** what OOP is and why it matters in modern development
2. **Define** classes and objects and understand their relationship
3. **Describe** the four core principles: Encapsulation, Inheritance, Polymorphism, Abstraction
4. **Write** simple Python code using classes and objects
5. **Identify** common mistakes beginners make with OOP

The Real-World Analogy

Imagine organizing a library:

Without OOP (Procedural):

- Separate lists: book titles, authors, ISBNs, availability
- Functions to search, borrow, return books
- Hard to keep data synchronized

With OOP:

- Each book is an object with its own data and behaviors
- Books manage their own state (borrowed/available)
- Easier to maintain and extend

OOP mirrors how we naturally think about the world: as collections of interacting objects.

What is Object-Oriented Programming?

Traditional Approach

Procedural Programming:

- Code organized around functions
- Data passed between functions
- Focus on "what to do"

```
# Separate data and functions
dog_name = "Buddy"
dog_age = 3

def bark(name):
    return f"{name} says Woof!"
```

OOP Approach

Object-Oriented:

- Code organized around objects
- Data bundled with behaviors
- Focus on "what things are"

```
# Data and behavior together
class Dog:
    def __init__(self, name, age):
        self.name = name
        self.age = age

    def bark(self):
        return f"{self.name} says Woof!"
```

Why OOP Matters

Code Organization:

- Related data and behaviors bundled together
- Easier to understand and navigate large codebases

Code Reusability:

- Create blueprints once, use many times
- Inheritance allows sharing common functionality

Maintainability:

- Changes isolated to specific objects
- Reduces ripple effects across codebase

Real-World Modeling:

- Naturally represents entities (users, products, orders)
- Maps domain concepts to code structures



Classes and Objects: The Foundation

Class = Blueprint/Template

Defines what data and behaviors something should have

Object = Instance

Specific thing created from that blueprint with actual data

Analogy:

- **Cookie cutter** (class) defines the shape
- **Cookies** (objects) are the actual items you can eat

Classes and Objects: Example

```
# Define a class (the blueprint)
class Dog:
    def __init__(self, name, age):
        """Initialize a new Dog object with name and age"""
        self.name = name # Data attribute
        self.age = age

    def bark(self):
        """Method (behavior) that makes the dog bark"""
        return f"{self.name} says Woof!"

    def have_birthday(self):
        """Method that increases the dog's age"""
        self.age += 1
        return f"{self.name} is now {self.age} years old!"

# Create objects (instances)
my_dog = Dog("Buddy", 3)
your_dog = Dog("Max", 5)

print(my_dog.bark())           # Output: Buddy says Woof!
print(your_dog.age)           # Output: 5
print(my_dog.have_birthday()) # Output: Buddy is now 4 years old!
```

Key Concepts: Classes and Objects

Class Components

Attributes (Data):

- `self.name`
- `self.age`
- Store object state

Methods (Behaviors):

- `bark()`
- `have_birthday()`
- Define what object can do

`__init__` Constructor:

- Special method
- lotfinejad.com
Initializes new objects

Object Instances

Each object is independent:

```
dog1 = Dog("Buddy", 3)
dog2 = Dog("Max", 5)

dog1.age = 4 # Changes only dog1
print(dog2.age) # Still 5
```

Same blueprint, different data:

- Both are Dogs
- Each has own name and age
- Changes don't affect others

The `self` Parameter

Most Important Concept for Beginners!

`self` refers to the specific object calling the method.

```
class Dog:
    def __init__(self, name):
        self.name = name # Store in THIS object's name attribute

    def bark(self):
        # Access THIS object's name
        return f"{self.name} says Woof!"

buddy = Dog("Buddy")
max_dog = Dog("Max")

buddy.bark() # self = buddy, uses "Buddy"
max_dog.bark() # self = max_dog, uses "Max"
```

Think of `self` as "this specific object"

Principle 1: Encapsulation

Definition: Bundling data and methods together while hiding internal details from outside code

Goal: Protect data integrity and provide controlled access

Analogy: TV Remote

- You press buttons (public interface)
- Don't know complex electronics inside (private implementation)
- Can't accidentally break internal circuits

