



Independent
Skill Development
Mission



ISDM (INDEPENDENT SKILL DEVELOPMENT MISSION)

INTRODUCTION TO OOP

1. CLASS AND OBJECT CONCEPTS IN PYTHON

In object-oriented programming (OOP), classes and objects are central concepts. A **class** is a blueprint for creating objects, and an **object** is an instance of a class. Understanding these concepts is essential for creating organized, maintainable, and scalable programs in Python. In this chapter, we will delve into the concepts of classes and objects, explaining how to define classes, create objects, and understand the relationship between the two.

1.1. What is a Class?

A **class** in Python is like a blueprint for creating objects. It defines the properties (attributes) and behaviors (methods) that an object created from the class will have. Classes provide a means of bundling data and functionality together. A class is a user-defined data type that allows you to create objects with predefined attributes and behaviors.

- **Defining a Class:** A class is defined using the class keyword followed by the class name. Inside the class, you define the methods that operate on the data (attributes) associated with the class.
 - **Example of Class Definition:**
 - `class Dog:`
 - `# Constructor (initializes the object)`
 - `def __init__(self, name, age):`
 - `self.name = name # Attribute`
 - `self.age = age # Attribute`
 -

- # Method that describes the behavior of the Dog class
- def bark(self):
- print(f"{self.name} says woof!")
-
- # Create an instance (object) of the class
- my_dog = Dog("Buddy", 4)
- my_dog.bark() # Output: Buddy says woof!

In this example, the Dog class is defined with an `__init__` method, which is the constructor that initializes the attributes name and age. The bark method is a behavior associated with a dog object, and when called, it outputs a message with the dog's name.

- **Attributes:** Attributes are variables that are associated with a class and its instances. They define the state or characteristics of the object. In the Dog class, name and age are attributes that store the name and age of the dog, respectively.
- **Methods:** Methods are functions that define the behaviors of a class. They can operate on the class's attributes or perform other actions. In the Dog class, the bark method defines what the dog should do when it barks, which is printing a message.

1.2. What is an Object?

An **object** is an instance of a class. When a class is defined, it serves as a blueprint for creating objects. Each object can have its own unique attributes, but they will share the methods defined by the class. You can think of an object as a specific "real-world" example of the class, like a particular dog created from the Dog class.

- **Creating Objects:** Once a class is defined, objects can be created by calling the class as if it were a function. Each object created from a class can have its own unique data (attributes), but they will all share the same structure and behavior defined by the class.
 - **Example of Object Creation:**
 - my_dog = Dog("Buddy", 4)

- another_dog = Dog("Bella", 2)
-
- print(my_dog.name) # Output: Buddy
- print(another_dog.name) # Output: Bella

Here, we create two objects: my_dog and another_dog. Both are instances of the Dog class but have different values for their attributes. Each object has its own set of attributes, allowing them to hold unique data.

1.3. Class and Object Relationship

The relationship between a class and an object is essential for understanding object-oriented programming. A class serves as a template, while objects are concrete instances of that template. The class defines the structure and behavior, and objects are specific examples of that structure, with actual data.

- **Instance Variables and Methods:** Each object created from a class has its own copy of instance variables (attributes). These variables store data that is unique to each object. However, the methods of the class are shared by all objects created from that class.
 - **Example of Instance Variables and Methods:**
 - class Car:
 - def __init__(self, make, model, year):
 - self.make = make
 - self.model = model
 - self.year = year
 -
 - def display_info(self):
 - print(f"{self.year} {self.make} {self.model}")
 -
 - car1 = Car("Toyota", "Corolla", 2020)
 - car2 = Car("Honda", "Civic", 2021)

-
- `car1.display_info()` # Output: 2020 Toyota Corolla
- `car2.display_info()` # Output: 2021 Honda Civic

In this example, the Car class has instance variables like make, model, and year, which store information about each car. The `display_info` method prints the car's details. Each object, `car1` and `car2`, holds its own values for these variables, but both share the same method.

2. ADVANCED CONCEPTS: INHERITANCE, POLYMORPHISM, AND ENCAPSULATION

2.1. Inheritance in Python

Inheritance allows one class to inherit the attributes and methods of another class, making it easier to create new classes that share functionality with existing ones. Inheritance allows you to create a new class based on an existing class, which can be useful for code reuse and logical organization.

- **Example of Inheritance:**
- `class Animal:`
- `def __init__(self, name):`
- `self.name = name`
-
- `def speak(self):`
- `print(f"{self.name} makes a sound")`
-
- `class Dog(Animal):`
- `def speak(self):`
- `print(f"{self.name} barks")`
-

- `dog = Dog("Buddy")`
- `dog.speak()` # Output: Buddy barks

In this example, Dog is a subclass of Animal, meaning it inherits the `__init__` method and the name attribute from the Animal class. The Dog class overrides the `speak` method to provide a dog-specific behavior.

2.2. Polymorphism in Python

Polymorphism refers to the ability to use the same method name to perform different tasks. In Python, this is often achieved through method overriding or dynamic method binding. With polymorphism, the same method name can behave differently depending on the object calling it.

- **Example of Polymorphism:**
- `class Cat(Animal):`
- `def speak(self):`
- `print(f"{self.name} meows")`
-
- `cat = Cat("Whiskers")`
- `cat.speak()` # Output: Whiskers meows

Here, both Dog and Cat have a `speak` method, but the behavior of `speak` depends on the type of object. This is an example of polymorphism, where the same method name behaves differently for different types of objects.

2.3. Encapsulation in Python

Encapsulation is the practice of keeping fields (variables) and methods bundled together within a class, restricting access to certain components. It helps protect the internal state of an object from unintended modification. This is typically achieved using access modifiers like `public`, `protected`, and `private`.

- **Example of Encapsulation:**
- `class BankAccount:`
- `def __init__(self, owner, balance):`

- `self.owner = owner`
- `self.__balance = balance # Private variable`
-
- `def deposit(self, amount):`
- `if amount > 0:`
- `self.__balance += amount`
-
- `def withdraw(self, amount):`
- `if amount <= self.__balance:`
- `self.__balance -= amount`
-
- `def get_balance(self):`
- `return self.__balance`
-
- `account = BankAccount("John", 1000)`
- `account.deposit(500)`
- `account.withdraw(200)`
- `print(account.get_balance()) # Output: 1300`

In this example, the `__balance` attribute is private, meaning it cannot be directly accessed from outside the class. The `deposit`, `withdraw`, and `get_balance` methods provide controlled access to the balance, demonstrating the principle of encapsulation.

3. BEST PRACTICES IN OBJECT-ORIENTED PROGRAMMING

3.1. Organize Your Classes and Objects

When designing classes, think about the functionality you want to encapsulate. Create classes that are responsible for specific tasks and ensure that the attributes and methods align with the class's purpose. Avoid making classes too large or too general.

- **Best Practice:**

- Each class should represent a specific entity with clear responsibilities.
- Use meaningful class and method names that convey their purpose.

3.2. Use Inheritance and Polymorphism Wisely

While inheritance is a powerful feature, avoid overusing it. If you find yourself using inheritance excessively, it may be a sign that your design needs to be simplified. Polymorphism can be extremely useful but should be implemented when necessary to avoid confusion.

- **Best Practice:**

- Use inheritance when there is a clear "is-a" relationship between classes.
- Use polymorphism to enhance flexibility but ensure that it is intuitive for users of your classes.

3.3. Encapsulate Data

Encapsulation helps maintain the integrity of your objects. By keeping data private and providing methods for accessing and modifying it, you prevent unintended side effects and make the system more reliable.

- **Best Practice:**

- Use encapsulation to protect the internal state of an object and provide controlled access via methods.

EXERCISE

1. Exercise 1: Creating a Class

Create a class called Book with attributes like title, author, and price. Include methods to display the book details and change the price.

2. **Exercise 2: Inheritance and Method Overriding**

Create a base class Vehicle with a method start(). Create subclasses Car and Bike that override the start() method with their own implementation. Create instances of each class and call the start() method.

3. **Exercise 3: Encapsulation**

Create a class called Employee with private attributes name and salary. Provide getter and setter methods to access and update the salary. Add logic to prevent the salary from being set to a negative value.

CASE STUDY: CLASS AND OBJECT CONCEPTS IN REAL-WORLD APPLICATION

CASE STUDY: E-COMMERCE SYSTEM

In an e-commerce system, classes and objects are used extensively. For example, you could define classes for Product, Customer, and Order. Each Product object would have attributes like name, price, and stock, while a Customer object would have attributes like name, email, and address. The Order class would manage the relationship between products and customers.

- **Example:**
- class Product:
- def __init__(self, name, price, stock):
- self.name = name
- self.price = price
- self.stock = stock
-
- class Customer:
- def __init__(self, name, email):
- self.name = name
- self.email = email

-
- class Order:
- def __init__(self, customer, product):
- self.customer = customer
- self.product = product
-
- def display_order(self):
- print(f"Order for {self.customer.name}: {self.product.name} at \${self.product.price}")
-
- product1 = Product("Laptop", 1200, 10)
- customer1 = Customer("Alice", "alice@example.com")
- order1 = Order(customer1, product1)
-
- order1.display_order() # Output: Order for Alice: Laptop at \$1200

This comprehensive study material covers the **Class and Object Concepts in Python**, providing clear explanations, examples, and practical exercises to help you understand these essential concepts of object-oriented programming.

