

Symbolische Programmiersprache - Lecture 2

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Symbolische Programmiersprache
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- 1 Python fundamentals - Part II
- 2 Introduction: Imperative/Procedural vs. Object-oriented Programming
 - Python scope
- 3 Object-oriented Programming
 - Objects, messages, classes/polymorphism, inheritance, composition
- 4 Details and Application in Python
 - UML Class-Diagrams
 - Constructor
 - Methods
 - Class Design
 - Class Inheritance
- 5 More Python fundamentals - part III

- Mutable versus immutable data types
- Lists

Mutable vs. immutable types

mutable = veränderbar; immutable = unveränderbar

Mutable	Immutable
list	integer, float, string, boolean, ...
can change (elements can be added, deleted, modified)	never change; always new references are created

What does it mean to be immutable for a string? Example:

```
x = 'a'
```

```
x = 'b'
```

Mutable vs. immutable types

mutable = veränderbar; immutable = unveränderbar

Mutable	Immutable
list	integer, float, string, boolean, ...
can change (elements can be added, deleted, modified)	never change; always new references are created

What does it mean to be immutable for a string? Example:

```
x = 'a'
```

```
x = 'b'
```

```
# the variable x holding string 'a'  
# is not changed, a new object with  
# the string value 'b' is created!
```

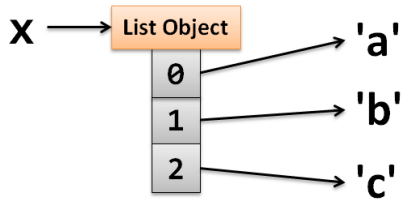
x → 'a'

x → 'a'
x → 'b'

Lists

```
x = ['a', 'b', 'c']
```

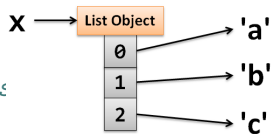
```
x = ['a', 'b', 'c']
```



- Example to modify the list object: **append()**

Mutable vs. immutable types

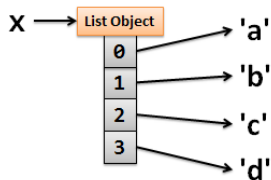
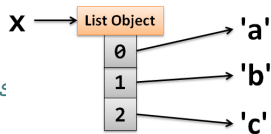
```
>>> x = ['a', 'b', 'c']  
>>> x.append('d') # What happens
```



Mutable vs. immutable types

```
>>> x = ['a', 'b', 'c']  
>>> x.append('d') # What happens
```

```
>>> print(x)  
['a', 'b', 'c', 'd']
```

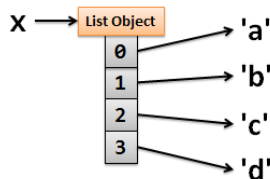


*# x references the same
list object x (list=mutable), which is now modified*

Mutable vs. immutable types

Mutable	Immutable
list	integer, float, string, boolean, ...

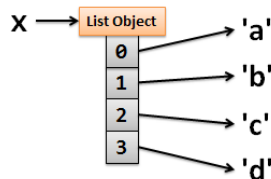
```
x = ['a', 'b', 'c']  
x.append('d')  
x[2] = 'e' # What happens now?
```



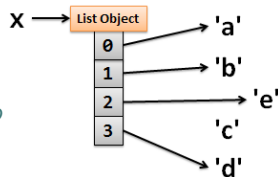
Mutable vs. immutable types

Mutable	Immutable
list	integer, float, string, boolean, ...

```
x = ['a', 'b', 'c']  
x.append('d')  
x[2] = 'e' # What happens now?
```



*# x references a list object
which is modified
The string object 'c'
is not modified,
'e' is a new string object referenced to*



Object-Oriented Programming (OOP)

Object Oriented Programming is a way of computer programming which uses the idea of “**objects**” to represents data and methods. It creates reusable code instead of redundant one.

Overview: Procedural/Imperative vs OOP

Procedural

Program divided using functions

Does not make use of access modifiers

Does not support polymorphism

Does not support inheritance

Object Oriented

Program divided using objects

Encapsulation: Allows access modifiers (private, public, etc)

Supports polymorphism

Supports inheritance

Imperative/Procedural Programming

Imperative Paradigm

First do this, then do that.

