



# MODULE 1: CORE PYTHON & DATA

WEEK: 1 LECTURE: 9

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# A NEW WAY OF THINKING: INTRODUCTION TO OBJECT-ORIENTED PROGRAMMING (OOP)

**Welcome back!** We've mastered functions, which allow us to create reusable blocks of code. But as our programs grow, we face a new challenge: managing complexity. Today, we learn a new paradigm for structuring our code that is the foundation of modern software: **Object-Oriented Programming**. It's not just new syntax; it's a new way to think about problems.

# TODAY'S AGENDA

- **The "Why" - From Data to Objects**

- The Problem with Procedural Code: Managing Complexity
- The Core Idea of OOP: Bundling Data and Behavior
- Analogy: The Blueprint and the House (Classes and Objects)
- Defining a Class: The `class` Keyword
- The Constructor: Initializing an Object with `__init__()`
- The Magic of `self`: The Instance Variable
- Interactive Exercise: Creating Your First Dog Object

- **Bringing Objects to Life with Methods**

- What are Methods? Functions that Belong to a Class
- Defining and Calling Methods
- How Methods Use `self` to Modify an Object's State
- Special Methods: Making Your Objects User-Friendly with `__str__()`
- *Interactive Exercise: Making the Dog Bark and Sit*

# AGENDA CONT.

- **Putting It All Together & The Hands-On Lab**
  - Key Takeaways: Class vs. Object, Attribute vs. Method
  - The Power of Encapsulation
  - **Hands-On Lab: The Car Class**
  - Q&A and Wrap-up

# THE "WHY" - THE NEED FOR OOP & THE CLASS BLUEPRINT

## THE PROBLEM WITH PROCEDURAL CODE: A DEEPER LOOK

Imagine we're building a simple game with two characters. Using what we know, we might store their data in dictionaries:

```
player1 = {"name": "Gandalf", "hp": 100, "mana": 200}  
player2 = {"name": "Aragorn", "hp": 150, "stamina": 120}
```

```
def cast_spell(player, cost):  
    player["mana"] -= cost  
    print(f"{player['name']} casts a spell!")
```

```
def swing_sword(player, cost):  
    player["stamina"] -= cost  
    print(f"{player['name']} swings their sword!")
```

```
cast_spell(player1, 30)  
# swing_sword(player1, 10) # This would cause an error!  
Gandalf has no stamina.
```

# THE PROBLEMS:

- **No Connection:** The player data and the take\_damage function are completely separate. There's nothing stopping us from accidentally calling a function with the wrong kind of data.
- **Hard to Manage:** What if we add 50 more functions? use\_potion, equip\_armor, level\_up. Our code becomes a long, confusing list of functions and variables.
- **Not Reusable:** If we want to create a new game with a similar "character" concept, we have to copy and paste all this code and hope we don't miss anything.

# THE SOLUTION: THE FOUR PILLARS OF OOP

- Object-Oriented Programming solves these problems by allowing us to create "objects" that bundle data and behavior together. It's built on four main principles:
  - **Encapsulation:** Bundling data (attributes) and the methods that operate on that data into a single object. This is the core concept we are learning today. It protects data from outside interference.
  - **Abstraction:** Hiding the complex implementation details and showing only the essential features of the object. (e.g., you press the "on" button on a TV without needing to know how the electronics work).
  - **Inheritance:** Allowing a new class to adopt the properties and methods of an existing class. (e.g., Dog and Cat classes can both inherit from a general Animal class).
  - **Polymorphism:** Allowing objects of different classes to be treated as objects of a common super class. (e.g., you can tell both a Dog and a Cat to `make_sound()`, and they will respond differently).



# OUR FOCUS IS ON ENCAPSULATION.

## ANALOGY: THE BLUEPRINT AND THE HOUSE

- A **Class** is like a blueprint. It defines the structure and capabilities of something. A blueprint for a house defines how many rooms it will have (attributes) and what you can do in it, like open doors (methods).
- An **Object** is the actual thing created from the blueprint. It's the physical house you build. You can build many houses (objects) from the same blueprint (class), but each one is a separate, unique instance.