DEFINING A CLASS

1.1 Introduction to Classes

In Python, a **class** is a blueprint for creating objects, defining initial states, and the behaviors that those objects will exhibit. Classes are an essential part of object-oriented programming (OOP) and allow for the bundling of data and functionality together. A class encapsulates data for the object and defines functions (known as methods) that can modify that data or perform operations related to the data.

When defining a class in Python, the structure of the class consists of attributes (variables) and methods (functions). Attributes represent the data or state of an object, while methods define the behaviors or actions the object can perform. For instance, in a class representing a "Car," the attributes might be the car's color, model, and year, and the methods could be actions such as starting the car, stopping it, or honking the horn.

A basic structure of a class is defined using the class keyword:

```
class Car:
```

```
    # Constructor to initialize the object
```

```
    def __init__(self, make, model, year):
```

```
        self.make = make
```

```
        self.model = model
```

```
        self.year = year
```

```
    # Method to display car details
```

```
    def display_details(self):
```

```
        print(f"Car Details: {self.year} {self.make} {self.model}")
```

In the above example, the class Car has a constructor `__init__()` that initializes the attributes make, model, and year. The `display_details` method prints the details of the car when called. To create an instance of the Car class, you would use the following syntax:

```
my_car = Car("Toyota", "Corolla", 2021)
```

```
my_car.display_details() # Output: Car Details: 2021 Toyota Corolla
```

This approach of defining a class allows us to create multiple instances (objects) of Car, each with its own unique set of attributes, while still sharing common behavior defined in the class methods.

1.2 The Constructor and Instance Variables

The constructor method `__init__()` in Python is a special method used to initialize the state of the object when it is created. It is automatically called when an object is instantiated from the class. This method typically sets the initial values of the attributes of the class. The `self` keyword is used to refer to the instance of the class, allowing you to assign values to the instance variables.

For example, consider the following class Person:

```
class Person:
```

```
    def __init__(self, name, age):
```

```
        self.name = name
```

```
        self.age = age
```

```
    def greet(self):
```

```
        print(f"Hello, my name is {self.name} and I am {self.age} years old.")
```

Here, the constructor method `__init__()` initializes the attributes `name` and `age` when a new object of `Person` is created. The `greet()` method prints a greeting using these attributes.

```
person1 = Person("Alice", 30)
```

```
person1.greet() # Output: Hello, my name is Alice and I am 30 years old.
```

In this example, the `__init__()` method assigns the passed values to the instance variables `self.name` and `self.age`, and the `greet()` method uses these values to perform an action (greeting). By using the `self` keyword, the instance variables are tied to the specific object created from the class.

Real-World Example: Consider a system for managing a library. A `Book` class can be defined to represent each book in the library. Each book will have attributes such as title, author, and ISBN number, and methods to perform actions such as checking in and checking out the book. The `__init__()` method initializes the attributes, and each book object will store its own specific details.

1.3 Instance Methods and Class Methods

In Python, methods are functions that are defined within a class and describe the behaviors of the objects created from the class. There are two types of methods that can be defined in a class: **instance methods** and **class methods**.

1.3.1 Instance Methods

Instance methods are the most common type of methods. These methods operate on instance variables (attributes) and can modify the state of the object. They take `self` as the first parameter, which refers to the instance of the object.

Example:

```
class Dog:

    def __init__(self, name, age):

        self.name = name

        self.age = age

    def bark(self):

        print(f'{self.name} says Woof!')
```

In this example, the `bark` method is an instance method that uses the `self` parameter to access the `name` attribute of the dog. When you create a `Dog` object, each instance will have its own `name` and `age`:

```
dog1 = Dog("Buddy", 5)

dog1.bark() # Output: Buddy says Woof!
```

1.3.2 Class Methods

Class methods are different from instance methods. They are used to perform actions that affect the class itself rather than individual instances. Class methods take `cls` as the first parameter, which refers to the class, not an instance of the class. They are defined using the `@classmethod` decorator.

Example:

```
class Car:

    total_cars = 0 # Class attribute
```

```
def __init__(self, make, model):
```

```
    self.make = make
```

```
    self.model = model
```

```
    Car.total_cars += 1
```

```
@classmethod
```

```
def get_total_cars(cls):
```

```
    print(f"Total cars: {cls.total_cars}")
```

Here, `get_total_cars()` is a class method that prints the total number of Car instances. The `total_cars` class attribute keeps track of how many Car objects have been created.

```
car1 = Car("Toyota", "Corolla")
```

```
car2 = Car("Honda", "Civic")
```

```
Car.get_total_cars() # Output: Total cars: 2
```

Class methods are typically used for managing or modifying class-level data, like tracking the number of instances of a class.

Real-World Example: In a class that handles customer accounts, a class method might be used to get the total number of customer accounts, while instance methods would be used to retrieve or modify information for individual customer objects.

1.4 Inheritance in Classes

Inheritance is a key concept in object-oriented programming that allows one class to inherit the attributes and methods from another class. This enables code reuse and extension of functionality.

In Python, inheritance is achieved by defining a class that is a child (or subclass) of an existing class (or superclass). The child class inherits all attributes and methods from the parent class, but can also define additional attributes or override the methods to provide custom behavior.

Example:

```
class Animal:
```

```
    def __init__(self, name):
```

```
self.name = name
```

```
def speak(self):
```

```
    print(f"{self.name} makes a sound")
```

```
class Dog(Animal):
```

```
    def __init__(self, name, breed):
```

```
        super().__init__(name) # Call the parent class's constructor
```

```
        self.breed = breed
```

```
    def speak(self):
```

```
        print(f"{self.name} barks")
```

```
class Cat(Animal):
```

```
    def __init__(self, name, color):
```

```
        super().__init__(name) # Call the parent class's constructor
```

```
        self.color = color
```

```
    def speak(self):
```

```
        print(f"{self.name} meows")
```

In this example, the Dog and Cat classes inherit from the Animal class, which has a speak() method. Each subclass overrides the speak() method to implement the behavior specific to each animal. The super().__init__(name) calls the constructor of the parent class (Animal) to initialize the name attribute.

```
dog = Dog("Buddy", "Golden Retriever")
```

```
cat = Cat("Whiskers", "Tabby")
```

```
dog.speak() # Output: Buddy barks
```

```
cat.speak() # Output: Whiskers meows
```

Inheritance allows you to create specialized classes based on a general class, facilitating code reuse and improving the organization of the code.

1.5 Exercises

1. **Create a class called Book** with attributes for title, author, and price. Define methods to display the book details and apply a discount to the price.
2. **Create a class called BankAccount** with attributes for account holder name and balance. Define methods for depositing money, withdrawing money, and displaying the current balance.
3. **Create a subclass of Vehicle called Car.** Add an attribute for model and override the method to display the details of the car, including the model.

1.6 Case Study

Company: Online Learning Platform

Problem: The platform needed to create a system to manage users, where users could be students or instructors. Both students and instructors share some common attributes (name, email), but each type of user has specific behaviors (e.g., students enroll in courses, instructors create courses).

Solution: The platform's development team created a base User class with common attributes and methods, and then created two subclasses: Student and Instructor. The Student class included methods for enrolling in courses, while the Instructor class included methods for creating courses.

```
class User:
```

```
    def __init__(self, name, email):
```

```
        self.name = name
```

```
        self.email = email
```

```
    def display_info(self):
```

```
        print(f'Name: {self.name}, Email: {self.email}')
```

```
class Student(User):

    def __init__(self, name, email, enrolled_courses):

        super().__init__(name, email)

        self.enrolled_courses = enrolled_courses


    def enroll(self, course):

        self.enrolled_courses.append(course)


class Instructor(User):

    def __init__(self, name, email, courses_created):

        super().__init__(name, email)

        self.courses_created = courses_created


    def create_course(self, course):

        self.courses_created.append(course)
```

Outcome: This approach provided a clear structure for managing different types of users while minimizing code duplication. Each subclass added specific functionality relevant to its type, and the base class handled shared attributes.

Defining a class in Python is a fundamental concept in object-oriented programming. By creating **classes**, you can model real-world entities and behaviors, organize your code efficiently, and take advantage of features like inheritance and encapsulation. Understanding how to define and work with classes allows you to create modular and reusable code, which is essential for building robust and maintainable software.

1. CONSTRUCTORS AND DESTRUCTORS IN PYTHON

In Python, **constructors** and **destructors** are special methods used to initialize and clean up objects. The **constructor** is automatically called when an object is created from a class, while the **destructor** is automatically called when an object is about to be destroyed. These methods play a vital role in object-oriented programming, allowing developers to set up initial conditions for an object and clean up resources once an object is no longer needed. This chapter will cover both constructors and destructors in detail, with examples and practical use cases.

1.1. What is a Constructor?

A **constructor** in Python is a special method that is automatically invoked when an object of a class is created. The purpose of the constructor is to initialize the object's attributes and set up the necessary state of the object. In Python, the constructor is defined using the `__init__()` method. The `__init__()` method is called when the class is instantiated, and it takes at least one argument (usually referred to as `self`), which refers to the current instance of the object.

- **Defining a Constructor:** The `__init__()` method can take additional arguments to allow the initialization of the object with specific values. These arguments can be used to set the object's attributes when the object is created.
 - **Example of Constructor:**
 - `class Car:`
 - `def __init__(self, make, model, year):`
 - `self.make = make`
 - `self.model = model`
 - `self.year = year`
 -
 - `def display_info(self):`
 - `print(f"{self.year} {self.make} {self.model}")`
 -
 - **# Creating an instance (object) of the Car class**
 - `car1 = Car("Toyota", "Camry", 2020)`

- `car1.display_info()` # Output: 2020 Toyota Camry

In this example, the constructor `__init__()` initializes the attributes `make`, `model`, and `year` when a `Car` object is created. The `display_info()` method prints the car's details.