- Latin *imperare* for *to command, to order* \Rightarrow command as a central construction
- **Control Structures** define the order in which the programming steps are executed
- **Data Structures** define how the data is organized
- **Functions and Processes** define the structure \Rightarrow procedural programming
- State of the program changes as a function of time

Examples of Procedural Programming Languages

Pascal, Fortran, Algol, C, Lisp

Advantages

Easy to understand and follow due to step-wise execution of commands

Disadvantages

- sequential execution: no easy implementation of shared execution on multiple processors
- side-effects: methods can change the state of the program unexpectedly

Note: for small tasks (e.g. pre-processing scripts) a procedural programming style can be preferred over OOP (e.g. a Python script)

Python scope

Python Scope of a Variable

- Before we move to OOP, an important note on scope in Python
- A variable is only available from inside the region it is created. This is called scope.
- Python distinguishes different levels of scope. The most basic one is:
 - ▶ **Local Scope:** a variable created inside a function belongs to the local scope of that function, and can only be used inside that function.
- See https://www.w3schools.com/python/python_scope.asp and <https://www.datacamp.com/tutorial/scope-of-variables-python>

Local scope

```
1 def myfunc():  
2     # local scope  
3     x = 300  
4     print(x)  
5  
6 myfunc()
```

- Whenever you define a variable within a function, its scope lies only within the function. It is accessible from the moment it is defined until the end of the function.
- Calling `myfunc()` on line 6 gives: results in printing 300

Local scope

```
1  def myfunc():  
2      # local scope  
3      x = 300  
4      print(x)  
5  
6  myfunc()  
7      # print function 2  
8  print("The result is: ", x)
```

- First prints 300

Local scope

```
1  def myfunc():  
2      # local scope  
3      x = 300  
4      print(x)  
5  
6  myfunc()  
7      # print function 2  
8  print("The result is: ", x)
```

- First prints 300
- Then we get an error `NameError: name 'x' is not defined` because 'x' is only defined in the local (inner) scope

Enclosing scope

```
1  def myfunc():  
2      # outer scope  
3      x = 300  
4      def myinnerfunc():  
5          # inner scope  
6          print(x)  
7          y = 100  
8      myinnerfunc()  
9      print(y)  
10  
11 myfunc()
```

- Enclosing scope: Outer's variables have a larger scope and can be accessed from the enclosed function `myinnerfunc()`.
- However, `y` is not defined outside of the inner/local scope. Therefore, the function prints 300, but then raises an `Error NameError: name 'y' is not defined`

Global scope

A variable created in the main body of the Python code is a global variable and belongs to the global scope.

Global variables are available from within any scope, global and local.

```
1 x = 300
2
3 def myfunc():
4     print(x)
5
6 myfunc()
7
8 print(x)
```

- Prints 300 and
- 300

Summary: Python scope

Global scope

```
my_var = 100
```

Enclosing scope

```
def my_func():  
    # outer scope
```

Local (searched first)

```
def inner():  
    # inner scope
```



```
1  x = 300
2
3  def myfunc():
4      x = 200
5      print(x)
6
7  myfunc()
8
9  print(x)
```

- prints ??



```
1  x = 300
2
3  def myfunc():
4      global x
5      x = 200
6      print(x)
7
8  myfunc()
9
10 print(x)
```

• ???

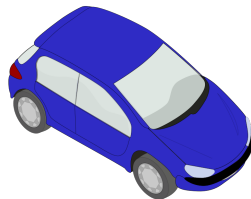
Object-oriented Programming

Objects

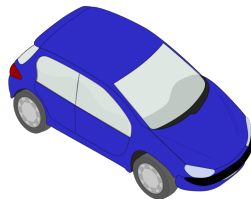
What is an object?



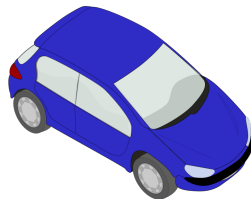
What is an object?



What is an object?



What is an object?