# DEFINING A CLASS: THE CLASS KEYWORD

- We use the class keyword to create the blueprint. Class names, by convention, use **PascalCase** (or CapWords), where each word is capitalized.

```
class Dog:
```

```
    pass # The 'pass' keyword means we're leaving the body empty for now
```

# THE CONSTRUCTOR: `__init__()`

- How do we give our dog a name and an age when we create it? We use a special method called `__init__`, the **initializer** or **constructor**. This method runs automatically *one time* when you create a new object from the class.
- Methods that start and end with double underscores (`__`) are special in Python. They are often called "dunder" methods.

# EXAMPLE

```
class Dog:
    # The initializer method
    def __init__(self, name, age):
        # We are creating the attributes for our object here
        self.name = name
        self.age = age
        print(f"A new dog named {self.name} has been created!")
```

# THE MAGIC OF SELF

- What is self? It's the most important concept in OOP.
- self refers to the **specific object instance** that is being created or worked on.  
When you create a Dog named Fido, `self.name = name` means "take this specific dog, Fido, and set *its* name attribute to the value that was passed in."

## EXAMPLE

# Creating two different Dog objects from the same Dog class blueprint

```
dog1 = Dog("Fido", 4)
```

```
dog2 = Dog("Lucy", 2)
```

# Accessing their attributes using dot notation

```
print(f"{dog1.name} is {dog1.age} years old.") # -> Fido is 4 years old.
```

```
print(f"{dog2.name} is {dog2.age} years old.") # -> Lucy is 2 years old.
```


# IN-CLASS EXERCISE: MODELING A STUDENT

- Create a class named Student.
- In the `__init__` method, accept `name` and `student_id` as parameters.
- Create the attributes `self.name`, `self.student_id`.
- Add another attribute `self.courses` and initialize it as an empty list `[]`.
- Create two different Student objects and print their names and IDs.



# BRINGING OBJECTS TO LIFE WITH METHODS

## WHAT ARE METHODS?

- Methods are simply functions that are defined inside a class. They represent the behaviors of an object. The first parameter of every method is always self, which gives the method access to the object's attributes.
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```
class Dog:
```

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

```
        self.name = name
```

```
        self.age = age
```

```
        self.is_sitting = False # Add a new attribute to track state
```

```
    # A method to represent a behavior
```

```
    def bark(self):
```

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

```
    # A method that changes the object's internal state
```

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

```
        print(f"{self.name} is now sitting.")
```

```
        self.is_sitting = True
```

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

```
        print(f"{self.name} is now standing.")
```

```
        self.is_sitting = False
```



# CALLING METHODS

- You call methods on an object instance using dot notation.

```
my_dog = Dog("Rex", 5)
```

```
my_dog.bark() # -> Rex says: Woof!
```

```
print(f"Is Rex sitting? {my_dog.is_sitting}") # -> Is Rex sitting? False
```

```
my_dog.sit()
```

```
print(f"Is Rex sitting? {my_dog.is_sitting}") # -> Is Rex sitting? True
```

# SPECIAL METHODS: `__STR__()`

- What happens if you try to print an object directly?
- `print(my_dog)` -> `<__main__.Dog object at 0x...>` (Not very useful!)
- The `__str__` method allows you to define a user-friendly string representation of your object.



```
class Dog:
```

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

```
        self.name = name
```

```
        self.age = age
```

```
    def bark(self):
```

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

