

Object Oriented Programming

Motivation

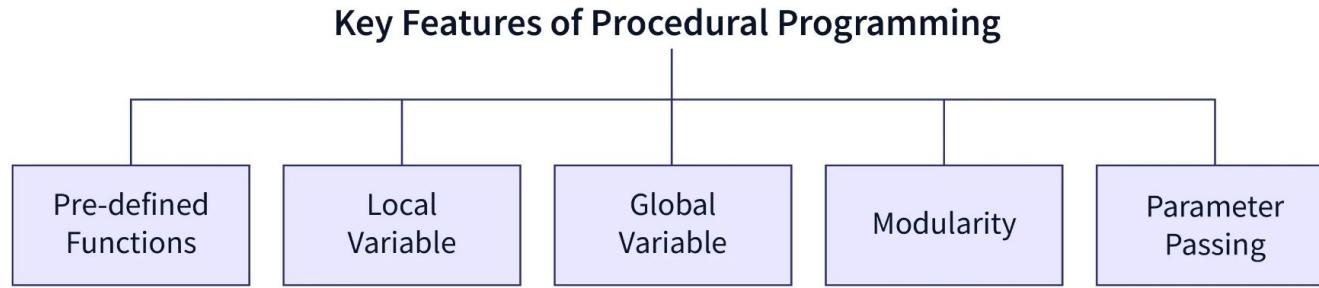
IT560



Sourish Dasgupta

Assistant Professor, DA-IICT, Gandhinagar
<https://daiict.ac.in/faculty/sourish-dasgupta>

What happened so far? Procedural Programming



SCALER
Topics



Procedural Programming: Structure

```
1 #include<stdio.h>
2 #include<conio.h>
3 int addNumbers(int a, int b); // function prototype ← Function Prototype
4
5 int main() ← Main Function
6 {
7     int n1,n2,sum; ← Variable Declaration
8
9     printf(" \n Enter First Number : ");
10    scanf("%d",&n1);
11    printf(" \n Enters Second Number : ");
12    scanf("%d",&n2);
13    sum = addNumbers(n1, n2); // function call ← User Defined Function Call
14
15    printf(" \n Sum of two number = %d",sum);
16    getch();
17    return 0;
18 }
19
20 int addNumbers(int a,int b) // function definition ← Function Declaration
21 {
22     int result;
23     result = a+b;
24     return result; // return statement } ← Function Body
```

Header Files

Function Prototype

Main Function

Variable Declaration

Pre Defined Function Call

User Defined Function Call

Function Declaration

Function Body

```
#include <stdio.h>
int addNumbers(int a, int b); ← Function Prototype
int main() ← Main Function
{
    ...
    ...
    sum = addNumbers(n1, n2); ← Function Call Statement
    ...
}
int addNumbers(int a, int b) ← Function Declaration
{
    ...
    ...
    return result
}
```

Function Parameters

Function Prototype

Main Function

Function Call Statement

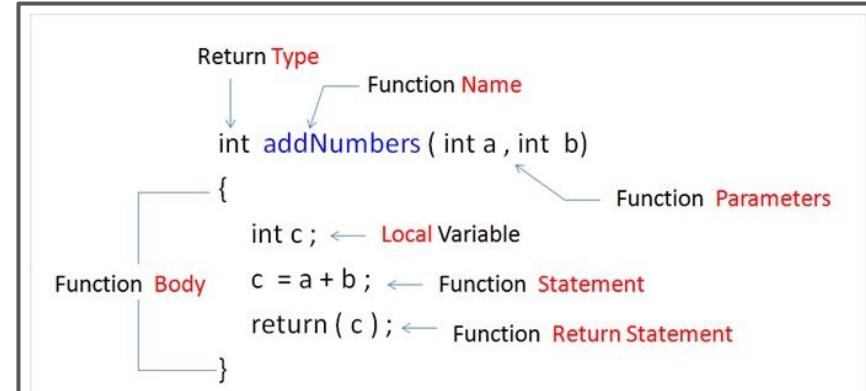
Function Declaration

Function Arguments



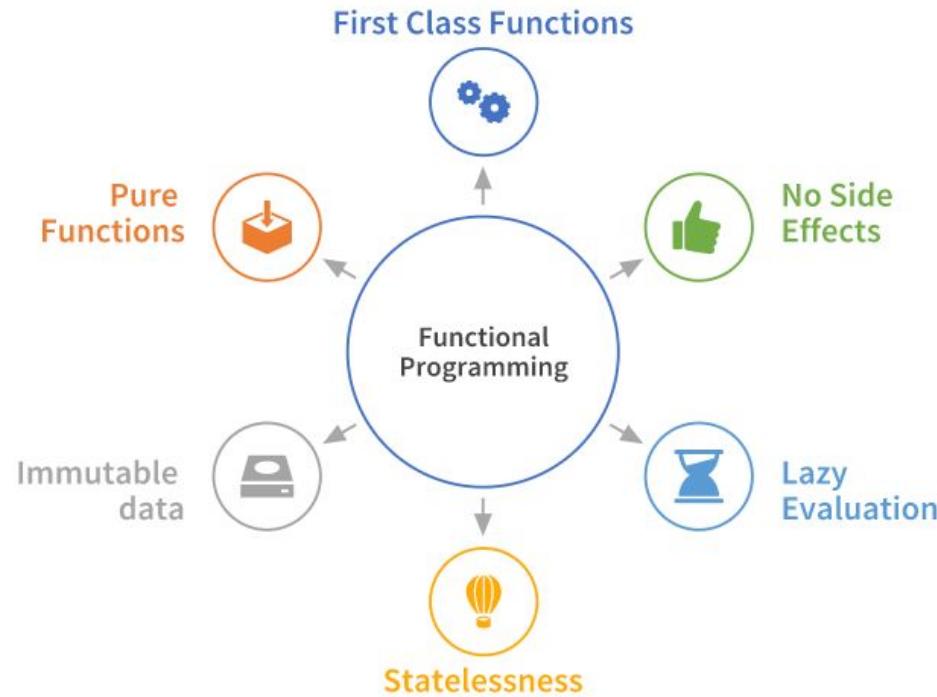
Procedural Programming: Structure

```
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2 #include<conio.h>
3 int addNumbers(int a, int b); // function prototype ← Function Prototype
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5 int main() ← Main Function
6 {
7     int n1,n2,sum; ← Variable Declaration
8
9     printf(" \n Enter First Number : ");
10    scanf("%d",&n1);
11    printf(" \n Enters Second Number : ");
12    scanf("%d",&n2);
13    sum = addNumbers(n1, n2); // function call ← User Defined Function Call
14
15    printf(" \n Sum of two number = %d",sum);
16    getch();
17    return 0;
18 }
19
20 int addNumbers(int a,int b) // function definition ← Function Declaration
21 {
22     int result;
23     result = a+b;
24     return result; // return statement } ← Function Body
```



So then what's wrong with Procedural?

Design Principles of Functional Programming



Functional Programming: First-class Functions

```
#include <iostream>
#include <functional>

// A simple function that takes another function as a parameter

void executeFunction(const std::function<void(int)>& func, int value) {
    func(value); // Call the passed function with the given value
}

int main() {
    // Define a lambda function
    auto printSquare = [] (int x) {
        std::cout << "The square of " << x << " is " << (x * x) <<
        std::endl;
    };

    // Pass the lambda function to another function
    executeFunction(printSquare, 5);

    return 0;
}
```

Capture clause: no variable captured from the scope

First-class function



Achieving SoC via Pure & First-class Functions

```
#include <iostream>
#include <string>

void processUserInput() {
    std::string userInput;
    std::cout << "Enter a number: ";
    std::cin >> userInput;

    // Validate the input
    for (char c : userInput) {
        if (!isdigit(c)) {
            std::cout << "Invalid input!" <<
std::endl;
            return;
        }
    }

    // Convert the input and calculate the
    // square
    int number = std::stoi(userInput);
    std::cout << "The square is: " << (number *
number) << std::endl;
}

int main() {
    processUserInput();
    return 0;
}
```

Procedural Style

```
#include <iostream>
#include <string>
#include <optional>
#include <functional>

// Pure function to get user input std::string
getInput() {
    std::cout << "Enter a number: ";
    std::string input;
    std::cin >> input;
    return input;
}

// Pure function to validate input
std::optional<int> validateAndConvert(const
std::string& input) {
    for (char c : input) {
        if (!isdigit(c)) {
            return std::nullopt;
        }
    }
    return std::stoi(input);
    // Return the converted number if valid
}

// Pure function to process
// (e.g., calculate the square)
int calculateSquare(int number) {
    return number * number;
}
```

```
// Functional composition: Combine pure functions
void processInput(const std::function<void(const
std::string&)>& successHandler, const
std::function<void()>& errorHandler) {
    auto input = getInput();
    auto validatedInput = validateAndConvert(input);
    if (validatedInput) {
        successHandler(validatedInput);
        // Call success handler with valid input
    } else {
        errorHandler();
        // Call error handler
    }
}

int main() {
    processInput([](const std::string& input){
        int number = std::stoi(input);
        int square = calculateSquare(number);
        std::cout << "The square is: " << square << std::endl;
    }) {
        std::cout << "Invalid input!" << std::endl;
    };
    return 0;
}
```



Achieving Behavior Abstraction via Higher-order Functions

```
#include <iostream>
#include <vector>
#include <functional>

// Higher-order function for processing numbers
void processNumbers(const std::vector<int>& numbers,
                     const std::function<int(int)>& operation) {
    for (int num : numbers) {
        std::cout << operation(num) << " ";
    }
    std::cout << std::endl;
}

int main() {
    std::vector<int> numbers = {1, 2, 3, 4, 5};

    // Pass different operations to processNumbers
    processNumbers(numbers, [](int x) { return x * x; }); // Print squares
    processNumbers(numbers, [](int x) { return x * x * x; }); // Print cubes
    processNumbers(numbers, [](int x) { return x + 10; }); // Add 10 to each

    return 0;
}
```



Achieving Dynamic Behavior via Functional Map

```
#include <iostream>
#include <functional>
#include <map>

// Functional map of operations
std::map<char, std::function<int(int, int)>> getOperations()
{
    return {
        {'+', [](int a, int b) { return a + b; }},
        {'-', [](int a, int b) { return a - b; }},
        {'*', [](int a, int b) { return a * b; }},
        {'/', [](int a, int b) { return b != 0 ? a / b : 0; }}
            // Handle division by zero
    };
}

void executeOperation(char operation, int a, int b,
const std::map<char, std::function<int(int, int)>>&
operations) {
    if (operations.find(operation) != operations.end()) {
        std::cout << "Result: " <<
        operations.at(operation)(a, b) << std::endl;
    }
}
```

```
else {
    std::cout << "Unknown operation!" <<
    std::endl;
}
}

int main() {
    auto operations = getOperations();

    char operation;
    int a, b;

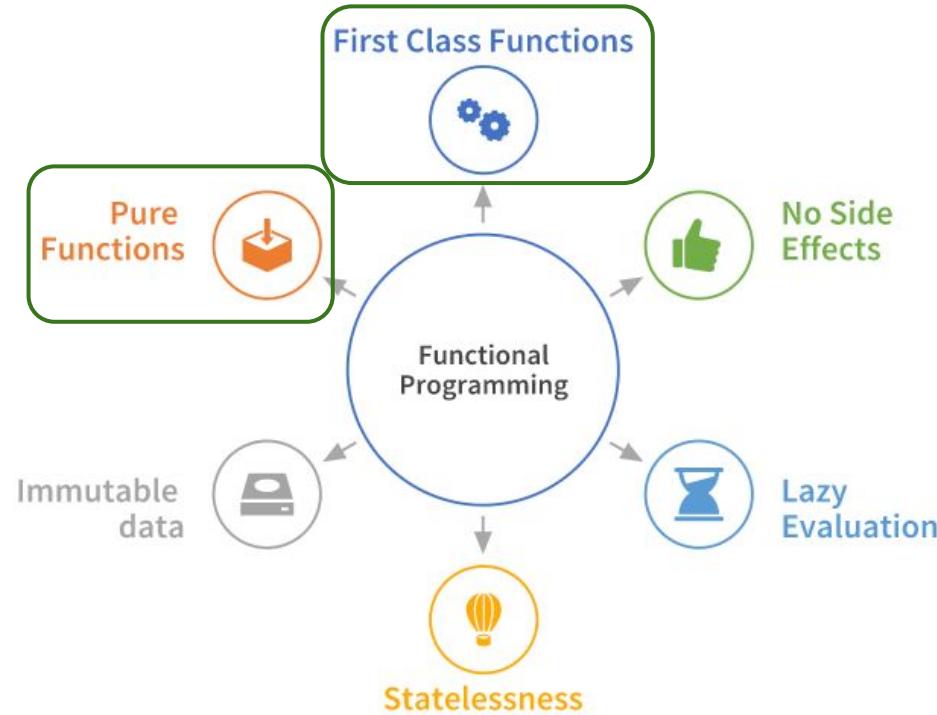
    std::cout << "Enter operation (+, -, *, /): ";
    std::cin >> operation;
    std::cout << "Enter two numbers: ";
    std::cin >> a >> b;

    executeOperation(operation, a, b, operations);

    return 0;
}
```



Design Principles of Functional Programming



Functional Programming: Immutability vs. Statelessness

```
int globalCounter = 0; // Mutable global state

int increment(int value) {
    return value + 1;
// Stateless function (no side effects, depends only on input)
}

// But the global state makes the system stateful:
globalCounter = increment(globalCounter);
```

```
const int immutableCounter = 5;

int incrementAndPrint() {
    std::cout << immutableCounter << std::endl;
// Has a side effect (stateful)
    return immutableCounter + 1;
}
```



Functional Programming: Combining both

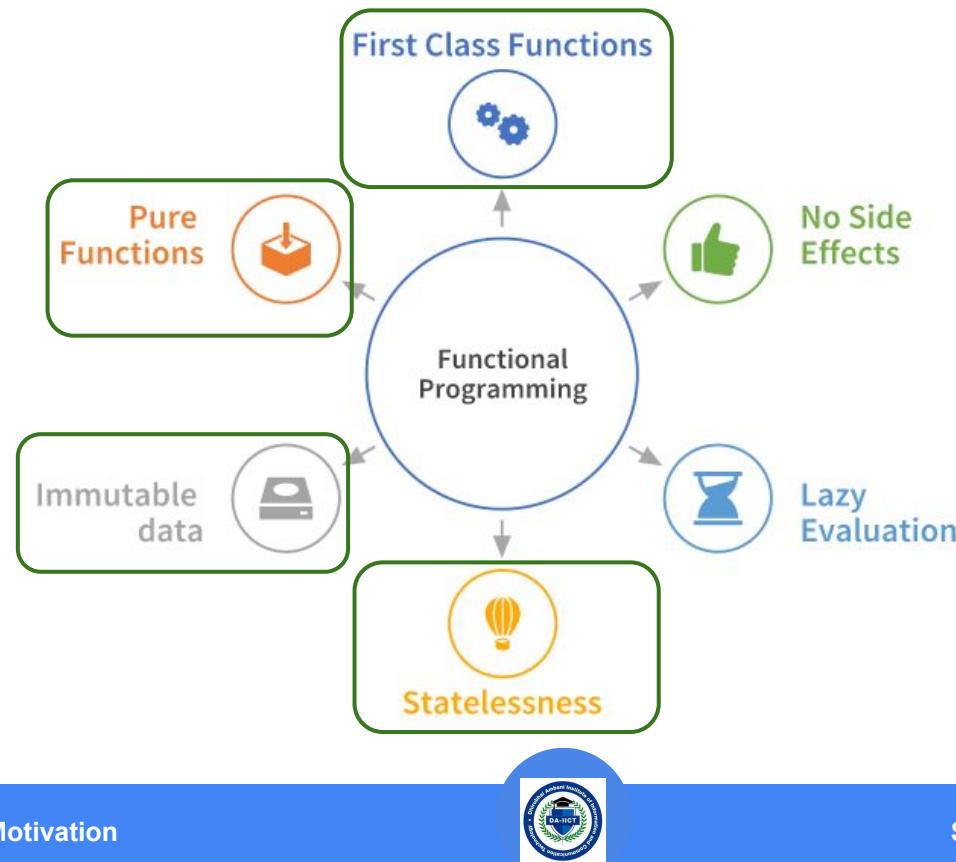
```
#include <iostream>
#include <vector>
#include <algorithm>

// Stateless function operating on immutable data
std::vector<int> doubleNumbers(const std::vector<int>& numbers) {
    std::vector<int> result = numbers; // Copy input to preserve immutability
    std::transform(result.begin(), result.end(), result.begin(), [ ](int x) { return x * 2; });
    return result; // Return a new vector without modifying the original
}

int main() {
    const std::vector<int> numbers = {1, 2, 3, 4, 5}; // Immutable input
    std::vector<int> doubled = doubleNumbers(numbers); // Stateless function
    for (int num : doubled) {
        std::cout << num << " ";
    }
    return 0;
}
```



Design Principles of Functional Programming



Lazy Evaluation via Generators

```
#include <iostream>
#include <functional>

#State-less Sequence Generator
class LazySequence {
public:
    LazySequence(int start, int step) :current(start),
step(step) {
}
// member variables directly initialized before
the body of the constructor is executed

    int next() {
        int value = current;// Capture the current value
        current += step;// Increment for the next value
        return value;
// Generates the next value only when needed
    }

private:
    int current;
// Tracks the current value in the sequence
    int step; // The step size for the sequence
};
```

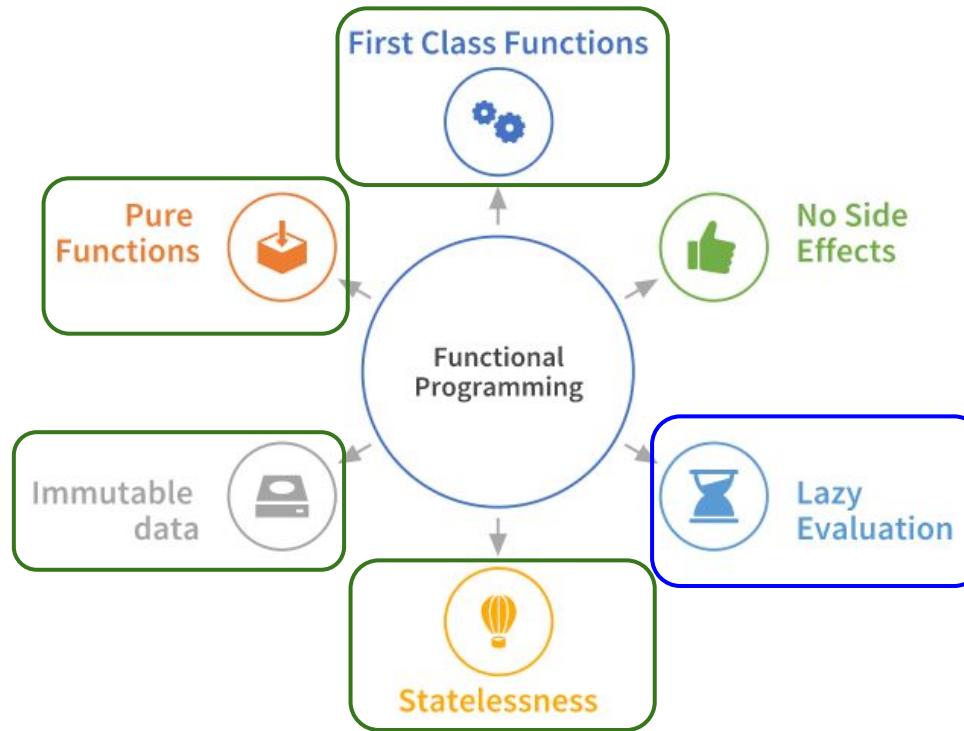
```
int main() {
    LazySequence sequence(0, 2);
// Start at 0, increment by 2

// Generate and print the first 5 elements lazily
    for (int i = 0; i < 5; ++i) {
        std::cout << sequence.next() << " ";
// Outputs: 0 2 4 6 8
    }

    return 0;
}
```



Design Principles of Functional Programming



The final bit - Side-effects

```
int addAndPrint(int a, int b) {  
    int result = a + b;  
    std::cout << "The result is: " << result << std::endl; // Side effect: I/O  
    return result;  
}
```

```
#include <fstream>  
  
void writeFile(const std::string& filename, const std::string& content) {  
    std::ofstream file(filename);  
    file << content; // Side-effect: Writes data to a file (external system  
interaction)  
}  
  
int main() {  
    writeFile("example.txt", "Hello, file!");  
    return 0;  
}
```



Removing Side-effects

```
void printResult(int result) {
    std::cout << "Result: " << result << std::endl; // Isolated side-effect
}

int add(int a, int b) {
    return a + b; // Pure function
}

int main() {
    int result = add(3, 4);
    printResult(result); // Side effect is isolated here
    return 0;
}
```



Functional Programming: Key takeaways

1. **Dynamic Behavior:** Functions can be dynamically *assigned or modified at runtime*
2. **Separation of Concerns (SoC):** *Decouple logic* (what to do) from implementation details (how to do it)
3. **Encapsulation of Behavior:** Functions *encapsulate behavior*, allowing them to be treated as reusable, interchangeable logic units.
4. **Runtime Composition:** *Design complex behaviors or pipelines* (without duplicating code) by composing or chaining functions dynamically.



