

Python

High level programming language.

Has it works?

source code → compiler → Bytecode → virtual → output machine.

- Source code is high level code with .py extension.
- Byte code is low level code with .pyc extension.

Note compiler → Byte code → virtual machine together forms Interpreter.

All of this process is automated.

Why Python?

Powerful & simple.

Everything & Everywhere.

Huge Community.

AI and ML

Comments

It is a note in your code that does not get executed.
It is denoted by #.

Why comments?

- Makes the code understandable.
- Increases readability.
- Good practice.

Types

i) Single line

denoted by #.

used for single lines.

ii) Multi line

denoted by triple quotes.

used for multiple lines.

Note

For long detailed explanation use comments above the code.

For short explanation use inline comments.

Print()

Built-in Python function that displays messages on the output screen.

Syntax

```
print("hi")
```

We can use double or single quotes.

Escape sequence

There are a lot of characters that perform special operations.

\": to add " to the code.

\': to add ' to the code.

\\\: to add \ to the code.

\n: to add a new line.

\t: to add a horizontal space.

Note Use triple quotes to print a text in some format.

Use case

- Helps in debugging.
- Increase readability.
- Show results

Variable

name you create to store a value.

Syntax

`x = 10`

`name = "Devansh"`

Note stored in the memory

use case

- updatable
- dynamic

Data

It can store different types of data

- integer
- Text
- float
- boolean

Note

Python allows a variable to be updated.

There are different naming conventions.

- start with underscore or alphabets
- cannot have space.
- case sensitive
- no reserved words.

Input()

Built in function that helps to take input from the user.

Syntax

```
input("enter name":)
```

Note It immediately discards the value unless stored in var.
By default is taken all the values as string.

```
name = input("Your name")
```

This stores the user input in name variable.

Data Types

These define the type of data stored in variables.

i) Single value

These are primitive data types.

- int
- float
- string
- bool

ii) Multiple value

- list
- Tuple
- dictionary
- set

iii) No value - none

Examples

a = None none

a = 10 int

a = 3.15 float

a = "hello" string

a = True bool

Note Python automatically identify type of data.

functions

independent block of code.

- function name (value)

eg. print("hello")

methods

functions belonging to objects / classes.

- value.method_name()

eg. 50.bit_length()

String functions

i) Creation and formatting

- `str(obj)`

converts an object to string.

`str(123) → "123"`

- `format()`

insert variables into placeholders.

`"Hello, {} .format("Devansh")`

- `f"`

Inline variable insertion (f string)

`f"Hello, {name}"`

ii) Case Handling

- `lower()`

converts all characters to lower case.

`Hello.lower() → "hello"`

- `upper()`

converts all characters to upper case

`Hello.upper() → 'HELLO'`

- `swapcase()`

swap the case of the letters.

`hello.swapcase() → 'HEllo'`

- `capitalize()`

convert first word to capital , rest lowercase.

`Hello world.capitalize() → Hello world.`

- `title()`

convert first letter to capital of each word.

`hello world.title() → Hello World.`

- `casefold()`

Like `lower()` but more aggressive.

`Hello.casefold() → hello`

iii) Search and find.

- `find()`

returns or index of first occurrence

returns -1 if not found.

`hello.find("e") → 1`

- `rfind()`

return index of last occurrence.

returns -1 if not found.

`hello.rfind("l") → 3`

- `index()`

same as `find()` but raises error if not found.

- `rindex()`

same as `rfind` but raises error if not found.

- `count()`

count has many times substring appears.

`hello.count("l") → 2`

Note All these functions have an optional argument start, end.

iv) Type checking

All the functions return boolean value.

- `isalpha()`

only letters.

- `isdigit()`

only digits

- `isalnum()`

numbers and letters

- `isdecimal()`

only decimal numbers.

- `islower()`

only lowercase

- `isupper()`

only uppercase

- `isspace()`

only whitespaces.

✓ Modify strings

- `replace()`

replace old substring with new.

`replace(old, new)`

`apple.replace('p', 'b') → 'abple'`

- `strip()`

remove whitespace from both sides.