```
# Define the string representation
```

```
def __str__(self):
```

```
    return f"Dog(Name: {self.name}, Age: {self.age})"
```

```
my_dog = Dog("Rex", 5)
```

```
print(my_dog) # Now this will print our custom string! -> Dog(Name: Rex, Age: 5)
```



# IN-CLASS EXERCISE: BANK ACCOUNT

- Create a BankAccount class.
- The `__init__` method should take an `owner_name` and an initial balance (defaulting to 0).
- Create a `deposit(self, amount)` method that adds to the balance.
- Create a `withdraw(self, amount)` method that subtracts from the balance. Add a check to prevent withdrawing more money than is in the account.
- Create a `__str__` method that returns a string like "Account for John Doe with balance: \$500".

# PUTTING IT ALL TOGETHER & THE HANDS-ON LAB

## KEY TAKEAWAYS

- **Class:** The blueprint (e.g., `class Car:`).
- **Object (Instance):** The real thing created from the blueprint (e.g., `my_blue_toyota = Car(...)`).
- **Attribute:** A variable that belongs to an object (data, e.g., `my_blue_toyota.color`). Defined in `__init__`.
- **Method:** A function that belongs to an object (behavior, e.g., `my_blue_toyota.start()`).

# THE POWER OF ENCAPSULATION

- This core OOP principle means bundling the data (attributes) and the methods that operate on that data into a single, self-contained unit (the object).

The BankAccount object *manages its own balance*. You don't have separate functions floating around; you just tell the object what to do (`my_account.deposit(100)`), and it handles its own internal state. This makes code safer, more organized, and easier to reason about.



# HANDS-ON LAB: THE CAR CLASS

- **Goal:** Define a Car class that models a real-world car with its properties and actions.
- **Step-by-Step Instructions:**
  - Create a new file `car_class.py`

## PART 1: THE BLUEPRINT (\_\_\_INIT\_\_\_)

- Define a class named Car.
- Create the `__init__` method. It should accept brand and color as parameters.
- Inside `__init__`, create the attributes `self.brand`, `self.color`.
- Add a new attribute called `self.is_running` and initialize it to `False`. This will track the car's state.

## PART 2: ADDING BEHAVIORS (METHODS)

- Define a method called `start()`.
  - This method should check if `self.is_running` is already `True`. If it is, print a message like "The Toyota is already running."
  - If it's `False`, it should set `self.is_running` to `True` and print a message like "The Toyota starts. Vroom vroom!"
  - (Use f-strings to include the car's brand in the messages!)
- Define a method called `stop()`.
  - This method should check if the car is running. If it is, set `self.is_running` to `False` and print a message like "The Toyota engine is turned off."
  - If it's already off, print "The Toyota is already off."

## PART 3: TESTING YOUR CLASS

- Below your class definition, create two different Car objects (instances) with different brands and colors. For example:

