

Object Oriented Programming

```
class stud:
def set(self,nm,ag):
    self.name=nm        #public: No underscore
    self.age=ag
def setstream(self,st):
    self.__stream=st    #private : double underscore
def setclass(self,cl):
    self._cl=cl         #protected: single underscore
def getstream(self):
    return self.__stream
def getName(self):
    return self.name
def getage(self):
    return self.age
d=stud()
d.set("ram",32)    # name and age passed to set method
print(d.getName(),d.getage())
print(d.name,d.age)
d.setstream("science")
d.setclass(9)
print(d._cl)
print(d.getstream())
print(d._stud__stream)#name mangling to access private data
```

- class **demo**:
- x=5
- def **disp(self,x):**
- x=30
- #local variable tends to hide the value of the instance variable
- self.x=10
- print('local',x)
- print('instance',self.x)
- d=demo()
- d.disp(50)
- print(dir(demo))
- print(d.x)
- print(demo.x)
- print(demo.__dict__)
- print(d.__dict__)

Class Method & Constructor

```
■ class customer:
    counter=1000
    def __init__(self):
        customer.counter=customer.counter+1
        self.cid=customer.counter
    def setAttr(self,nm,ag):
        self.name=nm
        self.age=ag
    @classmethod
    def total_customer(cls):
        return customer.counter-1000
■ c1=customer()
■ c1.setAttr("ram", 15)
■ c2=customer()
■ c2.setAttr("shyam",36)
■ print(customer.total_customer())
```

Multiple Constructor

- `class demo:`
- `def __init__(self, *var):` *#constructor*
- `if len(var)==2:`
- `self.name, self.age=var` *# var is a tuple*
- `elif len(var)==1:`
- `self.name=var`
- `else:`
- `self.name=input("Enter name")`
- `self.age=eval(input("Enter age"))`
- `d=demo("ram", 20)`
- `d1=demo("shyam")`
- `d2=demo()`
- `print(d.name, d.age)`
- `print(d1.name)`
- `print(d2.name, d2.age)`

Destructor method `__del__()`

- Like other oop languages Python also has a destructor.
- the method `__del__()` denotes the destructor and the syntax to define the destructor is:
- `def __del__(self):`
 block of statements

Python invokes the destructor method when the instance is about to be destroyed. It is invoked one per instance.

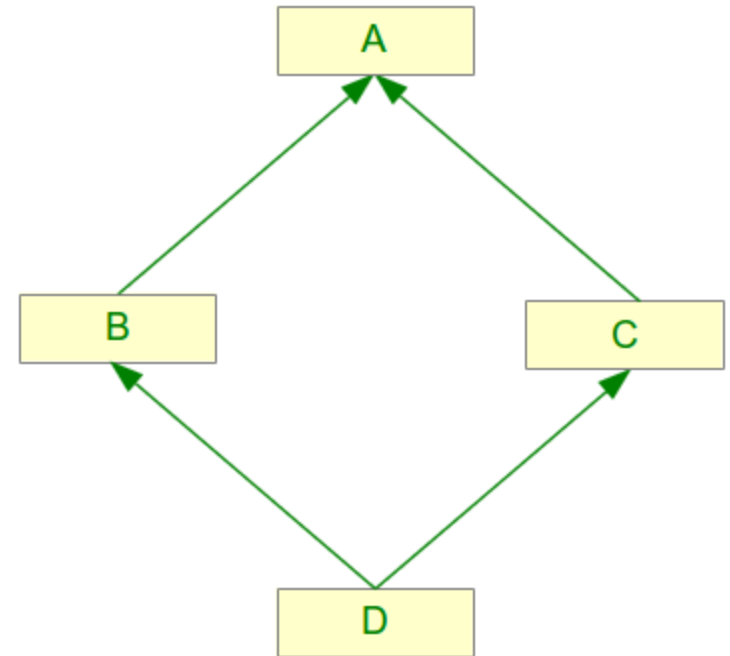
The `self` refers to the instance on which the `__del__(self)` method is invoked.

Python manages garbage collection of objects by reference counting. This function is executed only if all the references to an object have been removed.

