

# Object-Oriented Programming for Python with Turtle and Pygame

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## Prologue

This guide offers a concise overview of object-oriented programming (OOP) in Python. It also introduces Pygame, a library used to create graphics games in Python. Before delving into the topics covered in this guide, it's highly recommended to master the concepts covered in the Intro to Python guide.

Use a Python interpreter like [programiz.com](https://programiz.com) to test the presented code blocks. Note that Pygame requires Python 3, particularly Python 3.6 and above. Environments running Python 2, such as the free version of Trinket, will not work.

NOTE: This compact guide is not a textbook, not comprehensive, and may not cover all the details in the topics presented. If you have any questions about any topic in this guide, feel free to search the internet or ask a coach.

## 1 Object-Oriented Programming (OOP)

### 1.1 Before we Begin...

Imagine you're creating a fun animal simulator game! In this game, you can have different pets like dogs, cats, and birds.

Each animal has its own special traits:

- Some animals are fast, others are slow
- Some animals make loud sounds, others are quiet
- Some animals like to play, others prefer to sleep
- Each animal has a favorite food

Instead of writing separate code for every single animal, OOP helps us organize our code by grouping similar animals together. This makes our code much easier to understand and work with!

## 1.2 What is OOP?

**Object-oriented programming**, or **OOP** for short, is a widely used programming paradigm that organizes code using objects. Just as we perceive the characteristics and behaviors of people, objects, or surroundings in reality, OOP mimics these perspectives to make code more understandable to both developers and others.

Since it's likely that understanding OOP will be challenging at this point, let's proceed to the next section.

## 2 Classes

To start using OOP, developers dive into **classes**. A class is a “blueprint” that is used to create objects.

Recall functions from the Intro to Python guide. To utilize a function, we first *define* it with a header that consists of a name and arguments, a body of algorithm, and a series of return-statements. Then, we call the function to actually use it.

Now, the procedure of definition and utilization is seen at a much larger scope, where a class falls under the definition step.

A class, like functions, starts with a header:

```
class <ClassName>:
```

where <ClassName> is the name of the class. Unlike names of variables or functions, by common practice, we capitalize each word in the name and do *not* use “\_” to represent the space.

In general, a class consists of *class variables*, *instance variables*, an `__init__()` method, and *instance methods*.

### 2.1 Class and Instance Variables

Remember our animal simulator from the previous section. Each pet has different traits that can be organized into categories. For example, all pets have names, ages, and favorite foods. By organizing these traits, we can easily manage each pet in our program.

**Instance variables** are unique to each object created from a class. Since a class doesn't represent a single object, instance variables can also depend on the parameters provided when creating an object. For instance, an instance variable named `favorite_food` can be defined. Then, when creating objects for pets, each pet's actual favorite food can be initialized with a specific value.

**Class variables** are similar to instance variables, except that all objects created from the class share the same value. It is also known as static variables in other languages.

One way to distinguish between instance and class variables is to observe the presence of the `self` tag in front of the variable name, assuming that the variable is within the scope of a class. If the `self` syntax is included in a variable or function, it means that such will be unique to each object. Table 1 at page 6 summarizes the access tag to be used for each case.

A code example will be shown in the next section.

## 2.2 `__init__()` Method

An `__init__()` method, also known as the constructor, is a function that is run when an affiliated object is *initialized*. In general, `__init__()` methods take optional arguments for the object creation and assign them into the corresponding instance variables. For some cases, such arguments are taken in as a dependent for actions taken when creating an object. A class should have exactly one `__init__()` method.

The format to define an `__init__()` method is the following:

```
def __init__(self, <arguments>):
```

where `<arguments>` are replaced with the actual arguments.

The `self` argument, like the `self` tag for instance variables, implies unique execution of the `__init__()` method for each object creation. When taking object creation parameters, the first parameter matches the *second* argument of the `__init__()` method, ignoring the `self` argument.