```
my_car = Car("Toyota", "blue")
```

```
your_car = Car("Ford", "red")
```

- Print the attributes of each car to make sure they were created correctly.
- Call the start() and stop() methods on your car objects. Call them multiple times in a row to test the logic that checks if the car is already on or off.

## CHALLENGE / BONUS FEATURES:

- **Add a `__str__` method** to your Car class to give it a nice string representation, like "A blue Toyota".
- **Add more attributes** in `__init__`, such as model and year. Update the `__str__` method to include them.
- **Create a state-aware method:** Add a method `drive(self, distance)`. This method should only work if `self.is_running` is `True`. If the car is off, it should print a message telling the user to start the car first. If it's on, it should print `f"Driving {distance} miles."`.

# THE POWER OF INHERITANCE

- This core OOP principle allows a new class (child) to reuse and extend the functionality of an existing class (parent). Instead of duplicating code, you place the common attributes and methods in the parent and let child classes inherit them. For example, a Dog and a Cat both share behaviors like `eat()` and `sleep()` from an Animal class but can also have their own unique methods like `bark()` or `meow()`. This makes code more organized, reusable, and easier to maintain.

# THE POWER OF POLYMORPHISM

- Polymorphism means “many forms” — the same method name can behave differently depending on the object. It allows us to write code that can handle different types of objects in a uniform way. For example, both a Circle and a Rectangle can have an `area()` method, but each calculates it differently. This makes code more flexible and scalable.



# HANDS-ON LAB: THE SHAPE CLASS

- Goal: Define a Shape base class and create child classes like Circle and Rectangle so the same method name (area) behaves differently across types.
- Step-by-Step Instructions :
  - Create a new file `shape_class.py`

# PART 1 — THE BLUEPRINT (\_\_\_INIT\_\_\_)

- Define a class named Shape.
- Inside Shape, define a method area() that contains only pass (placeholder).

## PART 2 — ADDING BEHAVIORS (METHODS)

- Define a class `Circle` that inherits from `Shape`.
- Add an `__init__` that accepts `radius` and sets `self.radius`.
- Implement `area()` in `Circle` to return  $3.14 * \text{self.radius} * \text{self.radius}$ .
- Define a class `Rectangle` that inherits from `Shape`.
- Add an `__init__` that accepts `width` and `height` and sets `self.width`, `self.height`.
- Implement `area()` in `Rectangle` to return `self.width * self.height`.

## PART 3 — TESTING YOUR CLASSES

- Create a list `shapes = [Circle(5), Rectangle(4, 6)]`.
- Loop over `shapes` and call `shape.area()` for each item.
- Observe that each object responds to `area()` in its own way.

## CHALLENGE / BONUS FEATURES:

- Add a Triangle class with base and height; implement `area()` as  $0.5 * \text{base} * \text{height}$ .
- Implement `__str__` for each shape to return a friendly description.
- Write `total_area(shapes)` that sums `area()` for any list of Shape objects.

# THE POWER OF ABSTRACTION

- Abstraction is about hiding unnecessary details and exposing only what's essential. In Python, this is often done with abstract classes that define a contract. Subclasses must implement the abstract methods, but each can do so in their own way. For example, a `PaymentMethod` class may define `pay()`, but how the payment happens depends on whether it's `CreditCard`, `PayPal`, or `Cash`. This makes systems more organized and extensible.

# HANDS-ON LAB: THE PAYMENT SYSTEM

- Goal: Define a `PaymentMethod` abstract base class that specifies a contract, then implement concrete payment classes that follow it.
- Step-by-Step Instructions :
  - Create a new file `payment_system.py`



# PART 1 — THE BLUEPRINT (ABSTRACT CLASS)

- Import ABC and abstractmethod from the abc module.
- Define a class PaymentMethod that inherits from ABC.
- Inside it, declare an abstract method `pay(self, amount)` using `@abstractmethod`.

## PART 2 — ADDING BEHAVIORS (METHODS)

- Define a class `CreditCard` that inherits from `PaymentMethod`.
- Implement `pay(self, amount)` to print "Paid \$<amount> using Credit Card".
- Define a class `PayPal` that inherits from `PaymentMethod`.
- Implement `pay(self, amount)` to print "Paid \$<amount> using PayPal".

## PART 3 — TESTING YOUR CLASSES

- Create a list methods = [CreditCard(), PayPal()].
- Loop for m in methods: m.pay(100) and observe each implementation run.
- Note that you cannot instantiate PaymentMethod directly — it enforces the contract.

## CHALLENGE / BONUS FEATURES:

- Create a Cash class that implements `pay()` (no external API required).
- Add a new abstract method `refund(self, amount)` to `PaymentMethod` and implement it in all subclasses.
- Add simple validation (e.g., raise `ValueError` for negative amounts).
- Extend to support currencies (add a currency attribute and format outputs).

# CLASS ATTRIBUTES VS INSTANCE ATTRIBUTES

- So far, we've only seen instance attributes — data unique to each object. But sometimes, we need information that is shared by all objects of a class. These are called class attributes.
- Instance attributes → unique per object (e.g., each student has their own name, age, ID). Class attributes → shared across all objects (e.g., all students belong to the same school). This distinction helps us track data at both the individual and collective level.

## CODE EXAMPLE:

- `class Dog:`
- `species = "Canis familiaris"`
- `count = 0`
- `def __init__(self, name):`
- `self.name = name`
- `Dog.count += 1`
- `print(Dog("Buddy").name, Dog.count) # Buddy 1`

# MODIFYING & DELETING OBJECT PROPERTIES

- Python objects are dynamic. After creating an object, you can:
- Modify existing attributes
- Add new attributes
- Delete attributes
- This flexibility makes Python objects behave like “living” entities that can evolve over time.



## CODE EXAMPLE:

- `class Car:`
- `def __init__(self): self.color="blue"`
- `c = Car(); c.color="red" # modify`
- `c.mileage=50000 # add`
- `del c.mileage # delete`
- `print(getattr(c,"mileage","N/A")) # N/A`

# PYTHON NAMING CONVENTIONS & PRIVACY

- Python does not enforce access control like `private`/`protected` in Java or C++. Instead, it uses naming conventions to signal intent:
- Public (default):
  - Accessible by everyone.
- Protected (`_single_underscore`):
  - Internal use only, but still accessible.
- Private (`__double_underscore`):
  - Python applies name mangling to discourage direct access. This helps developers respect boundaries without restricting flexibility.

## CODE EXAMPLE:

- `class Account:`
- `def __init__(self):`
- `self.owner="Alice"   # public`
- `self._bal=1000       # protected`
- `self.__pin=1234       # private`
- `a=Account()`
- `print(a.owner, a._bal, a._Account__pin)`

# HANDS-ON LAB: THE ANIMAL CLASS

- **Goal:** To apply all the core OOP concepts—Encapsulation, Inheritance, Polymorphism, and Abstraction—by creating a system of related classes. This lab will also reinforce the use of class attributes and naming conventions.
- **File:** Create a new file named `zoo.py`.

# PART 1: THE ABSTRACT BLUEPRINT (ABSTRACTION)

- **Concept:** We'll start by defining a "contract." We know every animal in our zoo needs to eat and make a sound, but we don't know *how* yet. This is a perfect use case for an abstract base class.
- **Instructions:**
  - Import ABC and abstractmethod from the abc module.
  - Define a class named Animal that inherits from ABC.
  - In the `__init__` method, it should accept a name and species. Create `self.name` and `self.species` as **instance attributes**.
  - Define a class attribute `zoo_name = "The Python Zoo"`. Class attributes are shared by all instances.
  - Declare an abstract method `make_sound(self)` using the `@abstractmethod` decorator. It should only contain `pass`.
  - Declare another abstract method `eat(self)`. It should also only contain `pass`.

# PART 2: CREATING CONCRETE CLASSES (INHERITANCE)

- **Concept:** Now we'll create specific types of animals. These "child" classes will inherit the common attributes (name, species, zoo\_name) from the Animal "parent" class and provide their own concrete implementations for the abstract methods.
- **Instructions:**
- **Create a Lion class that inherits from Animal.**
  - In its `__init__`, it should call the parent's `__init__` method using `super().__init__(name, species="Lion")`.
  - Implement the `make_sound()` method to print "Roar!".
- **Create a Monkey class that inherits from Animal.**
  - In its `__init__`, use `super().__init__(name, species="Monkey")`.
  - Implement `make_sound()` to print "Ooh ooh aah aah!".
  - Implement `eat()` to print `f"{self.name} peels and eats a banana."`.
- **Create a Zookeeper class (this one does *not* inherit from Animal).**
  - Its `__init__` should take a name.
  - Add a **protected** instance attribute `self._employee_id` and set it to a random number (e.g., `random.randint(1000, 9999)`—don't forget to import `random`).
  - Add a **private** instance attribute `self.__salary` and set it to a value like 45000.

# PART 3: BRINGING THE ZOO TO LIFE (POLYMORPHISM & CLASS ATTRIBUTES)

- Concept: The power of polymorphism is that we can treat different objects in a uniform way. We can ask any Animal to `make_sound()`, and it will respond correctly based on its specific class. We will also see how class attributes work.
- Instructions:
- Create a list called `animals` and populate it with instances of your concrete classes:
- code