- class **DestructDemo:**
- def **__init__(self):**
- print(*"you are welcome"*)
- def **__del__(self):**
- print(*"destructor executed successfully"*)
- ob1= DestructDemo()
- ob2=ob1
- ob3=ob1
- print(*"id of ob1 is: ",id(ob1)*)
- print(*"id of ob2 is: ",id(ob2)*)
- print(*"id of ob3 is: ",id(ob3)*)
- del ob2 **#reference count becomes 2**
- del ob1 **#reference count becomes 1**
- del ob3 **#reference count becomes 0**
- **#destructor called automatically since reference count becomes zero**
- a=input(*"input string"*)
- print(a)

The Diamond Problem or the “deadly diamond of death”

- class **A()**:
- def **m(self)**:
- print("method m of A called")
- class **B(A)**:
- def **m(self)**:
- print("method m of B called")
- class **C(A)**:
- def **m(self)**:
- print("method m of C called")
- class **D(B,C)**:
- pass



- diamond = D()
- **#Method resolution order: bottom up and left to right**
- diamond.m()

- class **A**:
- def **__init__(self)**:
- print("A.__init__")
- class **B(A)**:
- def **__init__(self)**:
- print("B.__init__")
- super().__init__()
- class **C(A)**:
- def **__init__(self)**:
- print("C.__init__")
- super().__init__()
- class **D(C,B)**:
- def **__init__(self)**:
- print("D.__init__")
- super().__init__()
- d = D()
- print(D.mro())

- It uses the so-called method resolution order(MRO).
- It is based on the "C3 superclass linearization" algorithm.
- This is called a linearization, because the tree structure is broken down into a linear order.
- The mro() method returns list of method resolution order

Method overloading in Python

- class OverLoad:
 - def add(self,a,b):
 - print(a+b)
 - def add(self,a,b,c):
 - print(a+b+c)
 - p=OverLoad()
 - p.add(10,20)
-
- **#Produces error** because Python understands the last definition of the method add(self,a,b,c) apart from the self
 - **#Python does not allow method overloading based on type as it is strongly typed language**

- class **methodoverloademo**:
- def **add(self,*var):#constructor**
- if len(var)==2:
- a,b=var
- return a+b
- if len(var)==3:
- a,b,c=var
- return a+b+c
-
- m1=methodoverloademo()
- m2=methodoverloademo()
- print(m1.add(2,3))
- print(m2.add(2,3,4))

Operator Overloading

- A programmer can overload almost every operator, such as arithmetic, comparison, indexing and slicing and the number of inbuilt functions.
- To support operator overloading Python associates a special method with each inbuilt function and operator.
- If we have an expression " $x + y$ " and x is an instance of class K ,
- then Python will check the class definition of K . If K has a method `__add__` it will be called with `x.__add__(y)`, otherwise we will get an error message.

Magic Methods and Operator Overloading

- magic methods are sometimes called dunder methods!
So what's magic about the `__init__` method? The answer is, you don't have to invoke it directly. The invocation is realized behind the scenes. When you create an instance `x` of a class `A` with the statement `"x = A()"`, Python will do the necessary calls to `__new__` and `__init__`.
It's even possible to overload the `"+"` operator as well as all the other operators for the purposes of your own class. To do this, you need to understand the underlying mechanism. There is a special (or a "magic") method for every operator sign. The magic method for the `"+"` sign is the `__add__` method. For `"-"` it is `"__sub__"` and so on. We have a complete listing of all the magic methods a little bit further down.
The mechanism works like this: If we have an expression `"x + y"` and `x` is an instance of class `K`, then Python will check the class definition of `K`. If `K` has a method `__add__` it will be called with `x.__add__(y)`, otherwise we will get an error message.

■ Binary Operators

■ Operator

Method

■ +	object.__add__(self, other)
■ -	object.__sub__(self, other)
■ *	object.__mul__(self, other)
■ //	object.__floordiv__(self, other)
■ /	object.__truediv__(self, other)
■ %	object.__mod__(self, other)
■ **	object.__pow__(self, other[, modulo])
■ <<	object.__lshift__(self, other)
■ >>	object.__rshift__(self, other)
■ &	object.__and__(self, other)
■ ^	object.__xor__(self, other)
■	object.__or__(self, other)

- class **OperatorOverLoad:**
- def **__init__(self,x):**
- *self.x =x*
- def **__add__(self,other):**
- print(*'the value of ob1=',self.x*)
- print(*'the value of ob2=',other.x*)
- print(*'The addition of two objects is: '*)
- return *self.x+other.x*
- ob1=OperatorOverLoad(20)
- ob2=OperatorOverLoad(30)
- print(ob1+ob2) **#ob1.__add__(ob2)**