- **The Role of self in the Constructor:** In Python, `self` refers to the instance of the class. It is automatically passed to the constructor whenever an object is created. It allows access to the object's attributes and methods from within the class. You don't need to pass `self` when creating an object; Python handles it for you.

- **Example with self:**
- `class Person:`
- `def __init__(self, name, age):`
- `self.name = name`
- `self.age = age`
-
- `def greet(self):`
- `print(f"Hello, my name is {self.name} and I am {self.age} years old.")`
-
- `person1 = Person("Alice", 30)`
- `person1.greet()` # Output: Hello, my name is Alice and I am 30 years old.

In this example, `self.name` and `self.age` are attributes that store the name and age of the person, respectively. The `greet()` method accesses these attributes to print a greeting.

1.2. Default Constructors

In Python, you can define default constructors when no explicit initialization is required for an object. If no arguments are passed to the constructor, the attributes can be initialized with default values.

- **Example of Default Constructor:**
- `class Employee:`
- `def __init__(self, name="Unknown", position="Not Assigned"):`

- `self.name = name`
- `self.position = position`
-
- `def display_info(self):`
- `print(f"Employee: {self.name}, Position: {self.position}")`
-
- `emp1 = Employee()`
- `emp1.display_info()` # Output: Employee: Unknown, Position: Not Assigned
-
- `emp2 = Employee("John", "Manager")`
- `emp2.display_info()` # Output: Employee: John, Position: Manager

In this example, the Employee class uses a default constructor. If no values are provided during object creation, the name is set to "Unknown" and the position to "Not Assigned". However, you can also specify values when creating the object, as seen in emp2.

1.3. Destructor in Python

A **destructor** is a special method that is automatically invoked when an object is about to be destroyed or garbage collected. The destructor is typically used for cleanup purposes, such as releasing resources, closing files, or disconnecting from databases. In Python, the destructor method is defined as `__del__()`. While the destructor is not commonly used in Python (due to automatic garbage collection), it can still be useful in certain scenarios.

- **Defining a Destructor:** The `__del__()` method is called when the object is about to be destroyed, which usually happens when there are no more references to the object.
 - **Example of Destructor:**
 - `class Car:`
 - `def __init__(self, make, model):`
 - `self.make = make`
 - `self.model = model`

- print(f"{self.make} {self.model} created.")
-
- def __del__(self):
- print(f"{self.make} {self.model} destroyed.")
-
- car1 = Car("Toyota", "Corolla")
- del car1 # This will invoke the __del__ method and print the destruction message

In this example, the __del__() method is called when the Car object car1 is deleted using the del keyword. The __del__() method can be useful for releasing resources that are tied to the object.

- **Automatic Garbage Collection:** Python has an automatic garbage collection mechanism that handles memory management. Therefore, the destructor is not always needed unless you're dealing with external resources, such as file handles, network connections, or database connections. Typically, Python's garbage collector automatically deletes objects when there are no more references to them.

- **Example of Automatic Garbage Collection:**
- class DatabaseConnection:
- def __init__(self, connection_string):
- self.connection_string = connection_string
- print(f"Connecting to {self.connection_string}")
-
- def __del__(self):
- print(f"Closing the connection to {self.connection_string}")
-
- # Creating and deleting a DatabaseConnection object
- db = DatabaseConnection("localhost:3306")
- del db # __del__ is called here

2. PRACTICAL APPLICATIONS OF CONSTRUCTORS AND DESTRUCTORS

Understanding when to use constructors and destructors is crucial for managing the lifecycle of objects, especially when dealing with resource-intensive applications, such as database connections, network programming, or file handling.

2.1. Managing Resource Allocation

Constructors are commonly used to allocate resources such as memory, database connections, or file handles when an object is created. Destructors, on the other hand, help in releasing these resources when the object is no longer needed.

- **Example: Database Connection:**
- `class DatabaseConnection:`
- `def __init__(self, db_url):`
- `self.db_url = db_url`
- `self.connection = self.connect_to_database()`
- `print(f"Connected to {self.db_url}")`
-
- `def connect_to_database(self):`
- `# Simulate a database connection`
- `return f"Connection established to {self.db_url}"`
-
- `def __del__(self):`
- `print(f"Closing the database connection to {self.db_url}")`
- `self.connection = None # Simulate closing the connection`
-
- `# Creating and deleting a database connection object`
- `db = DatabaseConnection("localhost:3306")`
- `del db`

In this example, the constructor initializes the connection to a database when an object is created, and the destructor ensures that the connection is closed when the object is deleted.

2.2. Handling File I/O Operations

When dealing with file I/O operations, constructors are used to open files and set up initial file states. Destructors can be used to close files and release resources when the object is no longer in use.

- **Example: File Handling:**

- `class FileHandler:`
- `def __init__(self, file_name):`
- `self.file_name = file_name`
- `self.file = open(file_name, 'w')`
- `print(f"File {self.file_name} opened for writing.")`
-
- `def write_data(self, data):`
- `self.file.write(data)`
- `print("Data written to file.")`
-
- `def __del__(self):`
- `if self.file:`
- `self.file.close()`
- `print(f"File {self.file_name} closed.")`
-
- `# Creating and deleting a FileHandler object`
- `file_handler = FileHandler("data.txt")`
- `file_handler.write_data("Hello, world!")`
- `del file_handler`

Here, the constructor opens a file for writing, and the destructor ensures that the file is closed when the object is deleted, preventing file locks or data corruption.

3. BEST PRACTICES FOR USING CONSTRUCTORS AND DESTRUCTORS

3.1. Always Use Constructors for Initialization

Constructors are essential for initializing the state of an object. Always use the `__init__()` method to set up the necessary attributes and ensure that the object is ready to be used.

- **Best Practice:**

- Use the constructor to initialize attributes that are necessary for the object's operation.
- Avoid complex operations inside the constructor to keep the initialization process efficient.

3.2. Use Destructors for Cleanup, Not for Deletion

While destructors can be used for cleanup, they should not be relied upon for deleting objects. Python's garbage collector handles object deletion automatically when no references remain. Use destructors primarily for releasing external resources, such as files or network connections.

- **Best Practice:**

- Use `__del__()` for cleanup operations like closing files or releasing network resources.
- Let Python's garbage collector handle object deletion unless necessary.

Exercise

1. **Exercise 1: Constructor and Destructor in File Handling**
Write a class `LogFile` with a constructor that opens a file for logging and a destructor that ensures the file is closed when the object is deleted.
2. **Exercise 2: Database Connection Cleanup**
Write a class `Database` that opens a connection to a database in the constructor and closes the connection in the destructor. Simulate a database operation in between.

3. Exercise 3: Resource Management in Network Programming

Write a class `NetworkConnection` that opens a network connection in the constructor and closes it in the destructor. Use print statements to simulate the opening and closing of the connection.

CASE STUDY: MANAGING RESOURCES IN A WEB SCRAPING APPLICATION

CASE STUDY: WEB SCRAPING WITH CONSTRUCTOR AND DESTRUCTOR

In a web scraping application, constructors and destructors are used to manage network connections, set up scraping configurations, and close resources after the scraping process is complete. For example,

INHERITANCE AND POLYMORPHISM

INHERITING ATTRIBUTES AND METHODS

2.1 Introduction to Inheriting Attributes and Methods

In Python, inheritance is a mechanism that allows one class to inherit the attributes and methods of another class. This feature is a cornerstone of object-oriented programming (OOP) because it promotes code reuse and the creation of more specialized classes based on existing ones. When a class inherits from another class, it can use the attributes and methods of the parent class without needing to redefine them.

Inheritance allows us to build hierarchies of classes, where a child (or subclass) class extends the functionality of a parent (or superclass) class. The subclass inherits all the functionality of the parent class and can also add new attributes and methods or override the inherited methods to provide more specific behavior.

In Python, inheritance is defined by specifying the parent class in parentheses when defining the child class:

```
class ChildClass(ParentClass):  
  
    pass
```

By inheriting from a parent class, the child class automatically inherits all its attributes and methods, which it can use or modify as needed. This inheritance mechanism enables efficient code reuse and reduces redundancy.

Example:

```
class Animal:  
  
    def __init__(self, name):  
        self.name = name  
  
    def speak(self):  
        print(f'{self.name} makes a sound')  
  
class Dog(Animal):
```

```
def __init__(self, name, breed):  
    super().__init__(name)  
    self.breed = breed
```

```
def speak(self):  
    print(f"{self.name} barks")
```

In this example:

- The Dog class inherits from the Animal class.
- The Dog class has access to the name attribute and speak() method from Animal, but it can also add its own behavior by overriding the speak() method.

2.2 Understanding the super() Function

When inheriting from a parent class, there are times when a subclass needs to call a method from the parent class. This is where the super() function comes into play. The super() function allows a method in the child class to call the method in the parent class.

Example:

class Animal:

```
def __init__(self, name):  
    self.name = name  
  
def speak(self):  
    print(f"{self.name} makes a sound")
```

class Dog(Animal):

```
def __init__(self, name, breed):  
    super().__init__(name) # Calls the parent class's constructor  
    self.breed = breed
```

```
def speak(self):  
    super().speak() # Calls the parent class's speak method  
    print(f'{self.name} barks')
```

In this example:

- The `super().__init__(name)` in the Dog class calls the constructor of the Animal class to initialize the name attribute.
- The `super().speak()` in the Dog class calls the `speak()` method from the Animal class, and then the Dog class adds additional behavior to print "barks".