Now, let's create a `Pet` class that will be used to create our virtual pets as objects.

```
1 class Pet:
2     # Like if-statements, while- or for-loops, the class header that ends with a
3     # ":" is followed with the body which are indented.
4
5     pet_count = 0
6
7     def __init__(self, name, age, animal_type, favorite_food):
8         self.name = name
9         self.age = age
10        self.animal_type = animal_type
11        self.favorite_food = favorite_food
12
13        print(f"{self.name} is a {self.age} year old {self.animal_type} who loves
14              {self.favorite_food}!")
15
16        Pet.pet_count += 1
17
18 # Since the code below is at the same indentation level as the class header, it is
19 # now outside the scope of the class.
20 buddy = Pet("Buddy", 3, "dog", "chicken")
21 print(f"Total pets: {Pet.pet_count}")
22 print(f"Pet name: {buddy.name}, Age: {buddy.age} years old")
```

```
Buddy is a 3 year old dog who loves chicken!  
Total pets: 1  
Pet name: Buddy, Age: 3 years old
```

Here, the `Pet` class is created, and the `__init__()` method does the following:

1. It accepts `name`, `age`, `animal_type`, and `favorite_food` as parameters and sets each into instance variables.
2. Next, a print statement prints what kind of new pet is created.
3. Outside `__init__()` method, a class variable `pet_count` is initialized to 0, and the `__init__()` method updates the `pet_count` for each creation of `Pet` object.

To avoid misrepresentations, class variables are defined outside the scope of `__init__()` method, whereas instance variables are defined inside.

Creating an object of `Pet` class named `buddy` at line 17 executes the `__init__()` method. Then, lines 18 and 19 print the class and instance variables of `buddy`, respectively. Notice that, being outside the scope of the class, the class variables have the tag that is the name of the class, and instance variables have the tag of the object name.

When the British coder wrote a Python class, they named the constructor `def __innit__(self):` because it's always initializing, *innit*? 🙄

(Do not try this; it will not work like a constructor...)

## 2.3 Instance Methods

**Instance methods** are functions that are unique to each object created from a class, just like instance variables. In general, such uniqueness depend on the instance variables of the same object.

In our pet simulator example, while instance variables represent the characteristics of each pet, instance methods will represent the behaviors of each pet.

The function header of an instance method is defined as following:

```
def <fn_name>(self, <arguments>...):
```

where `<fn_name>` represents the function name, and `<arguments>` denotes the sequence of arguments. Like instance variables and the `__init__()` method, the `self` tag indicates that these methods are exclusive to each object and is disregarded when comparing parameters from function calls.

Let's look at an example of instance method. Assume that the same variables and the `__init__()` method from last example were used.

| Scope                                                                | Member Type       | Access Tag        | Example                    |
|----------------------------------------------------------------------|-------------------|-------------------|----------------------------|
| Inside class<br>(outside methods)                                    | Class variable    | Class name        | MyClass.var                |
|                                                                      | Instance variable | Invalid           | N/A                        |
|                                                                      | Instance method   | Invalid           | N/A                        |
| Inside instance method<br>(including <code>__init__()</code> method) | Class variable    | Class name        | MyClass.var                |
|                                                                      | Instance variable | <code>self</code> | <code>self.var</code>      |
|                                                                      | Instance method   | <code>self</code> | <code>self.method()</code> |
| Outside class                                                        | Class variable    | Class name        | MyClass.var                |
|                                                                      | Instance variable | Instance name     | <code>obj.var</code>       |
|                                                                      | Instance method   | Instance name     | <code>obj.method()</code>  |

Table 1: Access tags for class and instance variables and instance methods. Assume `MyClass` is the name of the class, and `obj` is the name of the object created from `MyClass`.

```

1 import random    # See Intro to Python guide
2
3 class Pet:
4     # Class and instance variables and __init__() method placed here
5
6     def play(self):
7         if self.age < 5:
8             print(f"{self.name} is playing happily!")
9         else:
10            print(f"{self.name} is taking a nap.")
11
12    def eat(self, food):
13        if food == self.favorite_food:
14            print(f"{self.name} loves eating {food}!")
15        else:
16            print(f"{self.name} doesn't really like {food}.")
17
18 buddy = Pet("Buddy", 3, "dog", "chicken")
19 buddy.play()
20 buddy.eat("chicken")
21 buddy.eat("broccoli")

```

```

Buddy is a 3 year old dog who loves chicken!
Buddy is playing happily!
Buddy loves eating chicken!
Buddy doesn't really like broccoli.

```

Here, we have two instance methods: `play` which doesn't take any arguments, and `eat` which takes a `food` argument. The `play` method checks the pet's age, while the `eat` method compares the given food with the pet's favorite food.

The access tags for instance methods are the same as instance variables. Table 1 at page 6 summarizes the access tag to be used for each case.