Extended Assignments

Operator

- +=
- -=
- *=
- /=
- //=
- %=
- **=
- <<=
- >>=
- &=
- ^=
- |=

Method

- object.__iadd__(self, other)
- object.__isub__(self, other)
- object.__imul__(self, other)
- object.__idiv__(self, other)
- object.__ifloordiv__(self, other)
- object.__imod__(self, other)
- object.__ipow__(self, other[, modulo])
- object.__ilshift__(self, other)
- object.__irshift__(self, other)
- object.__iand__(self, other)
- object.__ixor__(self, other)
- object.__ior__(self, other)

■ Unary Operators

■ Operator

Method

- | | |
|-------------|--------------------------|
| ■ - | object.__neg__(self) |
| ■ + | object.__pos__(self) |
| ■ abs() | object.__abs__(self) |
| ■ ~ | object.__invert__(self) |
| ■ complex() | object.__complex__(self) |
| ■ int() | object.__int__(self) |
| ■ long() | object.__long__(self) |
| ■ float() | object.__float__(self) |
| ■ oct() | object.__oct__(self) |
| ■ hex() | object.__hex__(self) |

- from math import sqrt
- class **OperatorOverLoad**:
- def **__init__(self,x,y)**:
- self.x =x
- self.y=y
- def **__eq__(self,other)**:
- print('the value of ob1=',str(self.x)+'+'+str(sqrt(2))+'*'+str(self.y))
- print('the value of ob2=',str(other.x)+'+'+str(sqrt(2))+'*'+str(other.y))
- print('equality of two objects is: ')
- if str(self.x)+'+'+str(sqrt(2))+'*'+str(self.y)==str(other.x)+'+'+str(sqrt(2))+'*'+str(other.y):
- return True
- #return str(self.x+other.x)+'+'+str(sqrt(2))+'*'+str(self.y+other.y)
- ob1=OperatorOverLoad(20,30)
- ob2=OperatorOverLoad(20,30)
- print(ob1==ob2) #ob1.__add__(ob2)

