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Data Classes in Action

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What Are Python Dataclasses?

Dataclasses in Python are a way to simplify the process of creating classes that store data. They automatically generate special methods like <code>__init__()</code>,

__repr__(), __eq__(), and others, based on the class attributes. Introduced in Python 3.7, dataclasses reduce boilerplate code when you primarily need a class to manage data.

Why Do We Need Dataclasses?

- Reduces boilerplate: No need to manually write the __init__(), __repr__(), __eq__() methods.
- Readability: Code is cleaner and easier to maintain.
- Customizability: Dataclasses are still regular Python classes, so you can add additional methods and functionality.

How to Use Dataclasses?

You use the **@dataclass** decorator from the **dataclasses** module to define a dataclass. The decorator automatically generates special methods based on the class attributes.

Syntax of a Modern Python Dataclass

Below is the exhaustive syntax for a Python dataclass covering all related concepts:

```
from dataclasses import dataclass, field, InitVar
from typing import List, Optional

@dataclass(order=True, frozen=False, slots=True)
class Employee:
    # Basic fields with default values
    id: int
    name: str = "Unknown"

# Optional fields with default factories (lists, dictionaries, etc.)
    skills: List[str] = field(default_factory=list)

# Init-only variables (not stored as attributes)
    experience: InitVar[int] = 0

# Private fields with custom metadata
    _salary: float = field(repr=False, compare=False, metadata={"unit": "USD"})

# Post-init method for further processing after the object is created
```

```
def __post_init__(self, experience: int):
    if experience < 5:
        self._salary = 50000
    else:
        self._salary = 70000

# Example method
def give_raise(self, amount: float):
    self._salary += amount

# Usage
emp = Employee(id=1, name="Alice", experience=3)
print(emp) # Output: Employee(id=1, name='Alice', skills=[])
print(emp._salary) # Output: 50000

emp.give_raise(5000)
print(emp._salary) # Output: 55000</pre>
```

Explanation of Key Features

Featur Meaning	Usage
@dataclinesdecorator that makes the class a dataclass, auto-generating methods likeinit().	@dataclass above the class definition.
<pre>order=Transerates comparison methods (<, <=,</pre>	@dataclass(order=True) to enable ordering.
frozen**Falksethe instance immutable (if set to True).	Odataclass(frozen=True) to make the class immutable.
slots=Chriemizes memory usage by not storing attributes in the usual dict but in a static structure (Python 3.10+).	<pre>@dataclass(slots=True) for memory efficiency.</pre>
field(Fine-tunes the behavior of individual fields (e.g., default values, whether to include in repr, comparison, etc.).	<pre>field(default=, repr=False, compare=False) to customize field behavior.</pre>
InitVaDefines init-only variables, used during initialization but not stored as instance attributes.	experience: InitVar[int] = 0 — this variable is only available in the constructor and is not an attribute.

Featur Meaning	\mathbf{Usage}
postAinptcia()method that runs after theinit method. It's useful when you want to process fields after initialization or work with InitVar.	Custom logic such as setting _salary based on experience insidepost_init
defaultsedcttoryt default values for mutable types like lists or dictionaries.	<pre>skills: List[str] = field(default_factory=list) to initialize a list.</pre>
metadatallows storing additional metadata for a field, useful for validation or documentation.	_salary: float = field(metadata={"unit": "USD"}) — metadata is just extra information associated with the field.

Dataclass Example vs. Regular Class Example

Regular Class Example

```
class Employee:
   def __init__(self, id, name="Unknown", skills=None, experience=0):
        self.id = id
        self.name = name
        self.skills = skills if skills is not None else []
        self.experience = experience
        self._salary = 50000 if experience < 5 else 70000</pre>
   def give_raise(self, amount):
        self._salary += amount
    def __repr__(self):
        return f"Employee(id={self.id}, name={self.name}, skills={self.skills})"
# Usage
emp = Employee(id=1, name="Alice", experience=3)
print(emp) # Output: Employee(id=1, name='Alice', skills=[])
print(emp._salary) # Output: 50000
emp.give raise(5000)
print(emp._salary) # Output: 55000
```