## 3 Objects

### 3.1 Object Creation (Instantiation)

Sections 2.2 and 2.3 briefly explored an example of object creation. The formal term for object creation is called **instantiation**. Instantiation means creating an *instance* of a class, which, in this context, refers to an object.

Like how we call a function using the parameters fed in the same order as corresponding arguments, instantiating an object requires the same order of parameters as the arguments required by the `__init__()` method of the class.

### 3.2 Classes as Data Types, Objects as Variables

From the Intro to Python guide, we learned about **primitive data types** that contain a single piece of data, such as integers, floats, and Boolean. We also learned **non-primitive data types**, such as strings, contain multiple pieces of data. They also include lists, dictionaries, and other kinds of data structures.

Both categories of data types are defined using classes, and the variables created with such types are objects. In other words, classes can be viewed as “custom data types”.

What does this mean? Classes can be cared like data types, and objects can be cared like variables. For example, lists in Python contain items consisting of data of a certain type, or a mix of data from different data types. This includes objects created from custom classes.

```
1 class Toy:
2     def __init__(self, name, color, size):
3         self.name = name
4         self.color = color
5         self.size = size
6         print(f"Created a {self.color} {self.name} that is {self.size} size!")
7
8     def play_with(self):
9         print(f"Playing with the {self.color} {self.name}!")
10
11 # Create toy objects
12 teddy = Toy("teddy bear", "brown", "large")
13 ball = Toy("ball", "red", "small")
14 robot = Toy("robot", "blue", "medium")
15
16 # Put toys in a list and play with each one
17 toy_box = [teddy, ball, robot]
18 for toy in toy_box:
19     toy.play_with()
```

```
Created a brown teddy bear that is large size!
Created a red ball that is small size!
Created a blue robot that is medium size!
Playing with the brown teddy bear!
Playing with the red ball!
```

Understanding classes as data types and objects as variables will significantly enhance your comprehension of OOP.

## 4 Principles of OOP

There are four principles revolving OOP. The majority of these principles further allows us avoid repeating writing similar codes. In Python, only inheritance and polymorphism are used frequently throughout the development; however, it is good idea to have understandings in abstraction and encapsulation as well.

### 4.1 Inheritance

**Inheritance** allows a class to inherit properties and methods from another class. The class that inherits is called the child class or derived class, and the class being inherited from is called the parent class or base class.

In Python, inheritance is defined by putting the parent class name in parentheses after the child class name. The `super()` function is used to call methods from the parent class.

```
1  # Base class
2  class Vehicle:
3      def __init__(self, name, speed):
4          self.name = name
5          self.speed = speed
6          print(f"Created a {self.name} that goes {self.speed} mph!")
7
8      def move(self):
9          print(f"The {self.name} is moving at {self.speed} mph!")
10
11 # Child classes
12 class Car(Vehicle):
13     def __init__(self, name, speed, doors):
14         super().__init__(name, speed)
15         self.doors = doors
16         print(f"This car has {self.doors} doors.")
17
18     def honk(self):
19         print(f"The {self.name} goes BEEP BEEP!")
20
21 class Bicycle(Vehicle):
22     def __init__(self, name, speed, has_bell):
23         super().__init__(name, speed)
24         self.has_bell = has_bell
25
26     def ring_bell(self):
27         if self.has_bell:
28             print(f"The {self.name} goes RING RING!")
29         else:
```



```

30         print(f"The {self.name} doesn't have a bell.")
31
32     # Create vehicle objects
33     my_car = Car("Red Car", 60, 4)
34     my_bike = Bicycle("Blue Bike", 15, True)
35
36     # Use inherited and new methods
37     my_car.move()    # From Vehicle class
38     my_car.honk()    # Car's own method
39
40     my_bike.move()    # From Vehicle class
41     my_bike.ring_bell() # Bicycle's own method

```

```

Created a Red Car that goes 60 mph!
This car has 4 doors.
Created a Blue Bike that goes 15 mph!
The Red Car is moving at 60 mph!
The Red Car goes BEEP BEEP!
The Blue Bike is moving at 15 mph!
The Blue Bike goes RING RING!