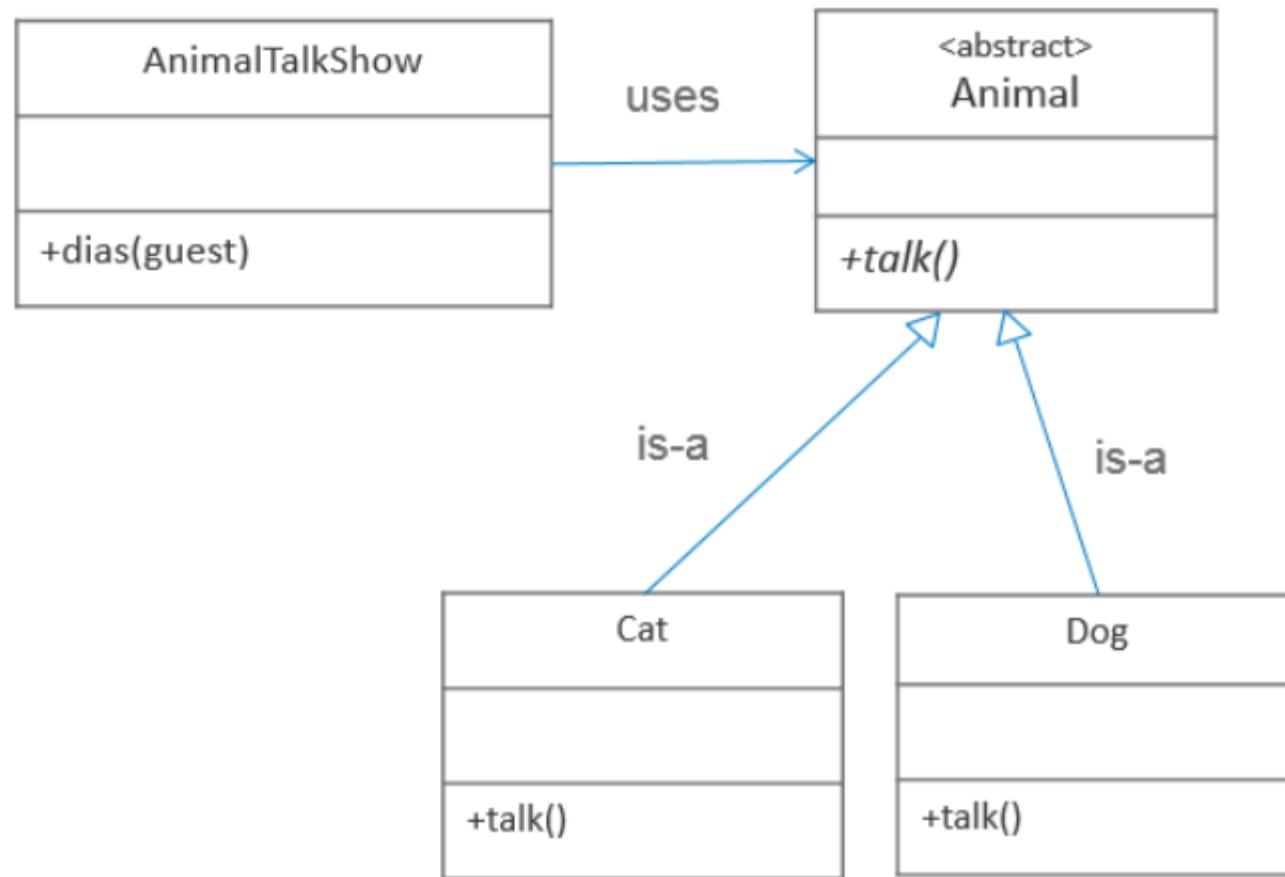
■ Comparison Operators

■ Operator	Method
■ <	object.__lt__(self, other)
■ <=	object.__le__(self, other)
■ ==	object.__eq__(self, other)
■ !=	object.__ne__(self, other)
■ >=	object.__ge__(self, other)
■ >	object.__gt__(self, other)

Cats and Dogs participated in an Animal talk show.

Only Animals can go to talk show dias and talk.

- A cat talks "Meow !"
- A dog talks "Woof !"



```
from abc import ABC, abstractmethod

class Animal(ABC):
    @abstractmethod
    def talk(self):
        pass

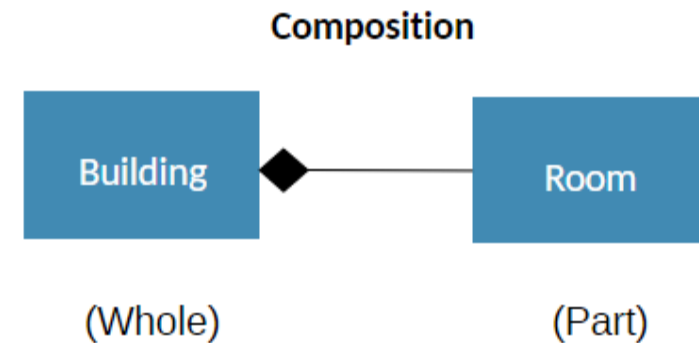
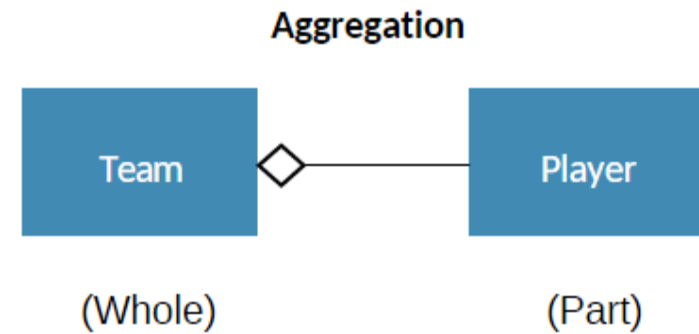
class Cat(Animal):
    def talk(self):
        print("Meow !")

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

class AnimalTalkShow:
    def dias(self, guest):
        #Ensure that the guest is a valid animal
        if isinstance(guest, Animal):
            #actual behavior is selected dynamically
            guest.talk()
```

```
talk_show = AnimalTalkShow()
c = Cat()
talk_show.dias(c)
d = Dog()
talk_show.dias(d)
```

- These are special types of **has-a** relationship
- Aggregation: Part and whole relationship
 - Example: A team **has** players
 - Player **is a part** of team
 - However, if the team is dissolved, players may still exist
 - Team <aggregation> Player
- Composition: part is limited to the life time of whole
 - Building **has** rooms
 - Building is **made up of** room. If the building is destroyed, rooms are destroyed
 - Building <composition> Room



e for Aggregation and Composition

```
class Player:
```

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

```
        self.name = name
```