`' hello '.strip() → 'hello'`

- `lstrip()`

remove whitespace from left.

`' hello '.lstrip() → 'hello'`

- `rstrip()`

remove whitespace from right.

`' hello '.rstrip() → ' hello'`

✓ splitting and joining.

- `split()`

splits into a list based on a separator.

return list of string.

`"Devansh Meheshuwari".split() → ["Devansh", "Meheshuwar"]`

if no separator is given then whitespace is used.

`split(sep, maxsplit)`

- `rsplit`

Same as `split` but from right side.

useful with `maxsplit`.

`"3-2-1".rsplit("-")` → `["3-2", "1"]`

- `partition()`

split string into 3 parts.

before, separator, after.

returns a tuple.

`"devonsh=python".partition("=")` → `("devonsh", "=", "python")`

- `rpartition()`

Same as `partition` but from right

- `join()`

join a iterable of strings into single string.

`"-".join(["2025", "01", "03"])` → `2025-01-03`

vii) start/end check.

- `startswith()`

check if string starts with substring.

`'Hello'.startswith('He')` → True.

- `endswith()`

check if string end with substring.

`'Hello'.endswith('H')` → False.

Number functions

There are functions that no need to be imported.

- `abs()`

return the absolute value of a number

$$\text{abs}(-5) \rightarrow 5$$

- `pow(x, y)`

returns the power of a number.

$$\text{pow}(2, 3) \rightarrow 2^3 \rightarrow 8$$

- `round()`

round of decimal upto n places.

$$\text{round}(3.1415, 2) \rightarrow 3.14$$

- `max()`

return largest value among arguments.

$$\text{max}(2, 3, 10, 30) \rightarrow 30$$

- `min()`

return min values among argument.

$$\text{min}(2, 3, 10, 30) \rightarrow 2$$

- `sum()`

returns the sum of iterable passed.

$$\text{sum}([1, 2, 3]) \rightarrow 6$$

- `divmod()`

return tuple of quotient and remainder.

$$\text{divmod}(10, 6) \rightarrow (1, 4)$$

There are functions that use math functions.

`import math`

- `math.sqrt()`

return square root of a number.

`math.sqrt(4) → 2`

- `math.floor(x)`

return the floor of the decimal number.

`math.floor(3.15) → 3`

- `math.ceil(x)`

return the ceiling of decimal number.

`math.ceil(3.15) → 4`

- `math.factorial(x)`

return factorial of a number.

`math.factorial(5) → 120`

- `math.gcd()`

return the greatest common divisor.

`math.gcd(12,8) → 4`

`import random.`

- `random.randint(a, b)`

generate random integer between a, b.
a, b both are included.

`random.randint(1, 4)`

→ 1, 2, 3, 4

- `random.random()`

return a random number between (0.0 and 1.0)
1.0 is excluded.

`random.random() → 0.3`

- `random.uniform(a, b)`

return a float in a range.
includes a and b both.

`random.uniform(10.5, 20.5)`

→ 11.6

Python List

It is a list of items with different data types under a single name.

Properties

- Ordered

Have a defined order or index.

- Mutable

These are changeable.

- Accessible

Can be accessed using index.

- Duplicates

Allows duplicates.

Syntax

`a = []` → empty list.

`num = [1, 2, 3]` → list of numbers

`data = [1, "my", 3.14]` → mixed data type.

`nest = [[1, 2], [3, 4]]` → nested list

Note These allow negative indexing starting from -1.

Accessing Elements

- indexing
 $a[0]$ → first element
- negative indexing.
 $a[-1]$ → last element.
- slicing
 $a[1:3]$ → element at index 1 and 2.
- step slice -
 $a[:, :2]$ → every second element.

Eg

`fruits = ["apple", "banana", "mango"]`

`f[0]` → apple

`f[-1]` → mango

Updating

`fruits[0] = "cherry"`

Adding

`fruits.append("peach")`

Removing Elements

i) remove by value
`fruits.remove("banana")`

ii) remove by index
`fruits.pop(2)`
remove element at index 2.

iii) remove last item
`fruits.pop()`

iv) delete by index
`del fruits[0]`

v) remove all
`fruits.clear()`

remove all the items.