Object Properties I

Objects have properties/characteristics or a **state**:



- color: green
- number of doors: 1
- number of windows: 1
- flat roof: no

Object Properties II

Objects have properties/characteristics or a **state**:



- color: green
- number of doors: 1
- number of windows: 1
- flat roof: no

- changeable properties, e.g., color, current speed, time, battery stand, etc.
- (almost) unchangeable properties, e.g., number of tires, model number, number of needles, monitor size, etc.

Messages to Objects I

Set the time for 6pm!



Messages to Objects I

Set the time for 6pm!



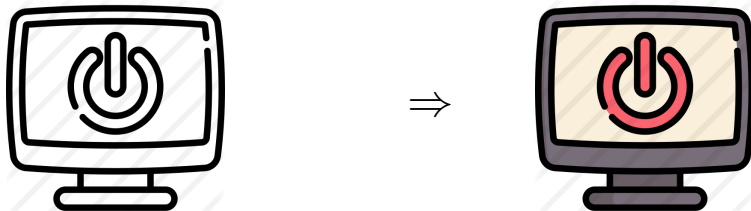
Messages to Objects II

Switch on!



Messages to Objects II

Switch on!



- different actions from different messages:
 - ▶ simple setting of a property, e.g., time, color, etc.
 - ▶ checking of a value and changing a property accordingly, e.g., speed, max. speed, etc.
- messages through **method** calling

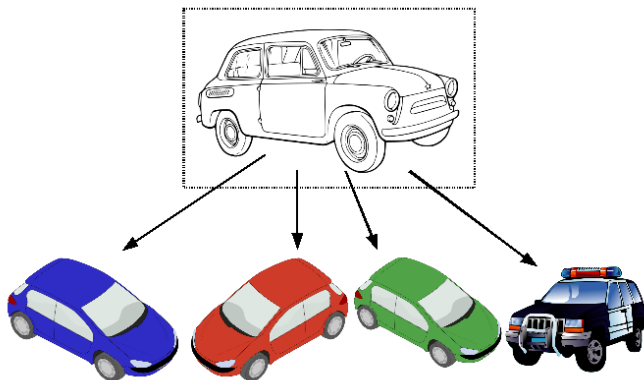
Messages to Objects

- methods/messages can be parameterized, e.g.,
 - ▶ new color
 - ▶ new time
 - ▶ new speed
- or unparameterized, e.g.,
 - ▶ Switch on!
 - ▶ Light on!
- method can output results, the so-called return values, e.g.,
 - ▶ new speed after accelerating
 - ▶ did the switching-on work
 - ▶ battery stand

- **Classes** describe concepts (objects)
- **methods** are parts of classes
- **instance(s)** a concrete realization of an object (polymorphism)
- Example: a class Dog (describes properties of the concept dog); instances are concrete instantiations of objects: dogA, dogB,...

Classes

Classes = Construction Plans (Polymorphism)

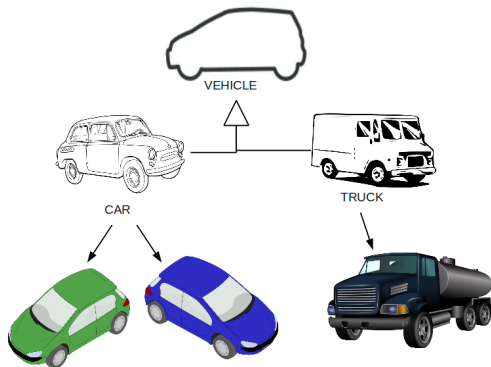


- **Classes:** construction plans for objects or types of objects, e.g., there is the class *car* containing different objects with different properties (polymorphism allows an concept to take on multiple forms)
- objects of a class have the same basic structure (e.g., all cars have four tires), but can also differ in some aspects, e.g., the color, the size, etc.

Classes = Construction Plans

- we can create instances of a class \Rightarrow objects = instances of a class
- classes define *attributes* (properties) or *instance variables*:
 - ▶ color - has to be set
 - ▶ speed - has to be set
 - ▶ battery stand - has a default value
- objects fill the instance variables with specific values \Rightarrow state
 - ▶ time = 10:10 or time = 6:15
 - ▶ color = green or color = blue or color = red
 - ▶ floors = 1 or floors = 10
- classes define methods, which can change the state of the objects
- classes = templates

Inheritance

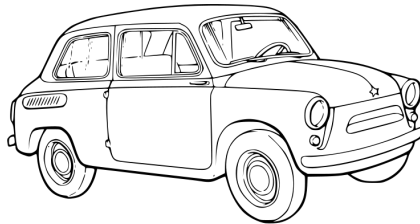


the object *blue car* belongs to the class *car*, which belongs to the class *vehicle*: all blue cars are cars and all cars are vehicles \neq all vehicles are cars – there are also trucks, bulldozers, etc.