Real-World Example:

In a class hierarchy where a Vehicle class is the parent, and Car and Truck are subclasses, each subclass can inherit common behavior such as starting the engine from the parent class, but can also introduce its own specific behavior (e.g., a method for honking or loading cargo).

2.3 Overriding Methods in Inheritance

In object-oriented programming, method overriding occurs when a subclass defines a method that has the same name as a method in the parent class. When this happens, the subclass's method will be used instead of the parent class's method.

Overriding is useful when you want to change or extend the behavior of an inherited method to suit the needs of the child class. While the parent class might have a general implementation of a method, the child class can provide a more specific or modified implementation.

Example of Overriding:

```
class Animal:  
    def speak(self):  
        print("Some generic animal sound")
```

```
class Dog(Animal):  
    def speak(self):  
        print("Woof! Woof!")
```

```
class Cat(Animal):  
    def speak(self):  
        print("Meow! Meow!")
```

In this example:

- The Animal class has a speak() method that prints a generic animal sound.
- The Dog and Cat subclasses override the speak() method to provide their specific behaviors.

```
dog = Dog()  
dog.speak() # Output: Woof! Woof!
```

```
cat = Cat()  
cat.speak() # Output: Meow! Meow!
```

In this case, even though both Dog and Cat inherit the speak() method from Animal, they each provide their own implementation of speak(). This is an example of method overriding, where the child class modifies the behavior of the inherited method.

Real-World Example:

Consider an online store where you have a parent class Product and subclasses Electronics, Clothing, and Furniture. The Product class might have a method get_discount_price() that calculates the discount for all products. However, each subclass might override the method to apply different discount rules specific to the type of product (e.g., a different discount rate for electronics versus clothing).

2.4 Inheriting Attributes and Methods in Multiple Inheritance

Python supports multiple inheritance, meaning a class can inherit from more than one class. This allows for the combination of different classes' functionality into a single class. However, multiple inheritance can lead to ambiguity if two parent classes have methods with the same name. Python uses the **Method Resolution Order (MRO)** to determine which method to call in such cases.

Example of Multiple Inheritance:

```
class Person:  
    def __init__(self, name):
```

```
self.name = name
```

```
def greet(self):  
    print(f"Hello, my name is {self.name}")
```

```
class Worker:
```

```
    def __init__(self, job):  
        self.job = job
```

```
    def work(self):  
        print(f"I work as a {self.job}")
```

```
class Employee(Person, Worker):
```

```
    def __init__(self, name, job):  
        Person.__init__(self, name)  
        Worker.__init__(self, job)
```

```
# Creating an Employee object
```

```
employee = Employee("John", "Engineer")
```

```
employee.greet() # Output: Hello, my name is John
```

```
employee.work() # Output: I work as a Engineer
```

In this example, the Employee class inherits from both Person and Worker. The Employee class has access to methods from both parent classes, and the `__init__()` method from each parent class is explicitly called using `Person.__init__(self, name)` and `Worker.__init__(self, job)`.

Real-World Example:

In a system that manages both customer and product data, a Customer class might handle customer information, and a Product class might handle product information. By using multiple inheritance, you could create a CustomerProduct class that inherits attributes and methods from both Customer and Product classes, allowing you to manage both customer and product data in a single class.

2.5 Exercises

1. **Create a class hierarchy:** Define a parent class Shape with a method area() and then create subclasses Circle and Rectangle that inherit from Shape. Override the area() method in the subclasses to calculate the area of the respective shapes.
2. **Create a method overriding example:** Define a parent class Appliance with a method turn_on(). Create two subclasses WashingMachine and Refrigerator that override the turn_on() method to show specific behavior for each appliance (e.g., starting a wash cycle for the washing machine, and cooling the refrigerator).
3. **Implement multiple inheritance:** Create a class Student and a class SportsPerson with their respective attributes and methods. Then, create a class StudentAthlete that inherits from both Student and SportsPerson and has a combined functionality of both.

2.6 Case Study

Company: Online Retail Platform

Problem: The platform needed to create a system to manage various types of user roles, such as customers and admins, where both roles shared some common attributes but also had specific behaviors.

Solution: The development team implemented a User class as the parent class, which handled common attributes like username and email. Then, they created two subclasses: Customer and Admin, each inheriting from User but overriding methods and adding their specific behavior. The Customer class had methods for placing orders, while the Admin class had methods for managing inventory and user accounts.

class User:

```
def __init__(self, username, email):
```

```
    self.username = username
```

```
    self.email = email
```

```
class Customer(User):  
  
    def place_order(self, order_details):  
  
        print(f'{self.username} placed an order: {order_details}')
```

```
class Admin(User):  
  
    def manage_inventory(self):  
  
        print(f'{self.username} is managing the inventory')
```

Example usage

```
customer = Customer("JohnDoe", "john@example.com")  
customer.place_order("Laptop")
```

```
admin = Admin("AdminUser", "admin@example.com")  
admin.manage_inventory()
```

Outcome: The system effectively separated the common behavior and the role-specific behavior, making the code more maintainable and extendable. The Customer and Admin classes could be further extended as needed, while inheriting shared attributes and behaviors from the User class.

Inheritance in Python provides a robust way to structure and extend code, making it easier to manage and scale applications. By understanding how to inherit attributes and methods, you can write more efficient, reusable, and modular code, which is essential for developing large-scale applications.

1. OVERRIDING METHODS IN PYTHON

In object-oriented programming, **method overriding** refers to a subclass's ability to provide a specific implementation for a method that is already defined in its superclass. This allows a subclass to tailor or extend the behavior of inherited methods while retaining the same method signature. Overriding is a powerful feature of object-oriented programming, as it enables polymorphism—where different classes can have methods that share the same name but behave differently. In this chapter, we will explore method overriding in Python, its purpose, and practical examples of how to use it.

1.1. What is Method Overriding?

Method overriding occurs when a subclass provides a new definition for a method that is already defined in the parent class. The new method in the subclass will be called instead of the method in the parent class when the method is invoked on an instance of the subclass. The method signature (name and parameters) in the subclass must be the same as the one in the parent class, though the implementation can differ.

- **Why Override Methods?**

- **Customize Behavior:** Overriding allows subclasses to modify or extend the behavior of inherited methods.
- **Achieve Polymorphism:** Through method overriding, you can create polymorphic behavior, where the same method name behaves differently depending on the type of the object.
- **Maintain Consistency:** By overriding methods, subclasses can implement specific behavior while maintaining the same method signature, ensuring consistency in method calls across different classes.

1.2. Syntax of Method Overriding

In Python, method overriding is simple. The subclass method must have the same name and parameters as the method it overrides from the parent class. The new implementation in the subclass replaces the inherited method when called on instances of the subclass.

- **Example of Method Overriding:**
- `class Animal:`
- `def speak(self):`

- `print("The animal makes a sound")`
-
- `class Dog(Animal):`
- `def speak(self):`
- `print("The dog barks")`
-
- `class Cat(Animal):`
- `def speak(self):`
- `print("The cat meows")`
-
- `# Creating instances of Dog and Cat`
- `dog = Dog()`
- `cat = Cat()`
-
- `dog.speak()` # Output: The dog barks
- `cat.speak()` # Output: The cat meows

In this example, the Dog and Cat classes override the `speak()` method from the Animal class. When we create instances of Dog and Cat, the `speak()` method of each subclass is called instead of the method from the parent class, demonstrating method overriding.

- **Key Points:**
 - The method in the subclass must have the same name and parameter signature as the method in the parent class.
 - The subclass method can have its own implementation, providing specialized behavior.

1.3. Calling the Parent Class Method

Sometimes, while overriding a method in a subclass, you may still want to call the method from the parent class to retain some of its behavior. This can be done using the `super()` function, which allows you to invoke the parent class's method.

- **Example of Calling Parent Class Method:**
- class Animal:
- def speak(self):
- print("The animal makes a sound")
-
- class Dog(Animal):
- def speak(self):
- super().speak() # Call the parent class method
- print("The dog barks")
-
- dog = Dog()
- dog.speak()

In this example, the Dog class overrides the speak() method, but it also calls the speak() method from the Animal class using super(). This allows the dog to make both an animal sound (inherited behavior) and its specific barking behavior.

1.4. Overriding with Arguments

When overriding methods, you can still pass arguments to the method in the subclass. This allows the subclass to modify the behavior of the method based on different input parameters while keeping the same method signature.

- **Example of Overriding with Arguments:**
- class Vehicle:
- def start_engine(self, fuel_type):
- print(f"The engine starts with {fuel_type}.")
-
- class Car(Vehicle):
- def start_engine(self, fuel_type, ignition_type):
- print(f"The car engine starts with {fuel_type} and {ignition_type}.")

-
- `car = Car()`
- `car.start_engine("gasoline", "key")` # Output: The car engine starts with gasoline and key.

In this case, the Car class overrides the `start_engine()` method, adding an extra argument `ignition_type`. This demonstrates that you can modify the functionality of the inherited method by adding new parameters while still calling the method with the original signature.

2. PRACTICAL APPLICATIONS OF METHOD OVERRIDING

Overriding methods is a powerful tool in object-oriented programming, enabling customization of inherited behavior and supporting polymorphism. It is widely used in scenarios where a subclass needs to modify the behavior of a parent class method to provide specialized functionality. Let's look at some common use cases for method overriding.

2.1. Customizing Behaviors in GUI Frameworks

In GUI frameworks, you often inherit from base classes and override methods to customize the behavior of widgets or event handlers. For instance, in frameworks like Tkinter or PyQt, you might override methods like `onClick` or `onKeyPress` to define how the application should respond to user input.