```

## 4.2 Polymorphism

**Polymorphism** means “many forms”. It allows objects of different classes to be treated as objects of a common base class. In Python, polymorphism is achieved when different classes have methods with the same name but different implementations.

```

1 class Dog:
2     def make_sound(self):
3         return "Woof!"
4
5 class Cat:
6     def make_sound(self):
7         return "Meow!"
8
9 class Duck:
10    def make_sound(self):
11        return "Quack!"
12
13    # Create different animals
14    animals = [Dog(), Cat(), Duck()]
15
16    # Same method name, different sounds
17    for animal in animals:
18        print(animal.make_sound())

```

```

Woof!
Meow!
Quack!

```

Here, each animal class has a `make_sound()` method, but each implements it differently. The same method name produces different behaviors based on the object type.

## 4.3 Abstraction

**Abstraction** hides complex implementation details and shows only the essential features. In Python, abstraction is achieved through abstract classes and methods using the `abc` module. However, for beginners, it's enough to understand that abstraction means hiding complexity and providing simple interfaces.

```
1 # Simple abstraction example - user doesn't need to know how microwave works
   inside
2 class Microwave:
3     def __init__(self):
4         self.power = 0
5         self.time = 0
6
7     def heat_food(self, food, minutes):
8         self._set_power(800)      # Hidden complexity
9         self._set_timer(minutes)  # Hidden complexity
10        self._start_heating()      # Hidden complexity
11        print(f"Your {food} is ready!")
12
13    def _set_power(self, watts):    # Private method (hidden)
14        self.power = watts
15        print(f"Power set to {watts} watts")
16
17    def _set_timer(self, minutes):  # Private method (hidden)
18        self.time = minutes
19        print(f"Timer set to {minutes} minutes")
20
21    def _start_heating(self):       # Private method (hidden)
22        print("Heating started...")
23
24 # User only needs to know this simple interface
25 microwave = Microwave()
26 microwave.heat_food("pizza", 2)
```

```
Power set to 800 watts
Timer set to 2 minutes
Heating started...
Your pizza is ready!
```

## 4.4 Encapsulation

**Encapsulation** bundles data and methods into a single unit (class) and restricts access to some components. In Python, encapsulation is achieved using private attributes and methods by prefixing them with underscore(s).

```
1 class PiggyBank:
2     def __init__(self):
3         self._coins = 0          # Protected attribute
4         self.__secret_code = 1234 # Private attribute
5
6     def add_coin(self):
7         self._coins += 1
```

```

8         print(f"Added a coin! Total coins: {self._coins}")
9
10    def get_coins(self):
11        return self._coins
12
13    def open_bank(self, code):
14        if code == self.__secret_code:
15            print(f"Bank opened! You have {self._coins} coins!")
16            return self._coins
17        else:
18            print("Wrong code! Bank stays locked!")
19            return 0
20
21    def __count_money(self): # Private method
22        return self._coins * 25 # Each coin worth 25 cents
23
24    bank = PiggyBank()
25    bank.add_coin()
26    bank.add_coin()
27    bank.add_coin()
28    print(f"Current coins: {bank.get_coins()}")
29    bank.open_bank(1234) # Correct code
30    bank.open_bank(9999) # Wrong code

```

```

Added a coin! Total coins: 1
Added a coin! Total coins: 2
Added a coin! Total coins: 3
Current coins: 3
Bank opened! You have 3 coins!
Wrong code! Bank stays locked!

```

## 5 import and Cross-File Programming

When Python programs become complex, organizing code across multiple files becomes essential. The `import` statement allows you to use code from other Python files and libraries.

### 5.1 import Methods

There are several ways to import modules in Python:

```

1 # Method 1: Import entire module
2 import math
3 print(math.sqrt(25)) # Output: 5.0
4 print(math.pi) # Output: 3.141592653589793
5
6 # Method 2: Import specific functions
7 from math import sqrt, pi
8 print(sqrt(25)) # Output: 5.0
9 print(pi) # Output: 3.141592653589793
10
11 # Method 3: Import with alias (nickname)

```

```

12 import random as r
13 print(r.randint(1, 10)) # Random number between 1 and 10
14
15 # Method 4: Import everything (not recommended)
16 from math import *
17 print(sqrt(25)) # Output: 5.0

```

```

5.0
3.141592653589793
5.0
3.141592653589793
7
5.0

```

To import your own Python files, simply use the filename without the `.py` extension:

```

1 # If you have a file called "my_games.py"
2 from my_games import GuessGame, DiceGame
3
4 # Or import the entire file
5 import my_games
6 game = my_games.GuessGame()

```

## 5.2 Libraries Continued

Python's strength lies in its vast ecosystem of libraries. Libraries are collections of pre-written code that solve common programming problems.