- different objects might partially have the same behavior/characteristics
- inheritance \rightarrow avoids code redundancy

Object Composition

objects can be composed of different objects:



Details and Application in Python

Software-Objects = Real-life Objects

Attributes/Instances	annesAccount	stefansAccount
id	1	2
holder	'Anne'	'Stefan'
balance	200	1000

Attributes

- describe the *state* of the object
- contain the *data* of an object
- can change with time



Classes = Construction Plans

```
1  # content of script myacc.py
2  class Account:
3      """ a class for objects """
4
5  if __name__ == "__main__":
6      annesAccount = Account()
7      stefansAccount = Account()
8      print(type(annesAccount))
9      print(type(stefansAccount))
10
11 >>> python myacc.py
12 <class '.__main__.Account'>
13 <class '.__main__.Account'>
```

Object Types: type function

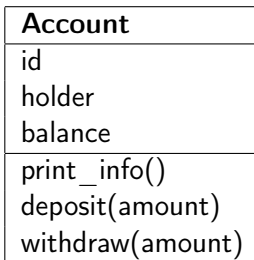
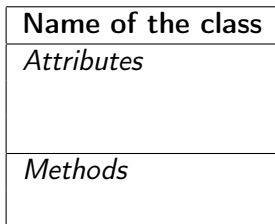
Remember, all values in Python have types that you can retrieve with the type function:

- str, float etc (basic types)
- type also works for classes

```
1 >>> type("hello")
2 <class 'str'>
3 >>> type(10)
4 <class 'int'>
5 >>> type(11.11)
6 <class 'float'>
7 >>> type(annesAcc)
8 <class '__main__.Account'>
```

UML Class-Diagrams

- Unified Modeling Language
- Visualization standard for object-oriented programming (and more)
- Helps us to visualize the functionality we want to implement



Attributes must exist, when we want to access them

```
1 class Account:
2     def print_info(self):
3         print("Balance:", self.balance)
4
5 if __name__ == "__main__":
6     stefansAcc = Account()
7     stefansAcc.print_info()
```

Why do we get an error with this code?


Initialization / Constructor

```
1  class Account:
2      # CONSTRUCTOR
3      def __init__(self):
4          self.balance = 0
5
6      # METHODS
7      ...
8
9  if __name__ == "__main__":
10     annesAcc = Account()
11     stefansAcc = Account()
```

- **Constructor** `__init__(self)` is always automatically called when an object of the class is created
- Used to assign to attributes of an object some initial/default values


Initialization / Constructor

```
1  class Account:
2      # CONSTRUCTOR
3      def __init__(self, num, person):
4          self.balance = 0
5          self.id = num
6          self.holder = person
7      # METHODS
8      ...
9  if __name__ == "__main__":
10     annesAcc = Account(1, "Anne")
11     stefansAcc = Account(2, "Stefan")
```

- Example **constructor** with required positional arguments (id, name)
- What happens if we would call `a = Account()`? 

Initialization / Constructor

```
1 class Account:
2     # CONSTRUCTOR
3     def __init__(self, num, person):
4         self.balance = 0
5         self.id = num
6         self.holder = person
7     # METHODS
8     ...
9 if __name__ == "__main__":
10     annesAcc = Account(1, "Anne")
11     stefansAcc = Account(2, "Stefan")
```

- Example **constructor** with required positional arguments (id, name)
- What happens if we would call `a = Account()`? 
- `a = Account()` now raises a `TypeError: missing 2 required positional arguments`

The `self` keyword in Python OOP

Why do we have `self`?


```
annesAcc = Account(1, "Anne")
```

- 1 the constructor of `Account` is called;
the variable `self` points now to the new **object itself**;
- 2 through the constructor the object gets initialized
(the attributes get assigned the given or the default values)
- 3 assignment of the newly created object to the variable `annesAcc`