Then why OOP?

We will see next



Object Oriented Programming

Why OOP?

IT560



Sourish Dasgupta

Assistant Professor, DA-IICT, Gandhinagar
<https://daiict.ac.in/faculty/sourish-dasgupta>

Why not stick to Functional Programming?

Drawback of Procedural Programming	How FP Addresses It	How OOP Addresses It
Tight coupling between data and functions	<ul style="list-style-type: none">• Immutability• Pure functions	<ul style="list-style-type: none">• Encapsulates data and behavior within objects
Global state and side effects	<ul style="list-style-type: none">• Immutability• Pure functions	<ul style="list-style-type: none">• Restricted access via Encapsulation• Does not inherently avoid side effects
Code duplication and lack of reusability	<ul style="list-style-type: none">• Reusable pure functions• Higher-order functions	<ul style="list-style-type: none">• Inheritance• Polymorphism
Poor modularity and maintainability	<ul style="list-style-type: none">• Function composition & modularity	<ul style="list-style-type: none">• Self-contained classes and objects
Difficulty in scaling large applications	Scales well (via functional decomposition) for: <ul style="list-style-type: none">• Mathematical problems• Stateless systems	<ul style="list-style-type: none">• Modularity• Encapsulation• Inheritance

Why not stick to Functional Programming?

Drawback of Procedural Programming	How FP Addresses It	How OOP Addresses It
Difficulty in modeling real-world systems	<i>No good answer!</i>	<ul style="list-style-type: none">Real-world entities as objects and classes
State management challenges	<ul style="list-style-type: none">Immutability (i.e., avoids mutable state)State mgmt. simplified!	<ul style="list-style-type: none">Objects are encapsulatedObject state managed locally, allowing easy updates
No clear abstraction boundaries	<ul style="list-style-type: none">Higher-order functions	<ul style="list-style-type: none">EncapsulationInheritanceInterfaces
Poor team collaboration for large projects	<ul style="list-style-type: none">Modular codeMay require expertise to maintain clarity in team settings	<ul style="list-style-type: none">Code as objects and classesEasy for code delegation

What happens when systems are large?

Scalability in Functional Programming

Scaling large applications: Statelessness (btw, Python begins!)

```
def calculator(operation, a, b):
    if operation == "add":
        return a + b
    elif operation == "subtract":
        return a - b
    elif operation == "multiply":
        return a * b
    elif operation == "divide":
        return a / b if b != 0 else "Error: Division by zero"
    else:
        return "Error: Unsupported operation"

# Example usage:
print(calculator("add", 2, 3))          # Output: 5
print(calculator("multiply", 4, 5)) # Output: 20; Independent of
previous call
```

- **Independence:** Each interaction is standalone
- **No Memory:** The system does not retain data or "state" between requests
- **Scalability:** Easy to scale because there's no need to manage or synchronize state

Scaling large applications: Statelessness via Function Composition

```
from functools import reduce

def apply_operations(initial_value, operations):
    return reduce(lambda acc, op: op(acc), operations, initial_value)

# Define operations as functions
operations = [
    lambda x: add(x, 5),          # Add 5
    lambda x: multiply(x, 2),     # Multiply by 2
    lambda x: subtract(x, 3),     # Subtract 3
    lambda x: divide(x, 7),       # Divide by 7
]

result = apply_operations(0, operations) # Start with 0
print(f"Final result: {result}") # Output: 1.0
```



Can any system be modeled as stateless? Ex: Shopping Cart

1. Add items to the cart
2. Update item quantities
3. Remove items from the cart
4. **Persist** the cart across multiple interactions or page reloads
5. **Retain** the cart state until the order is placed or the session ends



Why a shopping cart ~~cannot~~ should not be stateless

1. Persistent State:

- Must **retain** the *list of items* a user has *added* and their *respective quantities*
- **Cannot forget** the cart contents after each request (e.g., when the user navigates to a different page or refreshes the page)

1. User-Specific Data:

- Each user's cart is unique → need to **track** the *items added* by a *specific user*, either *in memory* or *a database*
- Stateless systems cannot tie specific data to a user without **re-sending** all cart data with every request, which is **inefficient**

1. Session Continuity:

- Needs to **persist** across a user's *session*, potentially *spanning* multiple requests or even days (if they come back later)
- Stateless systems cannot retain session continuity because they **discard** all information between requests

1. Performance Concerns:

- In a stateless system, the client (browser) would **need to send** the entire cart data (e.g., all items, quantities) with every request to the server → **inefficient** for larger carts and increases **network overhead**



What's the stateful version? Closure-styled Encapsulation

```
def create_calculator():
    state = 0
    # Encapsulated state

    def add(value):
        nonlocal state
        state += value
        return state

    def subtract(value):
        nonlocal state
        state -= value
        return state

    def multiply(value):
        nonlocal state
        state *= value
        return state

    def divide(value):
        nonlocal state
        if value == 0:
            return "Error: Division by zero"
        state /= value
        return state

    def reset():
        nonlocal state
        state = 0
        return state

    def get_state():
        return state

    return add, subtract, multiply, divide, reset, get_state
```

```
# Example Usage
add, subtract, multiply,
divide, reset, get_state =
create_calculator()

print(add(5))
# Output: 5
print(multiply(2))
# Output: 10
print(subtract(3))
# Output: 7
print(divide(7))
# Output: 1.0
print(get_state())
# Output: 1.0
print(reset())
# Output: 0
```



Is Closure scalable?

Scalability: Not ideal for large-scale or distributed systems.

- Localized and encapsulate state *within a single function*
- Works well for small, isolated systems
- Does not scale well when:
 - System needs to handle a large number of concurrent users
 - State needs to be shared or synchronized across multiple instances
- Closures also become harder to maintain and debug as the functionality grows

Best for: Small-scale, self-contained applications where each instance handles independent users or sessions.

What would be a scalable version? Immutable Data Structure

```
def add(state, value):
    return state + value #creates and returns a new state

def subtract(state, value):
    return state - value

def multiply(state, value):
    return state * value

def divide(state, value):
    if value == 0:
        return "Error: Division by zero", state
    return state / value

# Example Usage
state = 0 # Initial state

state = add(state, 5)      # Add 5; returns a new state
state = multiply(state, 2) # Multiply by 2
state = subtract(state, 3) # Subtract 3
state = divide(state, 7)   # Divide by 7

print(state) # Output: 1.0
```



Key Takeaways

Version	Scalability	Best Use Case
Closure-Based Stateful Calculator	Limited	Small-scale, session-based systems where each instance operates independently.
Stateful Calculator Using Generators	Limited	Small-scale systems requiring efficient, localized state handling.
Stateful Calculator with Explicit State	Moderately Scalable	Stateless systems that require functional principles and immutability.
Stateful Calculator Using Immutable Data Structure	Highly Scalable	Large-scale, distributed systems, or applications requiring horizontal scaling.

Then why OOP? Why not Immutable Data Structures?

Modeling real-world entities can make life “unreal”



Modeling a Car in FP via Pure Functions & Explicit State Passing

```
def create_car(color, engine_size):
    return {"color": color, "engine_size": engine_size, "speed": 0}

def accelerate(car, increment):
    # Create a new car speed-state with updated speed
    new_car = [car.copy()]
    new_car["speed"] += increment
    return new_car

def brake(car, decrement):
    # Create a new car speed-state with updated speed
    new_car = [car.copy()]
    new_car["speed"] = max(0, new_car["speed"] - decrement)
    return new_car

def display_details(car): Trivia: Same as double quote - car["color"]
    print(f"Car Details:")
    print(f"  Color: {car['color']}")
    print(f"  Engine Size: {car['engine_size']}L")
    print(f"  Speed: {car['speed']} km/h")
```

Dictionary emulating an object

Example Usage

```
my_car = create_car("Red", 2.0)
display_details(my_car)
```

```
my_car = accelerate(my_car, 50)
display_details(my_car)
```

```
my_car = brake(my_car, 20)
display_details(my_car)
```



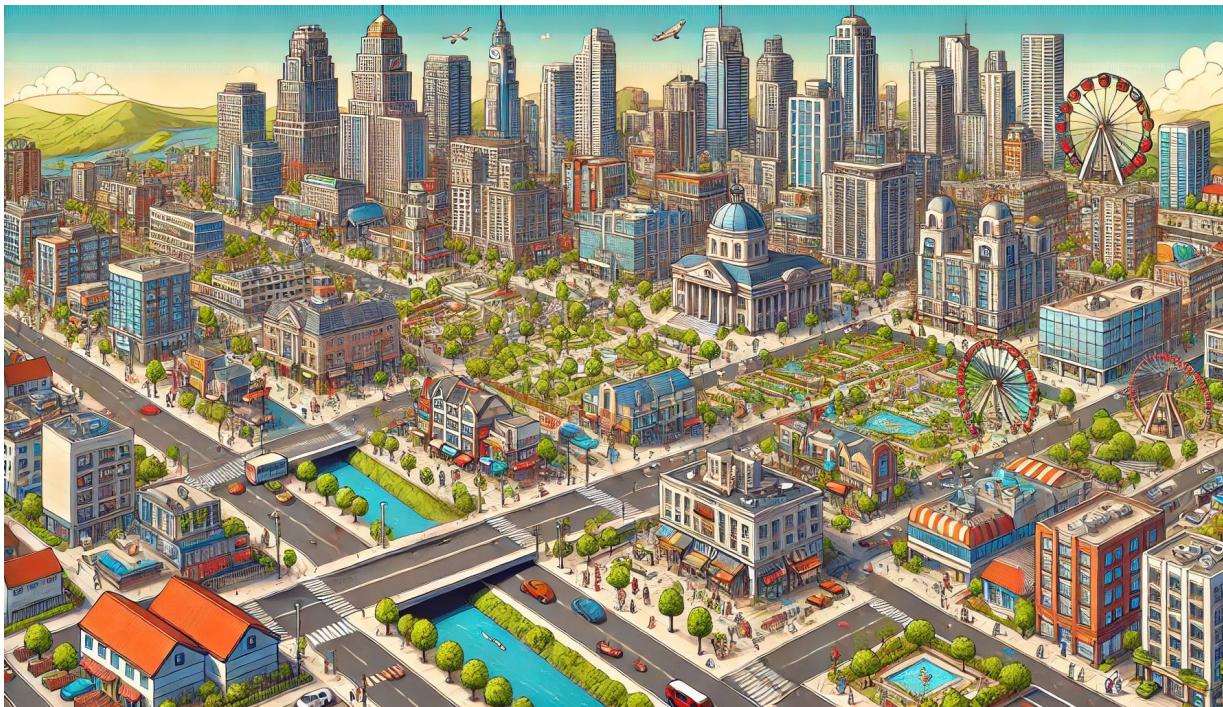
Modeling Car in OOP via Encapsulation of internally shared state

```
class Car:  
    def __init__(self, color, engine_size):  
        self.color = color # Attribute: color of the car  
        self.engine_size = engine_size # Attribute: engine size of the car  
        self.speed = 0 # Attribute: current speed of the car  
  
    def accelerate(self, increment):  
        self.speed += increment  
        print(f"The car accelerates by {increment} km/h. Current speed:  
{self.speed} km/h.")  
  
    def brake(self, decrement):  
        self.speed = max(0, self.speed - decrement)  
        print(f"The car slows down by {decrement} km/h. Current speed:  
{self.speed} km/h.")  
  
    def display_details(self):  
        print(f"Car Details:\nColor: {self.color}\nEngine Size:  
{self.engine_size}\nCurrent Speed: {self.speed} km/h")
```

```
# Example Usage  
def main:  
    my_car = Car("Red", 2.0)  
    my_car.display_details()  
    my_car.accelerate(50)  
    my_car.brake(20)  
    my_car.display_details()  
  
#optional but norm  
if __name__ == "__main__":  
    main()
```



Modeling real-world entities can be an overhead



FP in action while modeling a City via Immutable DS

```
from pyrsistent import pmap, pvector

# Immutable data structure representing the city map
city = pmap({
    "districts": pvector([
        pmap({"name": "District A", "population": 100000}),
        pmap({"name": "District B", "population": 200000})
    ])
})

# Update the population of "District B"
def update_population(city, district_name, new_population):
    # Locate the district to update
    districts = city["districts"]
    updated_districts = districts.transform(
        [i for i, distr in enumerate(districts) if
            distr["name"] == district_name][0],
        lambda distr: distr.set("population", new_population)
    )
    # Return a new city with updated districts
    return city.set("districts", updated_districts)
```

hierarchical immutable data structure
representing a city

```
"districts": [
    {"name": "District A", "population": 100000},
    {"name": "District B", "population": 200000}
]
```

```
print("Original City:", city)
print("Updated City:", new_city)
```



What can go wrong?

Performance Costs:

- Copying and reconstructing DS → significant **CPU and memory overhead**
- Worse if DS is:
 - a. Deeply nested
 - b. Contains a large number of elements

Garbage Collection:

- The original, unchanged data structure is no longer needed and will be garbage collected, **adding to runtime costs**

Modeling City in OOP via Encapsulation of internally shared state

```
class District:  
    # Constructor to initialize a district  
    def __init__(self, name, population):  
        self.name = name  
        self.population = population  
  
    def update_population(self, new_population):  
        self.population = new_population  
  
    def display(self):  
        return f"{self.name}: Population  
{self.population}"  
  
class City:  
    # Constructor to initialize a city with districts  
    def __init__(self, districts):  
        # Districts is a list of District objects  
        self.districts = districts
```

```
def update_district_population(self, district_name,  
new_population):  
    # Find the district and update its population  
    for district in self.districts:  
        if district.name == district_name:  
            district.update_population(new_population)  
            break  
  
def display(self):  
    # Display all districts  
    print("City Districts:")  
    for district in self.districts:  
        print(district.display())
```



Modeling City in OOP via Encapsulation of *internally shared state*

```
# Example Usage
district_a = District("District A", 10000)
district_b = District("District B", 20000)

# Initialize the city with the districts
city = City([district_a, district_b])

# Display city information
city.display()

# Update the population of "District B"
city.update_district_population("District B", 25000)

# Display updated city information
city.display()
```



Key Takeaways

Criterion	FP with Immutable Data Structure	OOP Design
State Management	Works well for isolated or distributed state	Best for localized , complex , or interconnected state
Modeling Real-World Systems	Feels unnatural for real-world systems	Naturally represents real-world entities.
Performance	Can incur overhead from immutability	More efficient for stateful, performance-critical tasks
Scalability	Scales well for distributed systems	Scales well for object-heavy systems with local state
Collaboration	Harder to collaborate in large systems due to lack of cohesion	Easier to divide work with encapsulated classes

Object Oriented Programming

A Tale of Constructors

IT560



Sourish Dasgupta

Assistant Professor, DA-IICT, Gandhinagar
<https://daiict.ac.in/faculty/sourish-dasgupta>

```
public class Person {  
    private String name;  
    private int age;  
  
    // Default constructor  
    public Person() {  
        this.name = "Unknown";  
        this.age = 0;  
    }  
  
    // Parameterized constructor  
    public Person(String name, int age) {  
        this.name = name;  
        this.age = age;  
    }  
  
    // Method to display person details  
    public void display() {  
        System.out.println("Name: " + name + ", Age: " + age);  
    }  
}
```

```
public static void main(String[] args) {  
    // Using the default constructor  
    Person person1 = new Person();  
    person1.display();  
  
    // Using the parameterized constructor  
    Person person2 = new Person("Alice", 25);  
    person2.display();  
}  
}
```

Guess the language?



```
class Person {  
private:  
    string name;  
    int age;  
  
public:  
    // Default constructor  
    Person() {  
        name = "Unknown";  
        age = 0;  
    }  
  
    // Parameterized constructor  
    Person(string personName, int personAge) {  
        name = personName;  
        age = personAge;  
    }  
  
    // Method to display person details  
    void display() const {  
        cout << "Name: " << name << ", Age: " << age << endl;  
    }  
}
```

```
};  
  
int main() {  
    // Using the default constructor  
    Person person1;  
    person1.display();  
  
    // Using the parameterized constructor  
    Person person2("Alice", 25);  
    person2.display();  
  
    return 0;  
}
```

Guess the language?



```
class Person:  
    def __init__(self, name, age):  
        self.name = name  
        self.age = age  
person = Person("Alice", 25) # Constructor initializes name and age
```

Guess the language?

Why Constructors? OOP begins at home!

Purpose	Description
Object Initialization	Sets up the <i>initial state</i> of an object by initializing its attributes
Encapsulation	Hides <i>initialization details</i> , ensuring proper setup and reducing errors
Abstraction	Simplifies object creation by abstracting the <i>setup logic</i>
Code Reusability	Enables consistent reuse of <i>initialization logic</i> for multiple objects

Why Constructors? OOP begins at home!

Purpose	Description
Automatic Invocation	Ensures the <i>constructor is called automatically</i> when an object is created
Custom Behavior	Allows <i>defining specific behaviors</i> (e.g., validations, derived properties) <i>during object creation</i>
Overloading	(In some languages) Provides flexibility by allowing <i>multiple ways to initialize</i> an object
Improved Readability	Enhances code <i>clarity</i> and usability by <i>standardizing</i> object creation and <i>initialization</i>



Are Constructors good enough?



What's wrong with this?

```
class Dog:  
    def speak(self):  
        return "Woof!"  
  
class Cat:  
    def speak(self):  
        return "Meow!"  
  
# Client Code  
def animal_sound(animal_type):  
    if animal_type == "dog":  
        animal = Dog() # Tight coupling to the Dog class  
    elif animal_type == "cat":  
        animal = Cat() # Tight coupling to the Cat class  
    else:  
        raise ValueError("Unknown animal type")  
  
    return animal.speak()  
  
# Usage  
print(animal_sound("dog")) # Output: Woof!  
print(animal_sound("cat")) # Output: Meow!
```



Explicit Constructor is not needed if no setup needed

```
class Dog:  
    def speak(self):  
        return "Woof!"  
  
class Cat:  
    def speak(self):  
        return "Meow!"  
  
# Client Code  
def animal_sound(animal_type):  
    if animal_type == "dog":  
        animal = Dog() # Tight coupling to the Dog class  
    elif animal_type == "cat":  
        animal = Cat() # Tight coupling to the Cat class  
    else:  
        raise ValueError("Unknown animal type")  
  
    return animal.speak()  
  
# Usage  
print(animal_sound("dog")) # Output: Woof!  
print(animal_sound("cat")) # Output: Meow!
```

```
class Animal:  
    def __init__(self):  
        print("Animal constructor called")  
  
class Dog(Animal):  
    def __init__(self):  
        super().__init__() # Call the Animal constructor  
        print("Dog constructor called")  
  
class Cat(Animal):  
    def __init__(self):  
        super().__init__() # Call the Animal constructor  
        print("Cat constructor called")
```

Optional!



But there's something genuinely problematic!

```
# Client Code
def animal_sound(animal_type):
    if animal_type == "dog":
        animal = Dog() # Tight coupling to the Dog class
    elif animal_type == "cat":
        animal = Cat() # Tight coupling to the Cat class
    else:
        raise ValueError("Unknown animal type")

    return animal.speak()
```

Adding a **new animal type** requires modifying **animal_sound**, violating the **Open-Closed Principle (OCP)**

The function is limited to the **specific** classes (**Dog** and **Cat**) and cannot handle new types **dynamically**

Mocking or *replacing* **Dog** or **Cat** in tests is difficult because they are hardcoded

Tight Coupling!

Decoupling Constructors

```
class Dog:  
    def speak(self):  
        return "Woof!"  
  
class Cat:  
    def speak(self):  
        return "Meow!"
```

```
class Animal:  
    def speak(self):  
        raise NotImplementedError("Subclasses must implement this method")  
  
class Dog(Animal):  
    def speak(self):  
        return "Woof!"  
  
class Cat(Animal):  
    def speak(self):  
        return "Meow!"
```



Decoupling Constructors

```
# Client Code  
  
def animal_sound(animal_type):  
    if animal_type == "dog":  
        animal = Dog() # Tight coupling to Dog class  
    elif animal_type == "cat":  
        animal = Cat() # Tight coupling to Cat class  
    else:  
        raise ValueError("Unknown animal type")  
  
    return animal.speak()
```



Adding a new animal type (e.g., `Bird`) requires only modifying the `AnimalFactory` without changing `animal_sound`.

```
class AnimalFactory:  
    @staticmethod  
    def create_animal(animal_type):  
        if animal_type == "dog":  
            return Dog()  
        elif animal_type == "cat":  
            return Cat()  
        else:  
            raise ValueError("Unknown animal type")
```

No longer directly depends on the `Dog` or `Cat` classes. It delegates object creation to the `AnimalFactory`.