Player class with
property: name

```
class Team:
```

```
    def addPlayer(self, player):
```

```
        self.players.append(player)
```

```
    def __init__(self):
```

```
        self.players = []
```

Team has Players:
Team class with
property: players[]

```
p = Player("Sachin") #create player
```

```
t = Team() #create team
```

```
t.addPlayer(p) #add player to team
```

```
print(t.players[0].name)
```

```
del(t) #delete the team
```

```
print(p.name) #still the player exists
```

```
class Room:
```

```
    pass
```

A room class with
no members

```
class Building:
```

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

```
        self.rooms = []
```

**Building has
rooms:**
Building class with
property: room[]

```
        for i in range(0, room_count):
```

```
            r = Room()
```

```
            self.rooms.append(r)
```

```
    def __del__(self):
```

```
        print("All rooms destroyed")
```

```
        del self.rooms
```

__del__ method
automatically
called by the
interpreter when
the instance is
about to be
destroyed

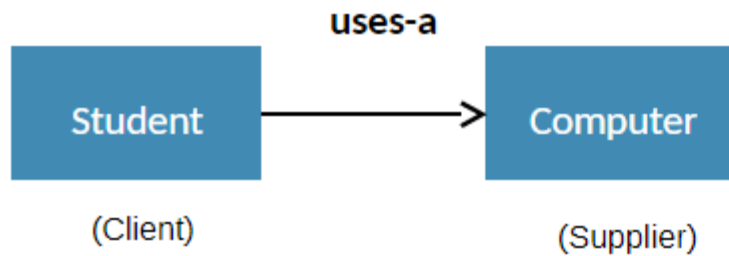
```
b = Building(3)
```

```
del(b)
```

Delete the building object
and all rooms inside gets
destroyed as well

Scenario:

A student uses a Computer for lab assignments



Note that the Computer is not a part of Student. It is used only in *doLabAssignment* method for writing and executing assignment code.