Functions

- `len()`
count number of elements.
`len(fruits) → 3`

- `append()`
append one element at last of a list.
`fruits.append("guava")`

- `insert()`
insert item at a position.
`insert(1, "guava")`

- `index()`

gives the first index of the item.

`index("guava")`

- `count()`

return count of particular element.

`count("guava") → 1`

- `sort()`

sort the list in place

- `reverse()`

reverse the list in place.

- `copy()`

return shallow copy of the list.

`copy = fruit.copy()`

List Comprehension

Provides a concise way to create lists.

replace need for loops.

To print list of squares.

```
square = [i**2 for i in range(5)]  
print(square)
```

⇒ [0, 1, 4, 9, 16]

$a = [1, 2]$

$b = [3, 4]$

`print(a + b)`

$\Rightarrow [1, 2, 3, 4]$

`print(a * 2)`

$\Rightarrow [1, 2, 1, 2]$

Python Tuple

collection of different data type variables under a single name. Denoted by parenthesis.

$t1 = (1, 4.5, "Hi")$

Properties

- Ordered

maintain order of elements.

- immutable

They are immutable - cannot change once created.

- Duplicates

Allows duplicates.

- indexed

can be accessed through index.

Creation

$t_1 = (1, 2, 3)$

$t_1 = 1, 2, 3 \rightarrow$ possible but not recommended.

Note Single element tuple can be created using comma.

$t_1 = (5) \rightarrow$ integer

$t_1 = (5,) \rightarrow$ tuple.

- indexing $\rightarrow t = (1, 2, 3)$

$t[1] \rightarrow 2$

- Negative index

$t[-1] \rightarrow 3$

- slicing

$t[:2] \rightarrow (1, 2)$

- concatenation

we use the '+' operator.

$a = (1, 2)$

$b = (3, 4)$

$a + b \rightarrow (1, 2, 3, 4)$

- repetition

$a * 3 \rightarrow (1, 2, 1, 2, 1, 2)$

Note Loops can be used to iterate.

Methods

- `count()`

returns the count of times x appears.

`count(1)`

- `index(xc)`

return the index of first occurrence.

Note used as keys of dictionaries.

unpacking

assigning values to variables from tuples directly.

$a, b, c = (1, 2, 3)$

$\therefore a=1, b=2, c=3$

We use * to capture multiple values.

$a, *b, c = (1, 2, 3, 4, 5)$

$a=1, b=[2, 3, 4], c=5$

Note No. of elements in tuple must be equal to no. of variables.

Python Sets

collection of different data variables under one name.

Properties

- unordered

These don't have any order. Not indexed.

- mutable

can be updated.

- No duplicates.

Sets do not allow duplicate values.

- Unindexed

cannot be accessed through indexes.

- iterable

can be iterated using loops.

- Creation

use curly brackets

Creation

use curly brackets

$a = \{1, 2, 3\}$

$s = \text{set}([1, 2, 3]) \rightarrow$ set construction.

empty set can be created using set constructor.

$s = \text{set}() \rightarrow \text{set}$.

$s = \{\} \rightarrow \text{dictionary}$

Note even if you store duplicate you can not print.

$a = \{1, 2, 3, 3, 3\}$

$\text{print}(a)$

$\rightarrow \{1, 2, 3\}$.

sets remove duplicate automatically.

$s[0] \rightarrow \text{error}$.

Method And Operations

- **Add**:

adds one element to the set

$a.add(5)$

- **update**

used to add multiple elements

$a.update([5, 6, 7])$

- **remove(x)**

remove element from set

some error if not found.

- `discard(x)`

removes element from the set.

does nothing if not found.

- `pop()`

randomly remove and return an element.

- `clear()`

empties entire set.

Set operations like math

- `Union`

return set containing all unique elements.

$A \cup B$ or `A.union(B)`

- `intersection`

return elements common in both.

`A.intersection(B)`

- `Difference`

return element in A but not in B.

$A - B$ or `A.difference(B)`

- `Symmetric difference`.

return elements in either set but not in both.