Decoupling Constructors via Factory Design Pattern

```
# Client Code  
  
def animal_sound(animal_type):  
    if animal_type == "dog":  
        animal = Dog() # Tight coupling to the Dog  
    elif animal_type == "cat":  
        animal = Cat() # Tight coupling to the Cat  
    else:  
        raise ValueError("Unknown animal type")  
  
    return animal.speak()
```



```
# Client Code  
  
def animal_sound(animal_type):  
    animal = AnimalFactory.create_animal(animal_type)  
    return animal.speak()
```

Usage

```
print(animal_sound("dog")) # Output: Woof!  
print(animal_sound("cat")) # Output: Meow!
```

No longer directly depends on the `Dog` or `Cat` classes. It delegates object creation to the `AnimalFactory`.



Achieving Open-Closed Principle (OCP)



```
class Bird(Animal):
    def speak(self):
        return "Tweet!"

# Update Factory
class AnimalFactory:
    @staticmethod
    def create_animal(animal_type):
        if animal_type == "dog":
            return Dog()
        elif animal_type == "cat":
            return Cat()
        elif animal_type == "bird":
            return Bird()
        else:
            raise ValueError("Unknown animal type")
```

Open for Extension:

- Add new functionality to the module (e.g., new features or behaviors)

Closed for Modification:

- The existing code of the module should not be modified when adding new functionality

A bit about Static Methods ...



```
class Bird(Animal):
    def speak(self):
        return "Tweet!"

# Update Factory
class AnimalFactory:
    @staticmethod
    def create_animal(animal_type):
        if animal_type == "dog":
            return Dog()
        elif animal_type == "cat":
            return Cat()
        elif animal_type == "bird":
            return Bird()
        else:
            raise ValueError("Unknown animal type")
```

Utility Functions:

- Need a helper function related to the class but *not dependent on instance or class-level data*

Encapsulation:

- To group related logic within the class for better readability and organization

Factory Methods:

- To create objects or perform operations that *don't need access to instance or class-specific data*

Decorator

A bit about Static Methods ...

```
class MathUtils:  
    def add(a, b): # Without self, calling this method will raise an error  
        return a + b  
  
# Usage  
# MathUtils.add(3, 5) # Raises TypeError
```

```
class MathUtils:  
    @staticmethod  
    def add(a, b):  
        return a + b  
  
# Usage  
result = MathUtils.add(3, 5) # No instance required  
print(result) # Output: 8
```



Utility Functions:

- Need a helper function **related to the class** but *not dependent on instance or class-level data*

Encapsulation:

- To **group related logic** within the class for better readability and organization

Factory Methods:

- To **create objects** or perform operations that *don't need access to instance or class-specific data*

Decorator

Meet its cousins - self and @classmethod

```
class Example:  
    class_variable = "Class-Level Data"  
  
    def __init__(self, value):  
        self.value = value # Instance attribute  
  
    # Instance method using self  
    def modify_instance_variable(self, new_value):  
        self.value = new_value  
        print(f"Instance variable modified to: {self.value}")
```

```
obj = Example(10)  
obj.modify_instance_variable(20) # Modifies obj's instance variable
```

```
# Class method using cls  
@classmethod  
def modify_class_variable(cls, new_value):  
    cls.class_variable = new_value  
    print(f"Class variable modified to: {cls.class_variable}")  
  
# Static method using no self or cls  
@staticmethod  
def utility_method(param):  
    print(f"Static method called with param: {param}")
```

```
Example.modify_class_variable("Modified by classmethod")
```

```
Example.utility_method("Static call")
```



Animal is inherited by Dog and Cat as “Base Class”

```
class Animal:  
    def speak(self):  
        raise NotImplementedError("Subclasses must implement this method")
```

```
class Dog(Animal):  
    def speak(self):  
        return "Woof!"  
  
class Cat(Animal):  
    def speak(self):  
        return "Meow!"
```

```
class AnimalFactory:  
    @staticmethod  
    def create_animal(animal_type):  
        if animal_type == "dog":  
            return Dog()  
        elif animal_type == "cat":  
            return Cat()  
        else:  
            raise ValueError("Unknown animal type")
```



Why the base class *Animal*?



Object Oriented Programming

Principle of LSP

IT560



Sourish Dasgupta

Assistant Professor, DA-IICT, Gandhinagar
<https://daiict.ac.in/faculty/sourish-dasgupta>

Why the “Base (Abstract) Class” Animal?

```
class Animal:  
    def speak(self):  
        raise NotImplementedError("Subclasses must implement this method")  
  
class Dog(Animal):  
    def speak(self):  
        return "Woof!"  
  
class Cat(Animal):  
    def speak(self):  
        return "Meow!"
```

animal = Animal()

animal.speak()

1. Common interface (**contract**) (**speak**) that ensures consistency
2. Enable **polymorphism**, allowing the client code to work with animals **generically**
3. Improve **extensibility**, making it easy to **add new** animals
4. Maintain a **clear and organized structure**

Adheres to design principles like the **Open-Closed Principle (OCP)** and **Liskov Substitution Principle (LSP)**



What if we remove Base Class?

```
class Dog:  
    def speak(self):  
        return "Woof!"  
  
class Cat:  
    def sound(self): # Wrong method name  
        return "Meow!"  
  
# Client Code  
def animal_sound(animal):  
    return animal.speak() # Runtime error for Cat
```

Removing the `Animal` class would lead to a less maintainable, error-prone, and less scalable system



A strictly Abstract Class in Python

```
from abc import ABC, abstractmethod

# Abstract Animal class
class Animal(ABC):
    @abstractmethod
    def speak(self):
        pass # Abstract method that must be implemented by subclasses
    animal = Animal()
```



Liskov Substitution Principle (LSP)

"Objects of a superclass should be *replaceable* with objects of its subclasses without altering the *correctness* of the program"

- Any instance of a subclass should be able to replace an instance of its superclass without breaking the behavior expected by the client code
- Subclasses must **fully honor the contract** (interface and behavior) defined by the parent class



LSP in Action

```
class Animal:
    def speak(self):
        raise NotImplementedError("Subclasses must implement this method")

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

class Cat(Animal):
    def speak(self):

        def animal_sound(animal_type):
            animal = AnimalFactory.create_animal(animal_type)
            return animal.speak()
```

- The client code (`animal_sound`) interacts with objects through the `Animal` type.
- Doesn't need to know whether it's working with a `Dog`, `Cat`, or any other subclass of `Animal`.
- As long as each subclass of `Animal` properly implements the `speak` method, the client code will work correctly



LSP in Action: Substitution w/o Breaking Behavior

```
animal = Dog() # Substitute a Dog for Animal
print(animal.speak()) # Output: Woof!
```

```
animal = Cat() # Substitute a Cat for Animal
print(animal.speak()) # Output: Meow!
```

- A `Dog` or `Cat` object can replace an `Animal` object in the `animal_sound` function
without requiring changes to the function's logic or causing errors

Consistency of the Interface (`speak`):

- The `Animal` class defines the `speak` method as a contract.
- Every subclass (`Dog`, `Cat`) must implement `speak` with behavior that aligns with the expectations of the client code.



LSP in Action: Extensibility w/o Violation

```
class Bird(Animal):
    def speak(self):
        return "Tweet!"

# Usage:
bird = Bird()
print(bird.speak()) # Output: Tweet!
```

Adding a new animal (e.g., `Bird`) still adheres to the LSP



What violates LSP?

Breaking LSP: Violation of Expectation

```
class Dog(Animal):
    def speak(self):
        return 42 # violates the expected return type (string)

# Client Code:
print(animal_sound("dog")) # Breaks expectations, returns 42 instead of "Woof!"
```



Breaking LSP: Unexpected Modifications

```
class Cat(Animal):
    def speak(self, volume): # Incompatible method signature
        return "Meow!" * volume
```



Breaking LSP: Unexpected Exceptions

```
class Bird(Animal):
    def speak(self):
        raise NotImplementedError("Birds don't speak")
```



LSP

- **Ensures Polymorphism Works Correctly:**
 - The client code (`animal_sound`) can interact with any `Animal` object without needing to know the exact subclass.
 - Simplifies the design and allows the system to be extended with new animals seamlessly.
- **Prevents Fragile Code:**
 - If a subclass violates LSP, client code might break unexpectedly when interacting with that subclass, leading to fragile and hard-to-maintain code.
- **Supports Open-Closed Principle:**
 - LSP is closely tied to the **Open-Closed Principle (OCP)**.
 - By ensuring that subclasses respect the contract of the base class, you can add new functionality (new subclasses) without modifying existing client code.

Can a code obey OCP but violate LSP?

Breaking LSP w/o breaking OCP

```
# Base Class
class Animal:
    def speak(self):
        raise NotImplementedError("Subclasses must implement this method")

# Subclass 1: Dog          # Subclass 2: Cat
class Dog(Animal):
    def speak(self):
        return "Woof!"

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

# Subclass 3: Fish (violates LSP)
class Fish(Animal):
    def speak(self): # Fish can't "speak" in the traditional sense
        raise ValueError("Fish cannot speak!")
```



Breaking LSP w/o breaking OCP

```
# Factory to create animals
class AnimalFactory:
    @staticmethod
    def create_animal(animal_type):
        if animal_type == "dog":
            return Dog()
        elif animal_type == "cat":
            return Cat()
        elif animal_type == "fish":
            return Fish()
        else:
            raise ValueError("Unknown animal type")
# Client code
def animal_sound(animal_type):
    animal = AnimalFactory.create_animal(animal_type) # Factory ensures OCP compliance
    return animal.speak()
# Usage
print(animal_sound("dog")) # Output: Woof!
print(animal_sound("cat")) # Output: Meow!
print(animal_sound("fish")) # Raises ValueError: Fish cannot speak!
```



Breaking LSP w/o breaking OCP (no Factory Pattern)

```
def animal_sound(animal: Animal):
    return animal.speak()

# Following OCP: New animals can be added without modifying `animal_sound`
print(animal_sound(Dog())) # Output: Woof!
print(animal_sound(Cat())) # Output: Meow!
print(animal_sound(Fish())) # Raises ValueError: Fish cannot speak!
```



Factory Update with OCP

```
# Factory to create individual animals
class AnimalFactory:
    @staticmethod
    def create_animal(animal_type):
        if animal_type == "dog":
            return Dog()
        elif animal_type == "cat":
            return Cat()
        else:
            raise ValueError(f"Unknown animal type: {animal_type}")

    class Bird(Animal):
        def speak(self):
            return "Tweet!"
```

```
# Registering Bird without modifying the factory's core logic
AnimalFactory.register_animal("bird", Bird)
```

```
class AnimalFactory:
    _animal_map = {
        "dog": Dog,
        "cat": Cat,
    }

    @staticmethod
    def register_animal(animal_type, animal_class):
        AnimalFactory._animal_map[animal_type] = animal_class
```

```
animal_map:
p[animal_type]()

al type: {animal_type}")
```



Object Oriented Programming

Creational Design Patterns: Abstract Factory

IT560



Sourish Dasgupta

Assistant Professor, DA-IICT, Gandhinagar
<https://daiict.ac.in/faculty/sourish-dasgupta>

Relook at Factory Pattern

What's missing??

```
# Base class
class Animal:
    def speak(self):
        raise NotImplementedError("Subclasses must implement this method")

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

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

```
# Factory to create individual animals
class AnimalFactory:
    @staticmethod
    def create_animal(animal_type):
        if animal_type == "dog":
            return Dog()
        elif animal_type == "cat":
            return Cat()
        else:
            raise ValueError("Unknown animal type")
```

```
# Usage
dog = AnimalFactory.create_animal("dog")
print(dog.speak()) # Output: Woof!

cat = AnimalFactory.create_animal("cat")
print(cat.speak()) # Output: Meow!
```

- Only create **one** type of object (e.g., a **single** hierarchy of animals)
- Doesn't enforce consistency between **related** objects (e.g., "domestic" or "wild" versions of both **Dog** and **Cat**)



Abstract Factory Design Pattern

```
# Factory to create individual animals
class AnimalFactory:
    @staticmethod
    def create_animal(animal_type):
        if animal_type == "dog":
            return Dog()
        elif animal_type == "cat":
            return Cat()
        else:
            raise ValueError("Unknown animal type")
```



```
# Abstract Factory
class AnimalFactory:
    def create_dog(self):
        raise NotImplementedError("Subclasses must implement this method")

    def create_cat(self):
        raise NotImplementedError("Subclasses must implement this method")
```

Creating Concrete Factories out of Abstract Factory

```
# Abstract Factory
class AnimalFactory:
    def create_dog(self):
        raise NotImplementedError("Subclasses must implement this method")

    def create_cat(self):
        raise NotImplementedError("Subclasses must implement this method")
```

```
# Concrete Factory 1: Domestic Animals
class DomesticAnimalFactory(AnimalFactory):
    def create_dog(self):
        return DomesticDog()

    def create_cat(self):
        return DomesticCat()
```

```
# Concrete Factory 2: Wild Animals
class WildAnimalFactory(AnimalFactory):
    def create_dog(self):
        return WildDog()

    def create_cat(self):
        return WildCat()
```



Creating the Classes

```
# Concrete Factory 1: Domestic Animals
class DomesticAnimalFactory(AnimalFactory):
    def create_dog(self):
        return DomesticDog()

    def create_cat(self):
        return DomesticCat()
```

```
# Concrete Factory 2: Wild Animals
class WildAnimalFactory(AnimalFactory):
    def create_dog(self):
        return WildDog()

    def create_cat(self):
        return WildCat()
```

```
# Base Classes
class Animal:
    def speak(self):
        raise NotImplementedError("Subclasses must implement this method")

    # Domestic Animals
    class DomesticDog(Dog):
        def speak(self):
            return "Woof! (domestic)"

    class DomesticCat(Cat):
        def speak(self):
            return "Meow! (domestic)"

    # Wild Animals
    class WildDog(Dog):
        def speak(self):
            return "Woof! (wild)"

    class WildCat(Cat):
        def speak(self):
            return "Meow! (wild)"
```



Creating Concrete Factories out of Abstract Factory

```
# Usage
dog = AnimalFactory.create_animal("dog")
print(dog.speak()) # Output: Woof!

cat = AnimalFactory.create_animal("cat")
print(cat.speak()) # Output: Meow!
```



```
# Usage
def animal_interaction(factory: AnimalFactory):
    dog = factory.create_dog()
    cat = factory.create_cat()
    print(dog.speak())
    print(cat.speak())

# Creating domestic animals
domestic_factory = DomesticAnimalFactory()
print("\nDomestic Animals:")
animal_interaction(domestic_factory)

# Creating wild animals
wild_factory = WildAnimalFactory()
print("\nWild Animals:")
animal_interaction(wild_factory)
```

Creating Concrete Factories out of Abstract Factory

Use Case	Factory Method	Abstract Factory
Single object creation	Works well	Overkill
<i>Families of related objects (eg. Domestic Animal Family)</i>	Cannot enforce consistency	Enforces consistency across object families
Need for multiple concrete factories	Harder to manage	Each concrete factory handles one family easily
Example	Create a Dog or Cat	Create a DomesticDog and DomesticCat pair



Object Oriented Programming

Creational Design Patterns: Builder

IT560



Sourish Dasgupta

Assistant Professor, DA-IICT, Gandhinagar
<https://daiict.ac.in/faculty/sourish-dasgupta>

Creating Complex Objects: Building Step-by-step

```
class Animal:

    def __init__(self, species, sound, habitat, diet):
        self.species = species
        self.sound = sound
        self.habitat = habitat
        self.diet = diet

    def __str__(self):
        return (
            f"Animal: {self.species}, Sound: {self.sound}, "
            f"Habitat: {self.habitat}, Diet: {self.diet}"
        )
```



Builder Design Pattern

```
class AnimalBuilder:  
    def __init__(self):  
        # Default values  
        self.species = None  
        self.sound = None  
        self.habitat = None  
        self.diet = None  
  
    def set_species(self, species):  
        self.species = species  
        return self  
  
    def set_sound(self, sound):  
        self.sound = sound  
        return self  
  
    def set_habitat(self, habitat):  
        self.habitat = habitat  
        return self  
  
    def set_diet(self, diet):  
        self.diet = diet  
        return self
```

```
def build(self):  
    if not self.species or not self.sound:  
        raise ValueError("Species and Sound are required!")  
    return Animal(self.species, self.sound, self.habitat, self.diet)
```

Builder Class (`AnimalBuilder`):

- Handles the **step-by-step** construction of an `Animal` object.
- Provides methods (`set_species`, `set_sound`, etc.) to **configure** the attributes of the `Animal` object.
- Ensures defaults or constraints can be added easily (e.g., raising an error if `species` or `sound` is missing).



Builder Design Pattern: A *detailed* Dog

```
class AnimalBuilder:  
    def __init__(self):  
        # Default values  
        self.species = None  
        self.sound = None  
        self.habitat = None  
        self.diet = None  
  
    def set_species(self, species):  
        self.species = species  
        return self  
  
    def set_sound(self, sound):  
        self.sound = sound  
        return self  
  
    def set_habitat(self, habitat):  
        self.habitat = habitat  
        return self  
  
    def set_diet(self, diet):  
        self.diet = diet  
        return self
```

```
def build(self):  
    if not self.species or not self.sound:  
        raise ValueError("Species and Sound are required!")  
    return Animal(self.species, self.sound, self.habitat, self.diet)
```

```
# Usage  
def main():  
    # Build a Dog  
    dog = (  
        AnimalBuilder()  
            .set_species("Dog")  
            .set_sound("Woof")  
            .set_habitat("Domestic")  
            .set_diet("Omnivore")  
            .build()  
    )  
    print(dog)
```

```
if __name__ == "__main__":  
    main()
```

→ Chaining



Builder Design Pattern: A *minimalist* Fish

```
class AnimalBuilder:  
    def __init__(self):  
        # Default values  
        self.species = None  
        self.sound = None  
        self.habitat = None  
        self.diet = None  
  
    def set_species(self, species):  
        self.species = species  
        return self  
  
    def set_sound(self, sound):  
        self.sound = sound  
        return self  
  
    def set_habitat(self, habitat):  
        self.habitat = habitat  
        return self  
  
    def set_diet(self, diet):  
        self.diet = diet  
        return self
```

```
def build(self):  
    if not self.species or not self.sound:  
        raise ValueError("Species and Sound are required!")  
    return Animal(self.species, self.sound, self.habitat, self.diet)
```

```
# Usage  
def main():  
  
    # Build a Fish with minimal attributes  
    fish = (  
        AnimalBuilder()  
        .set_species("Fish")  
        .set_sound("...")  
        .set_habitat("Water")  
        .build()  
    )  
    print(fish)
```

```
if __name__ == "__main__":  
    main()
```



Why Builder Pattern?

Advantage	Explanation	Example from Code
Avoid Constructor Overload	Simplifies object creation without requiring multiple constructors for different attribute combinations.	Instead of multiple <code>Animal</code> constructors (e.g., with/without habitat, diet, etc.), <code>AnimalBuilder</code> provides a step-by-step interface.
Readable Object Creation	Object construction is easier to read and understand with named methods for setting attributes.	<code>AnimalBuilder().set_species("Dog").set_sound("Woof").build()</code> is more readable than <code>Animal("Dog", "Woof", "Domestic", "Omnivore")</code> .
Scalability	New attributes can be added easily without modifying the existing class or constructor logic.	Adding a <code>set_lifespan()</code> method in <code>AnimalBuilder</code> doesn't affect existing <code>Animal</code> code.



Why Builder Pattern?

Validation	Ensures required fields are set and invalid configurations are avoided before object creation.	The <code>build()</code> method raises an error if <code>species</code> or <code>sound</code> is missing.
Flexible Configuration	Allows objects to be constructed with varying levels of detail, from minimal to fully detailed.	Example: A minimal <code>Fish</code> with only <code>species</code> and <code>sound</code> , or a full <code>Dog</code> with habitat and diet.
Fluent Interface	Enables chaining of method calls for concise and expressive code.	<code>AnimalBuilder().set_species("Dog").set_sound("Woof").build()</code> uses method chaining for clarity.
Improved Maintainability	Separates object creation logic from the class itself, making the code easier to manage and extend.	<code>AnimalBuilder</code> encapsulates the logic for <u>setting attributes</u> , keeping <code>Animal</code> clean and focused.



Object Oriented Programming

Creational Design Patterns: Singleton

IT560



Sourish Dasgupta

Assistant Professor, DA-IICT, Gandhinagar
<https://daiict.ac.in/faculty/sourish-dasgupta>

Singleton Design Pattern : Just *one* object!