Classes = Construction Plans

```
1 class Account:
2     ''' a class for objects
3     representing an account '''
4     [...] # assume constructor
5     # Main part of the program
6     if __name__ == "__main__":
7         # Creating objects
8         annesAcc = Account(1, "Anne")
9         stefansAcc = Account(2, "Stefan")
10        # Accessing attributes
11        print(annesAcc.balance)
12        # Assigning attributes
13        annesAcc.holder = "Anne Li"
14        # good way to assign attributes?
```

- class names start with capital letters
- objects are instantiated/created by calling the class
- assignment of/access on attributes and methods through the *dot notation*

Methods = Functions that belong to a class

```
1 class Account:
2     [...] # assume constructor
3     # METHODS
4     def deposit(self, amount):
5         self.balance += amount
6
7 if __name__ == "__main__":
8     annesAcc = Account(1, "Anne")
9     annesAcc.deposit(500)
```

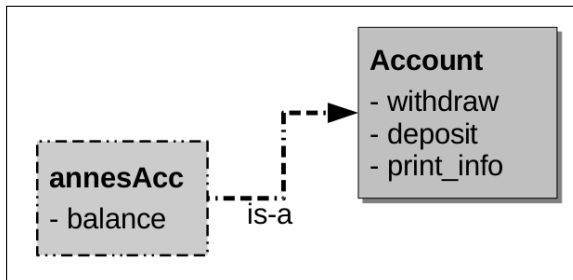
Instance Methods

- operate on objects that were created from a class (constructor page 44)
- our code changes the attributes of an object or allows access to them
- first parameter: self (convention)

Methods = Functions that belong to a class

```
1  class Account:
2      [...] # assume constructor
3      # METHODS
4      def withdraw(self, amount):
5          self.balance -= amount
6      def deposit(self, amount):
7          self.balance += amount
8      def print_info(self):
9          print("Balance:", self.balance)
10
11  if __name__ == "__main__":
12      annesAcc = Account(1, "Anne")
13      annesAcc.deposit(500) # better way
14      annesAcc.withdraw(20)
15      annesAcc.print_info()
```

Objects are linked with their class



- `annesAcc.deposit(500)`
- first step: search for the method in the object itself (technically, methods for individual objects can also be defined within the object itself – practically, methods are defined in the class, see second step)
- second step: search the method in the class from which the object originates

Rules for good class design

- ① How can I describe the state of my object? \Rightarrow *attributes*
- ② What do I know about my object before or during its creation?
 \Rightarrow *constructor*
- ③ What operations that change the state of the object might need to be applied later on? \Rightarrow *instance methods*

Only manipulate attributes through instance methods

Bad coding (directly accessing instance attributes):

```
stefansAcc.balance = 1000
```

Data encapsulation:

- attributes of an object should be “hidden” from “external” manipulations (= from code that is used by the object itself)
- attributes of an object should only be manipulated from code that was defined within the class
- this makes sure that the state of an object is always valid

Example

- account balance cannot be negative
- Stefan's account balance is €1000, he wants to withdraw €1500
- bank clerk gives him the money and Stefan's balance is at -€500 ⇒ bank manager is angry!

Make the bank manager happy

```
1  class Account:
2      ...
3      # METHODS
4      def withdraw(self, amount):
5          if amount > self.balance:
6              amount = self.balance
7              self.balance -= amount
8              return amount
9      ...
10
11 if __name__ == "__main__":
12     stefansAcc = Account(2, "Stefan")
13     stefansAcc.deposit(1000)
14     cash = stefansAcc.withdraw(1500)
15     print("Oh no, I only got:", cash)
```


Setter Methods: Change the Attribute Values

```
1 class Account:
2     def set_holder(self, person):
3         self.holder = person
4
5 if __name__ == "__main__":
6     stefansAcc = Account(2, "Stefan")
7     stefansAcc.deposit(1000)
8     stefansAcc.set_holder("Andrea")
```

- for each attribute that needs to be changed from outside the class, we have to create a **setter method**
- allows validation