- **Example: Customizing Button Behavior:**
- `class Button:`
- `def click(self):`
- `print("Button clicked")`
-
- `class CustomButton(Button):`
- `def click(self):`
- `super().click()` # Calling the base class method
- `print("Custom behavior for button click")`
-

- `button = CustomButton()`
- `button.click()`

In this example, we override the `click()` method of the `Button` class to add custom behavior in the `CustomButton` subclass, while still retaining the behavior defined in the parent class.

2.2. Overriding for Polymorphism

Method overriding is often used to implement polymorphism, where the same method behaves differently based on the type of the object calling it. This is particularly useful in scenarios like handling different types of objects in a uniform way.

- **Example of Polymorphism:**
- `class Shape:`
- `def draw(self):`
- `print("Drawing a shape")`
-
- `class Circle(Shape):`
- `def draw(self):`
- `print("Drawing a circle")`
-
- `class Square(Shape):`
- `def draw(self):`
- `print("Drawing a square")`
-
- `shapes = [Shape(), Circle(), Square()]`
-
- `for shape in shapes:`
- `shape.draw()`

In this example, we create a list of different shape objects (`Shape`, `Circle`, and `Square`) and call the `draw()` method on each one. Despite calling the same method, each object

executes its own version of the `draw()` method, demonstrating polymorphism through method overriding.

3. BEST PRACTICES FOR METHOD OVERRIDING

When overriding methods, it is important to follow some best practices to ensure your code remains clean, maintainable, and easy to understand.

3.1. Keep Method Signatures Consistent

When overriding a method, ensure that the method signature (method name, parameters) remains consistent with the parent class. This is essential for maintaining compatibility and preventing errors due to mismatched method signatures.

- **Best Practice:**
 - Always ensure that the overridden method has the same name and parameter list as the method in the parent class.

3.2. Use `super()` When Necessary

If the overridden method still requires the behavior of the parent class method, use `super()` to call the parent class method. This ensures that the parent class functionality is preserved while allowing the subclass to extend or modify it.

- **Best Practice:**
 - Use `super()` to call the parent class method if you need to retain the behavior of the parent class while adding additional functionality in the subclass.

3.3. Keep Overrides Simple

Overriding methods should be used to extend or modify behavior, not to completely replace the functionality unless absolutely necessary. Over-complicating overridden methods can make your code difficult to maintain and understand.

- **Best Practice:**
 - When overriding a method, make sure the new implementation adds value or improves functionality without overcomplicating the design.

Exercise

1. **Exercise 1: Method Overriding in Inheritance**
Create a class Employee with a method calculate_salary(). Override the method in the subclass Manager to add additional responsibilities like calculating bonuses.
2. **Exercise 2: Polymorphism Example**
Create a base class Animal with a method make_sound(). Override the method in the subclasses Dog and Cat to produce different sounds. Demonstrate polymorphism by calling make_sound() on instances of both subclasses.
3. **Exercise 3: Using super() for Method Overriding**
Create a base class Vehicle with a method start(). Override the method in the subclass Car and use super() to retain the behavior of Vehicle, then add additional behavior specific to the car.

CASE STUDY: OVERRIDING METHODS IN A PAYMENT SYSTEM

CASE STUDY: CUSTOMIZING PAYMENT PROCESSING

In a payment processing system, different types of payment methods such as credit card, PayPal, and bank transfer can be handled by a common interface. You can create a base class Payment with a method process_payment(). Each subclass (e.g., CreditCardPayment, PaypalPayment) can override the process_payment() method to implement specific logic for that payment method.

- **Example:**
- class Payment:
- def process_payment(self, amount):
- print(f"Processing payment of \${amount}")
-
- class CreditCardPayment(Payment):
- def process_payment(self, amount):
- print(f"Processing credit card payment of \${amount}")
-
- class PaypalPayment(Payment):

- `def process_payment(self, amount):`
- `print(f"Processing PayPal payment of ${amount}")`
-
- `payments = [CreditCardPayment(), PaypalPayment()]`
- `for payment in payments:`
- `payment.process_payment(100)`

This comprehensive study material covers **Overriding Methods in Python**, providing detailed explanations, examples, and practical exercises to help you master the concept of method overriding and its applications in object-oriented programming

MULTIPLE INHERITANCE

3.1 Introduction to Multiple Inheritance

In Python, **multiple inheritance** allows a class to inherit from more than one parent class. This means that a subclass can inherit attributes and methods from more than one base class. Multiple inheritance is a powerful feature that facilitates the combination of behaviors from different classes, making it possible to create a class that has functionality from multiple sources.

In traditional object-oriented programming languages, inheritance typically follows a linear model, where a class can inherit from only one parent class (single inheritance). However, Python allows a more flexible approach by supporting multiple inheritance, which enables a subclass to inherit from more than one parent class.

A simple example of multiple inheritance is as follows:

```
class A:
```

```
    def method_A(self):
```

```
        print("Method of Class A")
```

```
class B:
```

```
    def method_B(self):
```

```
        print("Method of Class B")
```

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

```
    pass
```

In this case, class C inherits from both A and B. This means that C has access to the methods `method_A()` from class A and `method_B()` from class B. You can create an instance of C and call both methods:

```
obj = C()
```

```
obj.method_A() # Output: Method of Class A
```

```
obj.method_B() # Output: Method of Class B
```

This ability to combine functionalities from multiple classes makes multiple inheritance a powerful tool, but it also introduces complexity, especially when two parent classes

define methods with the same name. In such cases, Python follows a **Method Resolution Order (MRO)** to decide which method to invoke.

3.2 Method Resolution Order (MRO)

When a class inherits from multiple parent classes, it is possible that the parent classes may have methods with the same name. To resolve this conflict, Python uses a method resolution order (MRO), which determines the order in which the base classes are considered when searching for a method.

The method resolution order can be observed using the `mro()` method on a class. It returns the method resolution order, which is the order in which Python will look for methods in the class hierarchy.

Example of MRO:

```
class A:
    def method(self):
        print("Method of Class A")
```

```
class B(A):
    def method(self):
        print("Method of Class B")
```

```
class C(A):
    def method(self):
        print("Method of Class C")
```

```
class D(B, C):
    pass
```

```
# Create an instance of class D
```

```
obj = D()
```

obj.method() # Output: Method of Class B

In this example:

- Class D inherits from both B and C.
- The method method() is defined in both B and C, so Python must determine which method to call when obj.method() is invoked.
- Python uses the MRO to resolve the conflict. In this case, B appears first in the MRO, so the method() from class B is executed.

The method resolution order can be printed using:

```
print(D.mro())
```

Output:

```
[<class '__main__.D'>, <class '__main__.B'>, <class '__main__.C'>, <class '__main__.A'>, <class 'object'>]
```

This indicates that the order in which Python will check the classes for the method() function is: D, B, C, A, and finally the object class, which is the base of all Python classes.

Real-World Example:

Consider a scenario where you have a Employee class that contains basic employee information (e.g., name, department), a Manager class that contains additional management responsibilities, and a Developer class that adds programming skills. A TeamLead class could inherit from both Manager and Developer classes to combine managerial and technical responsibilities.

3.3 Advantages of Multiple Inheritance

Multiple inheritance provides several benefits:

1. **Code Reusability:** By inheriting from multiple classes, you can reuse code from different classes, which reduces redundancy and promotes efficient coding practices.
2. **Combining Behaviors:** Multiple inheritance allows a subclass to combine functionalities from different base classes, making it more versatile.
3. **Flexibility:** It allows you to create specialized classes that can inherit different aspects of behavior, making it easier to design systems with complex functionalities.

For example, in a game development scenario, you might have a Movable class that defines movement behavior, a Playable class that defines player-specific behavior, and a Character class that inherits from both Movable and Playable to combine both movement and player actions.

```
class Movable:
```

```
    def move(self):
```

```
        print("Moving")
```

```
class Playable:
```

```
    def play(self):
```

```
        print("Playing")
```

```
class Character(Movable, Playable):
```

```
    pass
```

```
player = Character()
```

```
player.move() # Output: Moving
```

```
player.play() # Output: Playing
```

3.4 Limitations and Risks of Multiple Inheritance

While multiple inheritance can be a powerful tool, it also comes with some challenges and potential risks:

1. **Complexity:** Multiple inheritance increases the complexity of the class hierarchy. It can become difficult to track and understand where each method or attribute is coming from, especially if the hierarchy is deep or involves many classes.
2. **Diamond Problem:** One classic problem in multiple inheritance is the "diamond problem," which occurs when a class inherits from two classes that have a common ancestor. This creates ambiguity about which parent class method should be called.

Example of the Diamond Problem:

```
class A:
```

```
    def method(self):
```

```
        print("Method in Class A")
```

```
class B(A):
```

```
    def method(self):
```

```
        print("Method in Class B")
```

```
class C(A):
```

```
    def method(self):
```

```
        print("Method in Class C")
```

```
class D(B, C):
```

```
    pass
```

```
obj = D()
```

```
obj.method() # Which method will be called: B or C?
```

In this example, D inherits from both B and C, which in turn inherit from A. Both B and C have their own method() function, creating ambiguity about which method will be executed. Python resolves this using the MRO, as discussed earlier, but this type of ambiguity can make the code harder to manage.

3.5 Exercises

1. **Create a class hierarchy:** Define a parent class Vehicle and two subclasses Car and Bike. Both subclasses should inherit from Vehicle and implement their own move() method. Call the move() method from both Car and Bike.
2. **Implement Multiple Inheritance:** Create a class Person with attributes for name and age, and a class Employee with additional attributes for job title and salary. Create a class Manager that inherits from both Person and Employee, and add a method to display the manager's details.