```
class AnimalRegistry:  
    _instance = None # Stores the single instance  
  
    def __new__(cls):  
        if cls._instance is None: # Check if an instance already exists  
            cls._instance = super(AnimalRegistry, cls).__new__(cls)  
            # Create a new instance  
            cls._instance.animals = {}  
            # Initialize the dictionary for storing animals  
        return cls._instance  
    # Return the single instance
```

```
def register_animal(self, species, details):  
    """Registers an animal in the registry."""  
    self.animals[species] = details  
  
def get_animal_info(self, species):  
    """Fetches details of a registered animal."""  
    return self.animals.get(species, "Animal not found in registry.")  
  
def get_all_animals(self):  
    """Returns a dictionary of all registered animals."""  
    return self.animals  
  
def clear_registry(self):  
    """Clears all registered animals."""  
    self.animals = {}
```

Get method of dictionary animals



Singleton Design Pattern : Just **one** object!

```
class AnimalRegistry:  
    _instance = None # Stores the single instance  
  
    def __new__(cls):  
        if cls._instance is None: # Check if an instance already exists  
            cls._instance = super(AnimalRegistry, cls).__new__(cls)  
            # Create a new instance  
            cls._instance.animals = {}  
            # Initialize the dictionary for storing animals  
        return cls._instance  
        # Return the single instance
```

```
True # Confirms that both registry1 and registry2 are the same instance  
{'sound': 'Woof', 'habitat': 'Domestic', 'diet': 'Omnivore'}  
{'sound': 'Meow', 'habitat': 'Domestic', 'diet': 'Carnivore'}  
Animal not found in registry.
```

```
# Usage  
if __name__ == "__main__":  
    registry1 = AnimalRegistry()  
    registry1.register_animal("Dog", {"sound": "Woof", "habitat": "Domestic", "diet": "Omnivore"})  
    registry1.register_animal("Cat", {"sound": "Meow", "habitat": "Domestic", "diet": "Carnivore"})  
  
    # Fetch the same singleton instance  
    registry2 = AnimalRegistry()  
  
    # Checking that registry2 is the same as registry1  
    print(registry1 is registry2) # Output: True (Both point to the same instance)  
  
    # Fetch animal details using registry2 (same as registry1)  
    print(registry2.get_animal_info("Dog"))  
    # Output: {'sound': 'Woof', 'habitat': 'Domestic', 'diet': 'Omnivore'}  
    print(registry2.get_animal_info("Cat"))  
    # Output: {'sound': 'Meow', 'habitat': 'Domestic', 'diet': 'Carnivore'}  
    print(registry2.get_animal_info("Fish"))  
    # Output: Animal not found in registry.
```



Singleton Design Pattern : In C++

```
#include <iostream>
#include <unordered_map>
#include <string>

class AnimalRegistry {
private:
    static AnimalRegistry* instance; // Static instance (Singleton)
    std::unordered_map<std::string, std::string> animals; // Dictionary equivalent

    // Private constructor to prevent direct instantiation
    AnimalRegistry() {}

public:
    // Static method to get the Singleton instance
    static AnimalRegistry* getInstance() {
        if (instance == nullptr) {
            instance = new AnimalRegistry();
        }
        return instance;
    }
}
```

animals["Dog"] = "Sound: Woof, Habitat: Domestic, Diet: Omnivore";

Check if instance already exists

// Method to register an animal

```
void registerAnimal(const std::string& species, const std::string& details) {
    animals[species] = details;
}
```

Returns an *iterator* to the key-value pair

```
// Method to get animal information
std::string getAnimalInfo(const std::string& species) {
    auto it = animals.find(species);
    if (it != animals.end()) {
        return it->second;
    }
    return "Animal not found in registry.";
}
```

// Initialize static member

```
AnimalRegistry* AnimalRegistry::instance = nullptr;
```

auto it = animals.find(species);

if (it != animals.end()) {

return it->second;

}

return "Animal not found in registry.";

}

};

// Initialize static member

```
AnimalRegistry* AnimalRegistry::instance = nullptr;
```

Don't want unnecessary copies! **Read-only** is needed here

Singleton Design Pattern : In C++

```
#include <iostream>
#include <unordered_map>
#include <string>

class AnimalRegistry {
private:
    static AnimalRegistry* instance; // Static instance (Singleton)
    std::unordered_map<std::string, std::string> animals; // Dictionary equivalent

    // Private constructor to prevent direct instantiation
    AnimalRegistry() {}

public:
    // Static method to get the Singleton instance
    static AnimalRegistry* getInstance() {
        if (instance == nullptr) {
            instance = new AnimalRegistry();
        }
        return instance;
    }
}
```

```
int main() {
    // Get the Singleton instance
    AnimalRegistry* registry1 = AnimalRegistry::getInstance();

    // Register animals
    registry1->registerAnimal("Dog", "Sound: Woof, Habitat: Domestic, Diet: Omnivore");
    registry1->registerAnimal("Cat", "Sound: Meow, Habitat: Domestic, Diet: Carnivore");

    // Fetch the same Singleton instance
    AnimalRegistry* registry2 = AnimalRegistry::getInstance();

    // Check if both instances are the same
    std::cout << "Are registry1 and registry2 the same instance? "
          << (registry1 == registry2 ? "Yes" : "No") << std::endl;

    // Fetch animal details
    std::cout << registry2->getAnimalInfo("Dog") << std::endl; // ✓ Found
    std::cout << registry2->getAnimalInfo("Cat") << std::endl; // ✓ Found
    std::cout << registry2->getAnimalInfo("Fish") << std::endl; // ✗ Not Found

    return 0;
}
```



Singleton Design Pattern: Post-mortem

```
class AnimalRegistry:  
    _instance = None # Stores the single instance  
  
    def __new__(cls):  
        if cls._instance is None: # Check if an instance  
            Why not object.__new__(cls)?  
            cls._instance.animals = {}  
            # Initialize the dictionary for storing animals  
        return cls._instance  
    # Return the single instance
```

✓ Future-proofing for inheritance

- If `AnimalRegistry` ever inherits from another class, using `super()` ensures we call the correct `__new__` method from the proper superclass.

✓ Maintains consistency

- Using `super()` makes it clear that we're using `__new__` in the context of inheritance, even if `AnimalRegistry` currently doesn't inherit from anything.

✓ Best Practice

- `super()` ensures Python's method resolution order (MRO) is followed, making the Singleton more maintainable.



Singleton Design Pattern: w/o super()

```
class AnimalRegistry:  
    _instance = None # Stores the single instance  
  
    def __new__(cls):  
        if cls._instance is None:  
            cls._instance = object.__new__(cls) # Using object.__new__ instead of super()  
        return cls._instance  
  
# Create instances  
r1 = AnimalRegistry()  
r2 = AnimalRegistry()  
  
print(r1 is r2) # ✅ Output: True (Singleton works)
```

Works!!



Singleton Design Pattern: w/o super ()

```
class BaseRegistry:
    def __new__(cls):
        print("BaseRegistry __new__ called")
        return super().__new__(cls)

    def __init__(self):
        print("BaseRegistry initialized")

class AnimalRegistry(BaseRegistry):
    _instance = None

    def __new__(cls):
        if cls._instance is None:
            cls._instance = object.__new__(cls) # Using object.__new__()
        return cls._instance

# Create instances
r1 = AnimalRegistry()
r2 = AnimalRegistry()

# Check if r1 and r2 are the same instance (Singleton check)
print(r1 is r2) # Expected Output: True
```

Works!!

✓ r1 is r2 prints True, confirming that AnimalRegistry is a Singleton.

✗ BaseRegistry.__new__() is not called at all because object.__new__(cls) is used, **bypassing inheritance**.

✗ BaseRegistry.__init__() is called twice because __init__ runs every time an instance is returned.

```
BaseRegistry initialized
BaseRegistry initialized
True
```



Singleton Design Pattern: Handling Multiple Inheritance

```
class AnimalRegistry:
    _instance = None # Stores the single instance

    def __new__(cls):
        if cls._instance is None: # Check if an instance already exists
            Why not super().__new__(cls) ? )
        cls._instance.animals = {}
        # Initialize the dictionary for storing animals
        return cls._instance
    # Return the single instance
```

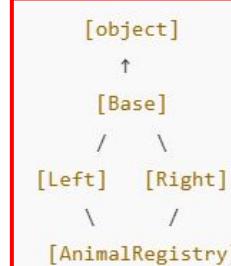


Handling Multiple Inheritance using super (AnimalRegistry,cls)

```
class Base:  
    def log(self):  
        print("Base log() called")  
  
class Left(Base):  
    def log(self):  
        print("Left log() called")  
        Base.log(self) # Directly calling Base.log()  
  
class Right(Base):  
    def log(self):  
        print("Right log() called")  
        super().log() # Calls next in MRO  
  
class AnimalRegistry(Left, Right):  
    def log(self):  
        print("AnimalRegistry log() called")  
        super().log() # Calls next in MRO  
  
registry = AnimalRegistry()  
registry.log()
```

AnimalRegistry log() called
Left log() called
Right log() called
Base log() called

AnimalRegistry log() called
Left log() called
Base log() called # ✗ Right.log() is skipped!



Use Python 3+ instead!!

super() just works!

Method Resolution Order (MRO):

C3 Linearization: Left-right in same level

(the dreaded)
Diamond

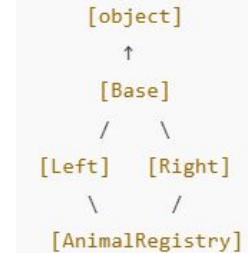


Handling Multiple Inheritance: Is C++ Any better?

```
class Base {  
public:  
    void log() {  
        std::cout << "Base log() called" << std::endl;  
    }  
};  
  
class Left : public Base {  
public:  
    void log() {  
        std::cout << "Left log() called" << std::endl;  
        Base::log(); // Direct call to Base::log()  
    }  
};  
  
class Right : public Base {  
public:  
    void log() {  
        std::cout << "Right log() called" << std::endl;  
        Base::log(); // Direct call to Base::log()  
    }  
};
```

```
class AnimalRegistry : public Left, public Right {  
public:  
    void log() {  
        std::cout << "AnimalRegistry log() called" << std::endl;  
        Left::log(); // Explicitly calling Left::log()  
    }  
};  
  
int main() {  
    AnimalRegistry registry;  
    registry.log(); // Ambiguity issue!  
    return 0;  
}
```

No super() !!



Method Resolution Order (MRO):

C3 Linearization: Left-right in same level



Compiles and runs though!!

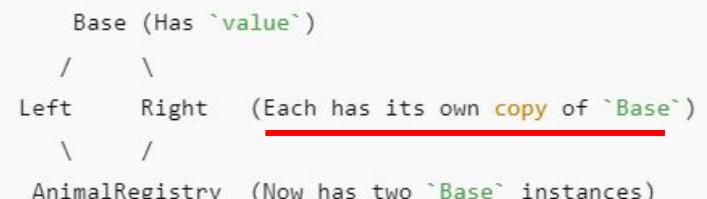


Handling Multiple Inheritance: The Dreaded Diamond

```
class Base {  
public:  
    int value; // Shared variable  
    void log() {  
        std::cout << "Base log() called" << std::endl;  
    }  
};  
  
class Left : public Base {  
public:  
    void log() {  
        std::cout << "Left log() called" << std::endl;  
        Base::log(); // Direct call to Base::log()  
    }  
};  
  
class Right : public Base {  
public:  
    void log() {  
        std::cout << "Right log() called" << std::endl;  
        Base::log(); // Direct call to Base::log()  
    }  
};
```

```
class AnimalRegistry : public Left, public Right {  
public:  
    void log() {  
        std::cout << "AnimalRegistry log() called" << std::endl;  
        Left::log(); // Explicitly calling Left::log()  
    }  
};  
  
int main() {  
    AnimalRegistry registry;  
    registry.log(); // Ambiguity issue!  
    return 0;  
}
```

error: request for member 'value' is ambiguous

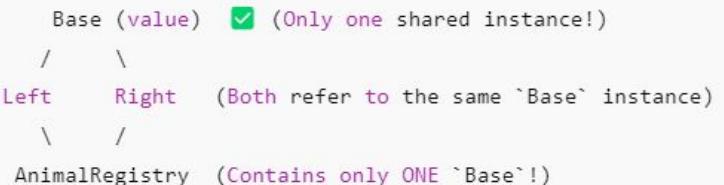


Handling Multiple Inheritance: Solving the Dreaded Diamond

```
class Base {  
public:  
    void log() {  
        std::cout << "Base log() called" << std::endl;  
    }  
};  
  
class Left : public Base {  
public:  
    void log() {  
        std::cout << "Left log() called" << std::endl;  
        Base::log(); // Direct call to Base::log()  
    }  
};  
  
class Right : public Base {  
public:  
    void log() {  
        std::cout << "Right log() called" << std::endl;  
        Base::log(); // Direct call to Base::log()  
    }  
};
```

```
class AnimalRegistry : public Left, public Right {  
public:  
    void log() {  
        std::cout << "AnimalRegistry log() called" << std::endl;  
        Left::log(); // Explicitly calling Left::log()  
    }  
};  
  
int main() {  
    AnimalRegistry registry;  
    registry.log();  
    return 0;  
}
```

```
class Left : virtual public Base {}; // ✓ Virtual inheritance  
class Right : virtual public Base {}; // ✓ Virtual inheritance
```



Be careful with Singletons!



Singleton Design Pattern : *Beware of global instances!*

```
class Singleton:  
    _instance = None  
    def __new__(cls):  
        if cls._instance is None:  
            cls._instance = super().__new__(cls)  
            cls._instance.value = 0  
        return cls._instance  
  
# Usage  
s1 = Singleton()  
s1.value = 42  
  
s2 = Singleton()  
print(s2.value) # Output: 42 (Modified globally!)
```



Singleton Design Pattern : *Beware of silent dependencies!*

```
class Logger:  
    _instance = None  
    def __new__(cls):  
        if cls._instance is None:  
            cls._instance = super().__new__(cls)  
        return cls._instance  
  
class Service:  
    def do_something(self):  
        Logger().log("Action performed!")  
        # Implicit Singleton dependency
```

```
class Service:  
    def __init__(self, logger):  
        self.logger = logger  
  
    def do_something(self):  
        self.logger.log("Action performed!")  
        # Explicit dependency
```

Dependency Injection
(testing/alternatives easy!!)



Singleton Design Pattern: *Breaking Single Responsibility Principle (SRP)*

```
class Logger:  
    _instance = None  
    def __new__(cls):  
        if cls._instance is None:  
            cls._instance = super().__new__(cls)  
            cls._instance.logs = []  
        return cls._instance
```

```
def log(self, message):  
    self.logs.append(message) # Storing Logs (Separate responsibility)
```

```
class Logger:  
    def log(self, message):  
        print(message)  
  
class LoggerSingleton:  
    _instance = None  
    def __new__(cls):  
        if cls._instance is None:  
            cls._instance = Logger()  
        return cls._instance
```



Singleton Design Pattern : Beware of *multi-threading!*

```
class AnimalRegistry:  
    _instance = None # Stores the single instance  
  
    def __new__(cls):  
        if cls._instance is None: # Check if an instance already exists  
            cls._instance = super(AnimalR  
# Create a new instance  
cls._instance.animals = {}  
# Initialize the dictionary fo  
return cls._instance  
# Return the single instance
```

```
import threading  
  
class AnimalRegistry:  
    _instance = None  
    _lock = threading.Lock() # Lock for thread safety  
  
    def __new__(cls):  
        with cls._lock: # Ensures thread safety  
            if cls._instance is None:  
                cls._instance = super(AnimalRegistry, cls).__new__(cls)  
                cls._instance.animals = {} # Dictionary to store registered animals  
        return cls._instance
```

Prevent multiple threads from accessing *in parallel*



Singleton Design Pattern : Beware of *concurrent threads!*

```
import threading
import time

class Singleton:
    _instance = None
    _lock = threading.Lock()

    def __new__(cls):
        if cls._instance is None:
            time.sleep(0.01)
            # Artificial delay
            with cls._lock:
                if cls._instance is None:
                    print(f"Instance created by Thread-{t.name}")
                    cls._instance = super().__new__(cls)
        return cls._instance

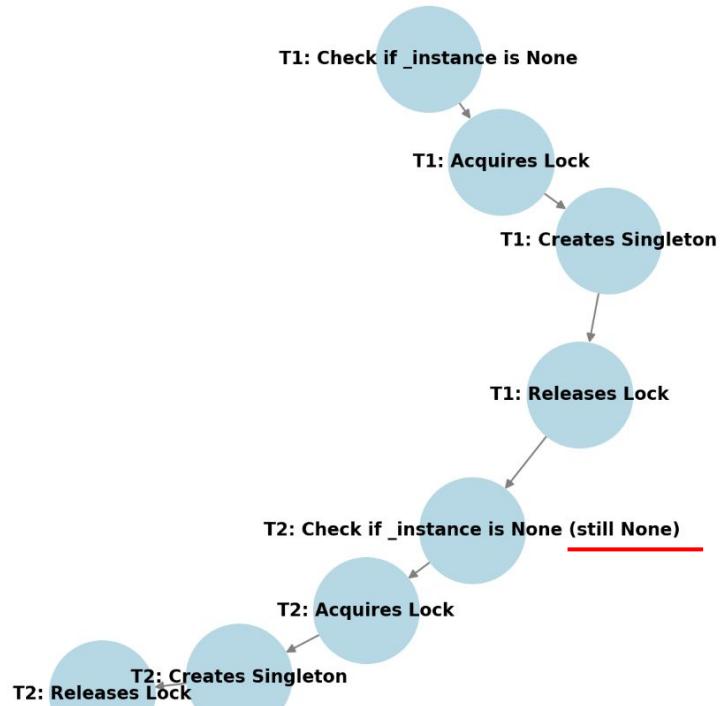
    def create_instance():
        instance = Singleton()
        print(f"Instance ID: {id(instance)})")

# Start multiple threads
threads = [threading.Thread(target=create_instance) for _ in range(5)]
for t in threads:
    t.start()
for t in threads:
    t.join()
```

Instance created by Thread-1
Instance created by Thread-3 ✘ Another instance created!
Instance ID: 140250877951920
Instance ID: 140250877952240 ✘ Different instance!
Instance ID: 140250877951920
Instance ID: 140250877952240 ✘ Different instance!
Instance ID: 140250877951920



Singleton Design Pattern : Beware of *concurrent threads!*



Scenario: Two Threads (T1 and T2) Running in Parallel

Step	Thread 1 (T1)	Thread 2 (T2)	Shared <code>_instance</code>
1	Checks <code>_instance</code> is <code>None</code> (✓ True)	Checks <code>_instance</code> is <code>None</code> (✓ True)	<code>_instance</code> = <code>None</code>
2	Acquires lock ✓	Waiting for lock	<code>_instance</code> = <code>None</code>
3	Creates Singleton (<code>_instance</code> = New Object)	Waiting for lock	<code>_instance</code> = <code>0x123ABC</code>
4	Releases lock ✓	Acquires lock ✓	<code>_instance</code> = <code>0x123ABC</code>
5	Finished Execution	Checks <code>_instance</code> is <code>None</code> (✗ Still True, due to memory visibility issues)	<code>_instance</code> = <code>0x123ABC</code>
6	Finished Execution	Creates Singleton (<code>_instance</code> = New Object)	<code>_instance</code> = <code>0x456DEF</code>
7	Finished Execution	Releases lock ✓	<code>_instance</code> = <code>0x456DEF</code>

Singleton Design Pattern : Beware of *concurrent threads!*

```
import threading
import time

class Singleton:
    _instance = None
    _lock = threading.Lock()

    def __new__(cls):
        if cls._instance is None: # 🚨 This ch
            time.sleep(0.01)
            # Artificial delay to force thread
            with cls._lock:
                if cls._instance is None:
                    print(f"Instance created by {threading.current_thread().name}")
                    cls._instance = super()
        return cls._instance
```

*Double-checking
(performance booster)*