Setter Methods: Change the Attribute Values

Example of Validation in a setter method:

```
1 def set_holder(self, person):
2     if (not type(person) == str):
3         raise TypeError
4     if not person.strip().split() > 1):
5         print("Give a valid non-empty name")
6         raise ValueError
7     self.holder = person
```

- ❶ assign values to the attributes only in instance methods (setter methods) or in the constructor
- ❷ change the values of the attributes only through setter methods
- ❸ access (read-only) on the values of the attributes through `print(stefansAcc.balance)` is OK (but we can also define getter methods)

String Representation of an Object

```
1 class Account:
2     def __repr__(self): % __str__ alternative
3         res = "*** Account Info ***\n"
4         res += "Account ID:" + str(self.number) + "\n"
5         res += "Holder:" + self.holder + "\n"
6         res += "Balance: " + str(self.balance) + "\n"
7         return res % N.B. string formatting is preferred
8
9 if __name__ == "__main__":
10     annesAcc = Account(1, "Anne")
11     annesAcc.deposit(200)
12     print(annesAcc)
```

- **Magic/Special methods** = (magic) methods that are called from Python in specific cases
- here: we need a string representation of the object, e.g., `print(annesAcc)` or `str(annesAcc)`

Inheritance in Python

```
1  class Animal:
2      def make_sound(self):
3          print('ROAR')
4      # Uses the make_sound method of its parent.
5  class Lion(Animal):
6      pass
7  class Duck(Animal):
8      # Overrides the make_sound method of its parent.
9      def make_sound(self):
10         print('QUACK')
11
12  if __name__ == "__main__":
13      lion = Lion()
14      lion.make_sound() # prints ROAR
15      duck = Duck()
16      duck.make_sound() # prints QUACK
```

Summary

- classes represent concepts (data with operations)
- instances are concrete realizations of the classes
- instances are created through the class constructor
- methods allow for the encapsulation of the attributes
- attributes of instances should only be changed in setter methods or in the constructor
- setter methods (and constructors) can be used for validation
- inheritance should be used to avoid redundant code

- Lists, List indexing and slicing, multidimensional lists
- List comprehension
- Copying lists: Shallow vs Deep* copy
- String formatting*
- Scripts & Command-Line Arguments *

* = covered in lab

Lists: Indices

```
myList = ["a", "b", "c", "d", "hello"]
```

0	1	2	3	4
"a"	"b"	"c"	"d"	"hello"
-5	-4	-3	-2	-1

What is the output of the following code?

```
print(myList[1])  
print(myList[4])  
print(myList[-2])
```


String Immutability

- Strings are sequences of characters
- We can access individual characters of a string

```
>>> myString = "telephone"
>>> print(myString[2])
l
>>> print(myString[4:]) # copy!
phone
```

- Strings are immutable: not changeable sequences
`myString[0] = "T" ⇒ DOES NOT WORK!`
- N.B. String concatenation creates a new string object, i.e.
`myString = "T"+ myString[1:]`

Lists: Indices

```
myList = ["a", "b", "c", "d", "hello"]
```

0	1	2	3	4
"a"	"b"	"c"	"d"	"hello"
-5	-4	-3	-2	-1

What is the output of the following code? 

```
print(myList[4][1])
```

Lists: Slicing

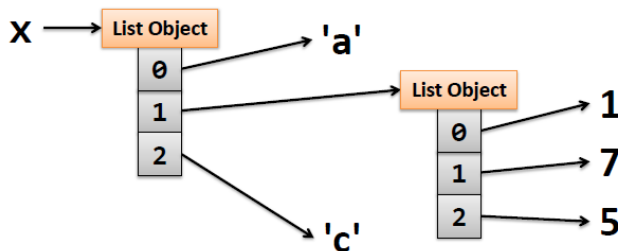
'a'	'b'	'c'	'd'
0	1	2	3

creates **copies** of list objects

```
>>> myList = ['a', 'b', 'c', 'd']
>>> myList[0:3]
['a', 'b', 'c']
>>> myList[2:3]
['c']
>>> myList = ['a', 'b', 'c', 'd']
>>> myList[2:4]
['c', 'd']
>>> myList[1:]
['b', 'c', 'd']
>>> myList[:3]
['a', 'b', 'c']
>>> myList[:]
['a', 'b', 'c', 'd']
```