Dataclass Example

from dataclasses import dataclass, field

```
@dataclass
class Employee:
   id: int
   name: str = "Unknown"
   skills: list = field(default_factory=list)
   experience: int = 0
    _salary: float = field(init=False, repr=False)
   def __post_init__(self):
        self._salary = 50000 if self.experience < 5 else 70000</pre>
   def give_raise(self, amount: float):
        self._salary += amount
# Usage
emp = Employee(id=1, name="Alice", experience=3)
print(emp) # Output: Employee(id=1, name='Alice', skills=[])
print(emp._salary) # Output: 50000
emp.give_raise(5000)
print(emp._salary) # Output: 55000
```

Summary Table

Concept	Description	Example
What	Simplified way to create classes	@dataclass decorator on a
are	focused on storing data, reducing	class.
Data-	boilerplate.	
classes?		
\mathbf{Why}	To automatically generate	Less manual code needed.
Data-	methods likeinit(),	
classes?	repr(), andeq().	
$\mathbf{U}\mathbf{sage}$	Add @dataclass decorator and	@dataclass and define fields
	define class attributes like regular class fields.	like id: int, name: str.
Field	Customizes individual fields with	field(default_factory=list
	defaults, whether they should be compared, etc.	repr=False) for a list field.
**post_i	nia lows post-initialization	Initialize _salary after
- —	processing, useful for logic that depends on other fields.	setting experience in the constructor.

Concept	Description	Example
InitVar	Init-only variables that aren't stored as attributes, available only inpost_init().	experience: InitVar[int] = 0 can be passed but isn't stored.
Slots	Optimizes memory usage by reducing overhead fromdict	Odataclass(slots=True) to use memory-efficient attribute storage.
Order	Generates ordering methods (<, >, <=, >=).	@dataclass(order=True) allows comparisons between instances.
Frozen	Makes the class immutable (frozen instances cannot be modified).	@dataclass(frozen=True) prevents any modification of instance attributes.
Default Facto- ries	Assign default values for mutable types such as lists or dictionaries.	field(default_factory=list initializes an empty list if no value is provided.

This summary should give you a comprehensive understanding of Python's dataclasses and how to use them effectively!

Why Do We Need default_factory?

In Python, mutable default arguments (like lists, dictionaries, sets, etc.) can lead to unexpected behavior. If a mutable default argument is shared across instances of a class, modifying it in one instance can affect other instances.

To avoid this issue, default_factory in Python dataclasses is used to create default values for fields that need mutable data types or for dynamically computed values. It ensures each instance gets a fresh, independent object rather than sharing one.

When to Use default_factory?

- Mutable default values: For fields that need mutable types (lists, dictionaries), using a factory function ensures that each instance has its own independent copy.
- **Dynamic defaults**: When the default value of a field depends on some logic, and you want that logic to run when the class is instantiated (instead of at the time of definition).
- Lazy initialization: When an object or value should only be created at runtime.

How to Use default_factory?

You use the field() function with the default_factory argument, passing a callable (usually a function or class) that generates the default value. Here are some examples:

Examples of default_factory Usage

1. Using default_factory for Mutable Data Containers (List)

from dataclasses import dataclass, field

```
@dataclass
class Team:
    members: list = field(default_factory=list)

# Each Team instance gets a new empty list for members
team1 = Team()
team2 = Team()

team1.members.append("Alice")
print(team1.members) # Output: ['Alice']
print(team2.members) # Output: [] (Not affected by team1)
```

In this example, without default_factory, using a default argument like members: list = [] would result in both team1 and team2 sharing the same list.

2. Using default_factory with a Function

```
from dataclasses import dataclass, field
import random

def generate_id():
    return random.randint(1000, 9999)

@dataclass
class Employee:
    id: int = field(default_factory=generate_id)
        name: str = "Unknown"

# Each Employee gets a random ID at instantiation
emp1 = Employee(name="Alice")
emp2 = Employee(name="Bob")
```

```
print(emp1.id) # Output: Random ID, e.g., 1203
print(emp2.id) # Output: Different random ID, e.g., 4537
```

Here, generate_id() is a function that provides a dynamic default value, ensuring each employee gets a unique ID.