$A \Delta B$ or `A.symmetric_difference(B)`

- `subset`

check if all elements of A are in B.

return boolean value.

A.issubset(B)

- superset

check if A contain all elements of B or not

A.issuperset(B)

Python Dictionaries

It is a collection of key value pairs.

Properties

- Key:value

data stored in key value pairs.

- Unique

Keys should be unique - no duplicates allowed in them.

- Duplicates

Duplicates allowed in values.

- Mutable

We can change, add, delete items.

- Ordered

Ordered as of Python 3.7+

- immutable

Keys should be of immutable type.

Creation

We use curly brackets.

```
person = { "name": "Devansh", "age": 21 }
```

empty dictionary

```
a = {}
```

using dict constructor.

```
person = dict(name = "Alice", age = 25)
```

Accessing elements.

```
print(person["name"]) → Alice
```

```
print(person.get("age")) → 25
```

```
print(person.get("salary")) → None
```

Note get answers no error if not found.

Adding or updating

- person["city"] = "Delhi" → adds.

- person["age"] = 26 → update.

Removing item.

- person.pop("age")

removes key and return value.

- `del person["age"]`
deletes key-value pair

- `person.clear()`
empties dictionary

Methods

- `get`
return values or default if key doesn't exist.
`get(key, default)`

- `keys()`
return a list of keys.

- `values()`
return list of values.

- `items()`
return the list of (key,value) tuples.

- `update()`
adds / updates from another dict.
`update(omerdict)`

- `pop()`
remove and return values of a key.

- `popitem()`
removes last inserted key value pair.

- setdefault()

return value if key exists, else adds it
`setdefault(key, default)`

Note Keys must be of immutable type.

Condition Statement

Conditionals allow your program to make decisions, execute block of code depending on whether condition is true or false.

- if statement

used to execute something only if condition is true.
 ends with a colon.

`if condition:`

#code.

- if-else statement

used when we have to execute two things based on the condition.

`if condition:`

#code if true.

`else:`

#code if false.

Note Indentation is very important as it specifies scope.

- if - elif - else statements

This is used when we have multiple statements to execute.

```
if condition1:
```

code if condition1 true.

```
elif condition2:
```

code if condition2 true.

```
else:
```

code if all false.

Note: Only one condition gets executed.

- Nested if

We can use if condition inside another if.

```
if condition:
```

```
    if condition:
```

code

code

- Shorthand if else.

We can use this only we have one condition.

```
print("even") if x%2==0 else print("odd")
```

- Shorthand if

```
if condition: print("yes")
```

- Comparison Operations

These are used to compare the values.

→ $=$, $>$, $<$, $!=$, $>$, $<$

- logical operators

and

return true if both are true.

or

return true if either is true.

not

if true then false, if false then true.

- identity operations

is , is not

checks if two objects are same or not.

return boolean value.

in , not in

check for members in a iterable.

$a \text{ in } \['a', 'b', 'c'] \rightarrow \text{True.}$

Loops

Loops are used to repeatedly do a certain task either specific number of iterations or till condition is true.

Types

i) For

for loop is used when we know the number of iterations used upon iterables.

```
for item in iterable:  
    # code.
```

- range() with for loop.

range is a built-in function used to generate sequence of numbers.

It takes three arguments:

range(start, end, step)

Note start and step are optional.

range(5) → 0, 1, 2, 3, 4

range(1, 5) → 1, 2, 3, 4

range(1, 5, 2) → 1, 3

Note Here end is excluded.

We do not need to update value of i in for loop.

- **enumerate()**

This gives index and value while looping through a sequence.

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

```
for index, name in enumerate(names):
    print(index, name)
```

This returns a tuple.

- **enumerate(iterable, start)**

→ Here start is 0 by default.

- **zip()**

Used to combine two or more iterables element wise.

```
zip(iterable1, iterable2)
```

It returns a tuple.

```
names = ["Devansh", "Vidit", "Yash"]
```

```
ages = [22, 23, 24]
```

```
for name, age in zip(names, ages):
```

```
    print(name, age)
```

⇒ Devansh 22

Note if one iterable is short in length then zip stops at it.