Multidimensional lists

```
x = ['a', [1, 7, 5], 'c']  
print("x[0] is: {}".format(x[0]))  
print("x[1] is: {}".format(x[1]))  
print("x[2] is: {}".format(x[2]))  
print("x[1][0] is: {}".format(x[1][0]))  
print("x[1][1] is: {}".format(x[1][1]))  
print("x[1][2] is: {}".format(x[1][2]))
```



Multidimensional lists

```
myList = ["a", "b", [1, 2, 3], "d", "e"]  
myList[3] = [4, 5, 6]
```

0	1	2	3	4
"a"	"b"	[1, 2, 3]	[4, 5, 6]	"e"

a) What output do we get?

```
print(myList[1])  
print(myList[2][0])
```

b) How can we access '5'?

c) What output do we get?

```
print(myList[5])  
print(myList[2][3])
```

Shared References

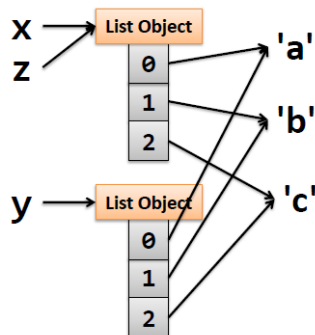
- Variables do not directly contain the values (like a tupperware contains food)
- Variables point to the position in memory and the position in memory keeps the values (like a name points to a person, but the name does not contain the person)

```
>>> michael = ["engineer", "germany", "40"]
>>> mike = michael
>>> thomson = michael
>>> michael
["engineer", "germany", "40"]
>>> mike
["engineer", "germany", "40"]
>>> thomson
["engineer", "germany", "40"]
```

Lists: Copy (Shallow Copy)

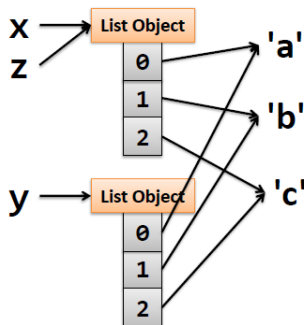
- slicing creates a shallow copy of a list
- a shallow copy creates a new list object and adds references to the same object, the original lists had
(<http://docs.python.org/3.2/library/copy.html>)
- the *is*-operator can be used to check if two variables point to the same object

```
>>> x = ['a', 'b', 'c']
>>> z = x
>>> y = x[:]
>>> y
['a', 'b', 'c']
>>> z is x
True
>>> y is x
False
```



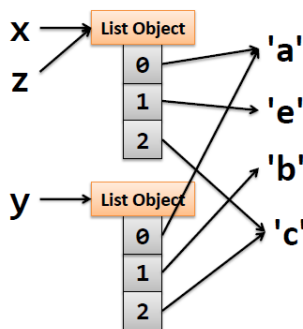
Lists: Copy (Shallow Copy)

```
>>> x = ['a', 'b', 'c']  
>>> z = x  
>>> y = x[:]  
>>> y  
['a', 'b', 'c']
```



```
>>> x[1] = 'e'  
>>> x  
['a', 'e', 'c']  
>>> y  
['a', 'b', 'c']  
>>> z
```

what is printed?



Comprehension

- Create a new list from existing list
- Computationally more efficient than equivalent for loop statement
- Also: create a new dict from an existing dict with comprehension

```
>>> numbers = [0, 1, 2, 3, 4, 5, 6, 7, 8, 9]
>>> subset = [i for i in numbers if i > 5]
>>> subset
[6, 7, 8, 9]
```

Summary

- Lists
- Mutable vs. immutable types, String formatting
- Slicing
- Multidimensional lists
- Lists: copying
- More Python details in exercise hour:
 - ▶ Python copying lists (shallow and deep copy)
 - ▶ Values and references
 - ▶ Scripts
 - ▶ Command-line arguments and ArgParse

Questions?

Next: Object-Oriented Programming I

Next time: Object-Oriented Programming II

Questions?

Next Time: Object-oriented Programming II

Slides adapted from prior version by Katerina Kalouli, Annemarie Friedrich, Benjamin Roth, Florian Fink.