```
Python
animals = [
    Lion("Leo"),
    Monkey("Momo")
]
```
- Create an instance of your Zookeeper class: `zookeeper = Zookeeper("Hamza")`.
- Demonstrate Polymorphism:
- Write a for loop that iterates through the `animals` list.
- Inside the loop, call `animal.make_sound()` and `animal.eat()` for each animal.
- Observe how each object responds to the same method call in its own unique way.
- Demonstrate Class Attributes:
- For each animal in your loop, print `f"{animal.name} lives at {animal.zoo_name}"`.
- Notice that you can access `zoo_name` from both the instance (`leo.zoo_name`) and the class itself (`Lion.zoo_name`).



# CHALLENGE / BONUS FEATURES (APPLYING ALL CONCEPTS)

- **Modify an Object:** After creating your Lion object, add a new attribute to it directly: `leo.favorite_toy = "Big Red Ball"`. Print this new attribute to show that Python objects are dynamic.
- **Naming Conventions & Privacy:**
  - Try to print the zookeeper's protected ID: `print(zookeeper._employee_id)`. Observe that it works, but the underscore signals that you *shouldn't* do this.
  - Try to print the zookeeper's private salary: `print(zookeeper.__salary)`. Observe that this causes an `AttributeError`.
  - Now, access the "mangled" name: `print(zookeeper._Zookeeper__salary)`. This demonstrates how name mangling works to discourage direct access.

- **Extend with a New Class:**

- Create a Penguin class that inherits from Animal.
- Implement its `make_sound()` and `eat()` methods.
- Add a new method unique to penguins, like `slide()`, that prints `f"{self.name} slides on its belly!"`.
- Add a penguin to your animals list and re-run your loop.

- **Create a `feed_animals` Method:**

- Add a method to your Zookeeper class called `feed_animals(self, animals_list)`.
- This method should take a list of Animal objects as a parameter.
- It should loop through the list and call the `eat()` method on each animal, demonstrating how different classes can interact. Call this method with your list of animals.