### 5.2.1 Documentations

Every good Python library comes with **documentation** that explains how to use its functions and classes. Reading documentation is a crucial skill for programmers.

Key places to find Python documentation:

- Official Python docs: <https://docs.python.org/>
- Library-specific websites (e.g., [pygame.org](https://www.pygame.org/))
- `help()` function in Python interpreter

```

1 import math
2 help(math.sqrt) # Shows documentation for sqrt function
3
4 # You can also get help on any function
5 help(print) # Shows how to use print function

```

## 5.2.2 sys and os

Two important built-in libraries for system operations:

**sys** - System-specific parameters and functions:

```
1 import sys
2
3 print("Python version:", sys.version)      # Python version info
4 print("Platform:", sys.platform)          # Your computer type
5 print("Path:", sys.path[0])                # Where Python looks for files
```

```
Python version: 3.9.7 (default, Sep 16 2021, 08:50:36)
Platform: darwin
Path: /Users/student/python_projects
```

**os** - Operating system interface:

```
1 import os
2
3 print("Current folder:", os.getcwd())      # Where you are now
4 print("Files here:", os.listdir("."))      # List files in current folder
5 print("Does 'test.txt' exist?", os.path.exists("test.txt")) # Check if file
6                                     exists
7
8 # Create a new folder (be careful!)
9 # os.mkdir("my_new_folder")
```

```
Current folder: /Users/student/python_projects
Files here: ['main.py', 'my_game.py', 'README.txt']
Does 'test.txt' exist? False
```

Here's a fun example using **random** for a simple guessing game:

```
1 import random
2
3 # Simple number guessing game
4 secret_number = random.randint(1, 10)
5 print("I'm thinking of a number between 1 and 10!")
6
7 guess = int(input("What's your guess? "))
8 if guess == secret_number:
9     print("You got it! Great job!")
10 else:
11     print(f"Sorry! The number was {secret_number}. Try again!")
```

```
I'm thinking of a number between 1 and 10!
What's your guess? 7
Sorry! The number was 3. Try again!
```

Now that you know how to import libraries and use different Python modules, you're ready to explore more exciting programming! The next sections will show you how to create visual programs that draw pictures and games on the screen.

## 6 Turtle Basics

**Turtle** is a fun Python library that lets you draw pictures and create graphics using simple commands. It's like having a digital pen that you can control with code! The turtle starts in the center of the screen and follows your commands to draw lines, shapes, and colorful patterns.

Turtle comes built-in with Python, so you don't need to install anything extra. It's perfect for learning programming because you can see your code come to life as drawings on the screen.

### 6.1 Basic Turtle Commands

Let's start with the most important turtle commands. Think of the turtle as a little robot that can move around and draw:

```
1 import turtle
2
3 # Create a turtle and a screen
4 my_turtle = turtle.Turtle()
5 screen = turtle.Screen()
6
7 # Basic movement commands
8 my_turtle.forward(100)    # Move forward 100 steps
9 my_turtle.right(90)       # Turn right 90 degrees
10 my_turtle.forward(50)    # Move forward 50 steps
11 my_turtle.left(45)        # Turn left 45 degrees
12 my_turtle.backward(75)   # Move backward 75 steps
13
14 # Keep the window open until clicked
15 screen.exitonclick()
```

This code creates a simple path that the turtle draws. When you run it, you'll see a window open with lines showing where the turtle moved!

### 6.2 Drawing Shapes

One of the most fun things about turtle is drawing shapes. Let's create some basic shapes:

```
1 import turtle
2
3 # Create turtle
4 artist = turtle.Turtle()
5 screen = turtle.Screen()
6
7 # Draw a square
8 for i in range(4):
9     artist.forward(100)
10    artist.right(90)
11
12 # Move to a new position without drawing
13 artist.penup()           # Lift the pen
14 artist.goto(150, 0)      # Move to position (150, 0)
```

```

15 artist.pendown()           # Put the pen down
16
17 # Draw a triangle
18 for i in range(3):
19     artist.forward(80)
20     artist.right(120)
21
22 screen.exitonclick()

```

Here we use loops to draw shapes efficiently. The square uses 4 sides with 90-degree turns, and the triangle uses 3 sides with 120-degree turns.