- Nested for loop.

```
for i in range(5):
    for j in range(5):
        print(j)
    print()
```

While loop

used when number of iterations is not known.

While :

condition

Note we need to increment or decrement variable manually.

Eg. print from 0 to 5

i=0

while true:

print(i)

i+=1

loop control statements

- break

it is used to break the loop entirely.

- continue

it is used to skip an iteration.

- pass
- It is a placeholder.
- It does nothing.

Note we can use conditional statements with loops.

Common Mistakes.

- infinite while loop → make sure to update variable.
- using for loop for non iterable.
- misplacing break | continue.

Functions

Block of code that performs a specific task.

Benefits

code reuse

Modularity

Easy debugging

Better organization.

definition

We use 'def' keyword to define a function.

function call

greet()

Types

i) user defined

defined by user.

def keyword is used.

ii) Built in functions.

These are predefined in python standard library.

Eg print(), input()

Return

return statement is used to end a function and return a value.

Parameters

These are the values passed in the function definition.

```
def greet(a, b)
```

Arguments

These are the values passed in function call.

```
greet(4, 5)
```

Types

- positional/required arguments

The number and order of argument should match to that of parameters.

eg def help(a, b, c)

 return a+b+c

 help(2, 3, 4) → valid

 help(2, 3) → not valid

- default arguments

If value is passed in parameter then argument can be mixed.

eg def help(a, b, c=10)

 return a+b+c

 help(5, 20) → valid

Note Passing value to the parameter is always right to left

def help(a, b=10, c) → not valid

def help(a=5, b=6, c) → not valid

Note: Default arguments are considered only if no value is passed in function call.

- Keyword arguments

order of arguments can be changed only if writing full names with values.

def interest(prin, time, rate)

return

interest(time=2, prin=1000, rate=1)

Multiple argument types together.

We can combine multiple types together by some rules.

- positional argument before other.

- cannot specify value for an argument more than once.

Return

used to exit a function.

Send back a value to the caller.

def hi():

return

Properties

- exits a function
- return a value of any data type.
- can return multiple values in python

```
def sum(a, b)  
    return a+b, b+a, b*a
```

- can return list, dictionaries etc
- if function don't have return, it returns None by default
- can return another function

Exception Handling

error

Mistakes in code syntax, that is caught before execution.

Types

- Syntax error

These are compile time errors

Mistake in the python code.

Detected before program execution.

eg: if true → colon missing
print("hi")

Common Syntax error

wrong python syntax

incorrect indentation

- Exceptions

These are runtime errors.

Occur when valid syntax fails during execution.

Arithmetic error

zero division error

overflow error

ii) Value and type error

Value error - Invalid value passed

Type error - wrong data type used

iii) Lookup error

Index error - list index out of range

Key error - missing key

iv) File and I/O error

File not found error - File does not exist.

Permission error - Not enough permission.

v) Import error

ModuleNotfound error - module not found.

vi) Name and Attribute error

Name error - variable not defined

Attribute error - Missing attribute or method.

vii) Memory error.

Memory error - out of memory.

Exception Handling

It is a way to deal with errors gracefully without crashing.

Syntax

try :

 misly code

except Exception type:

 handling code.

Eg: Try :

$$x = 10/0$$

except ZeroDivisionError:

print("cannot divide by zero")

Note we can catch multiple exceptions.

else And Finally Block

else: executes if no exception occurs.

finally: Always executes.

Eg: Try :

$x = \text{int}(\text{input}("enter a number"))$

except ValueError:

print("Enter a number")

else :

print("you entered.", x)

finally :

print("End of program")

Raise

We can raise our own exception using raise keyword.

Eg: $a = \text{input}("enter your age : ")$

if $a < 0$:

raise ValueError:

print("age cannot be negative")

print("Age is : ", a)

catching all exceptions

try:

try code

except Exception as e:

print("error:", e)

Note: Don't overuse try, except
it makes code unreadable and buggy.