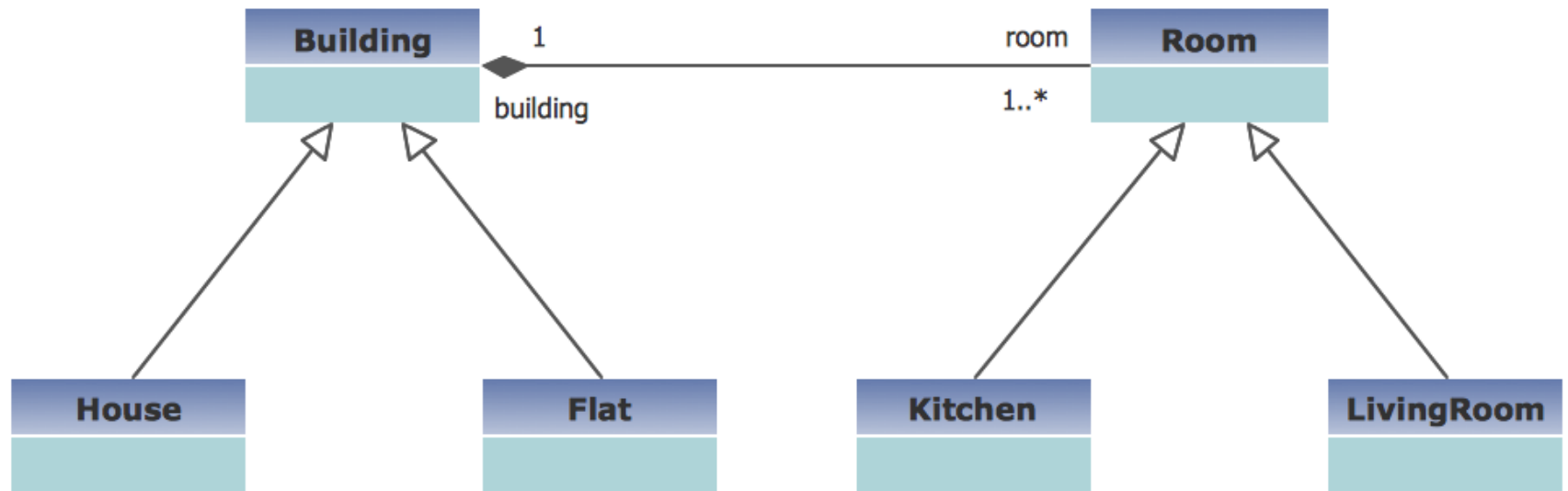
```

class Computer:
    def writeCode(self, text):
        print(text, "written in editor")
    def execute(self):
        print("Code Executed")

class Student:
    def doLabAssignment(self, computer, assignment):
        computer.writeCode(assignment)
        computer.execute()

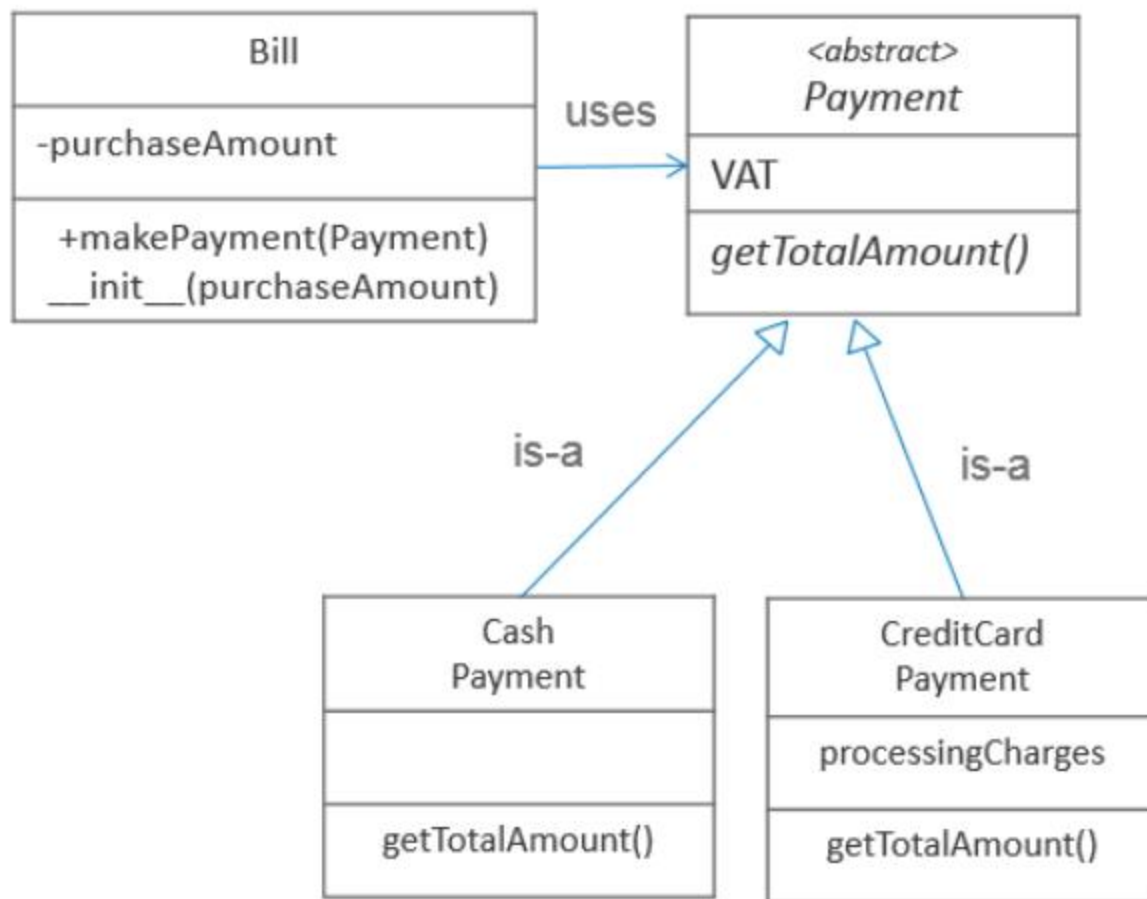
s = Student()
c = Computer()
s.doLabAssignment(c, "Assignment code")
  
```

Student uses a methods of a Computer to write and execute a code



Bill payment problem

- In a retail outlet there are **two modes of bill Payment**
- **•Cash** : Calculation includes VAT(15%)
- Total Amount = Purchase amount + VAT
- **•Credit card**: Calculation includes processing charge and VAT
- Total Amount = Purchase amount + VAT(15%)+
Processing charge(2%)
- The act of bill payment is same but the formula used for calculation of total amount differs as per the mode of payment.
- **Q: Can the Payment maker simply call a method and that method dynamically selects the formula for the total amount?**
- **Demonstrate this Polymorphic behavior with code.**