### 6.3 Colors and Pen Control

Let's make our drawings more colorful and interesting:

```

1 import turtle
2
3 # Create turtle
4 painter = turtle.Turtle()
5 screen = turtle.Screen()
6 screen.bgcolor("lightblue") # Set background color
7
8 # Set turtle properties
9 painter.color("red")         # Set pen color
10 painter.pensize(5)          # Make lines thicker
11 painter.speed(3)            # Set drawing speed (1-10)
12
13 # Draw a colorful flower
14 for i in range(6):
15     painter.circle(50)       # Draw a circle with radius 50
16     painter.right(60)        # Turn to create petal pattern
17
18 # Change color and draw the stem
19 painter.color("green")
20 painter.pensize(8)
21 painter.right(90)
22 painter.forward(150)
23
24 screen.exitonclick()

```

```

# This creates a beautiful flower drawing with:
# - Light blue background
# - Red flower petals (6 circles)
# - Green stem
# - Thick lines for better visibility

```

### 6.4 Turtle and Object-Oriented Programming

Here's where turtle connects to what we've learned about OOP! Each turtle is actually an object with its own properties and methods:

```

1 import turtle
2
3 class DrawingTurtle:
4     def __init__(self, name, color, size):
5         self.name = name
6         self.turtle = turtle.Turtle()
7         self.turtle.color(color)
8         self.turtle.pensize(size)
9         self.turtle.speed(5)
10        print(f"Created turtle named {self.name} with {color} color!")
11
12        def draw_square(self, side_length):
13            print(f"{self.name} is drawing a square!")
14            for i in range(4):
15                self.turtle.forward(side_length)
16                self.turtle.right(90)
17
18        def draw_circle(self, radius):
19            print(f"{self.name} is drawing a circle!")
20            self.turtle.circle(radius)
21
22        def move_to(self, x, y):
23            self.turtle.penup()
24            self.turtle.goto(x, y)
25            self.turtle.pendown()
26
27    # Create turtle objects
28    artist1 = DrawingTurtle("Pablo", "blue", 3)
29    artist2 = DrawingTurtle("Penny", "purple", 5)
30
31    # Set up screen
32    screen = turtle.Screen()
33    screen.setup(800, 600)
34
35    # Use our turtle objects
36    artist1.draw_square(80)
37    artist1.move_to(200, 100)
38    artist1.draw_circle(40)
39
40    artist2.move_to(-200, -100)
41    artist2.draw_square(60)
42
43    screen.exitonclick()

```

```

Created turtle named Pablo with blue color!
Created turtle named Penny with purple color!
Pablo is drawing a square!
Pablo is drawing a circle!
Penny is drawing a square!

```

## 6.5 Interactive Turtle Programs

We can make turtle respond to keyboard input, creating interactive drawings:



```

1 import turtle
2
3 class ControllableTurtle:
4     def __init__(self):
5         self.turtle = turtle.Turtle()
6         self.turtle.color("orange")
7         self.turtle.pensize(3)
8         self.turtle.speed(6)
9
10        # Set up the screen
11        self.screen = turtle.Screen()
12        self.screen.setup(600, 600)
13        self.screen.title("Control the Turtle with Arrow Keys!")
14
15        # Bind keys to methods
16        self.screen.onkey(self.move_up, "Up")
17        self.screen.onkey(self.move_down, "Down")
18        self.screen.onkey(self.move_left, "Left")
19        self.screen.onkey(self.move_right, "Right")
20        self.screen.onkey(self.change_color, "space")
21
22        # Listen for key presses
23        self.screen.listen()
24
25        self.colors = ["red", "blue", "green", "purple", "orange", "yellow"]
26        self.color_index = 0
27
28        def move_up(self):
29            self.turtle.setheading(90)    # Point up
30            self.turtle.forward(20)
31
32        def move_down(self):
33            self.turtle.setheading(270)   # Point down
34            self.turtle.forward(20)
35
36        def move_left(self):
37            self.turtle.setheading(180)   # Point left
38            self.turtle.forward(20)
39
40        def move_right(self):
41            self.turtle.setheading(0)     # Point right
42            self.turtle.forward(20)
43
44        def change_color(self):
45            self.color_index = (self.color_index + 1) % len(self.colors)
46            self.turtle.color(self.colors[self.color_index])
47            print(f"Color changed to {self.colors[self.color_index]}!")
48
49        # Create and use the controllable turtle
50        my_turtle = ControllableTurtle()
51        print("Use arrow keys to move, spacebar to change colors!")
52        my_turtle.screen.exitonclick()