Encapsulation: Implementation

```
class BankAccount:
    def __init__(self, balance):
        """Initialize account with starting balance"""
        self.__balance = balance # Private attribute (double underscore)

    def deposit(self, amount):
        """Add money to the account if amount is valid"""
        if amount > 0:
            self.__balance += amount
            return f"Deposited ${amount}. New balance: ${self.__balance}"
        return "Invalid deposit amount"

    def withdraw(self, amount):
        """Withdraw money if sufficient funds"""
        if 0 < amount <= self.__balance:
            self.__balance -= amount
            return f"Withdrew ${amount}. New balance: ${self.__balance}"
        return "Insufficient funds or invalid amount"

    def get_balance(self):
        """Public method to safely access private balance data"""
        return self.__balance
```

Encapsulation: Usage

```
# Create account
account = BankAccount(1000)

# Use public methods to interact
print(account.deposit(500))      # Output: Deposited $500. New balance: $1500
print(account.withdraw(200))    # Output: Withdrew $200. New balance: $1300
print(account.get_balance())    # Output: 1300

# Try to deposit negative amount
print(account.deposit(-100))    # Output: Invalid deposit amount

# Try to access private attribute directly
# print(account.__balance)      # AttributeError: 'BankAccount' has no attribute '__balance'

# Can't accidentally set invalid balance
# account.__balance = -5000     # Doesn't affect internal __balance
```

Benefits: Data validation, controlled access, protected integrity

Encapsulation: Public vs Private

Public (No Underscores)

```
class Person:
    def __init__(self, name):
        self.name = name # Public

    def greet(self):      # Public
        return f"Hi, I'm {self.name}"

person = Person("Alice")
print(person.name)      # OK
person.name = "Bob"     # OK
```

Use for: Intended interfaces

Private (Double Underscores)

```
class Person:
    def __init__(self, name):
        self.__ssn = "123-45-6789" # Private

    def __validate(self):            # Private
        pass

person = Person("Alice")
# person.__ssn          # ERROR
# person.__validate()   # ERROR
```

Use for: Internal implementation



Principle 2: Inheritance

Definition: Create new classes based on existing ones, inheriting their attributes and methods

Goal: Reuse code and create hierarchical relationships

Analogy: Biological Inheritance

- Children inherit traits from parents
- Can also have unique characteristics
- Share common features while being distinct

Inheritance: Parent and Child Classes

```
# Parent class (Base class / Superclass)
class Animal:
    def __init__(self, name, species):
        """Initialize an animal with name and species"""
        self.name = name
        self.species = species

    def speak(self):
        """Generic speak method"""
        return "Some sound"

    def info(self):
        """Return basic information"""
        return f"{self.name} is a {self.species}"

# Child class (Derived class / Subclass)
class Dog(Animal):
    def __init__(self, name, breed):
        """Initialize a dog with name and breed"""
        super().__init__(name, "Dog") # Call parent constructor
        self.breed = breed

    def speak(self):
        """Override parent method with dog-specific behavior"""
        return f"{self.name} says Woof!"
```

Inheritance: Multiple Child Classes

```
class Cat(Animal):
    def __init__(self, name, color):
        """Initialize a cat"""
        super().__init__(name, "Cat")
        self.color = color

    def speak(self):
        """Override with cat-specific behavior"""
        return f"{self.name} says Meow!"

    def purr(self):
        """Cat-specific method"""
        return f"{self.name} purrs contentedly"

class Bird(Animal):
    def __init__(self, name, can_fly):
        """Initialize a bird"""
        super().__init__(name, "Bird")
        self.can_fly = can_fly

    def speak(self):
        """Override with bird-specific behavior"""
        return f"{self.name} says Chirp!"
```


Inheritance: Usage Example

```
# Create instances
dog = Dog("Buddy", "Golden Retriever")
cat = Cat("Whiskers", "Orange")
bird = Bird("Tweety", True)

# Use inherited methods
print(dog.info())    # Output: Buddy is a Dog
print(cat.info())    # Output: Whiskers is a Cat

# Use overridden methods
print(dog.speak())   # Output: Buddy says Woof!
print(cat.speak())   # Output: Whiskers says Meow!
print(bird.speak())  # Output: Tweety says Chirp!

# Use child-specific methods
print(cat.purr())    # Output: Whiskers purrs contentedly

# Access child-specific attributes
print(dog.breed)     # Output: Golden Retriever
print(cat.color)     # Output: Orange
print(bird.can_fly)  # Output: True
```

