✓ Generators in Python — Complete Explanation with Examples

What is a Generator?

A **generator** in Python is a special type of iterator that allows you to iterate through a sequence of values **lazily**, meaning it generates items **one at a time** only when needed.

A Key Features:

- Uses yield instead of return.
- Automatically remembers its state between calls.
- More memory-efficient for large datasets.

♦ Why Use Generators?

- To handle **large data** without loading everything into memory.
- To improve performance.
- To implement **pipelines** for data processing.

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1. Using a Function with yield

```
def my_generator():
    yield 1
    yield 2
    yield 3

gen = my_generator()

for value in gen:
    print(value)
```

Output:

1 2

3

2. Using Generator Expressions (like list comprehensions)

```
gen = (x*x for x in range(5))
for val in gen:
    print(val)
```

Output:

16

Difference Between return and yield

Feature return yield

Terminates function Yes No, it pauses

Returns A single value A generator object

Use case Regular functions Iterators / streams of data

♦ Real-time Example: Fibonacci Series Generator

```
def fibonacci(limit):
    a, b = 0, 1
    while a < limit:
        yield a
        a, b = b, a + b

for num in fibonacci(10):
    print(num)</pre>
```

Output:

ORTHING SET 1 Checking Generator Type

```
def sample():
    yield 1
print(type(sample())) # <class 'generator'>
```

When to Use a Generator?

- Reading large files line by line
- Streaming data (e.g., logs, sockets)
- Implementing infinite sequences (e.g., Fibonacci, prime numbers)

✓ 1. Reading a Large File Line by Line

```
def read_large_file(file_path):
    with open(file_path, 'r') as file:
        for line in file:
            yield line.strip()

for line in read_large_file('bigdata.txt'):
    print(line)
```

Use case: Useful for processing huge log files or datasets without loading the entire file into memory.

✓ 2. Sensor Data Simulation

```
import random
import time

def temperature_sensor():
    while True:
        yield round(random.uniform(20.0, 30.0), 2)
        time.sleep(1)

sensor = temperature_sensor()

for _ in range(5):
    print(next(sensor))
```

Use case: Simulate real-time sensor readings (e.g., IoT device streaming data).

✓ 3. Pagination Example (Chunking Data)

```
def get_items_in_pages(items, page_size):
    for i in range(0, len(items), page_size):
        yield items[i:i+page_size]

data = list(range(1, 21))  # 20 items

for page in get_items_in_pages(data, 5):
    print("Page:", page)
```

Use case: Split long lists into smaller chunks for pagination in web apps or reports.

✓ 4. Countdown Timer Generator

```
import time

def countdown(seconds):
    while seconds > 0:
        yield seconds
        seconds -= 1
        time.sleep(1)

for sec in countdown(5):
    print(f"Time left: {sec} seconds")
```

Use case: Building a timer or countdown feature in a game or productivity tool.

✓ 5. Streaming Prime Numbers (infinite generator)

```
def generate_primes():
    num = 2
    while True:
        for i in range(2, num):
            if num % i == 0:
                break
    else:
        yield num
    num += 1

prime_gen = generate_primes()

for _ in range(10):
    print(next(prime_gen))
```

Use case: Infinite sequence generation — ideal for algorithm testing or simulations.

1. What is a Decorator?

A decorator in Python is a function that modifies the behavior of another function or method without changing its code.

It's a **higher-order function** (a function that takes another function as input and returns a function).

2. Function as First-Class Object

In Python, functions are **first-class citizens**. This means:

Functions can be passed as arguments.

Functions can be returned from other functions.

Functions can be assigned to variables.

Example:

```
def greet():
    return "Hello"

hello = greet # assign function to a variableprint(hello()) # prints "Hello"
```

3. Basic Decorator Syntax

```
def my_decorator(func):
    def wrapper():
        print("Before function call")
        func()
        print("After function call")
```

```
return wrapper
@my_decoratordef say_hello():
    print("Hello!")

say_hello()

Output:
Before function call
Hello!After function call
```

4. How Decorators Work (Flow Diagram)

```
Original Function

Decorator Function

Wrapper Function

Modified Output
```

5. Using Decorators Without @ Syntax

```
def say_hi():
    print("Hi!")

decorated = my_decorator(say_hi)
decorated()
```

6. Decorator with Arguments

```
To handle arguments, use *args and **kwargs:
def my decorator (func):
    def wrapper(*args, **kwargs):
        print("Function is being called with:", args, kwargs)
        return func (*args, **kwargs)
    return wrapper
@my_decoratordef add(x, y):
    return x + y
print (add (5, 3))
```

