Let’s imagine you order a mushroom and cheese pizza from Domino’s, and that they represent your order as a list:

```python
>>> pizzal = ['cheese', 'mushrooms']
```

A couple minutes later, you realize that you really want onions on the pizza. Based on what we know so far, Domino’s would have to build an entirely new list to add onions:

```python
>>> pizza2 = pizzal + ['onions'] # creates a new python list
>>> pizza2
['cheese', 'mushrooms', 'onions']
>>> pizzal # the original list is unmodified
['cheese', 'mushrooms']
```

But this is silly, considering that all Domino’s had to do was add onions on top of `pizzal` instead of making an entirely new `pizza2`.

Python actually allows you to *mutate* some objects, including lists and dictionaries. Mutability means that the object’s contents can be changed. So instead of building a new `pizza2`, we can use `pizzal.append('onions')` to mutate `pizzal`.

```python
>>> pizzal.append('onions')
>>> pizzal
['cheese', 'mushrooms', 'onions']
```

Although lists and dictionaries are mutable, many other objects, such as numeric types, tuples, and strings, are *immutable*, meaning they cannot be changed once they are created.
We can use the familiar indexing operator to mutate a single element in a list. For instance,
\texttt{lst[4]='hello'} would change the fifth element in \texttt{lst} to be the string \texttt{'hello'}. In addition to the indexing operator, lists have many mutating methods. List \textit{methods} are functions that are bound to a specific list. Some useful list methods are listed here:

1. \texttt{append(el)} adds \texttt{el} to the end of the list
2. \texttt{insert(i, el)} insert \texttt{el} at index \texttt{i} (does not replace element but adds a new one)
3. \texttt{remove(el)} removes the first occurrence of \texttt{el} in list, otherwise errors
4. \texttt{pop(i)} removes and returns the element at index \texttt{i}

List methods are called via \textit{dot notation}, as in:

\begin{verbatim}
>>> sharks = ['joe thornton', 'patrick marleau']
>>> sharks.append('logan couture')
>>> sharks.pop(1)
'patrick marleau'
>>> sharks
['joe thornton', 'logan couture']
\end{verbatim}

1.1 Questions

1. Consider the following definitions and assignments and determine what Python would output for each of the calls below \textit{if they were evaluated in order}. It may be helpful to draw the box and pointers diagrams to the right in order to keep track of the state.

\begin{verbatim}
>>> lst1 = [1, 2, 3]
>>> lst2 = [1, 2, 3]
>>> lst1 == lst2 #compares each value

>>> lst1 is lst2 #compares references

>>> lst2 = lst1
>>> lst2 is lst1

>>> lst1.append(4)
>>> lst1

>>> lst2

>>> lst2[1] = 42
\end{verbatim}
>>> lst2

>>> lst1 = lst1 + [5]
>>> lst1 == lst2

>>> lst1

>>> lst2

>>> lst2 == lst1

2. Write a function that removes all instances of an element from a list.

```python
def remove_all(el, lst):
    """
    >>> x = [3, 1, 2, 1, 5, 1, 1, 7]
    >>> remove_all(1, x)
    >>> x
    [3, 2, 5, 7]
    """
```

3. Write a function `square_elements` which takes a `lst` and replaces each element with the square of that element. *Mutate lst rather than returning a new list.*

```python
def square_elements(lst):
    """
    >>> lst = [1, 2, 3]
    >>> square_elements(lst)
    >>> lst
    [1, 4, 9]
    """
In a previous lecture, you were introduced to the programming paradigm known as Object-Oriented Programming (OOP). OOP allows us to treat data as objects - like we do in real life.

For example, consider the class `CS61A_Student`. Each of you as individuals are an instance of this class. So, a student Mitas would be an instance of the class `CS61A_Student`.

Details that all CS61A students have, such as `name`, `year`, and `major`, are called instance attributes. Every student has these attributes, but their values differ from student to student. An attribute that is shared among all instances of `CS61A_Student` is known as a class attribute. An example would be the `instructors` attribute; the instructor for 61A, Professor DeNero, is the same for every student in CS61A.

All students are able to do homework, attend lecture, and go to office hours. When functions belong to a specific object, they are said to be methods. In this case, these actions would be bound methods of `CS61A_Student` objects.

Here is a recap of what we discussed above:

- **class**: a template for creating objects
- **instance**: a single object created from a class
- **instance attribute**: a property of an object, specific to an instance
- **class attribute**: a property of an object, shared by all instances of the same class
- **method**: an action (function) that all instances of a class may perform
2.1 Questions

1. Below we have defined the classes Instructor, Student, and TeachingAssistant, implementing some of what was described above. Remember that we pass the self argument implicitly to instance methods when using dot-notation.