3. Using default_factory for Complex Nested Structures

```
from dataclasses import dataclass, field
from typing import Dict

@dataclass
class Inventory:
    stock: Dict[str, int] = field(default_factory=lambda: {'apple': 0, 'banana': 0})

# Each Inventory instance gets its own dictionary
inv1 = Inventory()
inv2 = Inventory()
inv1.stock['apple'] += 10
print(inv1.stock) # Output: {'apple': 10, 'banana': 0}
print(inv2.stock) # Output: {'apple': 0, 'banana': 0} (Not affected by inv1)
This example shows how default factory can be used to initialize nested data
```

structures, like a dictionary.

4. Using default_factory for Lazy Initialization Sometimes, you might want a field to be initialized only when the class is instantiated, which is especially useful for expensive computations.

```
@dataclass
```

```
class DatabaseConnection:
    conn: str = field(default_factory=lambda: "Connected to DB")

@dataclass
class Application:
    db_connection: DatabaseConnection = field(default_factory=DatabaseConnection)

app = Application()
print(app.db_connection.conn)  # Output: Connected to DB

In this example, the DatabaseConnection object is only created when the
```

In this example, the DatabaseConnection object is only created when the Application class is instantiated.

Summary Table for default_factory

Use		
Case	Description	Example
	Use default_factory to	field(default_factory=list)
De-	avoid shared mutable default	for a list.
faults	arguments.	
Dynamic	Use it to generate dynamic	<pre>field(default_factory=generate_id)</pre>
Default	values at runtime, e.g., random	where generate_id() returns a
Values	IDs or values based on logic.	unique value for each instance.
Complex	Use it for initializing fields	<pre>field(default_factory=lambda:</pre>
Data	with complex types like	{'key': 0}) for initializing a
Struc-	dictionaries or other data	dictionary.
tures	containers.	
Lazy	Create expensive or delayed	field(default_factory=DatabaseConnection
Initial-	objects only at the time of	ensures a connection object is
ization	instantiation.	created when needed.

Why Do We Need __post_init__()?

In Python dataclasses, __post_init__() is a special method that gets called after the dataclass __init__() method completes. This is useful when you need to perform some additional logic after the object is initialized, especially when you have fields like InitVar that are not stored as attributes or when you need to perform computations that depend on multiple fields.

When to Use __post_init__()?

- **Post-constructor initialization**: When additional initialization or validation is required after the default __init__() is run.
- Working with InitVar: You can handle InitVar variables (those that are passed during initialization but are not stored as attributes) in __post_init__().
- **Dependent computations**: If certain attributes need to be set or computed based on the values of other fields, __post_init__() is a good place to do that.

How to Use __post_init__()?

You define a __post_init__() method within your dataclass. This method is automatically called right after the __init__() method, allowing you to add

any logic you want.

```
Examples of __post_init__() Usage
1. Basic Usage of __post_init__()
from dataclasses import dataclass
@dataclass
class Person:
   name: str
    age: int
    status: str = "Unknown"
    def __post_init__(self):
        if self.age >= 18:
            self.status = "Adult"
        else:
            self.status = "Minor"
# Usage
person1 = Person(name="Alice", age=20)
person2 = Person(name="Bob", age=15)
print(person1) # Output: Person(name='Alice', age=20, status='Adult')
print(person2) # Output: Person(name='Bob', age=15, status='Minor')
In this example, \_\_post\_init\_\_() is used to set the status field based on the
age value after initialization.
2. Using InitVar with <code>__post_init__()</code> InitVar allows you to pass values
during initialization but not store them as attributes. You can process them in
__post_init__().
from dataclasses import dataclass, field, InitVar
@dataclass
class Product:
    name: str
    price: float
    discount: InitVar[float] = 0.0 # Passed during init, not stored as an attribute
    final_price: float = field(init=False)
    def __post_init__(self, discount: float):
```

```
self.final_price = self.price - (self.price * discount)
# Usage
product = Product(name="Laptop", price=1000, discount=0.1)
print(product) # Output: Product(name='Laptop', price=1000, final_price=900.0)
In this case, the discount is an InitVar that is passed during initialization but
is only used inside __post_init__() to compute the final_price.
     Handling Field Validation in __post_init__() You can use
__post_init__() to validate fields after initialization.
from dataclasses import dataclass
@dataclass
class BankAccount:
    account_number: str
    balance: float
    def __post_init__(self):
        if self.balance < 0:</pre>
            raise ValueError("Balance cannot be negative!")
# Usage
try:
    account = BankAccount(account_number="123ABC", balance=-100)
except ValueError as e:
    print(e) # Output: Balance cannot be negative!
Here, __post_init__() checks whether the balance is negative and raises an
error if it is.
4. Using __post_init__() for Dependent Initialization When one field's
initialization depends on another, \_\_post\_init\_\_() can help handle that.
from dataclasses import dataclass, field
@dataclass
class Rectangle:
    width: float
    height: float
    area: float = field(init=False)
    def __post_init__(self):
```

```
self.area = self.width * self.height
```