3. **Handling the Diamond Problem:** Create a situation where you have a class A with a method `do_work()`, and two classes B and C inherit from A and override the `do_work()` method. Create a class D that inherits from both B and C and explain how Python resolves which `do_work()` method to call.

3.6 Case Study

Company: E-commerce Platform

Problem: The e-commerce platform needed to manage different types of users (admins, customers, and sellers) with specific roles and functionalities, but many of the attributes and behaviors overlapped.

Solution: The platform created a base class `User` with shared attributes like `username`, `email`, and common methods like `login()` and `logout()`. The subclasses `Customer`, `Seller`, and `Admin` were created to extend `User` and added specialized methods for each role, such as `place_order()` for customers, `add_product()` for sellers, and `manage_orders()` for admins.

class `User`:

```
def __init__(self, username, email):
```

```
    self.username = username
```

```
    self.email = email
```

```
def login(self):
```

```
    print(f'{self.username} logged in')
```

```
def logout(self):
```

```
    print(f'{self.username} logged out')
```

class `Customer`(`User`):

```
def place_order(self):
```

```
    print(f'{self.username} placed an order')
```

class `Seller`(`User`):

```
def add_product(self):  
    print(f"{self.username} added a product")  
  
class Admin(User):  
    def manage_orders(self):  
        print(f"{self.username} is managing orders")  
  
# Creating instances of each user  
admin = Admin("AdminUser", "admin@example.com")  
admin.login()  
admin.manage_orders()  
  
customer = Customer("CustomerUser", "customer@example.com")  
customer.login()  
customer.place_order()
```

Outcome: The team was able to effectively manage user roles by inheriting common functionality from the User class and extending it for specific roles using multiple inheritance. This approach allowed for code reuse and flexibility while minimizing redundancy.

Multiple inheritance in Python allows you to combine behaviors from multiple parent classes into a single class. While powerful, it requires careful design to avoid complexity and ambiguity. By understanding how to properly implement and manage multiple inheritance, you can create more flexible and reusable code structures.

ENCAPSULATION AND ABSTRACTION

Here's the study material for **Private and Public Members in Python**, structured with headings, subheadings, examples, and exercises:

1. PRIVATE AND PUBLIC MEMBERS IN PYTHON

In Python, classes are used to define the structure and behavior of objects. One of the core concepts of object-oriented programming is encapsulation, which allows developers to hide the internal state of an object from the outside world. This is done through **private** and **public** members. Understanding how to use private and public members helps you design better software systems, ensuring that the internal workings of a class remain protected and that the class's interface is clean and well-defined. In this chapter, we will explore the concepts of private and public members, their usage, and how they impact class design.

1.1. Public Members in Python

Public members are attributes and methods that can be accessed directly from outside the class. They are the default visibility for class members in Python. Public members are part of the interface of a class, meaning they are intended to be accessed and

Getter and Setter Methods

1.1 Introduction to Getter and Setter Methods

In object-oriented programming (OOP), classes encapsulate data by using attributes and methods. However, direct access to an object's attributes is often restricted to ensure data integrity and avoid external manipulation of the object's internal state. To allow controlled access to these attributes, **getter** and **setter** methods are used.

Getter methods are used to access the value of a private attribute, while **setter methods** are used to set or update the value of a private attribute. This approach is part of the encapsulation concept in OOP, where the internal state of an object is hidden from the outside world, and access is only provided through well-defined methods.

A getter method retrieves the value of an attribute, while a setter method modifies or sets the value of that attribute. By using getters and setters, you can control how attributes are accessed and modified, allowing you to enforce rules or validations on the values being set.

For example:

class Person:

```
def __init__(self, name, age):
```

```
    self._name = name # Using _ to indicate a protected attribute
```

```
    self._age = age
```

```
# Getter method for name
```

```
def get_name(self):
```

```
    return self._name
```

```
# Setter method for name
```

```
def set_name(self, name):
```

```
    if isinstance(name, str) and len(name) > 0:
```

```
        self._name = name
```

```
    else:
```



```
print("Invalid name")

# Getter method for age

def get_age(self):

    return self._age

# Setter method for age

def set_age(self, age):

    if isinstance(age, int) and age > 0:

        self._age = age

    else:

        print("Invalid age")
```

In this example:

- The `get_name()` and `get_age()` methods are getters that return the values of the name and age attributes.
- The `set_name()` and `set_age()` methods are setters that allow modification of the name and age attributes while enforcing validation rules (e.g., ensuring that name is a string and age is a positive integer).

This practice of using getter and setter methods helps enforce **data encapsulation** and **data integrity** by allowing controlled access to an object's attributes, preventing direct modification from the outside.

1.2 The Importance of Getter and Setter Methods

Getter and setter methods play a crucial role in maintaining the integrity and security of an object's state. When using these methods, you can add logic to validate input or manipulate data before setting an attribute. This adds an extra layer of control to your classes and helps avoid undesirable side effects from direct attribute modification.

Advantages of Getter and Setter Methods:

1. **Encapsulation:** By using getters and setters, you can keep attributes hidden and protected from direct access. This ensures that internal implementation

details are not exposed to the outside world, which is essential for maintaining a clean and maintainable codebase.

2. **Data Validation:** Setters allow you to enforce validation before updating the attributes. For example, if a setter method is used to set an age, you can ensure that the age is always a positive integer, preventing invalid data from being assigned.
3. **Consistency:** Using getter and setter methods ensures that all interactions with an object's attributes are consistent. This consistency is beneficial in larger applications where multiple components may interact with the same object.
4. **Improved Debugging and Maintenance:** When accessing attributes through getters and setters, it becomes easier to trace and debug issues. You can log each time an attribute is accessed or modified, providing better insights into how the object's data is being manipulated.

Real-World Example:

Consider an online banking application where the balance of a bank account should never be negative. Instead of allowing direct access to the balance, you can create getter and setter methods to manage how the balance is updated and accessed:

```
class BankAccount:
```

```
    def __init__(self, account_holder, balance):
```

```
        self.account_holder = account_holder
```

```
        self._balance = balance
```

```
    def get_balance(self):
```

```
        return self._balance
```

```
    def set_balance(self, amount):
```

```
        if amount >= 0:
```

```
            self._balance = amount
```

```
        else:
```

```
            print("Invalid balance. Balance cannot be negative.")
```

In this example, the setter method ensures that the balance cannot be set to a negative value, protecting the integrity of the account balance.

1.3 Using Python Properties as Getters and Setters

In Python, you can use the built-in `property()` function to create getter and setter methods more easily. Python allows you to define **properties**, which are special methods that act like attributes but are controlled by getter and setter functions.

A property allows you to access an attribute as though it is a regular variable, but behind the scenes, it invokes getter and setter methods. This provides a clean, readable interface while maintaining control over how the attribute is accessed or modified.

Example Using Property:

```
class Person:
```

```
    def __init__(self, name, age):
```

```
        self._name = name
```

```
        self._age = age
```

```
    @property
```

```
    def name(self):
```

```
        return self._name
```

```
    @name.setter
```

```
    def name(self, value):
```

```
        if isinstance(value, str) and len(value) > 0:
```

```
            self._name = value
```

```
        else:
```

```
            print("Invalid name")
```

```
    @property
```

```
    def age(self):
```

```
return self._age
```

```
@age.setter
```

```
def age(self, value):
```

```
    if isinstance(value, int) and value > 0:
```

```
        self._age = value
```

```
    else:
```

```
        print("Invalid age")
```

Here, the name and age attributes are accessed and modified using the @property decorator for getters and the @<attribute>.setter decorator for setters. This allows the user to interact with these attributes directly, as if they were regular attributes, while still enforcing validation through the setters.

```
person = Person("Alice", 30)
```

```
print(person.name) # Output: Alice
```

```
person.name = "Bob" # Setter is called, name is updated to Bob
```

```
person.age = -5 # Output: Invalid age
```

In this example, the use of @property simplifies the way we define getter and setter methods, making the code cleaner and more Pythonic.

1.4 Exercise

1. **Create a Rectangle class** that has the attributes width and height. Implement getter and setter methods to access and modify these attributes. Additionally, create a property to calculate the area of the rectangle based on the width and height.
2. **Create a Student class** with the attributes name, age, and grade. Use getter and setter methods to manage these attributes, ensuring that age is a positive integer and grade is between 0 and 100.
3. **Implement a bank account class** with getter and setter methods for the balance. Ensure that the balance cannot be set to a negative value. Implement a method that allows a user to deposit or withdraw money, and use getters and setters to track changes to the balance.

1.5 Case Study

Company: Library Management System

Problem: The system needed to track books in the library, including their availability and rental status. Each book has attributes such as title, author, and price, but these attributes should only be updated in a controlled manner.

Solution: The development team created a Book class with private attributes for the title, author, and price. They used getter and setter methods to ensure that the price could only be updated to a valid value, preventing erroneous updates. Additionally, a method to check if the book was available for rent was implemented.

class Book:

```
def __init__(self, title, author, price):
```

```
    self.title = title
```

```
    self.author = author
```

```
    self._price = price
```

```
    self.is_available = True
```

```
@property
```

```
def price(self):
```

```
    return self._price
```

```
@price.setter
```

```
def price(self, value):
```

```
    if value >= 0:
```

```
        self._price = value
```

```
    else:
```

```
        print("Price cannot be negative.")
```

```
def rent(self):
```

```
if self.is_available:

    self.is_available = False

    print(f"Book {self.title} has been rented.")

else:

    print("This book is already rented.")
```

Outcome: By using getter and setter methods, the team was able to prevent invalid price updates and ensured that the library system's inventory could be tracked accurately. The controlled access to attributes helped maintain data integrity, while the system's users had a seamless interface for renting books and managing inventory.