Inheritance: Benefits and `super()`

Benefits of Inheritance:

- ✓ **Code Reuse:** Don't repeat common functionality
- ✓ **Logical Hierarchy:** Models real-world relationships
- ✓ **Easy Maintenance:** Update parent, all children benefit
- ✓ **Extensibility:** Add new child classes without modifying existing code

The `super()` function:

```
class Dog(Animal):  
    def __init__(self, name, breed):  
        super().__init__(name, "Dog") # Calls Animal.__init__()  
        self.breed = breed
```

- Calls parent class methods
- Ensures proper initialization
- Maintains inheritance chain

Principle 3: Polymorphism

Definition: "Many forms" - Different objects respond to the same method call in their own way

Goal: Write flexible code that works with multiple types

Analogy: Universal Remote

- Same "Play" button
- Works with TV, DVD player, game console
- Each device responds differently to same command

Polymorphism: Same Interface, Different Behavior

```
# All animals have speak() method, but each implements it differently
def make_animal_speak(animal):
    """Function that works with ANY animal object"""
    print(animal.speak())

# Create different animals
dog = Dog("Buddy", "Labrador")
cat = Cat("Whiskers", "Black")
bird = Bird("Tweety", True)

# Same function call, different behaviors
make_animal_speak(dog)    # Output: Buddy says Woof!
make_animal_speak(cat)    # Output: Whiskers says Meow!
make_animal_speak(bird)   # Output: Tweety says Chirp!

# Function doesn't need to know which animal type it receives!
# Works with any object that has a speak() method
```

Key Benefit: Write once, works with many types!

Polymorphism: Real-World Example

```
class PaymentMethod:
    def process_payment(self, amount):
        """Base method to be overridden"""
        pass

class CreditCard(PaymentMethod):
    def process_payment(self, amount):
        return f"Processing ${amount} via Credit Card"

class PayPal(PaymentMethod):
    def process_payment(self, amount):
        return f"Processing ${amount} via PayPal"

class Cryptocurrency(PaymentMethod):
    def process_payment(self, amount):
        return f"Processing ${amount} via Cryptocurrency"

def checkout(payment_method, amount):
    """Works with ANY payment method"""
    print(payment_method.process_payment(amount))

# Same function, different payment methods
checkout(CreditCard(), 100)      # Credit Card processing
checkout(PayPal(), 75)          # PayPal processing
checkout(Cryptocurrency(), 200)  # Crypto processing
```

Polymorphism: Why It Matters

✗ Without Polymorphism

```
def checkout(payment_type, amount):  
    if payment_type == "credit":  
        print(f"Credit: ${amount}")  
    elif payment_type == "paypal":  
        print(f"PayPal: ${amount}")  
    elif payment_type == "crypto":  
        print(f"Crypto: ${amount}")  
    # Add new method = modify function
```

Problems:

- Modification needed for new types
- Error-prone conditionals
- Hard to maintain

✓ With Polymorphism

```
def checkout(payment_method, amount):  
    print(payment_method.process_payment(amount))  
  
# Add new payment method  
class ApplePay(PaymentMethod):  
    def process_payment(self, amount):  
        return f"Apple Pay: ${amount}"  
  
checkout(ApplePay(), 50)  
# No modification to checkout!
```

Benefits:

- Open/Closed Principle
- Easy to extend
- Clean code

Principle 4: Abstraction

Definition: Hide complex implementation details, show only essential features

Goal: Simplify interfaces and reduce complexity

Analogy: Driving a Car

- Use steering wheel, pedals, gear shift (simple interface)
- Don't need to understand engine internals (hidden complexity)
- Interface abstracts away mechanical details