7. Real-Time Use Cases

♦ Logging

```
def log(func):
    def wrapper(*args, **kwargs):
        print(f"Calling {func.__name__}) with {args}, {kwargs}")
        return func (*args, **kwargs)
    return wrapper
@logdef multiply(a, b):
    return a * b
```

Execution Time Tracker

```
import time
def timer(func):
    def wrapper(*args, **kwargs):
```

```
start = time.time()
        result = func(*args, **kwargs)
        end = time. time()
        print(f"{func. name } executed in {end-start:.4f} sec")
        return result
    return wrapper
@timerdef slow_task():
    time. sleep (2)
    print("Task done")
Authentication
def authenticate(func):
    def wrapper (user):
        if user.get("logged_in"):
            return func (user)
        else:
            return "Access Denied"
    return wrapper
@authenticatedef show_dashboard(user):
    return f"Welcome {user['name']}"
user = {"name": "Alice", "logged_in": True}print(show_dashboard(user))
```

8. Nesting Multiple Decorator

```
def decorator1(func):
   def wrapper():
```

```
print("Decorator 1")
        return func()
    return wrapper
def decorator2(func):
    def wrapper():
        print("Decorator 2")
        return func()
    return wrapper
@decorator1@decorator2def say_hi():
    print("Hi!")
say_hi()
Output:
Decorator 1
Decorator 2
Hi!
```

9. Class-Based Decorator

```
class Logger:
    def __init__(self, func):
        self.func = func

def __call__(self, *args, **kwargs):
        print(f"Calling {self.func.__name__})")
```

```
return self.func(*args, **kwargs)
@Loggerdef greet(name):
    print(f"Hello {name}")
greet("Tom")
```

10. Built-in Decorators in Python

11. functools.wraps to Preserve Metadata

```
from functools import wraps
def my_decorator(func): @wraps(func)
```

```
def wrapper(*args, **kwargs):
        print("Calling function")
        return func (*args, **kwargs)
    return wrapper
@my_decoratordef say_hi():
    """This function says hi"""
    print("Hi")
print(say_hi.__name__) # say_hiprint(say_hi.__doc__) # This function says
hi
Example:
def admin_required(func):
    def wrapper (user):
        if user.get("role") == "admin":
            return func (user)
        else:
            return "Access Denied. Admins only."
    return wrapper
@admin required
def delete user (user):
    return f"{user['name']}'s account deleted."
print(delete_user({"name": "Alice", "role": "admin"})) # ⋞ Allowed
print(delete_user({"name": "Bob", "role": "user"}))
                                                        # X Denied
```

Summary Table

Feature Description

Decorator Function that modifies another function

Syntax @decorator_name

With arguments Use *args, **kwargs

Use cases Logging, security, timing, validation

Nested decorators Multiple decorators can wrap a single function

functools.wraps Preserves metadata of original function

Classes and Objects in Python

♦ What is a Class?

A **class** is a blueprint for creating objects. It defines attributes (variables) and behaviors (methods) that the created objects will have.

∀ What is an Object?

An **object** is an instance of a class. When a class is defined, no memory is allocated. When it is instantiated (i.e., an object is created), memory is allocated.

Syntax of Class and Object

```
class ClassName:
```

```
# constructor

def __init__(self, attribute1, attribute2):
    self.attribute1 = attribute1
    self.attribute2 = attribute2
```

```
# method
  def display(self):
       print("Attribute 1:", self.attribute1)
       print("Attribute 2:", self.attribute2)
# creating an object
obj = ClassName("value1", "value2")
obj.display()
```

Real-Time Example: Student Class

```
class Student:
    def __init__(self, name, roll):
        self.name = name
        self.roll = roll

    def show_details(self):
        print(f"Student Name: {self.name}")
        print(f"Roll Number: {self.roll}")

# creating objects
s1 = Student("Amit", 101)
s2 = Student("Sara", 102)
s1. show_details()
s2. show details()
```

Key Concepts

```
Concept
```

Explanation

```
__init__() Constructor method called when object is created.

self Refers to the current instance of the class.

Methods Functions defined inside a class.

Attributes Variables associated with an object.
```

Example: Bank Account

```
class BankAccount:
    def init (self, holder name, balance=0):
        self.holder_name = holder_name
        self.balance = balance
    def deposit(self, amount):
        self.balance += amount
        print(f"{amount} deposited. New Balance: {self.balance}")
    def withdraw(self, amount):
        if self.balance >= amount:
            self.balance -= amount
            print(f"{amount} withdrawn. New Balance: {self.balance}")
        else:
            print("Insufficient Balance")
# Create account object
account = BankAccount ("John Doe", 1000)
```

```
account. deposit (500)
account. withdraw(700)
account. withdraw(1000)
```

Summary

Class = Template/Blueprint

Object = Instance of a class

Use __init__ to initialize object values.