```python
class Instructor:
    degree = "PhD (Magic)" # this is a class attribute
    def __init__(self, name):
        self.name = name # this is an instance attribute

    def lecture(self, topic):
        print("Today we're learning about " + topic)

dumbledore = Instructor("Dumbledore")

class Student:
    instructor = dumbledore

    def __init__(self, name, ta):
        self.name = name
        self.understanding = 0
        ta.add_student(self)

    def attend_lecture(self, topic):
        Student.instructor.lecture(topic)
        print(Student.instructor.name + " is awesome!")
        self.understanding += 1

    def visit_office_hours(self, staff):
        staff.assist(self)
        print("Thanks, " + staff.name)

class TeachingAssistant:
    def __init__(self, name):
        self.name = name
        self.students = {}

    def add_student(self, student):
        self.students[student.name] = student

    def assist(self, student):
        student.understanding += 1
```

CS 61A Spring 2017
What will the following lines output?

```python
>>> snape = TeachingAssistant("Snape")
>>> harry = Student("Harry", snape)
>>> harry.attend_lecture("potions")

>>> hermione = Student("Hermione", snape)
>>> hermione.attend_lecture("herbology")

>>> hermione.visit_office_hours(TeachingAssistant("Hagrid"))

>>> harry.understanding

>>> snape.students["Hermione"].understanding

>>> Student.instructor = Instructor("Umbridge")
>>> Student.attend_lecture(harry, "transfiguration")
# Equivalent to harry.attend_lecture("transfiguration")
```
Let’s explore another powerful object-oriented programming tool: inheritance. Suppose we want to write Dog and Cat classes. Here’s our first attempt:

```python
class Dog(object):
    def __init__(self, name, owner, color):
        self.name = name
        self.owner = owner
        self.color = color
    def eat(self, thing):
        print(self.name + " ate a " + str(thing) + ")
    def talk(self):
        print(self.name + " says woof!")

class Cat(object):
    def __init__(self, name, owner, lives=9):
        self.name = name
        self.owner = owner
        self.lives = lives
    def eat(self, thing):
        print(self.name + " ate a " + str(thing) + ")
    def talk(self):
        print(self.name + " says meow!")
```

Notice that the only difference between both the Dog and Cat classes are the talk method as well as the color and lives attributes. That’s a lot of repeated code!

This is where inheritance comes in. In Python, a class can inherit the instance variables and methods of another class without having to type them all out again. For example:

```python
class Foo(object):
    # This is the base class

class Bar(Foo):
    # This is the subclass
```

Bar inherits from Foo. We call Foo the **base class** (the class that is being inherited) and Bar the **subclass** (the class that does the inheriting).

Notice that Foo also inherits from the object class. In Python, object is the top-level base class that provides basic functionality; everything inherits from it, even when you don’t specify a class to inherit from. One common use of inheritance is to represent a hierarchical relationship between two or more classes where one class is a more specific version of the other class. For example, a dog is a pet.
class Pet(object):
    def __init__(self, name, owner):
        self.is_alive = True  # It's alive!!
        self.name = name
        self.owner = owner
    def eat(self, thing):
        print(self.name + " ate a " + str(thing) + "!")
    def talk(self):
        print(self.name)

class Dog(Pet):
    def __init__(self, name, owner, color):
        Pet.__init__(self, name, owner)
        self.color = color
    def talk(self):
        print(self.name + ' says woof!')

By making Dog a subclass of Pet, we did not have to redefine self.name, self.owner, or eat. However, since we want Dog to talk differently, we did redefine, or override, the talk method.

The line Pet.__init__(self, name, owner) in the Dog class is necessary for inheriting the instance attributes and methods from Pet. Notice that when we call Pet.__init__, we need to pass in self as a regular argument (that is, inside the parentheses, rather than by dot-notation) since Pet is a class, not an instance.
1. Implement the `Cat` class by inheriting from the `Pet` class. Make sure to use superclass methods wherever possible. In addition, add a `lose_life` method to the `Cat` class.

```python
class Cat(Pet):
    def __init__(self, name, owner, lives=9):

        def talk(self):
            """A cat says meow! when asked to talk.""

        def lose_life(self):
            """A cat can only lose a life if they have at least one life. When lives reaches zero, 'is_alive' becomes False."
            ""
```

2. More cats! Fill in the methods for `NoisyCat`, which is just like a normal `Cat`. However, `NoisyCat` talks a lot, printing twice whatever a `Cat` says.

```python
class NoisyCat(Cat):
    """A Cat that repeats things twice.""

    def __init__(self, name, owner, lives=9):
        # Is this method necessary? Why or why not?

    def talk(self):
        """Repeat what a Cat says twice.""
```
3. What would Python print? (Summer 2013 Final)

class A:
    def f(self):
        return 2
    def g(self, obj, x):
        if x == 0:
            return A.f(obj)
        return obj.f() + self.g(self, x - 1)

class B(A):
    def f(self):
        return 4

>>> x, y = A(), B()
>>> x.f()

>>> B.f()

>>> x.g(x, 1)

>>> y.g(x, 2)

4. Implement the Yolo class so that the following interpreter session works as expected. (Summer 2013 Final)

>>> x = Yolo(1)
>>> x.g(3)
4
>>> x.g(5)
6
>>> x.motto = 5
>>> x.g(5)
10