Continued..

```

from abc import ABC, abstractmethod

class Payment(ABC):
    VAT = 1.15
    @abstractmethod
    def totalAmount(self):
        pass

class CreditCardPayment(Payment):
    processingCharges = 1.02
    def getTotalAmount(self, purchaseAmt):
        amt = purchaseAmt * self.VAT #stmt1
        amt = amt * self.processingCharges
        return amt

class CashPayment(Payment):
    def getTotalAmount(self, purchaseAmt):
        return (purchaseAmt * self.VAT) #stmt2

class Bill:
    def __init__(self, purchaseAmount):
        self.__purchaseAmount = purchaseAmount
    def makePayment(self, mode):
        #Ensure that it is a valid mode of payment
        if (isinstance(mode, Payment)):
            #actual behavior is selected dynamically
            amount= mode.getTotalAmount(self.__purchaseAmount)
            print("Paid:" amount)

```

```

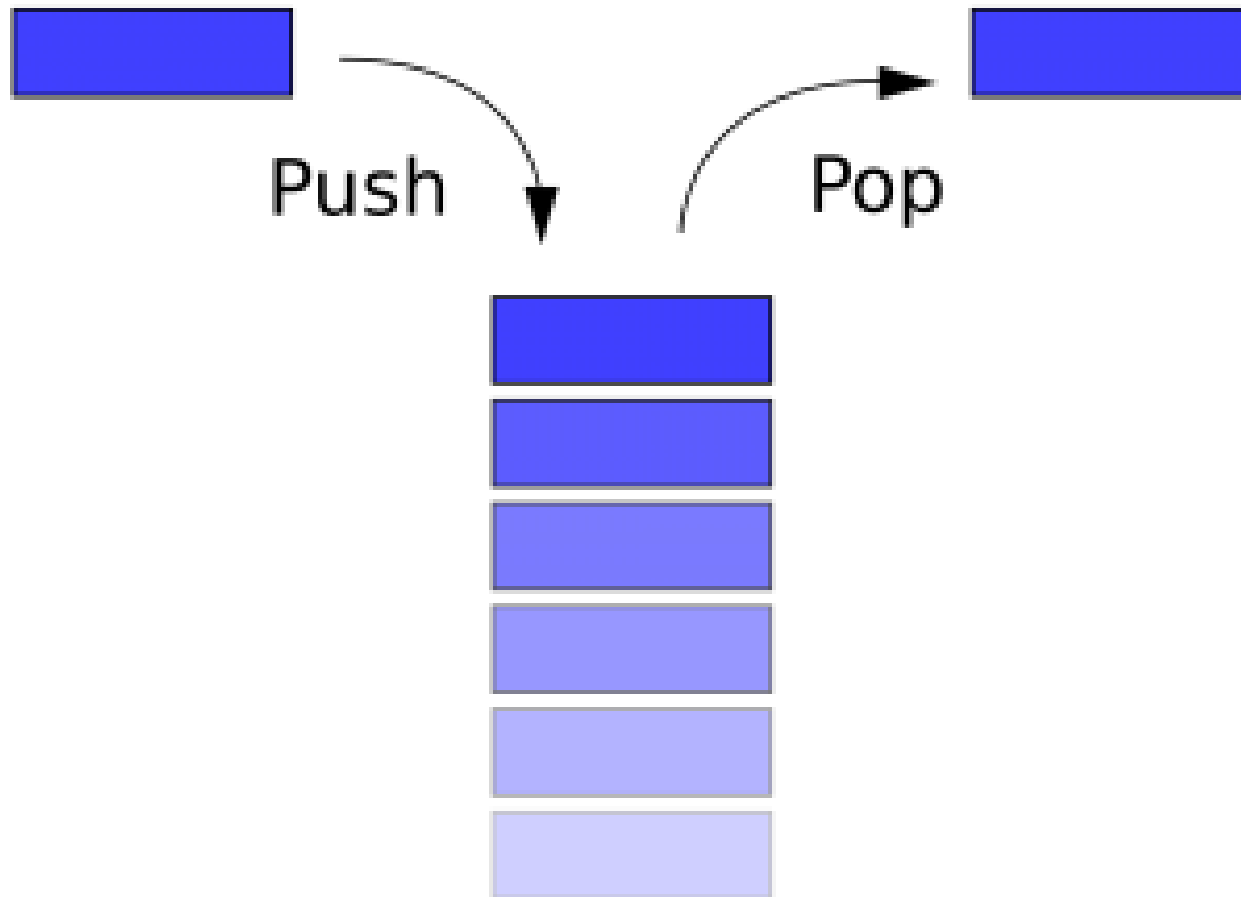
#create a bill with
#purchaseAmount=1000
bill = Bill(1000)
cc = CreditCardPayment()
bill.makePayment(cc)
cash = CashPayment()
bill.makePayment(cash)