```

```

Use arrow keys to move, spacebar to change colors!
Color changed to blue!
Color changed to green!
# (Output appears as you press keys)

```

## 6.6 Creating Art with Turtle

Let's combine everything we've learned to create a beautiful spiral pattern:

```
1 import turtle
2 import random
3
4 class SpiralArtist:
5     def __init__(self):
6         self.turtle = turtle.Turtle()
7         self.screen = turtle.Screen()
8         self.screen.bgcolor("black")
9         self.screen.setup(800, 800)
10        self.turtle.speed(0)  # Fastest speed
11
12        self.colors = ["red", "orange", "yellow", "green", "blue", "purple", "pink",
13                       "cyan"]
14
15    def draw_colorful_spiral(self):
16        for i in range(200):
17            # Pick a random color
18            color = random.choice(self.colors)
19            self.turtle.color(color)
20
21            # Draw and turn
22            self.turtle.forward(i * 2)
23            self.turtle.right(91)  # Slightly more than 90 degrees creates spiral
24
25    def draw_rainbow_flower(self, petals=12):
26        for i in range(petals):
27            # Use different colors for each petal
28            color = self.colors[i % len(self.colors)]
29            self.turtle.color(color)
30
31            # Draw petal
32            self.turtle.circle(100)
33            self.turtle.right(360 / petals)
34
35    # Create spiral art
36    artist = SpiralArtist()
37    print("Creating colorful spiral art...")
38    artist.draw_colorful_spiral()
39
40    # Reset position for flower
41    artist.turtle.home()
42    artist.turtle.clear()
43
44    print("Creating rainbow flower...")
45    artist.draw_rainbow_flower()
46
47    artist.screen.exitonclick()
```

```
Creating colorful spiral art...
Creating rainbow flower...
```

Turtle graphics provide an excellent bridge between basic programming concepts and visual creativity. You can see your code come to life as colorful drawings, making it perfect for understanding

how programming instructions translate into visual results.

The turtle library demonstrates many OOP concepts we've learned:

- Each turtle is an **object** with its own state (position, color, direction)
- Turtle methods like `forward()`, `color()`, and `circle()` are **instance methods**
- We can create custom turtle classes that **inherit** from or use turtle objects
- Different turtle objects can have different behaviors (**polymorphism**)

This foundation in turtle graphics prepares you perfectly for the more advanced game development concepts we'll explore with Pygame!

## 7 Pygame Basics

Now that you've learned how to create drawings with Turtle graphics, you're ready for the next level: game development! **Pygame** is a Python library for creating games and multimedia applications. It provides tools for graphics, sound, and game logic. While Turtle is great for simple drawings, Pygame lets you create interactive games with moving objects, sound effects, and complex animations.

Pygame uses object-oriented programming extensively, making it perfect for applying all the OOP concepts you've learned in this guide.

Before using Pygame, install it with: `pip install pygame`

### 7.1 Sprites

A **sprite** in Pygame is a 2D image or animation that can be moved around the screen. In Pygame, sprites are implemented as classes that inherit from `pygame.sprite.Sprite`.

```
1 import pygame
2
3 class Spaceship(pygame.sprite.Sprite):
4     def __init__(self):
5         super().__init__()
6         # Create a simple colored rectangle for our spaceship
7         self.image = pygame.Surface((40, 30))
8         self.image.fill((0, 255, 0)) # Green spaceship
9
10        # Get rectangle for positioning
11        self.rect = self.image.get_rect()
12        self.rect.center = (400, 500) # Start at bottom center
13
14    def update(self):
15        # Move the spaceship with arrow keys
16        keys = pygame.key.get_pressed()
```

```

17         if keys[pygame.K_LEFT]:
18             self.rect.x -= 5
19         if keys[pygame.K_RIGHT]:
20             self.rect.x += 5
21         if keys[pygame.K_UP]:
22             self.rect.y -= 5
23         if keys[pygame.K_DOWN]:
24             self.rect.y += 5
25
26         # Keep spaceship on screen
27         if self.rect.left < 0:
28             self.rect.left = 0
29         if self.rect.right > 800:
30             self.rect.right = 800