```
import threading

class Singleton:
    _instance = None
    _lock = threading.Lock()

    def __new__(cls):
        with cls._lock: # ✅ Lock before checking _instance
            if cls._instance is None:
                cls._instance = super().__new__(cls)
        return cls._instance
```

If GIL then still ok, else Python can be tricky!



Singleton Design Pattern : *Beware of multi-threading!*

Problem	Why is it Bad?
① Introduces Global State	Makes debugging harder because any part of the code can change the shared instance.
② Hidden Dependencies (Bad Design)	Code that depends on a Singleton does not explicitly state its dependency, making it harder to understand.
③ Breaks the Single Responsibility Principle (SRP)	Singleton both manages its instance and performs logic , violating SRP.
④ Hard to Mock in Unit Tests	Since the Singleton forces a single instance , replacing it with a mock object in tests is difficult.
⑤ Causes Thread-Safety Issues	A poorly implemented Singleton can lead to race conditions in multi-threaded environments .



Object Oriented Programming

Creational Design Patterns: Object Pool

IT560



Sourish Dasgupta

Assistant Professor, DA-IICT, Gandhinagar
<https://daiict.ac.in/faculty/sourish-dasgupta>

Object Pool Design Pattern : *Reusing without destroying*

```
import time

class Animal:
    """Represents an animal in the zoo simulation."""

    def __init__(self, species):
        print(f"Creating a new {species}...")
        time.sleep(1) # Simulate the time-consuming setup
        self.species = species
        self.active = False # Indicates whether the animal is currently in use

    def interact(self, action):
        """Simulates an interaction with the animal."""
        self.active = True
        print(f"{self.species} is now {action}.")

    def release(self):
        """Releases the animal back to the pool."""
        self.active = False
        print(f"{self.species} is now resting in the pool.")
```

1 Initialize a pool with a fixed number of pre-created objects.

2 Acquire an object from the pool when needed.

3 Use the object as required.

4 Release the object back into the pool for reuse.



Object Pool Design Pattern : *Reusing without destroying*

```
class AnimalPool:  
    """Manages a pool of reusable animals."""  
  
    def __init__(self, species, size=3):  
        """Creates a pool with a fixed number of animals."""  
        self.pool = [Animal(species) for _ in range(size)]  
  
    def acquire(self):  
        """Gets an available animal from the pool. Creates a new one if none are available."""  
        for animal in self.pool:  
            if not animal.active: # Find an inactive animal  
                return animal  
        new_animal = Animal(self.pool[0].species) # Create a new one if the pool is empty  
        self.pool.append(new_animal)  
        return new_animal  
  
    def release(self, animal):  
        """Returns an animal to the pool for reuse."""  
        animal.release()
```

Trivia: Python's way of getting away w/o a variable



Object Pool Design Pattern : *Reusing without destroying*

Every interaction is via the pool

```
# Create an animal pool for Lions 🐺  
lion_pool = AnimalPool("Lion", size=3)
```

```
# Acquire and interact with lions  
lion1 = lion_pool.acquire()  
lion1.interact("roaring")
```

```
lion2 = lion_pool.acquire()  
lion2.interact("playing")
```

```
lion3 = lion_pool.acquire()  
lion3.interact("eating")
```

```
# No available lions, so a new one is created  
lion4 = lion_pool.acquire()  
lion4.interact("resting")
```

```
# Release lions back to the pool  
lion_pool.release(lion1)  
lion_pool.release(lion2)
```

```
# Reuse released lions  
lion5 = lion_pool.acquire()  
lion5.interact("walking")
```

```
lion6 = lion_pool.acquire()  
lion6.interact("hunting")
```

Object Pool Design Pattern : *Reusing without destroying*

```
Creating a new Lion... # Pre-creating 3 Lions  
Creating a new Lion...  
Creating a new Lion...  
  
Lion is now roaring.  
Lion is now playing.  
Lion is now eating.  
  
Creating a new Lion... # New Lion created since the pool was empty  
Lion is now resting.  
  
Lion is now resting in the pool.  
Lion is now resting in the pool.  
  
Lion is now walking. # Reuses a Lion from the pool  
Lion is now hunting. # Reuses another Lion from the pool
```



Object Pool Design Pattern : Takeaways

Advantage	Explanation
Performance Boost	Avoids repeated object creation and <u>destruction</u> .
Efficient Memory Usage	Keeps a fixed number of objects active, reducing memory bloat.
Ideal for Repeated Interactions	Perfect when the same objects are used frequently .



When does the pool get muddy?



Object Pool Design Pattern : Takeaways

Scenario	Why Object Pool is NOT Ideal?
Animals require unique attributes	If every animal must have a distinct identity , pooling might cause state issues.
Short-lived animals	If animals are rarely reused, pooling adds unnecessary complexity.
Memory is not a concern	If system resources are sufficient , object pooling may be overkill.



Dynamic Object Mgmt.: *Much better off without a pool!*

```
class W
```

```
"""
```

```
def
```

```
def
```

```
def
```



Objects (animals) are created dynamically when needed.



Each object has a unique state (name, age, health).



Objects (animals) are removed (die) when they are no longer valid.



The number of objects is not fixed and changes over time.

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Object Pool Design Pattern : Takeaways

Issue	Why Object Pool Fails?
Animals are not reusable	Once an animal dies , it cannot be returned to the pool .
Each animal is unique	Different names, ages, and health conditions mean animals cannot be simply reset and reused .
State retention is required	Object pools usually reset object states , but these animals have progressive aging and health decline .
Variable object count	Object pools assume a fixed number of objects , but here, animals are born and die dynamically .

Object Oriented Programming

Creational Design Patterns: Prototype

IT560



Sourish Dasgupta

Assistant Professor, DA-IICT, Gandhinagar
<https://daiict.ac.in/faculty/sourish-dasgupta>

Prototype Design Pattern : Let's *clone from a template!*

```
import copy
import random

class Animal:
    """Represents an animal that can be cloned using the Prototype Pattern."""

    def __init__(self, species, name, age, health=None):
        self.species = species
        self.name = name
        self.age = age
        self.health = health if health is not None else random.randint(50, 100)

    def live_a_year(self):
        """Simulates the animal aging."""
        self.age += 1
        self.health -= random.randint(5, 20) # Health decreases over time
        print(f"{self.name} (a {self.species}) is now {self.age} years old with health {self.health}")

    def clone(self, name):
        """Clones the animal and assigns a new name."""
        new_animal = copy.deepcopy(self) # Ensures independent attributes
        new_animal.name = name # Give the clone a new name
        return new_animal

    def describe(self):
        """Displays animal details."""
        print(f"Species: {self.species}, Name: {self.name}, Age: {self.age}, Health: {self.health}")
```



Prototype Design Pattern : Let's not re-initialize *common stuffs*

```
# Create an original lion named Simba  
lion_prototype = Animal("Lion", "Simba", 5)
```

```
# Clone the lion and give it a new name  
lion_clone1 = lion_prototype.clone("Nala")  
lion_clone2 = lion_prototype.clone("Mufasa")
```

```
# Modify clones independently  
lion_clone1.age += 2  
lion_clone2.health -= 15
```

```
# Display original and cloned animals  
print("\nOriginal Lion:")  
lion_prototype.describe()
```

```
print("\nCloned Lion 1:")  
lion_clone1.describe()
```

```
print("\nCloned Lion 2:")  
lion_clone2.describe()
```

Only what is needed

🚀 **Fast Object Creation** – Instead of reinitializing animals with all their properties

🚀 **Preserves Object State** – A copied animal inherits attributes like **age, species, health**

🚀 **Avoids Redundant Initialization** – If many animals are similar (e.g., multiple lions with **slight variations**), cloning is more efficient

Can we get a “manager” (zoo-keeper) instead?
(somewhat similar to Object Pool)



Prototype Design Pattern : Let's create a prototype manager

```
class Zoo:  
    """Manages animals using the Prototype Pattern."""  
  
    def __init__(self):  
        self.prototypes = {} # Stores animal prototypes  
  
    def add_prototype(self, species, animal):  
        """Registers an animal as a prototype."""  
        self.prototypes[species] = animal  
  
    def clone_animal(self, species, name):  
        """Clones an animal prototype and gives it a new name  
        if species in self.prototypes:  
            return self.prototypes[species].clone(name)  
        else:  
            print(f"No prototype found for species: {species}")  
            return None
```

```
# Create a zoo and register prototypes  
zoo = Zoo()  
  
# Create prototype animals  
zoo.add_prototype("Lion", Animal("Lion", "Simba", 5))  
zoo.add_prototype("Elephant", Animal("Elephant", "Dumbo", 10))  
  
# Clone animals based on prototype  
lion1 = zoo.clone_animal("Lion", "Scar")  
elephant1 = zoo.clone_animal("Elephant", "Babar")  
  
# Modify cloned animals  
lion1.health -= 10  
elephant1.age += 3  
  
# Display cloned animals  
print("\nCloned Lion:")  
lion1.describe()  
  
print("\nCloned Elephant:")  
elephant1.describe()
```

Prototype Design Pattern : Let's *clone* with C++!

```
#include <iostream>
#include <cstring> // For strcpy and strlen

class Animal {
private:
    char* species; // Dynamically allocated memory for species name
    char* name; // Dynamically allocated memory for animal's name
    int age;
    int health;

public:
    // Constructor
    Animal(const char* speciesName, const char* animalName, int animalAge, int animalHealth)
        : age(animalAge), health(animalHealth) {
        species = new char[strlen(speciesName) + 1]; // Allocate memory
        strcpy(species, speciesName); // Copy species name

        name = new char[strlen(animalName) + 1]; // Allocate memory
        strcpy(name, animalName); // Copy animal name
    }

    // Deep Copy Constructor
    Animal(const Animal& other)
        : age(other.age), health(other.health) { // Copy primitive attributes

        species = new char[strlen(other.species) + 1]; // Allocate memory for species
        strcpy(species, other.species);

        name = new char[strlen(other.name) + 1]; // Allocate memory for name
        strcpy(name, other.name);
    }
}
```

BEWARE!!

Direct initialization

```
class Animal {
public:
    Animal(Animal other) { // ✗ Wrong: Passed by value (calls copy constructor)
        std::cout << "Copy Constructor" << std::endl;
    }
};

int main() {
    Animal a1; // Triggers copy constructor
    Animal a2 = a1; // Calls copy constructor → Recursively calls itself forever
}
```

```
Animal(const Animal& other) { // ✓ Safe: `other` cannot be modified
    // Copy logic
}
```

Prototype Design Pattern : Let's *clone with C++!*

```
// Destructor
~Animal() {
    delete[] species;
    delete[] name;
}

// Clone function (returns a deep copy of the object)
Animal* clone(const char* newName) {
    return new Animal(species, newName, age, health);
}

// Method to simulate aging
void live_a_year() {
    age++;
    health -= (rand() % 16) + 5; // Reduce health by a random value between 5-20
}

// Display details
void describe() const {
    std::cout << "Species: " << species << ", Name: " << name
        << ", Age: " << age << ", Health: " << health << std::endl;
}
};
```

```
// Main function to test cloning
int main() {
    // Create original animal
    Animal lion("Lion", "Simba", 5, 90);

    // Clone the lion and give it a new name
    Animal* lionClone1 = lion.clone("Nala");
    Animal* lionClone2 = lion.clone("Mufasa");

    // Modify the cloned animals
    lionClone1->live_a_year(); // Nala ages
    lionClone2->live_a_year(); // Mufasa ages

    // Display original and cloned objects
    std::cout << "\nOriginal Lion:" << std::endl;
    lion.describe();

    std::cout << "\nCloned Lion 1:" << std::endl;
    lionClone1->describe();

    std::cout << "\nCloned Lion 2:" << std::endl;
    lionClone2->describe();

    // Free memory for cloned objects
    delete lionClone1;
    delete lionClone2;

    return 0;
}
```



Prototype: Key Takeaways

Advantage	Descriptions
Fast Object Creation	Cloning is faster than re-initializing every attribute
Encapsulated Cloning Logic	<i>Objects know how to clone themselves</i> , keeping code clean
Independent Objects	Each cloned animal is a separate object in memory and can be modified independently <i>NT: Does NOT automatically assign a new unique ID</i>
Ideal for Large Systems	Useful in games, simulations, and automation where predefined templates are needed



Prototype: Regular vs Deep Constructors

Feature	Regular Constructor	Deep Copy Constructor
Purpose	Initializes a new object	Creates a copy of an existing object
Used When?	<code>Animal a1("Lion", 5);</code>	<code>Animal a2 = a1;</code>
Handles Dynamic Memory?	No	Yes (Allocates new memory)
Prevents Memory Issues?	No	Yes (Avoids shared pointers)
When Needed?	Always for new objects	Needed when objects have pointers

Prototype: Python vs C++

Feature	Python	C++
Memory Management	Handled automatically	Manual allocation (<code>new</code>) and deallocation (<code>delete</code>)
Cloning Method	Uses <code>copy.deepcopy()</code>	Uses a deep copy constructor and <code>clone()</code> function
String Storage	Uses Python <code>str</code> (immutable)	Uses dynamically allocated <code>char*</code>
Garbage Collection	Automatic	Needs explicit destructor

Prototype: Python vs C++

```
a = "Lion"  
b = a  
b = "Tiger" # Creates a new string object; `a` remains "Lion"  
  
print(a) # Output: Lion  
print(b) # Output: Tiger
```

String Default: *Immutable*

```
char a[] = "Lion";  
char* b = a;  
b[0] = 'T'; // Modifies `a` as well  
  
std::cout << a; // Output: "Tion"
```

String Default: *Mutable*



Prototype: Python vs C++

```
a = "Lion"  
b = a  
b = "Tiger" # Creates a new string object; `a` remains "Lion"  
  
print(a) # Output: Lion  
print(b) # Output: Tiger
```

String Default: *Immutable*

species and name are immutable
(str) → no need of deep copying.

```
def clone(self, name):  
    """Clones the animal and assigns a new name."""  
    new_animal = copy.deepcopy(self) # Ensures independent attributes  
    new_animal.name = name # Give the clone a new name  
    return new_animal
```



Prototype: Python vs C++

```
char a[] = "Lion";
char* b = a;
b[0] = 'T'; // Modifies `a` as well

std::cout << a; // Output: Tion
```

String Default: *mutable*

Explicit deep copy of `char*` to prevent memory issues.

```
// Deep Copy Constructor
Animal(const Animal& other)
    : age(other.age), health(other.health) { // ✓ Copy primitive values

    // ✓ Allocate new memory for species and copy content
    species = new char[strlen(other.species) + 1];
    strcpy(species, other.species);

    // ✓ Allocate new memory for name and copy content
    name = new char[strlen(other.name) + 1];
    strcpy(name, other.name);

    std::cout << "Deep Copy Constructor: Copied " << name << "!\n";
}
```



Can cloning go haywire?



Prototype: When to avoid?

Criteria	Prototype is a BAD Choice When...	Why?
Objects Have Unique Identity	Each object has a unique ID, serial number, or real-world identity.	Cloning would create duplicate IDs , breaking identity uniqueness.
Objects Contain Constantly Changing Data	The object's attributes (e.g., GPS, health status, timestamps) change frequently.	A cloned object copies outdated values , leading to inaccurate data .
Object Creation is Simple and Efficient	The object's construction is cheap (e.g., primitive types, lightweight objects).	Creating a new object from scratch is more efficient than cloning.

Prototype: When to avoid?

Criteria	Prototype is a BAD Choice When...	Why?
Cloning Would Cause Logical Errors	Objects require strict uniqueness (e.g., wildlife tracking, transaction records).	Cloning creates misleading copies , making real-world tracking impossible .
Objects Have Complex Dependencies	Objects rely on external resources (e.g., database connections, network sockets).	Cloning would copy references , leading to shared state issues .
Object's State Cannot Be Copied Reliably	Objects hold unique or non-copyable attributes (e.g., file handles, hardware locks).	Cloning such objects causes runtime errors or unintended side effects .

Object Oriented Programming

Structural Design Patterns: Adapter

IT560



Sourish Dasgupta

Assistant Professor, DA-IICT, Gandhinagar
<https://daiict.ac.in/faculty/sourish-dasgupta>

Creational Design Pattern : Object creation is just the first step

- Do not help in **structuring relationships** between objects to form larger more complex objects
- Do not help in avoiding tightly coupled objects (just takes care of tightly coupled client-server relationships)
- Do not help much in object code duplication (just focuses on reducing construction code duplication)



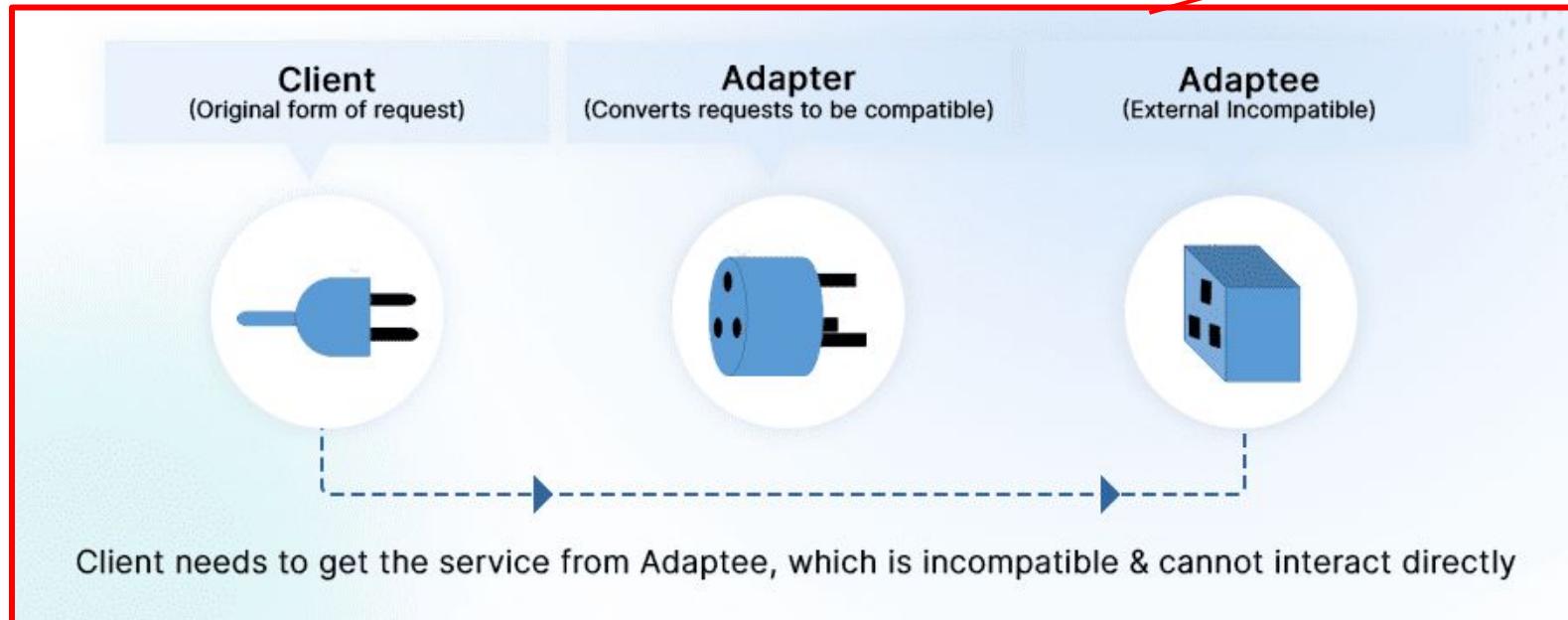
Structural Design Pattern: A game of lego

- The art of how to make complex, larger objects
- Requires perfect “*fitting*” of the components (smaller objects) - component relationship
- Requires *solving incompatibility* between components



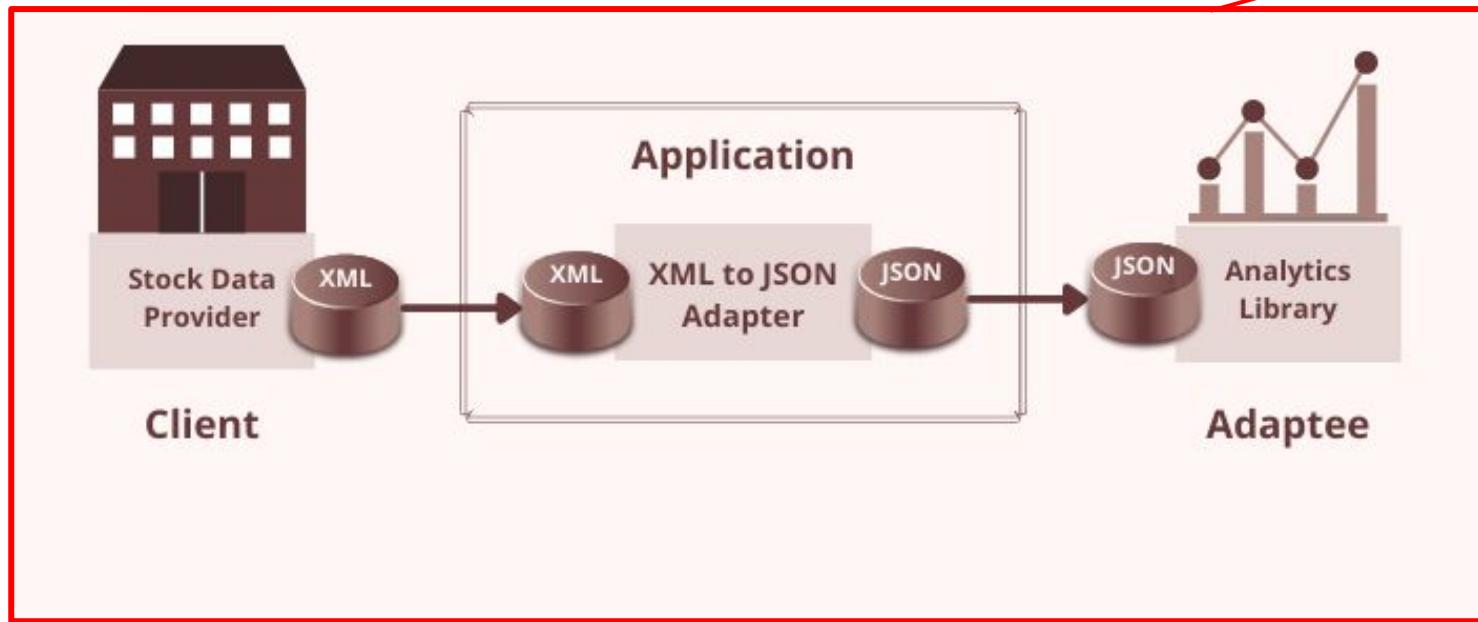


Adapter Design Pattern : Making objects compatible





Adapter Design Pattern : Making objects compatible



Client incompatible with newly introduced Class