```

- 
- `Print(hasattr(c,'name'))`


Data Structure



- A data structure is a specialized format for organizing and storing data.
- General data structure types include the array, the file, the record, the table, the tree, and so on.
- Any data structure is designed to organize data to suit a specific purpose so that it can be accessed and worked with in appropriate ways.
- In computer programming, a data structure may be selected or designed to store data for the purpose of working on it with various algorithms.
- **Applications of Stack:**
 - **1. Expression Evaluation**
 - **2. Syntax Parsing**
 - **3. Parenthesis Checking**
 - **Function Call:** Stack is used to keep information about the active functions or subroutines.



Abstract Classes

- Abstract classes are classes that contain one or more abstract methods.
- An abstract method is a method that is declared, but contains no implementation.
- Abstract classes may not be instantiated, and require subclasses to provide implementations for the abstract methods.
- Subclasses of an abstract class in Python are not required to implement abstract methods of the parent class.
- In fact, Python on its own doesn't provide abstract classes.
- Yet, Python comes with a module which provides the infrastructure for defining Abstract Base Classes (ABCs).
- This module is called - for obvious reasons - abc.

- 
- A class that is derived from an abstract class cannot be instantiated unless all of its abstract methods are overridden.
 - You may think that abstract methods can't be implemented in the abstract base class.
 - This impression is wrong: An abstract method can have an implementation in the abstract class! Even if they are implemented, designers of subclasses will be forced to override the implementation.
 - Like in other cases of "normal" inheritance, the abstract method can be invoked with `super()` call mechanism.
 - This makes it possible to provide some basic functionality in the abstract method, which can be enriched by the subclass implementation.

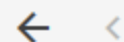
- 
- `from abc import ABC, abstractmethod`
 - `class AbstractClassExample(ABC):`
 - `@abstractmethod`
 - `def do_something(self):`
 - `print("Some implementation!")`
 - `class AnotherSubclass(AbstractClassExample):`
 - `def do_something(self):`
 - `super().do_something()`
 - `print("The enrichment from AnotherSubclass")`
 - `x = AnotherSubclass()`
 - `x.do_something()`
- 

mob2.return_product() can also be invoked as Mobile.return_product(mob2)

Thus self now refers to mob2, as this is actually pass by reference. For simplicity sake and for better readability we use mob2.return_product() instead of

```

1  class Mobile:
2      def __init__(self,price,brand):
3          print (id(self))
4          self.price = price
5          self.brand = brand
6
7      def return_product(self):
8          print (id(self))
9          print ("Brand being returned is ",self.brand," and price is ",self.price)
10
11  mob1 = Mobile(1000, "Apple")
12  print ("Mobile 1 has id", id(mob1))
13
14  mob2=Mobile(2000, "Samsung")
15  print ("Mobile 2 has id", id(mob2))
16
17  mob2.return_product()
18  Mobile.return_product(mob2)
    
```



OBJECT ORIENTED PROGRAMMING



Quiz 22

What is the output of the following code snippet?

```

1 class Customer:
2     def __init__(id,self,age):
3         id.self=self
4         id.age=age
5
6 c1=Customer(100,20)
7 print(c1.self)
    
```

Python Copy

Options:

- ☒ 100
- ☐ 20
- ☐ Error

Submit

✔ Your answer is Right



Here self is not the first parameter. Therefore the value 100 is assigned to self, which is the second parameter. Hence it creates an object with 2 attributes: self and age, where self is 100 and age is 20.



Your answers are submitted.

Accessor and Mutator methods – Python

- **A** method defined within a class can either be an Accessor or a Mutator method.
- An Accessor method returns the information about the object, but do not change the state or the object.
- A Mutator method, also called an Update method, can change the state of the object.
- `a = [1,2,3,4,5]`
- `a.count(1)`
- `a.index(2)`
- `a.append(6)`
- The methods `a.count()` and `a.index()` are both Accessor methods since it doesn't alter the object `a` in any sense, but only pulls the relevant information.
- But `a.append()` is a mutator method, since it effectively changes the object (list `a`) to a new one.