Flowchart

try:

Attempt code

except:

if error, handle here

else:

No error? Do this

Finally:

Always use it for cleanup

File Handling

This helps us to create, read, write, append or delete files.

opening files

`open()`: built in function that allows us to work with files.

eg: `file = open('filename', mode)`

filename

It is the name of the file. It can be text, csv etc.

eg: `file = open("Devansh.txt", mode)`

mode

It is the mode in which we want to open the file.

There are different modes.

- `r` - read (default), file must exist
- `w` - write, create or truncate file
- `a` - appends to existing file.
- `x` - creates file, fails if already exist
- `b` - binary mode
- `t` - text mode (default)

eg: `file = open("devansh.txt", "r")`

Reading files

read

It is used to read full content of file.

```
f = open("data.txt", "r")
content = f.read()
print(content)
f.close()
```

Note

We can use size argument in read to read specific no. of characters.

Eg: f.read(5) → reads 5 characters.

ii. readline()

This helps us to read one line at a time

```
f = open("data.txt", "r")
content = f.readline()
```

iii. readlines()

This reads all lines as a list

```
f = open("data.txt", "r")
```

```
content = f.readlines()
```

iv. Writing to files

i. write()

This helps us to write to a file.

If opened in 'w' mode then overrides file.

If opened in 'a' mode then append to file.

eg: `f = open("data.txt", "w")
f.write("Hello")
f.close()`

This overrides the data.txt.

eg: `f = open("data.txt", "a")
f.write("Devansh")
f.close()`

This appends to the data.txt.

- `writeLines()`

This helps us to write multiple lines.

```
line = [line1, line2]
f = open("data.txt", "w")
f.writeLines()
f.close()
```

Appending

We can append data to a file using append mode.

It does not override the content.

```
f = open("data.txt", "a")
f.write("Hello")
f.close()
```

iv

Deleting a file.

We can delete a file using os module.

import os

os.remove(filename)

Note

It is good to check file before deleting.

if os.path.exists(filename) :

os.remove(filename)

else:

print("file does not exist")

Seek And tell

• seek(index)

This is used to move the cursor to a specific position.

f.seek(0) → move cursor beginning

• tell

This method tells us the position of the cursor.

f.tell()

• with context manager

This feature helps us to automatically close file.

with open(filename, mode) as f:

content = f.read()

automatically closed.

Working with binary files

with open ("image.jpg", "rb") as f:
 data = f.read()

with open ("copy.jpg", "wb") as f:
 f.write(data)

Modules

These are used to organize or structure code.

It is a file containing python code with .py extension that can define function, classes and variables.

These help in reusability, organization etc.

Creation

- Create a file with .py extension.
- Write your desired code in it
- import the module in your main file.

Eg: mymodule.py → module

```
import mymodule  
mymodule.function()
```

Types

- Built-in modules.

These are modules provided by python.

Eg: math, sys etc.

- user defined modules.

These are made by the users using .py extension.

- Third party modules.

These are modules downloaded using pip.

Eg: pandas, numpy etc.

Importing modules

- Basic import

```
import math
print(math.sqrt(4))
```

- import with alias.

```
import pandas as pd
```

- import all

```
from math import *
```

- import specific function.

```
from math import sqrt
```

Note

To check the path of the module we use

```
import sys
print(sys.path)
```

dir()

This stands for directory.

It is used to get all methods of a module.

```
import math  
print(dir(math))
```

- **help()**

This function shows the documentation of a module.

```
import random  
help(random)
```

Packages

OOPS

everything in python is an object.

- Class

Blueprint of object

defines how an object behave.

points to remember.

name of class always in capital case.

name of methods in snake case.

'+' denotes public, '-' denotes private.

class holds two things data and methods.

Syntax

class Car:

variables.

method

- Object

It is an instance of the class.

Syntax

object = class_name()

if car is an object then.

wagon = car().

Note For Built in classes we create object literal.

Eg:

class ATM:

def __init__(self):

self.pin = ""

self.balance = 0

- constructor-

It is a special method of a class.

It automatically executes the code inside it when object of class is created.

__init__ → constructor.

Magic methods

special methods with double underscore on both sides.

They cannot be called by object.

These are predefined.

Self

it is the object of class itself.

only object can access methods and data of class.

it is required in python to give self as parameter.