```
# Target Interface
class Animal:
    def make_sound(self):
        pass

# Concrete implementation of Animal: Dog
class Dog(Animal):
    def make_sound(self):
        return "Woof!"

# Adaptee: Cat with an incompatible interface
class Cat:
    def meow(self):
        return "Meow!"
```

```
# Client Code: A function that uses the Animal interface
def animal_sound(animal: Animal):
    print(animal.make_sound())
```

```
# Usage:
# Dog directly implements Animal
dog = Dog()
# Cat does not implement Animal
cat = Cat()

# The client code works for Dog but not for Cat:
animal_sound(dog) # Output: Woof!
animal_sound(cat) # Error!!
```



Adapter Design Pattern : Making objects compatible

```
# Target Interface
class Animal:
    def make_sound(self):
        pass

# Concrete implementation of Animal: Dog
class Dog(Animal):
    def make_sound(self):
        return "Woof!"

# Adaptee: Cat with an incompatible interface
class Cat:
    def meow(self):
        return "Meow!"
```

```
# Adapter: Makes a Cat behave like an Animal
class CatAdapter(Animal):
    def __init__(self, cat):
        self.cat = cat

    def make_sound(self):
        # Translate the call to the Cat's meow method
        return self.cat.meow()
```



Adapter Design Pattern : Making objects compatible

```
# Target Interface
class Animal:
    def make_sound(self):
        pass

# Concrete implementation of Animal: Dog
class Dog(Animal):
    def make_sound(self):
        # Usage:
        # Dog directly implements Animal
        dog = Dog()
        # Cat does not implement Animal
        cat = Cat()

        # The client code works for Dog but not for Cat:
        animal_sound(dog) # Output: Woof!
        animal_sound(cat) # Error!!
```

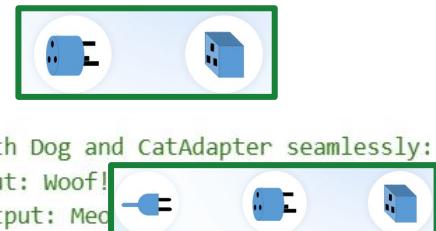
```
# Adapter: Makes a Cat behave like an Animal
class CatAdapter(Animal):
    def __init__(self, cat):
        self.cat = cat

    def make_sound(self):
        # Translate the call to the Cat's meow method
        return self.cat.meow()
```



```
# Usage:
# Dog directly implements Animal
dog = Dog()
# Cat does not implement Animal
cat = Cat()
# Adapter wraps the Cat
cat_adapter = CatAdapter(cat)

# The client code works with both Dog and CatAdapter seamlessly:
animal_sound(dog) # Output: Woof!
animal_sound(cat_adapter) # Output: Meow!
```



Adapter: Key Takeaways

Advantage	Description
Interface Compatibility	Allows disparate interfaces to work together without modifying existing code.
Reusability	Enables the reuse of legacy or third-party classes by adapting them to a required interface.
Decoupling	Reduces direct dependencies between components, making them easier to maintain and extend.
Flexibility	Simplifies integration of new components or systems, even if their interfaces differ.
Scalability	Facilitates system growth by allowing components to be added or replaced with minimal disruption.

Adapter Design Pattern : New adapter for each adaptee

```
# Target Interface
class Animal:
    def make_sound(self):
        pass

# Concrete implementation of Animal: Dog
class Dog(Animal):
    def make_sound(self):
        return "Woof!"

# Adaptee: Cat with an incompatible interface
class Cat:
    def meow(self):
        return "Meow!"
```

```
# New Adaptee: Bird with a tweet() method
class Bird:
    def tweet(self):
        return "Tweet tweet!"
```

```
# Adapter: Makes a Cat behave like an Animal
class CatAdapter(Animal):
    def __init__(self, cat):
        self.cat = cat

    def make_sound(self):
        # Translate the call to the Cat's meow method
        return self.cat.meow()
```

```
# New Adapter for Bird
class BirdAdapter(Animal):
    def __init__(self, bird):
        self.bird = bird

    def make_sound(self):
        return self.bird.tweet()
```



Can we do better?



Adapter Design Pattern : Generic adapter for all adaptee

```
# Target Interface
class Animal:
    def make_sound(self):
        pass

# Concrete implementation of Animal: Dog
class Dog(Animal):
    def make_sound(self):
        return "Woof!"

# Adaptee: Cat with an incompatible interface
class Cat:
    def meow(self):
        return "Meow!"

# New Adaptee: Bird with a tweet() method
class Bird:
    def tweet(self):
        return "Tweet tweet!"
```

```
class GenericAdapter(Animal):
    def __init__(self, adaptee, method_name):
        self.adaptee = adaptee
        self.method_name = method_name

    def make_sound(self):
        method = getattr(self.adaptee, self.method_name)
        return method() # Dynamically call the correct method
```

```
# Creating instances of different animals
dog = Dog()                      # Already implements Animal
cat = Cat()                        # Has meow() method
bird = Bird()                      # Has tweet() method

# Using the generic adapter for Cat and Bird
cat_adapter = GenericAdapter(cat, "meow")
bird_adapter = GenericAdapter(bird, "tweet")

# client code remains unchanged
animal_sound(dog)                 # Output: Woof!
animal_sound(cat_adapter)          # Output: Meow!
animal_sound(bird_adapter)         # Output: Tweet tweet!
```



Adapter Design Pattern : Let's go C++!!

```
#include <iostream>
#include <string>

// Target interface: Animal with a virtual makeSound method.
class Animal {
public:
int main() {
    Dog dog;
    Cat cat;

    // Use the generic adapter to adapt Cat to the Animal interface.
    GenericAdapter<Cat> catAdapter(cat, &Cat::meow);

    std::cout << "Dog: " << dog.makeSound() << std::endl;      // Output: Woof!
    std::cout << "Cat: " << catAdapter.makeSound() << std::endl;  // Output: Meow!

    return 0;
}

class Cat {
public:
    std::string meow() const {
        return "Meow!";
    }
};
```



```
// Generic Adapter: Adapts any type T to the Animal interface.
/* It takes a pointer-to-member function (SoundMethod) that
   returns a std::string. */
template <typename T>
class GenericAdapter : public Animal {
public:
    /* Define a type alias for a pointer-to-member function that
       takes no parameters and returns std::string. */
    using SoundMethod = std::string (T::*()) const;

    /* Constructor takes a reference to the adaptee and
       a pointer-to-member function. */
    GenericAdapter(const T& adaptee, SoundMethod method)
        : adaptee_(adaptee), method_(method) {}

    /* Implement the Animal interface by calling
       the specified method on the adaptee.*/
    std::string makeSound() const override {
        return (adaptee_.*method_)();
    }

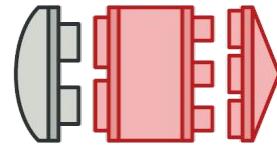
private:
    T adaptee_;
    SoundMethod method_;
};
```



Is adapting always good?



Adapter: Cautionary comments



Con	Description
Increased Complexity	Adds extra layers of abstraction that <i>may</i> complicate system understanding.
Maintenance Overhead	Additional adapter code must be maintained, especially if underlying <i>interfaces change</i>
Masking Design Issues	Can hide underlying design flaws by serving as a quick fix rather than addressing core issues
Complex Testing	More layers (client, adapter, adaptee) mean additional testing is required to ensure proper integration

Object Oriented Programming

Structural Design Patterns: Facade

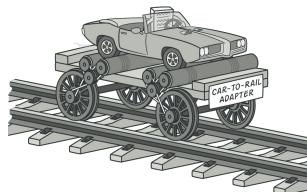
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Sourish Dasgupta

Assistant Professor, DA-IICT, Gandhinagar
<https://daiict.ac.in/faculty/sourish-dasgupta>

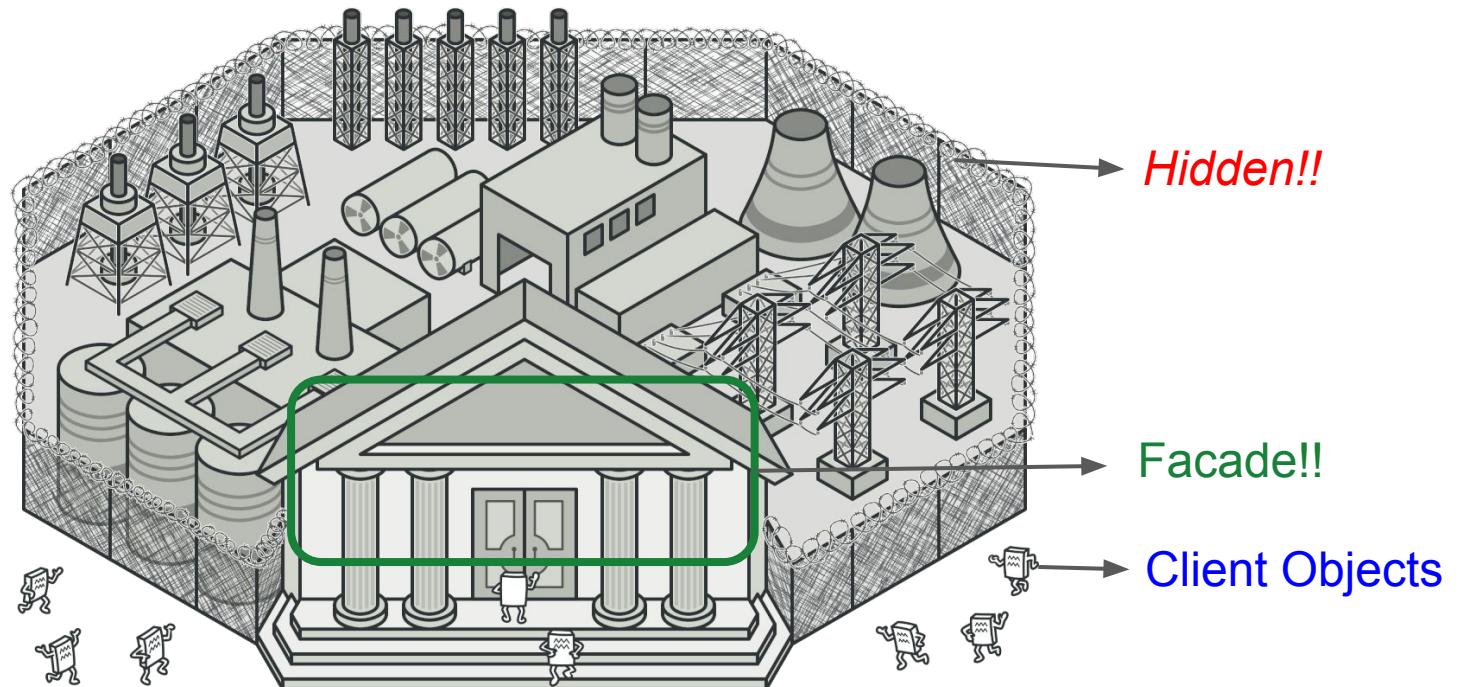
Adapter Design Pattern : Compatibility with **single** interface



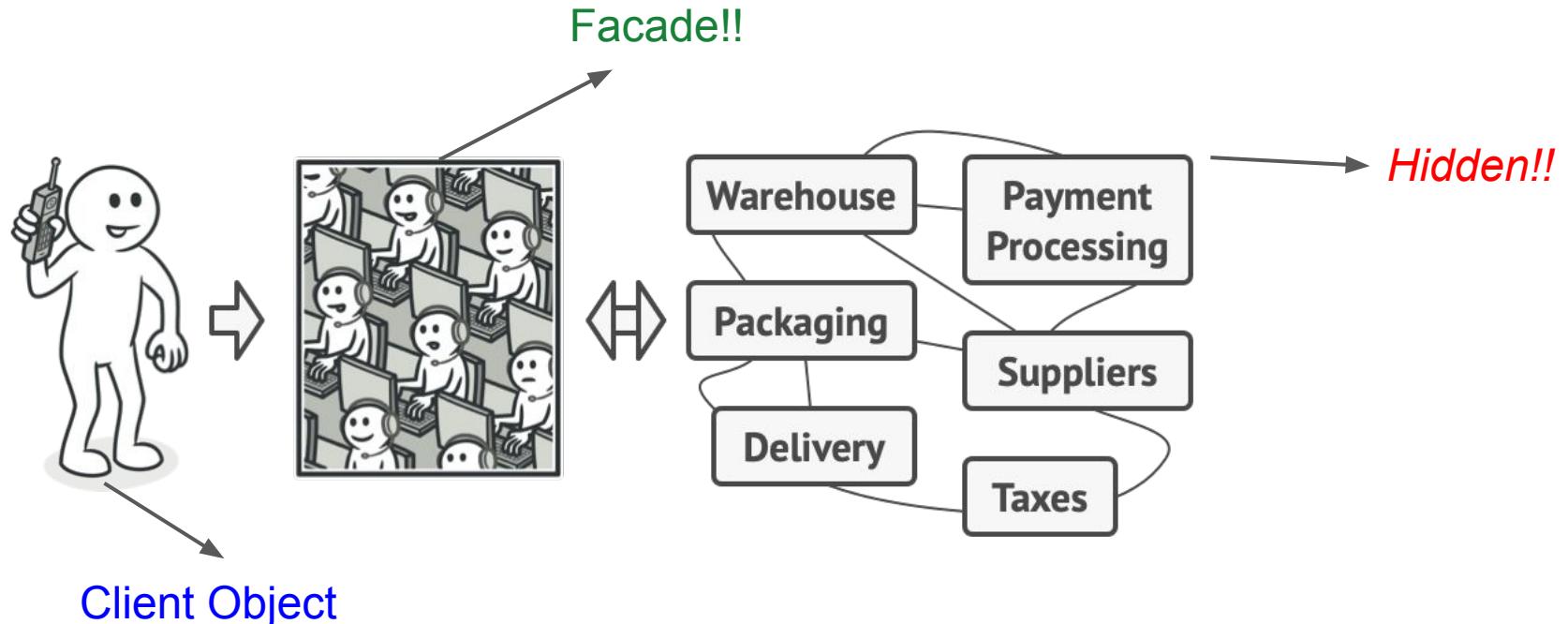
Car vs. Rail track

- Do not help in having a unified interface to a **complex (multi) sub-system** (with **multiple operations**)
- Do not help in coordination within the complex sub-system
- Do not help decouple client with a complex sub-system

What is a Facade?



A concrete example: *Ordering over the phone*





Key Takeaways: Facade

Aspect	Description
Purpose	Simplifies interaction with complex subsystems by providing a unified interface.
Benefits	Decouples clients from subsystem details, hides complexity, and makes the system easier to use.
Usage Example	An order processing system that integrates inventory checks, payment processing, and shipping.
Client Interaction	The client calls a single method (e.g., <code>process_order()</code>) on the facade, instead of multiple subsystem calls.

Takeaways: Facade (vs. Adapter)

Feature	Differences
Subsystem Coordination	<p>Orchestrates interactions between multiple classes or subsystems</p> <p>Vs. Only wraps a single interface</p>
Unified High-Level Abstraction	<p>Comprehensive, simplified interface to a <i>complex system</i>, hiding the internal complexity.</p> <p>Vs. Does not consolidate multiple operations into one cohesive interface.</p>
Decoupling from Complex Subsystems	<p>Decouples the client from an <i>entire set</i> of interrelated subsystems.</p> <p>Vs. Solely focused on making one incompatible interface work with another.</p>

Toy example of creating sub-systems out of similar classes

```
# Define Animal Classes with Different Behaviors

class Dog:
    def bark(self):
        return "Woof!"

    def run(self):
        return "The dog runs swiftly."

    def eat(self):
        return "The dog eats kibble."


class Cat:
    def meow(self):
        return "Meow!"

    def jump(self):
        return "The cat jumps gracefully."

    def eat(self):
        return "The cat eats fish."


class Bird:
    def tweet(self):
        return "Tweet tweet!"

    def fly(self):
        return "The bird flies high."

    def eat(self):
        return "The bird eats seeds."
```

```
# Subsystem 1: SoundSubsystem
class SoundSubsystem:
    def get_sound(self, animal):
        if isinstance(animal, Dog):
            return animal.bark()
        elif isinstance(animal, Cat):
            return animal.meow()
        elif isinstance(animal, Bird):
            return animal.tweet()
        else:
            return "Unknown sound"
```

```
# Subsystem 2: MovementSubsystem
class MovementSubsystem:
    def get_movement(self, animal):
        if isinstance(animal, Dog):
            return animal.run()
        elif isinstance(animal, Cat):
            return animal.jump()
        elif isinstance(animal, Bird):
            return animal.fly()
        else:
            return "No movement"

# Subsystem 3: FeedingSubsystem
class FeedingSubsystem:
    def get_feeding(self, animal):
        return animal.eat()
```



Don't want Facade? Going to give client a lot of headache!!

```
# Client code without using the Facade
if __name__ == "__main__":
    print("== Without Facade")
    dog = Dog()
    cat = Cat()
    bird = Bird()

    # Client must instantiate
    sound_system = SoundSubsystem()
    movement_system = MovementSubsystem()
    feeding_system = FeedingSubsystem()

    for animal in [dog, cat, bird]:
        # The client is responsible for coordinating the calls.
        try:
            profile = {}
            # Mistake: The client might forget to call one subsystem or call them in the wrong order.
            profile['Sound'] = sound_system.get_sound(animal)
            # For demonstration, let's simulate an error by forgetting the movement call.
            # profile['Movement'] = movement_system.get_movement(animal) # This line is accidentally omitted.
            profile['Feeding'] = feeding_system.get_feeding(animal)

            # Now, the profile is incomplete and using it might lead to runtime errors.
            if 'Movement' not in profile:
                raise ValueError("Incomplete profile: Missing Movement information!")

            print("Animal Profile:")
            for key, value in profile.items():
                print(f" {key}: {value}")
            print()
        except Exception as e:
            print("Error while retrieving animal profile:", e)
```



Facade abstracts the sub-systems!