Getter and setter methods are vital in object-oriented programming for controlling access to an object's internal data. They encapsulate attributes and ensure that values are set and retrieved in a controlled manner. Using getter and setter methods not only enhances data integrity but also improves code maintainability, readability, and flexibility.

Here's the study material for **Abstract Classes and Methods in Python**, structured with headings, subheadings, examples, and exercises:

1. ABSTRACT CLASSES AND METHODS IN PYTHON

In object-oriented programming, an **abstract class** is a class that cannot be instantiated on its own and is meant to be subclassed. It provides a blueprint for other classes to follow. Abstract methods, which are defined in an abstract class, are methods that must be implemented by any subclass. These concepts are critical for creating a well-organized, modular, and extensible system, especially when dealing with complex applications that require standardization across different subclasses. This chapter will explore abstract classes and abstract methods in Python, explaining their usage and importance in object-oriented design.

1.1. What is an Abstract Class?

An **abstract class** in Python is a class that contains one or more **abstract methods**—methods that are declared but contain no implementation. Abstract classes provide a structure for subclasses, enforcing that certain methods must be implemented by any class that inherits from the abstract class. The abstract class itself cannot be instantiated directly; it serves as a template for other classes to inherit and implement its methods.

- **Defining an Abstract Class:** Python provides the `abc` module to define abstract classes and methods. The `ABC` class in the `abc` module serves as a base class for defining abstract classes. The `@abstractmethod` decorator is used to mark methods as abstract.
 - **Example of Abstract Class:**
 - `from abc import ABC, abstractmethod`
 -
 - `class Animal(ABC):`
 - `@abstractmethod`
 - `def speak(self):`
 - `pass`
 -
 - `class Dog(Animal):`

- `def speak(self):`
- `print("The dog barks")`
-
- `class Cat(Animal):`
- `def speak(self):`
- `print("The cat meows")`
-
- `# animal = Animal() # This would raise an error: Can't instantiate abstract class`
- `dog = Dog()`
- `dog.speak() # Output: The dog barks`

In this example, the `Animal` class is abstract and contains an abstract method `speak`. The `Dog` and `Cat` classes inherit from `Animal` and provide specific implementations of the `speak` method. If you attempt to instantiate the `Animal` class directly, Python will raise an error because abstract classes cannot be instantiated.

- **Key Points:**

- Abstract classes cannot be instantiated directly.
- Abstract methods must be implemented by subclasses.
- Abstract classes provide a way to enforce a certain structure across multiple subclasses.

1.2. Abstract Methods in Python

An **abstract method** is a method that is declared in an abstract class but contains no implementation. Subclasses that inherit from the abstract class must provide an implementation for these abstract methods. Abstract methods serve as placeholders, ensuring that subclasses implement the required functionality. Abstract methods are defined using the `@abstractmethod` decorator.

- **Purpose of Abstract Methods:**

- **Standardization:** Abstract methods ensure that certain methods are implemented across all subclasses, promoting consistency in design.

- **Enforcing a Contract:** By defining abstract methods, you establish a contract between the parent class and the subclasses, ensuring that the subclasses provide specific behavior.

- **Example of Abstract Methods:**

- from abc import ABC, abstractmethod

-

- class Vehicle(ABC):

- @abstractmethod

- def start(self):

- pass

-

- @abstractmethod

- def stop(self):

- pass

-

- class Car(Vehicle):

- def start(self):

- print("The car is starting")

-

- def stop(self):

- print("The car is stopping")

-

- class Bike(Vehicle):

- def start(self):

- print("The bike is starting")

-

- def stop(self):

- `print("The bike is stopping")`
-
- `car = Car()`
- `car.start()` # Output: The car is starting
- `car.stop()` # Output: The car is stopping

In this example, the Vehicle class is an abstract class with two abstract methods: `start()` and `stop()`. Both the Car and Bike classes inherit from Vehicle and provide their own implementations for these abstract methods. If you create a subclass that does not implement these methods, Python will raise an error, enforcing that the subclass must provide its own version of the methods.

1.3. When to Use Abstract Classes and Methods

Abstract classes and methods are useful when you want to define a common interface for a group of related classes but allow each class to implement its own version of the methods. They are often used in frameworks, libraries, or systems where you want to ensure that all subclasses follow a specific structure.

- **Use Cases for Abstract Classes and Methods:**
 - **Enforcing Consistency:** When designing a system with multiple related classes, abstract classes ensure that each subclass follows the same interface and provides implementations for necessary methods.
 - **Framework Design:** In frameworks and libraries, abstract classes allow you to define common functionality while leaving the details to be implemented by subclasses. This promotes flexibility and extensibility.
 - **Code Reusability:** Abstract classes can include some common implementation, while abstract methods force subclasses to implement specific behavior, encouraging code reuse.
- **Example Use Case: Payment System:**
- `from abc import ABC, abstractmethod`
-
- `class Payment(ABC):`
- `@abstractmethod`
- `def process_payment(self, amount):`

- pass
-
- class CreditCardPayment(Payment):
- def process_payment(self, amount):
- print(f"Processing credit card payment of \${amount}")
-
- class PayPalPayment(Payment):
- def process_payment(self, amount):
- print(f"Processing PayPal payment of \${amount}")
-
- # Using the classes
- payment1 = CreditCardPayment()
- payment1.process_payment(100) # Output: Processing credit card payment of \$100
-
- payment2 = PayPalPayment()
- payment2.process_payment(200) # Output: Processing PayPal payment of \$200

In this example, the abstract Payment class defines an abstract method process_payment(), which is then implemented by both CreditCardPayment and PayPalPayment. This ensures that both payment types provide a specific implementation for processing payments, while the interface remains consistent.

2. PRACTICAL APPLICATIONS OF ABSTRACT CLASSES AND METHODS

Abstract classes and methods are useful tools for organizing and structuring complex systems. They provide a way to enforce a standard interface while allowing subclasses to implement specific behavior. This structure is particularly beneficial in larger applications, where different modules or components need to adhere to common functionality while allowing for customization.

2.1. Framework Design and Customization

In framework design, abstract classes and methods enable the creation of extensible and customizable frameworks. A framework defines a base structure and provides a common interface for its components, allowing users to customize specific parts without altering the entire framework.

- **Example: GUI Framework:**
- `from abc import ABC, abstractmethod`
-
- `class Button(ABC):`
- `@abstractmethod`
- `def click(self):`
- `pass`
-
- `class LinuxButton(Button):`
- `def click(self):`
- `print("Linux button clicked")`
-
- `class WindowsButton(Button):`
- `def click(self):`
- `print("Windows button clicked")`
-
- `linux_button = LinuxButton()`
- `windows_button = WindowsButton()`
-
- `linux_button.click()` # Output: Linux button clicked
- `windows_button.click()` # Output: Windows button clicked

In this example, the Button class is abstract and defines the click() method, which must be implemented by any subclass. The LinuxButton and WindowsButton classes provide platform-specific implementations, showing how abstract classes and methods can be used in a GUI framework to allow platform-specific customization.

2.2. Designing Large Systems with Common Interface

Abstract classes and methods are also useful in large systems where many related classes share a common interface but need to implement different behaviors. For example, in a reporting system, you might have different report types that need to implement a generate_report() method, but the report format could differ between subclasses.

- **Example: Report Generation System:**

- from abc import ABC, abstractmethod

-

- class Report(ABC):

- @abstractmethod

- def generate_report(self):

- pass

-

- class PDFReport(Report):

- def generate_report(self):

- print("Generating PDF report")

-

- class ExcelReport(Report):

- def generate_report(self):

- print("Generating Excel report")

-

- pdf_report = PDFReport()

- excel_report = ExcelReport()

-

- `pdf_report.generate_report()` # Output: Generating PDF report
- `excel_report.generate_report()` # Output: Generating Excel report

In this case, the Report class is abstract, with an abstract method `generate_report()`. The PDFReport and ExcelReport subclasses implement the method with their respective report formats.

3. BEST PRACTICES FOR USING ABSTRACT CLASSES AND METHODS

3.1. Use Abstract Classes to Enforce Consistent Interfaces

Abstract classes are ideal when you want to enforce a standard interface across different subclasses. By defining common methods in an abstract class, you ensure that all subclasses provide the necessary functionality.

- **Best Practice:**
 - Use abstract methods to define the essential behavior that all subclasses must implement.
 - Avoid implementing logic in abstract methods; instead, leave it to the subclasses.

3.2. Leverage Abstract Classes for Framework Extensibility

Abstract classes are essential for building extensible frameworks, where the user can subclass and implement their own behavior while adhering to the framework's contract.

- **Best Practice:**
 - In framework design, make core functionality abstract, allowing users to extend it with their own implementations.

3.3. Minimize Use of Abstract Methods When Possible

While abstract classes and methods are powerful, they can add complexity to the design. Avoid overusing abstract methods if a concrete method can suffice, as this can lead to unnecessary abstraction.

- **Best Practice:**
 - Use abstract methods when there is a clear need for polymorphism or when you want to force subclasses to implement specific behavior.