```

### 7.1.1 Sprite.rect

The `rect` attribute is crucial for sprite positioning and collision detection. It's a `pygame.Rect` object that represents the sprite's position and size.

```

1  # Common rect properties for positioning
2  spaceship.rect.x = 100          # Left edge position
3  spaceship.rect.y = 50          # Top edge position
4  spaceship.rect.center = (400, 300) # Center position
5  spaceship.rect.bottom = 600     # Bottom edge position
6  spaceship.rect.right = 800      # Right edge position
7
8  # Size properties
9  spaceship.rect.width = 40       # Width in pixels
10 spaceship.rect.height = 30      # Height in pixels

```

### 7.1.2 Sprite Groups

**Sprite groups** are containers that hold multiple sprites. They make it easy to update and draw many sprites at once.

```

1  # Create sprite groups
2  all_sprites = pygame.sprite.Group()
3  asteroids = pygame.sprite.Group()
4
5  # Add sprites to groups
6  spaceship = Spaceship()
7  asteroid1 = Asteroid()
8  asteroid2 = Asteroid()
9
10 all_sprites.add(spaceship, asteroid1, asteroid2)
11 asteroids.add(asteroid1, asteroid2)
12
13 # Update all sprites in groups
14 all_sprites.update()
15
16 # Draw all sprites in groups
17 all_sprites.draw(screen)

```

## 7.2 Running Loops

Every Pygame game needs a **game loop** that continuously updates the game state and redraws the screen.

```
1 import pygame
2
3 # Initialize Pygame
4 pygame.init()
5
6 # Set up the display
7 screen = pygame.display.set_mode((800, 600))
8 pygame.display.set_caption("Space Adventure!")
9 clock = pygame.time.Clock()
10
11 # Create sprite groups
12 all_sprites = pygame.sprite.Group()
13 spaceship = Spaceship()
14 all_sprites.add(spaceship)
15
16 # Game loop
17 running = True
18 while running:
19     # Handle events (like closing the window)
20     for event in pygame.event.get():
21         if event.type == pygame.QUIT:
22             running = False
23
24     # Update all sprites
25     all_sprites.update()
26
27     # Draw everything
28     screen.fill((0, 0, 50)) # Dark blue space background
29     all_sprites.draw(screen)
30
31     # Update the display
32     pygame.display.flip()
33     clock.tick(60) # 60 frames per second
34
35 pygame.quit()
```

## 7.3 Draw and Blit

**Drawing** and **blitting** are fundamental Pygame operations for displaying graphics.

**Drawing** creates shapes directly on surfaces:

```
1 # Draw space objects on screen
2 pygame.draw.circle(screen, (255, 255, 0), (100, 100), 30) # Yellow sun
3 pygame.draw.rect(screen, (255, 0, 0), (200, 200, 40, 60)) # Red asteroid
4 pygame.draw.line(screen, (255, 255, 255), (0, 0), (800, 600), 2) # White laser
```

**Blitting** copies one surface onto another:

```

1  # Load space images
2  spaceship_image = pygame.image.load("spaceship.png")
3  star_image = pygame.image.load("star.png")
4
5  # Blit (copy) images to screen
6  screen.blit(spaceship_image, (400, 500)) # Spaceship at bottom center
7  screen.blit(star_image, (50, 50)) # Star in top left
8
9  # You can also blit part of an image (useful for animation)
10 screen.blit(spaceship_image, (400, 500), (0, 0, 32, 32)) # Only 32x32 part

```

Here's a simple complete space game example:

```

1  import pygame
2  import random
3
4  class Star(pygame.sprite.Sprite):
5      def __init__(self):
6          super().__init__()
7          self.image = pygame.Surface((3, 3))
8          self.image.fill((255, 255, 255)) # White star
9          self.rect = self.image.get_rect()
10         self.rect.x = random.randint(0, 800)
11         self.rect.y = random.randint(0, 600)
12
13 # Create stars for background
14 stars = pygame.sprite.Group()
15 for i in range(50):
16     star = Star()
17     stars.add(star)
18
19 # In your game loop:
20 # stars.draw(screen) # Draw twinkling stars

```

Pygame combines OOP principles with game development, allowing you to create engaging space adventures and other interactive applications using the concepts learned in this guide.

## Epilogue

Remember that this guide covers only the fundamental topics of OOP, Turtle graphics, and Pygame. For questions not covered by this guide, please search the internet or documentation.