Access object data using self.

Methods:

In Python, methods inside a class can be of three types:

Instance Methods

Class Methods

Static Methods

1. Instance Method

An instance method operates on the **object instance**. It can access and modify **instance** variables.

⊗ Syntax:

```
class MyClass:
    def instance_method(self):
        print("This is an instance method")
        Takes self as the first parameter
        Can access instance variables via self
```

⊗ Example:

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

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

pl = Person("Alice")

pl.greet()
```

2. Static Method

A static method **does not depend on object instance** or class variables. It behaves like a regular function but belongs to the class's namespace.

♦ Syntax:

```
class MyClass: @staticmethod
  def static_method():
    print("This is a static method")
```

Marked with @staticmethod

Takes no self or cls parameter

Cannot access or modify instance/class variables

⊗ Example:

```
class MathUtils:
    @staticmethod
    def add(a, b):
        return a + b

result = MathUtils.add(10, 20)
print("Sum:", result)
```

Difference Table

Feature	Instance Method	Static Method
Decorator	None	@staticmethod
First Parameter	self	No self or cls
Access to Instance	e ❤️Yes	× No
Access to Class		× No
Use Case	For object behavior	Utility/helper functions

Example with Both

```
class Student:
    school_name = "ABC School"

def __init__(self, name):
    self.name = name

def show_name(self): # Instance method
    print("Student Name:", self.name)

@staticmethod
    def school_info(): # Static method
        print("School is open 9 AM to 3 PM")

sl = Student("Ravi")

sl.show_name() # Instance method

Student.school_info() # Static method
```

♥ Class Method in Python

A class method is a method that operates on the class itself, not on an instance. It is used when you want to access or modify class-level data (i.e., variables shared by all instances).

Key Points

Feature

Description

Decorator

@classmethod

```
Feature
```

Description

```
First parameter cls (refers to the class, not object) Access to class vars \checkmark Yes Access to instance vars \mathbf{X} No
```

Syntax

```
class ClassName: @classmethod
  def method_name(cls):
     # access class variables using cls
```

Real-Time Example: Factory Method for Students

```
class Student:
    school_name = "ABC International School"

def __init__(self, name, grade):
    self.name = name
    self.grade = grade

def show(self): # Instance Method
    print(f"{self.name} studies in grade {self.grade} at
{Student.school_name}")
    @classmethod
    def change_school(cls, new_name):
```

```
cls.school_name = new_name
```

∜ Usage:

```
# Create instances
s1 = Student("Amit", 5)
s2 = Student("Sara", 6)
s1. show()
s2. show()
# Change school name using class method
Student.change_school("Global High School")
s1. show()
s2. show()
```

Output:

```
Amit studies in grade 5 at ABC International School
Sara studies in grade 6 at ABC International School
Amit studies in grade 5 at Global High School
Sara studies in grade 6 at Global High School
```

When to Use @classmethod?

To access/modify class variables

To define **factory methods** that create objects in a specific way

Example: Factory Method

```
class Employee:
    def __init__(self, name, salary):
        self.name = name
        self.salary = salary

@classmethod

def from_string(cls, emp_str):
        name, salary = emp_str.split("-")
        return cls(name, int(salary))

emp1 = Employee.from_string("John-50000")print(emp1.name) #
Johnprint(emp1.salary) # 50000
```

Method Overloading in Python

Method Overloading means having multiple methods with the same name but different parameters. In many languages like Java or C++, this is done explicitly.

But in Python, true method overloading is not supported directly because Python does not support function/method signatures like Java or C++. However, we can simulate method overloading using:

1. Using Default Arguments

```
class Greet:
    def hello(self, name=None):
        if name:
            print(f"Hello {name}")
        else:
            print("Hello there!")

g = Greet()
g.hello()  # Hello there!
g.hello("Amit")  # Hello Amit
```

2. Using *args for Variable Arguments

```
class Calculator:
    def add(self, *args):
        return sum(args)

c = Calculator()print(c.add(10, 20))  # 30print(c.add(5, 10, 15, 20))
# 50
```

Here, add() can accept any number of arguments, simulating method overloading.

3. Overriding @singledispatchmethod (Python 3.8+)

If you want real overloading behavior by type, you can use:

```
from functools import singledispatchmethod
class Printer:
                  @singledispatchmethod
    def show(self, arg):
        print(f"Default: {arg}")
    @show.register
    def _(self, arg: int):
        print(f"Integer: {arg}")
    @show.register
    def _(self, arg: str):
        print(f"String: {arg}")
p = Printer()
p. show (10)
                  # Integer: 10
p. show("Hello")
                  # String: Hello
p. show([1, 2, 3]) # Default: [1, 2, 3]
      ♥ @singledispatchmethod works like function overloading based on
      type of the first argument.
```

Summary

Technique Description

Default parameters Handle different cases with if checks

*args, **kwargs Flexible number of arguments

Description

@singledispatchmethod Real overloading based on argument type

Method Overriding in Python

Method Overriding is a key concept of Object-Oriented Programming (OOP) where a child class redefines a method of its parent class.

What Is Method Overriding?

Allows a **subclass** to provide a **specific implementation** of a method already defined in its **superclass**.

Used when child behavior is different from parent behavior.

Syntax Example

```
class Parent:
    def show(self):
        print("This is the parent method")
class Child(Parent):
    def show(self): # Overriding the parent method
        print("This is the child method")
# Usage
```

```
obj = Child()
obj.show()

Output:

pgsql
CopyEdit
This is the child method
```

⊘ Real-Time Example: Bank Account

```
class Account:
    def interest_rate(self):
        print("Interest rate is 4%")

class SavingsAccount(Account):
    def interest_rate(self): # Overriding
        print("Interest rate is 6% for savings account")

acc = SavingsAccount()

acc. interest_rate()

Output:

Interest rate is 6% for savings account
```

Calling Parent Method in Overridden Method

```
You can still call the parent's version using super():
```

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

```
print("Animal speaks")

class Dog(Animal):
    def speak(self):
        super().speak() # Call parent method
        print("Dog barks")

d = Dog()
d.speak()

Output:
Animal speaks
Dog barks
```

Key Differences: Overloading vs Overriding

Feature	Overloading	Overriding
Definition	Same method name, different params	Same method name in child class
Occurs In	Same class	Between parent and child class
Python Support	Simulated (*args, @singledispatch)	Fully supported using inheritance

Summary

Method overriding is used to **customize or extend** behavior.

The method must have same name and parameters.

Use super() to call the parent class version if needed.

Inheritance in Python

Inheritance allows a class (child or derived class) to acquire the properties and methods of another class (parent or base class). It promotes code reuse and establishes is-a relationships.

Types of Inheritance in Python:

Туре	Description		Example
Single	One child inherits one parent	class	B(A)
Multilevel	Chain of inheritance	class	C(B), class B(A)
Hierarchical	Multiple children inherit one parent	class	B(A), class C(A)
Multiple	One child inherits from multiple parents	class	C(A, B)
Hybrid	Combination of two or more above types	Mixed	styles

Basic Syntax of Inheritance:

```
class Parent:
    def display(self):
        print("This is the Parent class")
class Child(Parent):
    def show(self):
        print("This is the Child class")

obj = Child()
obj.display()  # Inherited
obj.show()  # Own method
```

Example: Single Inheritance

```
class Animal:
    def speak(self):
        print("Animal speaks")

class Dog(Animal):
    def bark(self):
        print("Dog barks")

d = Dog()
d. speak()
d. bark()
```

Multilevel Inheritance

```
class A:
    def showA(self):
        print("A class")
class B(A):
    def showB(self):
        print("B class")
class C(B):
    def showC(self):
        print("C class")
```

```
c = C()
c. showA()
c. showB()
c. showC()
Ex:
class Employee:
    def init (self, name, emp id):
        self.name = name
        self.emp id = emp id
    def show_employee_info(self):
        print(f"Employee Name: {self.name}, ID: {self.emp_id}")
class Developer(Employee):
    def __init__(self, name, emp_id, language):
        super().__init__(name, emp_id)
        self.language = language
    def show_developer_info(self):
        print(f"Developer Language: {self.language}")
class TechLead (Developer):
    def __init__(self, name, emp_id, language, team_size):
```