Abstraction: Abstract Base Classes

```
from abc import ABC, abstractmethod

class Shape(ABC):
    """Abstract base class for shapes"""

    @abstractmethod
    def area(self):
        """Every shape MUST implement area calculation"""
        pass

    @abstractmethod
    def perimeter(self):
        """Every shape MUST implement perimeter calculation"""
        pass

    def describe(self):
        """Concrete method available to all shapes"""
        return f"This shape has area {self.area()} and perimeter {self.perimeter()}"

# Cannot create instance of abstract class
# shape = Shape() # TypeError: Can't instantiate abstract class
```

Abstract classes define the interface but not the implementation

Abstraction: Concrete Implementations

```
class Rectangle(Shape):
    def __init__(self, width, height):
        self.width = width
        self.height = height

    def area(self):
        """Implement required abstract method"""
        return self.width * self.height

    def perimeter(self):
        """Implement required abstract method"""
        return 2 * (self.width + self.height)

class Circle(Shape):
    def __init__(self, radius):
        self.radius = radius

    def area(self):
        """Implement required abstract method"""
        return 3.14159 * self.radius ** 2

    def perimeter(self):
        """Implement required abstract method (circumference)"""
        return 2 * 3.14159 * self.radius
```

Abstraction: Usage Example

```
# Create concrete shapes
rect = Rectangle(5, 3)
circle = Circle(4)
triangle = Triangle(3, 4, 5, 6) # base, height, side1, side2

# Use abstraction – same interface for all shapes
shapes = [rect, circle, triangle]

for shape in shapes:
    print(f"Area: {shape.area():.2f}")
    print(f"Perimeter: {shape.perimeter():.2f}")
    print(shape.describe())
    print("----")

# Output:
# Area: 15.00
# Perimeter: 16.00
# This shape has area 15.0 and perimeter 16.0
# ---
# Area: 50.27
# Perimeter: 25.13
# This shape has area 50.26544 and perimeter 25.13272
# ---
```

Abstraction: Benefits

Consistency:

- All shapes must implement `area()` and `perimeter()`
- Can't forget required methods
- Python enforces the contract

Flexibility:

- Each shape calculates differently
- Same interface, different implementations
- Add new shapes without changing existing code

Simplification:

- Users work with simple interface
- Don't need to know calculation details
- Complexity hidden behind abstraction

Practical Example: Library System

Scenario: Build a library management system

Requirements:

- Books with title, author, ISBN
- Different book types: physical books, ebooks, audiobooks
- Borrowing and returning functionality
- Track book availability

OOP Approach: Use all four principles together!

Library System: Base Class

```
class Book:
    """Represents a book in the library (Encapsulation + Abstraction)"""

    def __init__(self, title, author, isbn):
        """Initialize a book with title, author, and ISBN"""
        self.title = title
        self.author = author
        self.__isbn = isbn # ENCAPSULATION: Private attribute
        self.__is_borrowed = False

    def borrow(self):
        """Attempt to borrow the book"""
        if not self.__is_borrowed:
            self.__is_borrowed = True
            return f"✓ You borrowed '{self.title}'"
        return f"✗ '{self.title}' is already borrowed"

    def return_book(self):
        """Return the book to library"""
        self.__is_borrowed = False
        return f"✓ You returned '{self.title}'"

    def get_info(self):
        """Get book information (can be overridden – POLYMORPHISM)"""
        status = "Available" if not self.__is_borrowed else "Borrowed"
        return f"📖 {self.title} by {self.author} [{status}]"
```

Library System: Derived Classes (Inheritance)

```
class EBook(Book):
    """Represents a digital book (INHERITANCE from Book)"""

    def __init__(self, title, author, isbn, file_size_mb):
        """Initialize an ebook with additional file_size attribute"""
        super().__init__(title, author, isbn) # Call parent constructor
        self.file_size_mb = file_size_mb

    def get_info(self):
        """POLYMORPHISM: Override parent method"""
        status = "Available" if not self._Book__is_borrowed else "Borrowed"
        return f"📖 {self.title} by {self.author} ({self.file_size_mb}MB) [{status}]"

    def download(self):
        """EBook-specific method"""
        return f"📥 Downloading '{self.title}' ({self.file_size_mb}MB)..."

class AudioBook(Book):
    """Represents an audio book (INHERITANCE from Book)"""

    def __init__(self, title, author, isbn, duration_hours):
        """Initialize audiobook with duration"""
        super().__init__(title, author, isbn)
        self.duration_hours = duration_hours

    def get_info(self):
        """POLYMORPHISM: Override parent method"""
        status = "Available" if not self._Book__is_borrowed else "Borrowed"
        return f"🎧 {self.title} by {self.author} ({self.duration_hours}h) [{status}]"
```