Usage

```
rect = Rectangle(width=5, height=10)
print(rect.area) # Output: 50
```

Here, the area field is computed based on the width and height fields during __post_init__().

Summary Table for __post_init__()

Use		
Case	Description	Example
Post-	Allows further processing after	Set status based
constructo	rinit(), particularly when the class's	on age after the
initial-	default constructor isn't enough to	object is initialized.
ization	initialize all values correctly.	•
Working	Enables processing of variables passed	Use discount to
with	during initialization but not stored as	calculate
InitVar	attributes.	final_price without storing discount.
Dependent	Useful for fields that depend on the values	Compute area after
compu-	of other fields, especially when computed	initializing width
tations	dynamically.	and height.
\mathbf{Field}	Allows validation of fields after the object	Raise an error if the
valida-	is constructed, ensuring valid values (e.g.,	balance is negative
tion	checking for negative balances).	in a BankAccount class.

Let me know if you'd like more detailed examples or have other questions about dataclasses!

1. init: Add __init__() Method?

What It Is: The init parameter controls whether the <code>__init__()</code> method should be auto-generated for your dataclass. If set to <code>True</code> (the default), the dataclass will generate an <code>__init__()</code> method based on the fields defined in the class.

Why We Need It: In most cases, we want dataclasses to auto-generate the __init__() method, saving us the trouble of manually writing it. However,

there are cases where you may want to manage the initialization yourself (e.g., when more complex logic is required or when using another design pattern).

Example:

```
from dataclasses import dataclass
@dataclass(init=True)
class Car:
   make: str
   model: str
car = Car(make="Toyota", model="Corolla")
print(car) # Output: Car(make='Toyota', model='Corolla')
# If init=False, you must provide your own constructor.
@dataclass(init=False)
class CarManualInit:
   make: str
   model: str
    def __init__(self, make, model):
        self.make = make
        self.model = model
car_manual = CarManualInit(make="Toyota", model="Corolla")
print(car_manual) # Output: CarManualInit(make='Toyota', model='Corolla')
```

2. repr: Add __repr__() Method?

What It Is: The repr parameter controls whether a __repr__() method should be auto-generated for your dataclass. This method returns a string that represents the object in a readable way, useful for debugging or logging.

Why We Need It: Having a good __repr__() method makes it easier to inspect and debug objects. However, in cases where you want to hide certain fields or provide a custom representation, you can set repr=False or manually define your own __repr__() method.

Example:

```
@dataclass(repr=True)
class Employee:
   name: str
   position: str
```

```
emp = Employee(name="Alice", position="Engineer")
print(emp)  # Output: Employee(name='Alice', position='Engineer')

# Custom repr or hiding field from repr:
@dataclass(repr=False)
class ConfidentialEmployee:
    name: str
    position: str

emp_conf = ConfidentialEmployee(name="Bob", position="Manager")
print(emp_conf)  # Output: <__main__.ConfidentialEmployee object at Ox...>
```

3. eq: Add __eq__() Method?

What It Is: The eq parameter controls whether the dataclass should autogenerate the <code>__eq__()</code> method, which compares two objects for equality. By default, it checks whether the values of all the fields are the same between two instances.

Why We Need It: The __eq__() method is useful for checking equality between instances. In certain cases, you may not want equality to depend on all fields, or you may want to implement a custom equality method.

Example:

```
@dataclass(eq=True)
class Product:
    name: str
    price: float

prod1 = Product(name="Phone", price=699.99)
prod2 = Product(name="Phone", price=699.99)
print(prod1 == prod2)  # Output: True

# eq=False disables the automatic equality check:
@dataclass(eq=False)
class ManualProduct:
    name: str
    price: float

prod_manual = ManualProduct(name="Phone", price=699.99)
prod_manual2 = ManualProduct(name="Phone", price=699.99)
print(prod_manual == prod_manual2)  # Output: False (No equality check)
```

4. order: Add Ordering Methods?