```
super().__init__(name, emp_id, language)
self.team_size = team_size

def show_techlead_info(self):
    print(f"Tech Lead of {self.team_size} developers")

def show_full_info(self):
    self.show_employee_info()
    self.show_developer_info()
    self.show_techlead_info()

lead = TechLead("Sana", 2003, "Java", 5)

lead.show_full_info()
```

Hierarchical Inheritance

```
class Vehicle:
    def start(self):
        print("Starting vehicle")
class Car(Vehicle):
    def drive(self):
        print("Driving car")
class Bike(Vehicle):
    def ride(self):
        print("Riding bike")
```

```
b = Bike()
c. start(); c. drive()
b. start(); b. ride()
```

Multiple Inheritance

```
class Father:
    def gardening(self):
        print("Loves gardening")
class Mother:
    def cooking(self):
        print("Loves cooking")
class Child(Father, Mother):
    def playing(self):
        print("Loves playing")

c = Child()
c. gardening()
c. cooking()
c. playing()
```

Hybrid Inheritance

Scenario:

We model a software company structure with:

```
Employee (base class)

Manager (inherits from Employee)

Developer (inherits from Employee)

TechLead (inherits from both Manager and Developer) — Hybrid Inheritance
```

```
class Employee:
    def __init__(self, name, emp_id):
        self.name = name
        self.emp id = emp id
    def show_employee(self):
        print(f"Name: {self.name}, ID: {self.emp_id}")
class Manager (Employee):
    def __init__(self, name, emp_id, department):
        super(). __init__(name, emp_id)
        self.department = department
    def show manager (self):
        print(f"Manages Department: {self.department}")
class Developer (Employee):
    def init (self, name, emp id, language):
        super(). init (name, emp id)
        self.language = language
```

```
def show_developer(self):
        print(f"Specialized in: {self.language}")
class TechLead (Manager, Developer):
    def init (self, name, emp id, department, language, team size):
        Manager. __init__(self, name, emp_id, department)
        Developer. init (self, name, emp id, language)
        self.team size = team size
    def show techlead(self):
        print(f"Leads a team of {self.team size} developers")
    def show full info(self):
        self.show_employee()
        self. show manager()
        self. show_developer()
        self. show techlead()
lead = TechLead("Arjun", 5005, "AI Research", "Python", 6)
lead. show_full_info()
```

Output:

```
Name: Arjun, ID: 5005Manages Department: AI ResearchSpecialized in: PythonLeads a team of 6 developers
```

Important Concepts

1. super() Keyword

Used to call parent class methods/constructors.

```
class Parent:
    def __init__(self):
        print("Parent Constructor")
class Child(Parent):
    def __init__(self):
        super(). __init__()
        print("Child Constructor")

c = Child()
```

2. Method Overriding

Child class can override methods of the parent class.

```
class Parent:
    def greet(self):
        print("Hello from Parent")

class Child(Parent):
    def greet(self):
        print("Hello from Child")

c = Child()

c.greet() # Overrides Parent method
```

Real-Life Examples

${\tt Employee} \to {\tt Manager}, {\tt Developer}\colon$

```
class Employee:
   def __init__(self, name, emp_id, salary):
       self.name = name
       self.emp id = emp id
       self.salary = salary
   def show details(self):
       print(f"Name: {self.name}, ID: {self.emp id}, Salary:
₹{self.salary}")
# Manager inherits from Employee
class Manager(Employee):
   def init (self, name, emp id, salary, department):
        super(). init (name, emp id, salary)
        self.department = department
   def show details(self):
       super().show details()
       print(f"Role: Manager, Department: {self.department}")
# Developer inherits from Employee
class Developer(Employee):
   def __init__(self, name, emp_id, salary, programming_language):
```

```
super().__init__(name, emp_id, salary)
self.language = programming_language

def show_details(self):
    super().show_details()
    print(f"Role: Developer, Language: {self.language}")

mgr = Manager("Alice", 1001, 90000, "HR")

dev = Developer("Bob", 1002, 75000, "Python")

mgr.show_details()

print("----")

dev.show_details()
```

- super(). init () is used to call the parent constructor.
- Both Manager and Developer reuse the Employee class logic and extend it.

```
Shape \rightarrow Circle, Rectangle

Account \rightarrow SavingsAccount, CurrentAccount
```

Assignments

Create a base class Person, and a derived class Student that inherits name and age.

Create a class Shape with area method and inherit it in Circle and Rectangle.

Demonstrate multiple inheritance with classes Artist, Athlete, and Personality.

Override a parent method in the child class using super () to also call parent logic.

Encapsulation is one of the four fundamental OOP principles (others are inheritance, polymorphism, abstraction).

It means wrapping data (variables) and methods into a single unit (class) and restricting direct access to some of the class's internal components.

In simple terms: **Protecting sensitive data** from being modified directly.

Why Use Encapsulation?

- ✓ Data protection (e.g., salary, password)
- ✓ Controlled access using methods
- Hides internal implementation

How is Encapsulation Achieved in Python?