Library System: Usage Example

```
# Create different types of books
physical = Book("1984", "George Orwell", "123456")
ebook = EBook("Python Crash Course", "Eric Matthes", "789012", 5.2)
audiobook = AudioBook("Atomic Habits", "James Clear", "345678", 5.5)

# POLYMORPHISM: Same method call, different output
books = [physical, ebook, audiobook]
for book in books:
    print(book.get_info())

# Output:
# 📖 1984 by George Orwell [Available]
# 📱 Python Crash Course by Eric Matthes (5.2MB) [Available]
# 🎧 Atomic Habits by James Clear (5.5h) [Available]

# ENCAPSULATION: Controlled access
print(physical.borrow()) # ✓ You borrowed '1984'
print(physical.borrow()) # ✗ '1984' is already borrowed

# INHERITANCE: EBook has Book methods + its own
print(ebook.download()) # 📥 Downloading 'Python Crash Course' (5.2MB)...
```

Library System: Demonstrates All Principles

Encapsulation:

- `__isbn` and `__is_borrowed` are private
- Controlled access through public methods
- Data protection and validation

Inheritance:

- `EBook` and `AudioBook` inherit from `Book`
- Reuse common functionality (borrow, return)
- Extend with specific features

Polymorphism:

- All books have `get_info()` method
- Each type implements it differently
- Loop works with any book type

Common Pitfall #1: God Objects

Problem: One class that does everything

```
# ✗ BAD: God Object
class User:
    def __init__(self, name):
        self.name = name

    def save_to_database(self):          # Database logic
        pass

    def send_email(self):              # Email logic
        pass

    def process_payment(self):         # Payment logic
        pass

    def generate_report(self):         # Reporting logic
        pass

    def validate_input(self):          # Validation logic
        pass
    # Too many responsibilities!
```

Pitfall #1: Solution - Single Responsibility

 GOOD: Each class has one responsibility

```
class User:
    def __init__(self, name, email):
        self.name = name
        self.email = email

class UserRepository:
    """Handles database operations"""
    def save(self, user):
        # Save user to database
        pass

class EmailService:
    """Handles email operations"""
    def send(self, user, message):
        # Send email to user
        pass

class PaymentProcessor:
    """Handles payment operations"""
    def process(self, user, amount):
        # Process payment for user
        pass
```

🚫 Common Pitfall #2: Forgetting `self`

Problem: Forgetting `self` parameter in methods

```
# ❌ BAD: Missing self
class Dog:
    def __init__(name, age):          # Missing self!
        name = name                 # No self reference
        age = age

    def bark():                      # Missing self!
        return "Woof!"

# dog = Dog("Buddy", 3) # TypeError!

# ✅ GOOD: Include self
class Dog:
    def __init__(self, name, age):    # self is first parameter
        self.name = name             # self.attribute
        self.age = age

    def bark(self):                  # self in all methods
        return f"{self.name} says Woof!"
```

Common Pitfall #3: Overusing Inheritance

Problem: Using inheritance for "has-a" relationships

Wrong: Inheritance

```
# Car IS-NOT an Engine!
class Car(Engine):
    def __init__(self):
        self.wheels = 4

# Bad hierarchy
```

When NOT to use:

- "Has-a" relationships
- No logical hierarchy
- Just sharing code

Correct: Composition

```
# Car HAS-AN Engine!
class Car:
    def __init__(self):
        self.engine = Engine()
        self.wheels = 4

    def start(self):
        self.engine.start()
```

Use composition when:

- Object contains another
- No "is-a" relationship

Inheritance vs Composition Guide

Use INHERITANCE for "is-a" relationships:

- Dog **is an** Animal ✓
- Cat **is an** Animal ✓
- Tesla **is a** Car ✓
- Manager **is an** Employee ✓

Use COMPOSITION for "has-a" relationships:

- Car **has an** Engine ✓
- House **has a** Door ✓
- Student **has a** Backpack ✓
- Computer **has a** Processor ✓

When in doubt, prefer composition!