```
# Facade: AnimalFacade
class AnimalFacade:
    def __init__(self):
        self.sound_system = SoundSubsystem()
        self.movement_system = MovementSubsystem()
        self.feeding_system = FeedingSubsystem()

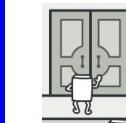
    def get_animal_profile(self, animal):
        profile = {}
        profile[ 'Sound' ] = self.sound_system.get_sound(animal)
        profile[ 'Movement' ] = self.movement_system.get_movement(animal)
        profile[ 'Feeding' ] = self.feeding_system.get_feeding(animal)
        return profile
```



Facade abstracts the sub-systems: *Client has no headache!*

```
# Client Code
if __name__ == "__main__":
    dog = Dog()
    cat = Cat()
    bird = Bird()

    facade = AnimalFacade()
    for animal in [dog, cat, bird]:
        profile = facade.get_animal_profile(animal)
        print("Animal Profile:")
        for key, value in profile.items():
            print(f" {key}: {value}")
        print()
```



Trivia: Extracts the tuple from dictionary

Can we do better?



FP-style optimization

```
# Facade: AnimalFacade
class AnimalFacade:
    def __init__(self):
        self.sound_system = SoundSubsystem()
        self.movement_system = MovementSubsystem()
        self.feeding_system = FeedingSubsystem()

    def get_animal_profile(self, animal):
        profile = {}
        profile['Sound'] = self.sound_system.get_sound(animal)
        profile['Movement'] = self.movement_system.get_movement(animal)
        profile['Feeding'] = self.feeding_system.get_feeding(animal)
        return profile
```



*Trivia: Decorator enforcing lazy
(i.e., dynamic) calling →
call-when-needed:
READ-ONLY*

```
class LazyAnimalFacade:
    def __init__(self):
        self._sound_system = None
        self._movement_system = None
        self._feeding_system = None

    @property
    def sound_system(self):
        if self._sound_system is None:
            self._sound_system = SoundSubsystem()
        return self._sound_system

    @property
    def movement_system(self):
        if self._movement_system is None:
            self._movement_system = MovementSubsystem()
        return self._movement_system

    @property
    def feeding_system(self):
        if self._feeding_system is None:
            self._feeding_system = FeedingSubsystem()
        return self._feeding_system

    def get_animal_profile(self, animal):
        return {
            "Sound": self.sound_system.get_sound(animal),
            "Movement": self.movement_system.get_movement(animal),
            "Feeding": self.feeding_system.get_feeding(animal),
        }
```

Keep it
uninitialized

Is creating facade always good?





Cautionary comments

Aspect	Advantages	Disadvantages
Complexity Handling	Reduces complexity by hiding subsystem details.	Can lead to unnecessary abstraction if overused.
Dependency Management	Decouples client from subsystem changes.	Clients need update if Facade needs update → <i>an adapter to the facade??</i>
Performance	Makes API calls easier and more structured.	Can introduce slight overhead when forwarding requests.

Object Oriented Programming

Structural Design Patterns: Decorator

IT620



Sourish Dasgupta

Assistant Professor, DA-IICT, Gandhinagar
<https://daiict.ac.in/faculty/sourish-dasgupta>

Why should we think about Decorators?

```
class Dog:  
    def make_sound(self):  
        return "Woof"
```



```
# Loud Dog: A subclass that modifies the sound  
class LoudDog(Dog):  
    def make_sound(self):  
        return "WOOF!!!"
```



```
# Whisper Dog: Another subclass that modifies  
# the sound differently  
class WhisperDog(Dog):  
    def make_sound(self):  
        return "woof..."
```

???



What's wrong with class inheritance?

- **Class Explosion:** New subclass for each new behavior (e.g., loud, whisper, echo, etc.)
 - Combo behavior?? → Exponential growth!
- **Lack of Flexibility:** Want to add a new behavior? Or modify an existing one?
Change the class hierarchy
 - No way to mix and match behaviors at runtime without creating additional subclasses
- **Maintenance Challenges:** A new subclass? → additional maintenance overhead
 - Base class Dog got changed? → Update all the subclasses to maintain consistency



How does Decorator help? **Modifying** and extending on-the-fly



```
# Base interface for Animal
class Animal:
    def make_sound(self):
        pass
```

```
# Concrete implementation: Dog
class Dog(Animal):
    def make_sound(self):
        return "Woof"
```

```
# Loud Dog: A subclass that modifies the sound
class LoudDog(Dog):
    def make_sound(self):
        return "WOOF!!!"
```

```
# Base Decorator class that extends Animal
class AnimalDecorator(Animal):
    def __init__(self, animal: Animal):
        self._animal = animal

    def make_sound(self):
        return self._animal.make_sound()
```

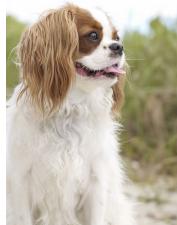
```
class LoudDecorator(AnimalDecorator):
    def make_sound(self):
        # Modify the original sound dynamically
        return self._animal.make_sound().upper() + "!!!"
```

```
class WhisperDecorator(AnimalDecorator):
    def make_sound(self):
        # Modify the original sound dynamically
        return self._animal.make_sound().lower() + "..."
```

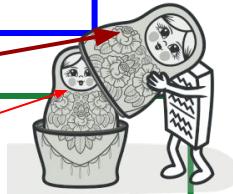


How does Decorator help? **Modifying** and extending on-the-fly

```
# Client code:  
dog = Dog()  
print("Original:", dog.make_sound()) # Woof  
  
loud_dog = LoudDecorator(dog)  
print("Loud:", loud_dog.make_sound()) # WOOF!!!  
  
whisper_dog = WhisperDecorator(dog)  
print("Whisper:", whisper_dog.make_sound()) # woof...
```



```
# Even chain decorators:  
loud_whisper_dog = LoudDecorator(WhisperDecorator(dog))  
print("Loud then Whisper:", loud_whisper_dog.make_sound()) # WOOF...!!!
```



How does Decorator help? **Adding** new behavior (eat) on-the-fly

```
# Base interface for Animal  
class Animal:  
    def make_sound(self):  
        pass
```

```
# Concrete implementation: Dog  
class Dog(Animal):  
    def make_sound(self):  
        return "Woof"
```

No eating behavior yet



Needs to be compatible!

```
# AnimalEatDecorator adds an 'eat' behavior while preserving other behaviors  
class AnimalEatDecorator(AnimalDecorator):  
    def eat(self, food: str):  
        # Uses the current make_sound() to incorporate the loud behavior  
        return f"{self.make_sound()} eats {food}"
```

```
def make_sound(self):  
    # Modify the original sound dynamically  
    return self._animal.make_sound().upper() + "!!!"
```

```
def make_sound(self):  
    # Modify the original sound dynamically  
    return self._animal.make_sound().lower() + "..."
```

How does Decorator help? **Adding** new behavior (eat) on-the-fly



```
# Concrete implementation
class Dog(Animal):
    def make_sound(self):
        return "Woof!!!"
```

```
# Client Code
if __name__ == "__main__":
    # Create a base Dog
    dog = Dog()

    # First, decorate the dog to be loud
    loud_dog = LoudDecorator(dog)
```

```
# Then, add the eat behavior on top of the loud dog
loud_eating_dog = AnimalEatDecorator(loud_dog)
```

```
# Testing the composed object:
print(loud_eating_dog.make_sound()) # Expected output: "WOOF!!!"
print(loud_eating_dog.eat("kibble")) # Expected output: "WOOF!!! eats kibble"
```

```
# Base Decorator class that extends Animal
class AnimalDecorator(Animal):
    def __init__(self, animal: Animal):
        self._animal = animal

    def make_sound(self):
        return self._animal.make_sound()
```

Why does this work??



Key takeaways

Aspect	Description
Purpose	Dynamically add new behavior to objects without altering their structure.
Key Benefit	Adheres to the open/closed principle (SOLID); enhances flexibility and reusability.
Implementation	Involves creating a <u>base decorator class</u> and one or more concrete decorators.
Usage	When you need to extend the functionality of objects in a flexible and <u>combinable</u> way.
Comparison to Subclassing	More scalable and flexible than creating a separate subclass for each behavior combination.



How does the Decorator differ from the others?

Aspect	Decorator	Adapter/ Facade
Primary Purpose	Dynamically <u>extend</u> or <u>modify</u> an object's <u>behavior</u> → wraps with additional functionality	Adapter converts an <u>incompatible</u> interface, while Facade <u>simplifies interaction</u> with complex subsystems.
Behavior Extension	Can add, remove, or combine behaviors <u>at runtime</u> <u>without altering the original object's code</u>	Typically static transformations or simplifications → no runtime modification of behavior
Flexibility	Enables <u>stacking</u> of multiple decorators for flexible <u>composition of responsibilities</u>	No dynamic behavior extension.
Transparency to Client	The client interacts with the decorated object <u>using the same interface</u> , <u>unaware of the added behaviors</u>	The client interacts with the adapted/facaded interface, but the primary goal is interface consistency or simplification



Does Decorator ring a bell with FP?

Aspect	Decorator Pattern	Functional Programming
Extending Functionality	Wraps objects to dynamically add or modify behavior without changing the original class.	Uses higher-order functions to create new functions by composing existing ones.
Composability	Decorators can be stacked or chained to combine multiple behaviors at runtime.	Functions can be composed together (e.g., using composition operators) to build complex operations.
Flexibility	Enables runtime modification and flexible extension of an object's capabilities.	Encourages building programs by composing small, reusable functions in different combinations.

Wait, but isn't this the subway making problem? (Builder)

Aspect	Builder Pattern	Decorator Pattern
Primary Purpose	Focuses on constructing complex objects <u>step by step</u> , separating construction from representation.	Focuses on dynamically adding responsibilities or modifying the behavior of an object at runtime.
Composition Type	Composes various parts or components during object creation to form a new complex object.	Wraps an existing object to extend or alter its behavior without changing its interface.
Timing	The object is built once , with the final configuration being set at creation time.	The object's behavior can be modified or extended after creation, even at runtime.
Use Case Example	Building a complex configuration (like a house, or a complex document) where various parts need to be assembled in a specific order.	Adding extra functionalities (like logging, caching, or permission checks) to an object without modifying its existing code .



Can we make the decorators completely decoupled?



Needs to be compatible!

```
# AnimalEatDecorator adds an 'eat' behavior while preserving other behaviors
class AnimalEatDecorator(AnimalDecorator):
    def eat(self, food: str):
        # Uses the current make_sound() to incorporate the loud behavior
        return f"{self.make_sound()} eats {food}"
```

Why should Eat decorator have to be aware of MakeSound decorator?

Why is decoupling needed? Reverse chaining may not work!

```
# First eat
eat_dog = EatDecorator(dog)

# Then loud (this wraps the EatDecorator)
loud_eating_dog = LoudDecorator(eat_dog)

# Works:
print(loud_eating_dog.make_sound()) # 

# FAILS:
print(loud_eating_dog.eat("kibble"))
# AttributeError: 'LoudDecorator' object has no attribute 'eat'
```

```
# Base Decorator class that extends Animal
class AnimalDecorator(Animal):
    def __init__(self, animal: Animal):
        self._animal = animal

    def make_sound(self):
        return self._animal.make_sound()
```

```
class LoudDecorator(AnimalDecorator):
    def make_sound(self):
        # Modify the original sound dynamically
        return self._animal.make_sound().upper() + "!!!"
```

```
# Concrete implementation: Dog
class Dog(Animal):
    def make_sound(self):
        return "Woof"
```



Can we do better?



How to make the chaining work in *any* order?

```
# Base Decorator that extends Animal
class AnimalDecorator(Animal):
    def __init__(self, animal):
        self._animal = animal

    def make_sound(self):
        return self._animal.make_sound()

    def __getattr__(self, name):
        return getattr(self._animal, name)

# MakeSoundDecorator that accepts a modality and applies it
class MakeSoundDecorator(AnimalDecorator):
    def __init__(self, animal, modality: str):
        super().__init__(animal)
        self.modality = modality

    def make_sound(self):
        sound = self._animal.make_sound()

        if self.modality == "lowercase":
            return sound.lower()
        elif self.modality == "uppercase":
            return sound.upper()
        else:
            raise ValueError(f"Unknown modality {self.modality}")

    def __getattr__(self, name):
        return getattr(self._animal, name)

# EatDecorator independently adds an 'eat' behavior
class EatDecorator(AnimalDecorator):
    def eat(self, food):
        base_animal = self._animal
        while hasattr(base_animal, '_animal'):
            base_animal = base_animal._animal

        class_name = base_animal.__class__.__name__
        return f"{class_name} is going to eat {food}"

    def __getattr__(self, name):
        return getattr(self._animal, name)
```



Now any order works!

```
# =====
# ✅ Client Code: Eating Loud vs Loud Eating
# =====
if __name__ == "__main__":
    dog = Dog()

    print("\n==== Eating Loud Dog ===")
    eating_loud_dog = MakeSoundDecorator(EatDecorator(dog), "loud")
    print(eating_loud_dog.make_sound()) # WOOF!!!
    print(eating_loud_dog.eat("kibble")) # Dog is going to eat kibble

    print("\n==== Loud Eating Dog ===")
    loud_eating_dog = EatDecorator(MakeSoundDecorator(dog, "loud"))
    print(loud_eating_dog.make_sound()) # WOOF!!!
    print(loud_eating_dog.eat("kibble")) # Dog is going to eat kibble
```



Haven't we seen decorators before?

Remember the @-styled functions?



Decorator Design Pattern vs. **Decorator Feature**

Decorator	Purpose
<code>@property</code>	Define a method as a read-only property
<code>@staticmethod</code>	Define a static method (no <code>self</code>)
<code>@classmethod</code>	Define a method that operates on the class
<code>@functools.lru_cache</code>	Cache results of expensive computations
<code>@functools.wraps</code>	Preserve function metadata in decorators
<code>@abc.abstractmethod</code>	Define abstract methods in base classes
<code>@dataclasses.dataclass</code>	Automatically generate data class boilerplate
<code>@contextlib.contextmanager</code>	Simplify creating context managers



Decorator Design Pattern vs. **Decorator Feature**

```
def logger(func):
    def wrapper(*args, **kwargs):
        print(f"Calling {func.__name__}")
        result = func(*args, **kwargs)
        print(f"{func.__name__} returned {result}")
        return result
    return wrapper
```

```
class Dog:
    @logger # <-- Python decorator feature
    def make_sound(self):
        return "Woof"
```

```
dog = Dog()
dog.make_sound()
```

Calling make_sound
make_sound returned Woof

VS.

Woof



Decorator Design Pattern vs. **Decorator Feature**

```
def announce_action(func):
    def wrapper(*args, **kwargs):
        print("The animal is preparing to make a sound...")
        return func(*args, **kwargs)
    return wrapper
```

```
dog = Dog()
dog.make_sound()
```

The animal is preparing to make a sound...
Woof

```
class Dog:
    @announce_action # <-- Decorator feature in action
    def make_sound(self):
        print("Woof")
```

VS.

Woof

To summarize

	Decorator Pattern	Decorator Feature (@)
What	Structural design pattern	Python syntax + language feature
Purpose	Add behavior to objects	Add behavior to functions/classes
Method	Class-based, runtime wrapping	Function/class wrapper, definition-time
Examples	GUI widgets, streams	<code>@property</code> , <code>@staticmethod</code> , <code>@lru_cache</code>



Can we use Decorator feature for Decorator pattern?



Using Decorator feature for Decorator Pattern

```
def loud_decorator(cls):
    original_make_sound = cls.make_sound

    def new_make_sound(self):
        sound = original_make_sound(self)
        return sound.upper() + "!!!"

    cls.make_sound = new_make_sound
    return cls

def whisper_decorator(cls):
    original_make_sound = cls.make_sound

    def new_make_sound(self):
        sound = original_make_sound(self)
        return sound.lower() + "..."

    cls.make_sound = new_make_sound
    return cls
```

```
@whisper_decorator
@loud_decorator
class Dog:
    def make_sound(self):
        return "Woof"

dog = Dog()
print(dog.make_sound()) #
```

???

```
@loud_decorator
@whisper_decorator
class Dog:
    def make_sound(self):
        return "Woof"

dog = Dog()
print(dog.make_sound())
```



Will decorating always look good?



Cautionary comments for Decorator *pattern*

When	Why It's Bad
Too many decorator layers	Hard to trace, maintain, and debug (Decorator Hell)
Inheritance is clearer/simpler	Simpler than wrapping objects unnecessarily
Performance is critical	Decorator overhead adds indirection and latency
Behavior order is tricky or unclear	Hard to understand the interaction of behaviors
Mutually exclusive behaviors exist	Allows illogical combinations without constraint



Cautionary comments for Decorator as a Python *feature*

When	Why
Code becomes hard to read or trace	Wrapping hides behavior
You need per-instance behavior	Decorators are static at definition time
Debugging gets complicated	Decorators can obscure function identity
Performance is critical	Decorators add overhead
Behavior needs dynamic control	Decorators are static unless configured
Simple logic doesn't justify extra complexity	Decorators can be overkill

Object Oriented Programming

Structural Design Patterns: Composite

IT620



Sourish Dasgupta

Assistant Professor, DA-IICT, Gandhinagar
<https://daiict.ac.in/faculty/sourish-dasgupta>

Why should we think about Composite?

```
class Animal:  
    def make_sound(self):  
        raise NotImplementedError  
  
class Dog(Animal):  
    def make_sound(self):  
        print("Woof!")  
  
class Cat(Animal):  
    def make_sound(self):  
        print("Meow!")
```

*What if we need two ways of making them talk
- individually and as a group?*

```
def shout(animal_or_group):  
    if isinstance(animal_or_group, list):  
        for animal in animal_or_group:  
            animal.make_sound()  
  
    else:  
        animal_or_group.make_sound()
```

Type may change!

Repetitive check, fragile!



Can we treat a group (composite) as an individual?

```
def shout_group(anim  
    for a in animals  
        a.make_sound()
```

```
def shout(animal: Animal):  
    animal.make_sound()  
  
# Usage  
dog = Dog()  
cat = Cat()  
  
group = AnimalGroup()  
group.add(dog)  
group.add(cat)  
  
# Works for both single animals and groups  
shout(dog)    # → Woof!  
shout(group)  # → Woof! Meow!
```

Group as an **Individual animal**

```
: list[Animal] = []  
  
animal: Animal):  
.append(animal)  
  
elf):  
    self.members:  
        make_sound()
```

Can we make groups and then group them all? (nested)

```
from abc import ABC, abstractmethod

# Component
class Animal(ABC):
    @abstractmethod
    def feed(self):
        pass

# Leaf
class Tiger(Animal):
    def feed(self):
        print("Feeding the tiger some meat")

class Parrot(Animal):
    def feed(self):
        print("Feeding the parrot some seeds")
```

```
tiger1 = Tiger()
tiger2 = Tiger()
parrot1 = Parrot()

big_cats = AnimalGroup("Big Cats")
big_cats.add(tiger1)
big_cats.add(tiger2)

birds = AnimalGroup("Birds")
birds.add(parrot1)

zoo = AnimalGroup("Whole Zoo")
zoo.add(big_cats)
zoo.add(birds)

# Single call to feed the entire zoo
zoo.feed()
```

```
mal):
    , name: str):
    name
    list[Animal] = []
    animal: Animal):
        append(animal)

    long group: {self.name}")
    self.members:
        feed()
```

Opens up nesting - why??



So how exactly Composite Pattern is different?

Pattern	Primary Intent	Problem Solved	Key Benefit
Adapter	Convert one interface into another	Make incompatible interfaces work together	Reuse existing code without modifying it
Facade	Simplify a complex subsystem	Provide a single, easy-to-use API	Reduce coupling between clients and subsystems
Decorator	Add responsibilities dynamically	Extend object behavior without subclassing	Flexible, runtime behavior augmentation
Composite	Compose objects into <u>tree structures</u>	Treat individual objects and object groups uniformly	Simplify client code by handling leaf and composite nodes identically

Does grouping always lead to Composite?



Object Oriented Programming

Behavioral Design Patterns: Observer

IT620



Sourish Dasgupta

Assistant Professor, DA-IICT, Gandhinagar
<https://daiict.ac.in/faculty/sourish-dasgupta>

What if objects want to **notify** each other?

```
class Sparrow:  
    def alert(self, predator):  
        print(f"Sparrow: Alert! A {predator}")  
  
class Robin:  
    def alert(self, predator):  
        print(f"Robin: Alert! A {predator}")  
  
class BlueJay:  
    def alert(self, predator):  
        print(f"BlueJay: Heads up! There's a {predator} coming!")
```

Example usage:

```
sentinel = SentinelBird()  
sentinel.spot_predator("hawk")
```

```
class SentinelBird:  
    def __init__(self):  
        self.sparrow = Sparrow()  
        self.robin = Robin()  
        self.bluejay = BlueJay()  
  
    def predator(self, predator):  
        print(f"Sentinel Bird: Spotted a {predator}!")  
        self.sparrow.alert(predator)  
        self.robin.alert(predator)  
        self.bluejay.alert(predator)
```



What's wrong with the design?

Disadvantage	Explanation
Tight Coupling	<p>The SentinelBird directly references specific bird classes (e.g., Sparrow, Robin) → changes to one require modifying the subject class</p>
Scalability Issues	<p>SentinelBird becomes overloaded with direct dependencies as more birds add in</p>
Reduced Flexibility	<p>Dynamic addition or removal of bird observers at runtime not possible</p>



What if objects want to **notify** each other? The Observer way!!