What It Is: The order parameter controls whether comparison methods (<, <=, >, >=) are auto-generated. If order=True, the dataclass will add ordering methods based on the field values.

Why We Need It: If you want to compare instances of a dataclass (e.g., sorting employees by salary), you can set order=True to auto-generate the comparison methods.

Example:

```
Odataclass(order=True)
class Employee:
    name: str
    salary: float

emp1 = Employee(name="Alice", salary=50000)
emp2 = Employee(name="Bob", salary=60000)

print(emp1 < emp2)  # Output: True (because 50000 < 60000)

# order=False by default, so no ordering methods are generated.
Odataclass(order=False)
class UnorderedEmployee:
    name: str
    salary: float

# This will raise an error if you try to compare instances
# unordered_emp1 < unordered_emp2 -> TypeError: '<' not supported</pre>
```

5. unsafe_hash: Force the Addition of a __hash__() Method?

What It Is: The unsafe_hash parameter forces the generation of a __hash__() method, even when the class is mutable. Normally, mutable classes (which can change their values) should not be hashable because their hash might change when fields change.

Why We Need It: Use unsafe_hash=True if you need instances of your dataclass to be hashable (e.g., to be used in sets or as dictionary keys), but be careful—changing a field after hashing can lead to inconsistent results.

Example:

```
Qdataclass(unsafe_hash=True)
class Product:
    name: str
    price: float

prod = Product(name="Laptop", price=1000)
print(hash(prod))  # Hash is generated and can be used as a key in dictionaries

# unsafe_hash=False (default), so normally this would raise an error if you try to hash
@dataclass(unsafe_hash=False)
class UnhashableProduct:
    name: str
    price: float

# unhashable_prod = UnhashableProduct(name="Phone", price=699)
# hash(unhashable_prod) -> TypeError: unhashable type: 'UnhashableProduct'
```

6. frozen: Make the Instance Immutable?

What It Is: The frozen parameter makes a dataclass immutable. If frozen=True, the fields cannot be changed after initialization, and attempts to modify them will raise an exception.

Why We Need It: If you need your dataclass to be immutable (like a tuple), use frozen=True. This is especially useful when you want instances to be hashable, as immutability guarantees consistent hash values.

Example:

```
@dataclass(frozen=True)
class ImmutableEmployee:
    name: str
    position: str

emp = ImmutableEmployee(name="Alice", position="Engineer")
# emp.name = "Bob" # Raises: FrozenInstanceError: cannot assign to field 'name'

# frozen=False (default), allows field modification
@dataclass(frozen=False)
class MutableEmployee:
    name: str
    position: str
```

```
emp_mutable = MutableEmployee(name="Alice", position="Engineer")
emp_mutable.name = "Bob"  # Works because the instance is mutable
print(emp_mutable.name)  # Output: Bob
```

Summary Table for @dataclass() Parameters

Parameteription Defa		Defau	Defau l Example	
init	Automatically adds aninit() method that initializes the fields.	True	@dataclass(init=False) if you want to manually define the constructor.	
repr	Automatically adds arepr() method for a readable string representation.	True	<pre>@dataclass(repr=False) if you don't want the default string representation.</pre>	
eq	Automatically adds aneq() method for checking equality between instances.	True	Odataclass(eq=False) if you want to disable automatic equality checks.	
order	Automatically adds ordering methods (<, <=, >, >=) for comparing instances.	False	Odataclass (order=True) if you want to enable instance comparison.	
unsafe	Enasts the addition of ahash() method, even for mutable instances. Use with caution, as it can lead to inconsistent behavior if fields are changed.	False	Qdataclass (unsafe_hash=1) to make instances hashable, even if the class is mutable.	
froze	nMakes the dataclass immutable (fields cannot be modified after initialization).	False	<pre>@dataclass(frozen=True) if you want to make the instance immutable like a tuple.</pre>	

This breakdown covers each parameter with explanations and examples, showing how they can customize the behavior of dataclasses. Let me know if you'd like more details!