Common Pitfall #4: Making Everything Public

Problem: Not using encapsulation

```
# ❌ BAD: Everything public
class BankAccount:
    def __init__(self, balance):
        self.balance = balance # Public – can be changed directly!

account = BankAccount(1000)
account.balance = -5000 # Oops! Negative balance allowed!

# ✅ GOOD: Use encapsulation
class BankAccount:
    def __init__(self, balance):
        self.__balance = balance # Private

    def deposit(self, amount):
        if amount > 0:
            self.__balance += amount
        # Validation ensures data integrity
```

Common Pitfall #5: Deep Inheritance Hierarchies

Problem: Too many inheritance levels

```
# ✗ BAD: Too deep
class Animal: pass
class Mammal(Animal): pass
class Carnivore(Mammal): pass
class Feline(Carnivore): pass
class BigCat(Feline): pass
class Lion(BigCat): pass
# 6 levels deep! Hard to understand and maintain

# ✓ GOOD: Keep it shallow (2-3 levels max)
class Animal: pass
class Cat(Animal): pass
class Lion(Cat): pass
# Simple and clear
```

Rule: Keep inheritance hierarchies to 2-3 levels maximum



OOP vs Other Paradigms

Procedural Programming vs OOP

Procedural

Focus: Functions and procedures

```
# Data and functions separate
balance = 1000

def deposit(amount):
    global balance
    balance += amount

def withdraw(amount):
    global balance
    balance -= amount
```

Best for: Small scripts (<200 lines)

OOP

Focus: Objects bundling data + behavior

```
# Data and methods together
class Account:
    def __init__(self, balance):
        self.__balance = balance

    def deposit(self, amount):
        self.__balance += amount

    def withdraw(self, amount):
        self.__balance -= amount
```

Best for: Large applications

When to Use OOP

✓ Choose OOP when:

- Building applications with multiple interacting components
- Code reuse is important (inheritance, composition)
- Modeling real-world entities (users, products, orders)
- Working in teams (encapsulation creates clear boundaries)
- Project will grow and evolve over time
- Need to maintain and extend codebase

Examples:

- Web applications (users, posts, comments)
- Games (players, enemies, items)
- E-commerce (products, carts, orders)
- Business software (employees, departments, projects)

When NOT to Use OOP

✗ Avoid OOP for:

- Simple scripts under 100 lines
- Data analysis pipelines (functional programming better)
- Quick prototypes or throwaway code
- Performance-critical code (OOP has overhead)
- Scripts with minimal state management

Examples:

- Data processing scripts
- Command-line utilities
- Simple automation tasks
- Configuration scripts

Functional Programming vs OOP

Functional Style

Focus: Pure functions, immutability

```
# Immutable data transformations
numbers = [1, 2, 3, 4, 5]

doubled = map(lambda x: x * 2, numbers)
filtered = filter(lambda x: x > 5, doubled)

result = list(filtered)
```

Best for:

- Data transformations
- Mathematical operations
- Pipelines

OOP Style

Focus: Stateful objects

```
# Object maintains state
class NumberProcessor:
    def __init__(self, numbers):
        self.numbers = numbers

    def double(self):
        self.numbers = [x * 2 for x in self.numbers]

    def filter_above(self, threshold):
        self.numbers = [x for x in self.numbers if x > threshold]
```

Best for:

- Complex state management
- Entity modeling

Key Takeaways

Essential Concepts:

1. **Classes** are blueprints, **objects** are instances with actual data
2. **Encapsulation**: Bundle data with methods, hide internal details
3. **Inheritance**: Reuse code through parent-child relationships
4. **Polymorphism**: Same interface, different implementations
5. **Abstraction**: Hide complexity, show only essentials
6. OOP mirrors real-world thinking, making complex systems easier to manage

Remember: OOP is a tool, not a requirement. Use it when it makes sense!