```
class Subject:  
    """Maintains a list  
    of observers.  
    """  
  
    def __init__(self):  
        self._observers = []  
  
    def register_observer(self, observer):  
        if observer not in self._observers:  
            self._observers.append(observer)  
  
    def remove_observer(self, observer):  
        if observer in self._observers:  
            self._observers.remove(observer)  
  
    def notify_observers(self, event):  
        for observer in self._observers:  
            observer.update(event)
```

```
# Example usage:  
if __name__ == "__main__":  
    # Create a sentinel bird (subject)  
    sentinel = SentinelBird()  
  
    # Create several birds that will act as observers  
    bird1 = BirdObserver("Sparrow")  
    bird2 = BirdObserver("Robin")  
    bird3 = BirdObserver("Blue Jay")  
  
    # Register the birds as observers of the sentinel  
    sentinel.register_observer(bird1)  
    sentinel.register_observer(bird2)  
    sentinel.register_observer(bird3)  
  
    # Simulate the sentinel bird spotting a predator  
    sentinel.spot_predator("Hawk")
```

notified of a predator.""""

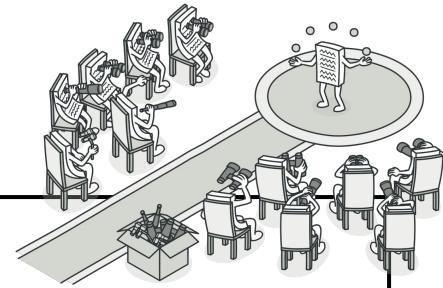
alert: {event}")

es others.""""

spotted!")
edator}' is nearby.")



Key Takeaways



Advantage	Explanation
Loose Coupling	Decouples the subject from its observers, reducing dependencies → allows changes without widespread impact
Dynamic Relationships	Observers can be added or removed at runtime → scalable
Improved Maintainability	Separates the notification mechanism from the business logic → easier to update or extend parts of the system without affecting others
Reusability	Can be reused across different subjects or projects, reducing code duplication and promoting modular design



Synchronous vs. Asynchronous Notifications



The (default) synchronous notification - Waiting is not good!

```
class BirdObserver:  
    """An observer that reacts when notified of a predator."""  
    def __init__(self):  
        # Running the synchronous example:  
        if __name__ == "__main__":  
            sentinel = SentinelBird()  
            sentinel.register_observer(BirdObserver("Sparrow"))  
            sentinel.register_observer(BirdObserver("Robin"))  
            sentinel.register_observer(BirdObserver("Blue Jay"))  
  
            sentinel.spot_predator("Hawk")
```

Sentinel Bird must wait for each bird to finish processing its alert before moving on to the next.



Notify each other *without having to wait* for anyone! **Async**

```
class Birdobserver:  
    class BirdObserver:  
        def __init__(self, name):  
            self.name = name  
            self.observers = []  
  
        def register_observer(self, observer):  
            self.observers.append(observer)  
  
        def update(self, event):  
            for observer in self.observers:  
                observer.update(event)  
  
    class SentinelBird:  
        def __init__(self):  
            self.observers = []  
  
        def register_observer(self, observer):  
            self.observers.append(observer)  
  
        def spot_predator(self, predator):  
            print(f"Sentinel saw {predator} nearby.")  
  
            for observer in self.observers:  
                observer.update(predator)  
  
    def main():  
        sentinel = SentinelBird()  
        sentinel.register_observer(BirdObserver("Sparrow"))  
        sentinel.register_observer(BirdObserver("Robin"))  
        sentinel.register_observer(BirdObserver("Blue Jay"))  
  
        sentinel.spot_predator("Hawk")  
  
    if __name__ == "__main__":  
        asyncio.run(main())
```



Object Oriented Programming

Behavioral Design Patterns: Strategy

IT620



Sourish Dasgupta

Assistant Professor, DA-IICT, Gandhinagar
<https://daiict.ac.in/faculty/sourish-dasgupta>

What if objects want to **share** each others' **behaviors** runtime?

```
from abc import ABC, abstractmethod

# Define the MovementStrategy interface
class MovementStrategy(ABC):
    @abstractmethod
    def move(self):
        pass
```

Movements (walk, fly, swim) is no single animal's unique behavior

```
# Concrete strategy for walking
class WalkStrategy(MovementStrategy):
    def move(self):
        print("walking on land.")

# Concrete strategy for flying
class FlyStrategy(MovementStrategy):
    def move(self):
        print("flying in the sky.")

# Concrete strategy for swimming
class SwimStrategy(MovementStrategy):
    def move(self):
        print("swimming in water.")
```

What if objects want to **share** each others' **behaviors** runtime?

```
# Concrete strategy for walk
class WalkStrategy(MovementStrategy):
    def move(self):
        print("walking on land")

# Concrete strategy for fly
class FlyStrategy(MovementStrategy):
    def move(self):
        print("flying in the air")

# Concrete strategy for swim
class SwimStrategy(MovementStrategy):
    def move(self):
        print("swimming in water")
```

```
# Animal class that uses a movement strategy
class Animal:
    def __init__(self, name, movement_strategy: MovementStrategy):
        self.name = name
        self.movement_strategy = movement_strategy

    def perform_move(self): Keeping it generic
        # Delegate the movement behavior to the strategy
        print(f"{self.name} is moving")
        self.movement_strategy.move()

    def set_movement_strategy(self, new_strategy: MovementStrategy):
        # Allows changing the movement behavior at runtime
        self.movement_strategy = new_strategy
```

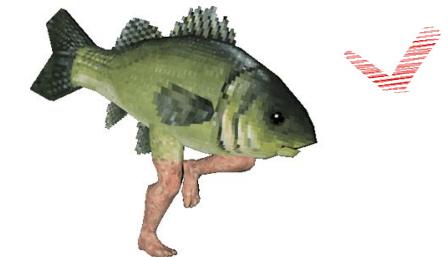
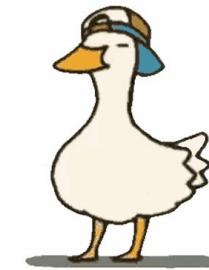


What if objects want to **share** each others' **behaviors** runtime?

```
# Example usage
if __name__ == '__main__':
    # A duck that initially can fly
    duck = Animal("Duck", FlyStrategy())
    duck.perform_move() # Output: Duck is flying in the sky.

    # Change the duck's movement strategy at runtime
    duck.set_movement_strategy(WalkStrategy())
    duck.perform_move() # Output: Duck is walking on land.

    # A fish that swims
    fish = Animal("Fish", SwimStrategy())
    fish.perform_move() # Output: Fish is swimming in water.
```



Separating Object from Behaviors



Wait! We added behavior earlier as well? Decorator!

(Remember the dogs barking and eating??)

```
# Base Decorator that extends Animal
class AnimalDecorator(Animal):
    def __init__(self, animal):
        self._animal = animal

    def make_sound(self):
        return self._animal.make_sound()

    def __getattr__(self, name):
        return getattr(self._animal, name)
```

```
# MakeSoundDecorator that accepts a modality and applies it
class MakeSoundDecorator(AnimalDecorator):
    def __init__(self, animal: Animal, modality: str):
        super().__init__(animal)
        self.modality = modality

    def make_sound(self):
        sound = self._animal.make_sound()

        if self.modality == "louder":
            return sound.upper()
        elif self.modality == "quieter":
            return sound.lower()
        else:
            raise ValueError(f"Unknown modality {self.modality}")

    def __getattr__(self, name):
        return getattr(self._animal, name)
```

```
# EatDecorator independently adds an 'eat' behavior
class EatDecorator(AnimalDecorator):
    def eat(self, food):
        base_animal = self._animal
        while hasattr(base_animal, '_animal'):
            base_animal = base_animal._animal

        class_name = base_animal.__class__.__name__
        return f"{class_name} is going to eat {food}"

    def __getattr__(self, name):
        return getattr(self._animal, name)
```



Wait! We added behavior earlier as well? Decorator!

(Remember the dogs barking and eating??)

```
# =====
# ✅ Client Code: Eating Loud vs Loud Eating
# =====
if __name__ == "__main__":
    dog = Dog()

    print("\n==== Eating Loud Dog ===")
    eating_loud_dog = MakeSoundDecorator(EatDecorator(dog), "loud")
    print(eating_loud_dog.make_sound()) # WOOF!!!
    print(eating_loud_dog.eat("kibble")) # Dog is going to eat kibble

    print("\n==== Loud Eating Dog ===")
    loud_eating_dog = EatDecorator(MakeSoundDecorator(dog, "loud"))
    print(loud_eating_dog.make_sound()) # WOOF!!!
    print(loud_eating_dog.eat("kibble")) # Dog is going to eat kibble
```



Then why not the Decorator way?

Aspect	Decorator Pattern	Strategy Pattern
Purpose	Add or augment <i>functionalities</i> to objects dynamically without modifying their structure	Family of <i>algorithms</i> → encapsulate each → make them interchangeable Algorithm can vary independently from clients
Use Case	When you need to attach additional responsibilities to an object dynamically and transparently.	When you have multiple algorithms for a specific task and want to switch between them at runtime.
Structure	Utilizes composition to wrap objects with new behavior	Utilizes composition to delegate specific behaviors to different strategy classes

Then why not the Decorator way?

Aspect	Decorator Pattern	Strategy Pattern
Flexibility	Allows combining multiple behaviors by stacking decorators	Allows changing the behavior of a class by switching strategies (typically one strategy at a time)
Example Scenario	Adding scrolling, borders, or drop shadows to GUI	Implementing different sorting algorithms that can be selected based on the dataset.
Relation to Object	<i>Enhances the object by wrapping it, effectively changing its "skin".</i>	<i>Alters the object's behavior by changing its "brain", i.e., the underlying algorithm.</i>



Key takeaways

Advantages	Explanation
Variable Behavior	<p>Object's behavior is likely to change or vary <i>in different contexts</i> (e.g., a duck that can both fly and walk)</p> <p>→ encapsulating behaviors separately allows easy <i>swapping</i> or <i>modification</i></p>
Multiple Implementations	<p>Several ways to perform a specific action (e.g., different movement types: flying, walking, swimming)</p> <p>→ reuse and clear organization</p>



Key takeaways

Advantages	Explanation
Separation of Concerns	Keeping the core class focused on its primary responsibilities while delegating secondary behaviors (like movement) to separate components makes the code easier to understand, maintain, and test.
Adherence to SOLID Principles	Specifically, the open/closed principle is supported—your core class (e.g., Animal) is closed for modification but open for extension through new behaviors without modifying its code.
Dynamic Behavior Change	If the behavior needs to change at runtime based on different conditions (like an animal adapting its movement in response to environmental changes), separating it allows for dynamic switching of algorithms.

Object Oriented Programming

Behavioral Design Patterns: Command

IT620



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What if objects want to talk to each other via “messengers”?

```
# Receiver: Basic Animal class
class Animal:
    def speak(self):
        print("Animal makes a generic sound.")

    def run(self):
        print("Animal is running.")

# Receiver: Concrete Animal - Dog
class Dog(Animal):
    def speak(self):
        print("Woof!")

    def run(self):
        print("Dog runs energetically.")
```

```
from abc import ABC, abstractmethod

# Command Interface
class Command(ABC):
    @abstractmethod
    def execute(self):
        pass

# Concrete Command to make the animal speak
class MakeSoundCommand(Command):
    def __init__(self, animal: Animal):
        self.animal = animal

    def execute(self):
        self.animal.speak()

# Concrete Command to make the animal run
class RunCommand(Command):
    def __init__(self, animal: Animal):
        self.animal = animal

    def execute(self):
        self.animal.run()
```



What if objects want to talk to each other via “messengers”?

```
from abc import ABC, abstractmethod

# Command Interface
class Command(ABC):

    @abstractmethod
    # Concrete Command to make the animal speak
    class MakeSoundCommand(Command):
        def __init__(self, animal: Animal):
            self.animal = animal

        def execute(self):
            self.animal.speak()

    # Concrete Command to make the animal run
    class RunCommand(Command):
        def __init__(self, animal: Animal):
            self.animal = animal

        def execute(self):
            self.animal.run()
```

```
# Invoker: A RemoteControl that triggers commands
class RemoteControl:

    def __init__(self):
        # A dictionary mapping command names to command objects.
        self.commands = {}

    def set_command(self, name: str, command: Command):
        """Assign a command to a button name."""
        self.commands[name] = command

    def press_button(self, name: str):
        """Simulate pressing a button to execute a command."""
        if name in self.commands:
            print(f"Executing '{name}' command:")
            self.commands[name].execute()
        else:
            print(f"No command found for '{name}'")
```



The *sender* → *messenger* → *receiver* paradigm

```
# Client code: setting up the scenario
if __name__ == "__main__":
    # Create a receiver
    dog = Dog()

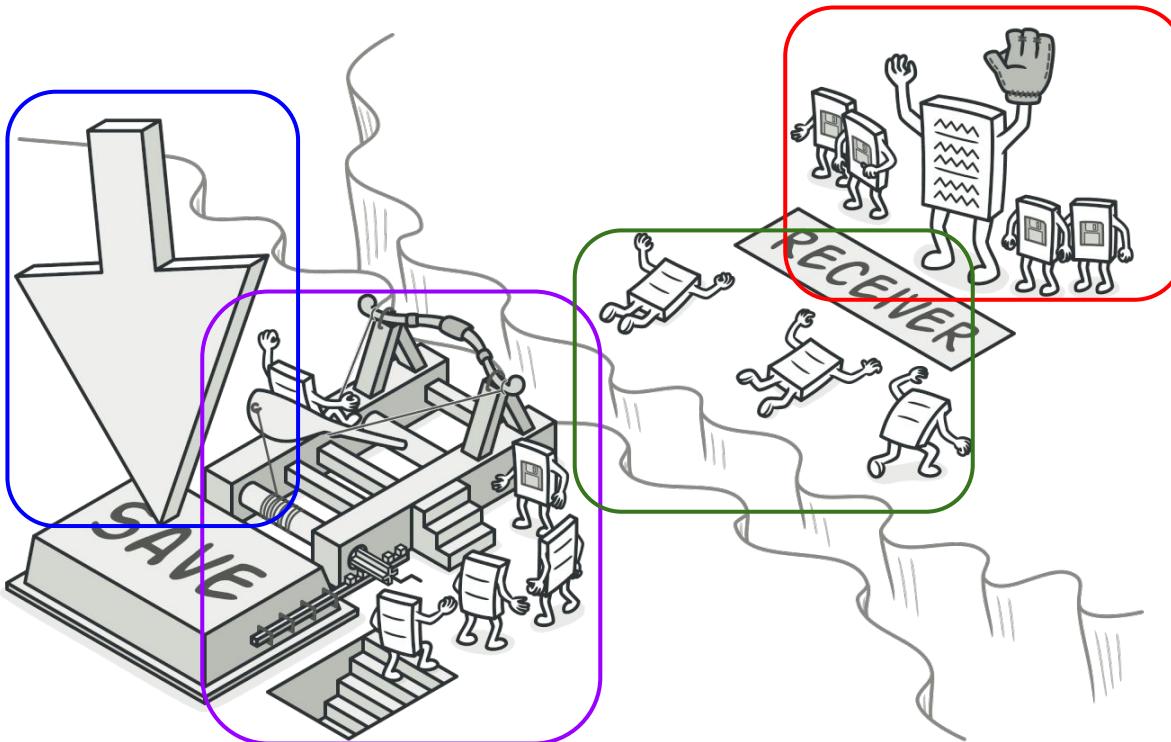
    # Create concrete command objects, each with the receiver (dog)
    sound_command = MakeSoundCommand(dog)
    run_command = RunCommand(dog)

    # Create an invoker, such as a remote control
    remote = RemoteControl()
    remote.set_command("sound", sound_command)
    remote.set_command("run", run_command)

    # Simulate button presses
    remote.press_button("sound") # Expected to print: "woof!"
    remote.press_button("run")   # Expected to print: "Dog runs energetically."
```

```
graph TD; A[Create a receiver] --> B[Create concrete command objects]; B --> C[Create an invoker]; C --> D[Simulate button presses]
```

The *sender* → *messenger* → *receiver* paradigm



Why Command?

Benefit	Description
Decoupling	<i>Separates</i> the object that invokes the command (Invoker) from the <i>one that knows how to execute it</i> (Receiver)
Extensibility (SOLID)	New commands can be <i>added</i> without changing existing code (open/closed principle).
Reusability	Commands can be <i>reused</i> across different invokers or contexts.
Undo/Redo Support	Commands can store state for <i>undo/redo</i> functionality
Command Queuing/Logging	Commands can be stored, logged, or <i>executed later</i> (e.g., task queues)
Macro Commands	Multiple commands can be <i>combined</i> into one command to execute in sequence.
Flexible Invocation	Commands can be parameterized, passed as arguments, or <i>triggered</i> in various ways



How to get “*undo*” done?

```
from abc import ABC, abstractmethod
```

```
# Command interface with
```

```
class Command(ABC):
```

```
    @abstractmethod
```

```
    def execute(self):
```

```
        pass
```

```
    @abstractmethod
```

```
    def undo(self):
```

```
        pass
```

Usage

```
dog = Dog()
```

```
stand_cmd = StandCommand(dog)
```

```
remote = RemoteWithUndo()
```

```
remote.execute_command(stand_cmd) # Dog stands up.
```

```
remote.undo_last() # Dog sits down.
```

```
# Receiver
```

```
class Dog:
```

```
    def stand(self):
```

```
        print("Dog stands up.")
```

```
    def sit(self):
```

```
        print("Dog sits down.")
```

```
        Command.undo(self)
```

```
else:
```

```
    print("No command to undo.")
```



How to get “*undo*” done?

```
from abc import ABC, abstractmethod
```

```
# Command interface with
```

```
class Command(ABC):
```

```
    @abstractmethod
```

```
    def execute(self):
```

```
        pass
```

```
    @abstractmethod
```

```
    def undo(self):
```

```
        pass
```

Usage

```
dog = Dog()
```

```
stand_cmd = StandCommand(dog)
```

```
remote = RemoteWithUndo()
```

```
remote.execute_command(stand_cmd) # Dog stands up.
```

```
remote.undo_last() # Dog sits down.
```

```
# Receiver
```

```
class Dog:
```

```
    def stand(self):
```

```
        print("Dog stands up.")
```

```
    def sit(self):
```

```
        print("Dog sits down.")
```

```
        Command.undo(self)
```

```
else:
```

```
    print("No command to undo.")
```

How to “compose commands (macro)?”

```
from abc import ABC, abstractmethod

# Command interface with undo
class Command(ABC):
    @abstractmethod
    def execute(self):
        pass

    @abstractmethod
    def undo(self):
        pass
```

```
# Concrete command for stand
class StandCommand(Command):
    def __init__(self, dog):
        self.dog = dog

    def execute(self):
        self.dog.stand()

    def undo(self):
        self.dog.sit()
```

```
# Usage
dog = Dog()
run = RunCommand(dog)
speak = SpeakCommand(dog)
sit = SitCommand(dog)

macro = MacroCommand([run, speak, sit])
macro.execute()
macro.undo()
```

```
def undo(self):
    print("...undo barking (silent)")
```

```
# Receiver
class Dog:
    def stand(self):
        print("Dog stands up.")
```

```
def sit(self):
    print("Dog sits down.")
```

```
group multiple commands
class MacroCommand(Command):
    def __init__(self, commands):
        self.commands = commands

    def execute(self):
        for command in self.commands:
            command.execute()
```

```
def undo(self):
    for command in reversed(self.commands):
        command.undo()
```



How to “queue up commands”?

```
from abc import ABC, abstractmethod

# Command interface with undo
class Command(ABC):
    @abstractmethod
    def execute(self):
        pass
```

```
# Concrete command for stand
class StandCommand(Command):
    def __init__(self, dog):
        self.dog = dog
```

```
@abstractmethod
def undo(self):
    pass
```

```
# More actions for stand
class SitCommand(Command):
    def __init__(self, dog):
        self.dog = dog
```

```
def execute(self):
    self.dog.sit()
```

```
def undo(self):
    self.dog.stand()
```

```
def update(self):
    self.dog.sit()
```

```
def undo(self):
    self.dog.stand()
```

Insert Elements from Rear Insert Elements from Front



Usage

```
dog = Dog()
queue = CommandQueue()
queue.add_command(StandCommand(dog))
queue.add_command(SpeakCommand(dog))
queue.add_command(SitCommand(dog))
```

All commands are executed in order later
queue.run()

Receiver

```
class Dog:
    def stand(self):
        print("Dog stands up.")

    def sit(self):
        print("Dog sits down.")
```

actions import deque

andQueue:

```
init__(self):
    self.queue = deque()
```

```
add_command(self, command: Command):
    self.queue.append(command)
```

run(self):

while self.queue:

```
    command = self.queue.popleft()
    command.execute()
```