Exercise

- Exercise 1: Implementing an Abstract Class**
Create an abstract class Shape with an abstract method area(). Create subclasses Circle and Rectangle that implement the area() method to calculate their respective areas.
 - Exercise 2: Polymorphism with Abstract Classes**
Create an abstract class Employee with an abstract method calculate_salary(). Implement this method in subclasses Manager and Developer to calculate salaries based on different criteria.
 - Exercise 3: Framework Design**
Design a basic framework for handling different types of data storage, such as FileStorage and DatabaseStorage. Implement an abstract class DataStorage with an abstract method save_data() and provide concrete implementations in the subclasses.
-

CASE STUDY: ABSTRACT CLASSES IN A PAYMENT GATEWAY SYSTEM

CASE STUDY: PAYMENT GATEWAY INTEGRATION

In a payment gateway system, abstract classes and methods ensure that all payment methods, such as credit cards and PayPal, follow a consistent interface. By using abstract classes for each payment method, you can easily add new payment options without altering the rest of the system.

- **Example:**
- `from abc import ABC, abstractmethod`
-
- `class PaymentMethod(ABC):`
- `@abstractmethod`
- `def process_payment(self, amount):`
- `pass`
-

- `class CreditCardPayment(PaymentMethod):`
- `def process_payment(self, amount):`
- `print(f"Processing credit card payment of ${amount}")`
-
- `class PayPalPayment(PaymentMethod):`
- `def process_payment(self, amount):`
- `print(f"Processing PayPal payment of ${amount}")`
-
- `payment1 = CreditCardPayment()`
- `payment2 = PayPalPayment()`
-
- `payment1.process_payment(100)` # Output: Processing credit card payment of \$100
- `payment2.process_payment(150)` # Output: Processing PayPal payment of \$150

In this case study, the abstract `PaymentMethod` class ensures that all subclasses, such as `CreditCardPayment` and `PayPalPayment`, implement the `process_payment()` method, providing a consistent interface for payment processing. This design makes it easy to extend the system with new payment methods.

This comprehensive study material covers **Abstract Classes and Methods in Python**, providing clear explanations, examples, and practical exercises to help you understand how to implement and use abstract classes effectively in object-oriented design.

ASSIGNMENT SOLUTION: "DEFINING A CLASS IN PYTHON" WITH STEP-BY-STEP GUIDE

In this assignment, we will create a Python class with attributes and methods, including getter and setter methods, a constructor, and methods for modifying and displaying data. We will break down the solution into steps and provide a detailed explanation at each stage.

Problem Statement

Create a class Book that represents a book in a library. The class should have:

1. Attributes for title, author, price, and is_available (whether the book is available for rent).
2. A constructor (`__init__`) to initialize these attributes.
3. Getter and setter methods for each attribute (except is_available).
4. Methods for checking out and returning the book (to change is_available).
5. A method to display the book details.

STEP 1: DEFINE THE BOOK CLASS

We will start by defining the Book class. The class will have an `__init__` method to initialize the attributes of the book.

```
class Book:
```

```
    def __init__(self, title, author, price):
```

```
        self.title = title # Initialize title
```

```
        self.author = author # Initialize author
```

```
        self._price = price # Initialize price with an underscore to indicate it's a protected attribute
```

```
        self.is_available = True # Book is available by default
```

In this step:

- We define the `__init__` method, which takes title, author, and price as parameters and initializes the instance attributes.
- The attribute `_price` is protected (denoted by the underscore), which is a convention to show that it should not be accessed directly.
- The attribute `is_available` is set to `True` by default, indicating that the book is available when created.

STEP 2: CREATE GETTER AND SETTER METHODS

Now, we'll create getter and setter methods for price, title, and author. These methods will allow controlled access to the attributes and ensure data integrity.

class Book:

```
def __init__(self, title, author, price):
```

```
    self.title = title
```

```
    self.author = author
```

```
    self._price = price
```

```
    self.is_available = True
```

```
# Getter method for price
```

```
@property
```

```
def price(self):
```

```
    return self._price
```

```
# Setter method for price
```

```
@price.setter
```

```
def price(self, value):
```

```
    if value >= 0:
```

```
        self._price = value
    else:
        print("Price cannot be negative.")
```

```
# Getter method for title
```

```
@property
```

```
def title(self):
    return self._title
```

```
# Setter method for title
```

```
@title.setter
```

```
def title(self, value):
    if len(value) > 0:
        self._title = value
    else:
        print("Title cannot be empty.")
```

```
# Getter method for author
```

```
@property
```

```
def author(self):
    return self._author
```

```
# Setter method for author
```

```
@author.setter
```

```
def author(self, value):
    if len(value) > 0:
```

```
self._author = value

else:

    print("Author cannot be empty.")
```

In this step:

- We define getter and setter methods for price, title, and author using the @property decorator for getters and the @<attribute>.setter decorator for setters.
- The setter for price ensures that the price cannot be set to a negative value.
- The setter for title and author ensures that they are not empty strings.

STEP 3: ADD METHODS FOR CHECKING OUT AND RETURNING THE BOOK

Next, we will add methods to check out and return the book. These methods will modify the `is_available` attribute, which keeps track of whether the book is available for rent.

class Book:

```
def __init__(self, title, author, price):
```

```
    self.title = title
```

```
    self.author = author
```

```
    self._price = price
```

```
    self.is_available = True
```

```
@property
```

```
def price(self):
```

```
    return self._price
```

```
@price.setter
```

```
def price(self, value):
```

```
if value >= 0:  
    self._price = value  
else:  
    print("Price cannot be negative.")
```

```
@property  
def title(self):  
    return self._title
```

```
@title.setter  
def title(self, value):  
    if len(value) > 0:  
        self._title = value  
    else:  
        print("Title cannot be empty.")
```

```
@property  
def author(self):  
    return self._author
```

```
@author.setter  
def author(self, value):  
    if len(value) > 0:  
        self._author = value  
    else:  
        print("Author cannot be empty.")
```

```
def checkout(self):  
    if self.is_available:  
        self.is_available = False  
        print(f"The book '{self.title}' has been checked out.")  
    else:  
        print(f"The book '{self.title}' is currently unavailable.")  
  
def return_book(self):  
    if not self.is_available:  
        self.is_available = True  
        print(f"The book '{self.title}' has been returned and is now available.")  
    else:  
        print(f"The book '{self.title}' is already available.")
```

In this step:

- We define the `checkout()` method, which checks if the book is available. If it is, it sets `is_available` to `False` and prints a message indicating that the book has been checked out.
- We define the `return_book()` method, which checks if the book is not already available and sets `is_available` to `True`, making the book available again.

STEP 4: ADD A METHOD TO DISPLAY BOOK DETAILS

Lastly, we'll add a method that displays the details of the book, including its title, author, price, and availability status.

class Book:

```
    def __init__(self, title, author, price):  
        self.title = title
```

```
self.author = author  
  
self._price = price  
  
self.is_available = True
```

```
@property  
def price(self):  
    return self._price
```

```
@price.setter  
def price(self, value):  
    if value >= 0:  
        self._price = value  
    else:  
        print("Price cannot be negative.")
```

```
@property  
def title(self):  
    return self._title
```

```
@title.setter  
def title(self, value):  
    if len(value) > 0:  
        self._title = value  
    else:  
        print("Title cannot be empty.")
```

@property

```
def author(self):  
    return self._author
```

@author.setter

```
def author(self, value):  
    if len(value) > 0:  
        self._author = value  
    else:  
        print("Author cannot be empty.")
```

```
def checkout(self):  
    if self.is_available:  
        self.is_available = False  
        print(f"The book '{self.title}' has been checked out.")  
    else:  
        print(f"The book '{self.title}' is currently unavailable.")
```

```
def return_book(self):  
    if not self.is_available:  
        self.is_available = True  
        print(f"The book '{self.title}' has been returned and is now available.")  
    else:  
        print(f"The book '{self.title}' is already available.")
```

```
def display_details(self):
```



```
availability = "Available" if self.is_available else "Checked out"
```

```
print(f"Book    Details:\nTitle:    {self.title}\nAuthor:    {self.author}\nPrice:    ${self.price}\nStatus: {availability}")
```

In this step:

- We add the `display_details()` method that prints the book's title, author, price, and availability status.
- The availability is checked using a ternary operator to display "Available" or "Checked out" based on the value of `is_available`.

STEP 5: TEST THE BOOK CLASS

Finally, we will test the Book class by creating an object, setting attributes, calling the checkout and return methods, and displaying the book details.

Create a Book object

```
book1 = Book("The Great Gatsby", "F. Scott Fitzgerald", 15.99)
```

Display book details

```
book1.display_details()
```

Checkout the book

```
book1.checkout()
```

Attempt to checkout again

```
book1.checkout()
```

Return the book

```
book1.return_book()
```

Display book details again

book1.display_details()

Expected Output:

Book Details:

Title: The Great Gatsby

Author: F. Scott Fitzgerald

Price: \$15.99

Status: Available

The book 'The Great Gatsby' has been checked out.

The book 'The Great Gatsby' is currently unavailable.

The book 'The Great Gatsby' has been returned and is now available.

Book Details:

Title: The Great Gatsby

Author: F. Scott Fitzgerald

Price: \$15.99

Status: Available

CONCLUSION

By following these steps, you've learned how to:

1. Define a class with attributes and methods.
2. Use getter and setter methods to access and modify attributes.
3. Implement methods for interacting with the book, such as checking out and returning the book.
4. Display the details of an object with a method.

This approach can be extended to more complex applications, like a library system where books can be checked out, returned, and tracked. Understanding how to define

and use classes with encapsulation and controlled access to attributes helps in building structured and maintainable code.

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