The Four Principles Summary

Principle	Purpose	Key Concept
Encapsulation	Protect data	Hide internal state, provide public methods
Inheritance	Reuse code	Child classes extend parent classes
Polymorphism	Flexibility	Same method, different behaviors
Abstraction	Simplify	Hide complexity, show only essentials

All work together to create maintainable, reusable, organized code!

Best Practices Summary

DO:

- ✓ Use descriptive class and method names
- ✓ Keep classes focused (Single Responsibility)
- ✓ Prefer composition over inheritance
- ✓ Use encapsulation to protect data
- ✓ Write docstrings for classes and methods
- ✓ Keep inheritance hierarchies shallow (2-3 levels)

DON'T:

- ✗ Create God Objects that do everything
- ✗ Forget `self` parameter
- ✗ Make everything public
- ✗ Use inheritance for "has-a" relationships
- ✗ Create deep inheritance hierarchies
- ✗ Use OOP when simpler approaches work



Practice Quiz #1

Classes and Objects Question:

What is the difference between a class and an object?

- A) They are the same thing
- B) A class is a blueprint, an object is an instance created from that blueprint
- C) An object is a blueprint, a class is an instance
- D) Classes are for functions, objects are for data

Think before next slide...

Quiz #1: Answer

Answer: B) A class is a blueprint, an object is an instance created from that blueprint

Explanation:

Class = Blueprint/Template:

- Defines structure and behavior
- Written once in your code
- Example: `class Dog:`

Object = Instance:

- Specific thing created from class
- Has actual data
- Example: `my_dog = Dog("Buddy", 3)`

Analogy:

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- Cookie cutter (class) vs actual cookies (objects)



Practice Quiz #2

Encapsulation Question:

Which OOP principle hides internal data and provides public methods to access it?

- A) Inheritance
- B) Polymorphism
- C) Encapsulation
- D) Abstraction

Think before next slide...

Quiz #2: Answer

Answer: C) Encapsulation

Explanation:

Encapsulation:

- Bundles data with methods
- Hides internal implementation
- Controls access through public interface
- Protects data integrity

Example:

```
class BankAccount:
    def __init__(self, balance):
        self.__balance = balance    # PRIVATE (hidden)

    def get_balance(self):           # PUBLIC (interface)
        return self.__balance

    def deposit(self, amount):      # PUBLIC (interface)
```



Practice Quiz #3

Inheritance Question:

If a `Cat` class inherits from an `Animal` class, what do we call `Animal` ?

- A) Child class
- B) Parent class (superclass/base class)
- C) Sibling class
- D) Polymorphic class

Think before next slide...

Quiz #3: Answer

Answer: B) Parent class (superclass/base class)

Explanation:

Inheritance Terminology:

```
class Animal:           # PARENT (superclass/base class)
    pass

class Cat(Animal):       # CHILD (subclass/derived class)
    pass
```

Relationships:

- `Animal` = Parent/Superclass/Base class
- `Cat` = Child/Subclass/Derived class
- `Cat` **inherits from** `Animal`
- `Cat` **is a** `Animal`



Practice Quiz #4

Polymorphism Question:

What does polymorphism allow you to do?

- A) Create private attributes
- B) Different classes to implement the same method in their own way
- C) Inherit from multiple parent classes
- D) Hide implementation details

Think before next slide...

Quiz #4: Answer

Answer: B) Different classes to implement the same method in their own way

Explanation:

Polymorphism = "Many forms"

```
class Dog:
    def speak(self):
        return "Woof!"

class Cat:
    def speak(self):
        return "Meow!"

def make_sound(animal):
    print(animal.speak()) # Same method call

make_sound(Dog()) # Output: Woof!
make_sound(Cat()) # Output: Meow!
```

Key concept:

- Same method name (speak)

- Different implementations



Practice Quiz #5

Abstraction Question:

What is the purpose of abstraction in OOP?

- A) To make all attributes private
- B) To create multiple child classes
- C) To hide complex implementation details and show only essentials
- D) To allow multiple inheritance

Think before next slide...