Note There are a lot of magic methods provided.

We can use them to make our own datatype.

Instance Variable

All variable created inside constructor.

These have different values for different objects.

• Encapsulation

It is used to hide data from user.

We can hide both variables and methods.

We just use double underscore before them.

Eg: self.pin → can be seen.

self.__pin → hidden.

Eg: Atm() → class.

What actually happens:

When ever python encounters a variable hidden then it converts it into this format.

self._classname__variable

i.e. _Atm__pin

We can still access it as.

self._Atm__pin = " "

Important

hide data members.

provide methods to access them.

This way user can access them according to your logic

every data member can have two methods get and set.

- **Reference Variable**

We can create an object by just 'Atm()' but the problem is we cannot use it afterwards as we did not store it in a variable.

$\text{Atm}()$ → not recommended

$\text{sbi} = \text{Atm}()$ → correct way.

∴ sbi is a variable pointing to the address of the object

This is called reference variable.

Note we can pass object as an argument

We can also return the object from the function.

Pass by reference

If you pass mutable data types then it affects original data types.

∴ You can use cloning or immutable data types.

Objects behave as mutable data type.

Note changes in the function can cause permanent changes outside the function.

- static variable

a variable which has some value for all objects always created outside constructor.
It is also called class variable.

We access static variables through class name.

Eg: if counter is static variable then -

Atm-counter → correct

self-counter → incorrect

static variable do not require object to be called.

static method do not take self as argument.

We define these methods by

@static method

Note

When there are multiple classes they show two types of relationships

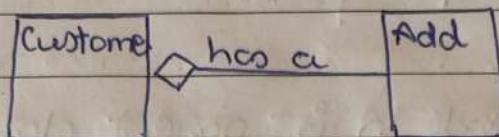
i) Aggregation - has-a

ii) Inheritance - Is-a

Aggregation

The classes that have has-a relationship.

These are shown in class diagram as



• Inheritance

It is a feature of OOP that helps in code reusability.
It is only in one direction.

Class A ← Class B ← Class C

What do we inherit?

All variables

All methods

Constructor

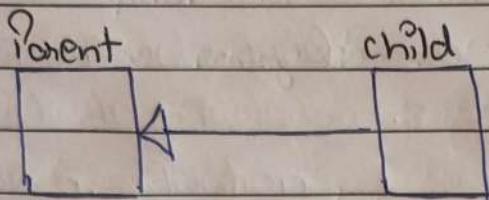
Note Private members are not inherited.

Syntax

Class A: # parent child
code

Class B(A): # child class
code.

class diagram



Note if B is child class and A is parent class. then

- concept 1

if B does not have constructor then it will search for constructor of class A.
object can only be created of child class.

- concept 2

child class cannot access hidden members of parent class.

- Polymorphism

A function to take many forms.

- method overriding

Two functions, one in parent class and another in child class with same name and some arguments.

When object is used to call the function then child class function overrides function of parent class.

- concept 3

If child class has its own constructor, then constructor of parent is not called.

- Super

Super keyword helps us to jump to the parent class.
This does not work outside class.

We can access only two things through it:

parent class At constructor

parent class Methods

Syntax

`super().method`, e.g. `super().buy()`. [for method]

`super().__init__(self..)` [for constructor]

Note super should be first statement inside the constructor.

Types of Inheritance

i) single level

A inherited to B.

ii) multi-level

$A \leftarrow B \leftarrow C \leftarrow D$.

It has levels of inheritance.

iii) Hierarchical

Single parent and multiple child.

iv) Multiple Inheritance

Multiple parents and single child.

Syntax of Multiple Inheritance.

class A(B, C, ...):

Note Suppose a situation.

- 1 Object of class A is created but it does not have a constructor.
 - 2 But both the parent classes have a constructor.
 - 3 The class inherited first will be used for constructor.
- ∴ The class inherited first will have more priority.

This is called Method Resolution Order (MRO).

Method overloading

Two or more functions under same name in some class but different data types or different no. of arguments.

Note Does not exist in python.

Operator overloading

using operators differently for different purpose.
This is done through magic methods.