Quiz #5: Answer

Answer: C) To hide complex implementation details and show only essentials

Explanation:

Abstraction simplifies complexity:

```
from abc import ABC, abstractmethod

class Shape(ABC):
    @abstractmethod
    def area(self):
        pass # WHAT to do (interface)

class Circle(Shape):
    def area(self):
        return 3.14 * self.radius ** 2 # HOW to do it (implementation)
```

Key benefits:

- Users interact with simple interface
- Don't need to know calculation details
- Complexity hidden



Practice Quiz #6

Avoiding Pitfalls Question:

Which is an example of the "God Object" anti-pattern?

- A) A class with 50 methods handling database, email, payments, and reporting
- B) A class with 3 methods focused on user data
- C) A parent class with common functionality
- D) A class with private attributes

Think before next slide...

Quiz #6: Answer

Answer: A) A class with 50 methods handling database, email, payments, and reporting

Explanation:

God Object Anti-Pattern:

- One class does too much
- Handles multiple unrelated responsibilities
- Hard to maintain and test
- Violates Single Responsibility Principle

```
# ❌ God Object
class User:
    def save_to_db(self): pass
    def send_email(self): pass
    def process_payment(self): pass
    def generate_report(self): pass
    # Too many responsibilities!
```

```
# ✅ Better: Separate classes
class User: pass
class UserRepository: pass
```

Resources for Continued Learning

Essential Books:

- **"Python Object-Oriented Programming"** by Dusty Phillips
- **"Clean Code"** by Robert Martin
- **"Design Patterns"** by Gang of Four
- **"Head First Object-Oriented Analysis and Design"**

Online Resources:

- Real Python OOP Guide: realpython.com/python3-object-oriented-programming
- Python Official Docs: docs.python.org/3/tutorial/classes.html
- W3Schools Python Classes: w3schools.com/python/python_classes.asp

Practice:

- Build a simple project (To-Do app, game character system)

lotfine Refactor procedural code to OOP

Action Items

This Week:

1. Write a `Person` class with attributes and methods
2. Create a child class that inherits from `Person`
3. Implement encapsulation with private attributes
4. Practice using `self` correctly

This Month:

- Build a small project using OOP (library system, game, store)
- Implement all four principles together
- Refactor existing code to use classes
- Share your OOP code for review

Practice:

- Code along with OOP tutorials

Quick Reference Guide

```
# Class definition
class ClassName:
    def __init__(self, param):      # Constructor
        self.attribute = param    # Public attribute
        self.__private = value    # Private attribute

    def method(self):              # Instance method
        return self.attribute

# Inheritance
class ChildClass(ParentClass):
    def __init__(self, param):
        super().__init__(param)   # Call parent constructor

    def method(self):              # Override parent method
        return "New behavior"

# Abstract class
from abc import ABC, abstractmethod
class AbstractClass(ABC):
    @abstractmethod
    def required_method(self):
        pass
```

Final Thoughts

OOP is a powerful tool for organizing code:

- ✓ Makes code more modular and reusable
- ✓ Mirrors real-world entities
- ✓ Scales well for large applications
- ✓ Improves collaboration in teams

Remember:

- Start simple, add complexity gradually
- Not every problem needs OOP
- Practice the four principles together
- Focus on writing clear, maintainable code
- Use meaningful names for classes and methods

"Simple is better than complex. Complex is better than complicated." - The Zen of Python

Thank You!

Questions?

Key Message:

Object-Oriented Programming organizes code around objects that bundle data with behaviors. Master the four principles—encapsulation, inheritance, polymorphism, and abstraction—to write better, more maintainable code.

Start practicing with small projects and gradually build complexity!

Lesson Complete

You Are Now Equipped To:

- ✓ Explain what OOP is and why it matters
- ✓ Define classes and create objects from them
- ✓ Use encapsulation to protect data
- ✓ Leverage inheritance for code reuse
- ✓ Apply polymorphism for flexibility
- ✓ Implement abstraction to simplify complexity
- ✓ Avoid common beginner mistakes
- ✓ Choose when OOP is appropriate

Now go build amazing object-oriented software!

Keep coding, keep learning, keep creating!