```
_single_underscore: Protected (convention only)
```

double underscore: Private (name mangling)

Example: Encapsulation in Python

```
class Employee:
    def __init__(self, name, salary):
        self.name = name
                                      # Public
        self.__salary = salary
                                      # Private
    def show_info(self):
        print(f"Employee Name: {self.name}")
        print(f"Salary: ₹{self.__salary}")
    def update salary(self, amount):
        if amount > 0:
            self. salary = amount
        else:
            print("Invalid salary update!")
emp = Employee("Riya", 50000)
emp. show_info()
                                                                # Works#
# Trying to access private variableprint(emp.name)
print(emp. __salary)
                          X AttributeError
# Correct way to update private field
emp. update_salary (60000)
emp. show info()
```

! Can we still access private variables?

Yes, but it's **not recommended** (Python allows it via name mangling):

```
print(emp._Employee__salary) # Not good practice
```

Real-Life Examples:

Class	Encapsulated Data	Why Encapsulated?
BankAccount	balance	Prevents unauthorized updates
Student	marks,id	Data security, controlled access
User	password	Security, hash/encrypt password

Encapsulation with Getter/Setter (Manual)

```
class Student:
    def __init__(self):
        self.__grade = None

def set_grade(self, g):
    if g in ['A', 'B', 'C']:
        self.__grade = g
    else:
        print("Invalid grade!")

def get_grade(self):
```

```
return self.__grade
```

```
s = Student()
s. set_grade('B')print(s.get_grade())
```

⊘ Summary

```
Modifier
              Syntax
                                             Access
Public
           self.name
                        Anywhere
Protected self.name Convention (use within class & subclass)
Private __self.name Within class only (uses name mangling)
Banking system:
class BankAccount:
  def __init__(self, acc_holder, initial_balance):
    self.acc_holder = acc_holder
    self.__balance = initial_balance # private
  def deposit(self, amount):
   if amount > 0:
      self.__balance += amount
      print(f"₹{amount} deposited.")
    else:
      print("Invalid deposit amount.")
```

```
if 0 < amount <= self.__balance:
      self.__balance -= amount
      print(f"₹{amount} withdrawn.")
    else:
      print("Insufficient balance or invalid amount.")
  def show_balance(self):
    print(f"Current balance: ₹{self.__balance}")
# ∜ Usage
acc = BankAccount("Rahul", 10000)
acc.show_balance()
acc.deposit(5000)
acc.withdraw(2000)
acc.withdraw(20000) # invalid
acc.show_balance()
# Trying to access private variable (not recommended)
# print(acc.__balance)
                           X AttributeError
print(acc._BankAccount__balance) # Not good practice
Login system:
class LoginSystem:
  def __init__(self, username, password):
```

def withdraw(self, amount):

```
self.__username = username
   self.__password = password # private
 def login(self, user, pwd):
   if self.__username == user and self.__password == pwd:
     print("

✓ Login Successful")
   else:
     print("X Invalid credentials")
 def change_password(self, old_pwd, new_pwd):
   if self.__password == old_pwd:
     self.__password = new_pwd
     print(" Password changed successfully")
   else:
     print("X Incorrect old password")
# ∜ Usage
user1 = LoginSystem("admin", "pass123")
user1.login("admin", "wrongpass") #X
user1.change password("wrong", "new") # X
user1.login("admin", "newpass")
```

- Used prefix to encapsulate sensitive fields.
- Methods like login(), change password(), and withdraw() provide controlled access.
- Prevents direct manipulation of private variables.

∀ What is Abstraction?

Abstraction is an Object-Oriented Programming (OOP) concept that hides internal implementation details and shows only essential features to the user.

In simple terms: You use something without knowing how it works internally.

Real-Life Example of Abstraction

ATM Machine: You withdraw cash without knowing how backend processes work.

Car: You drive using steering and pedals, without knowing the engine mechanics.

Python len() **function**: You use it without knowing its internal implementation.

How to Implement Abstraction in Python?

Python provides abstraction using the abc module (Abstract Base Classes).

Key tools:

ABC: Base class to mark abstract class

@abstractmethod: Decorator to define abstract methods

Example: Abstraction with ABC module

```
from abc import ABC, abstractmethod
class Vehicle(ABC):
                       @abstractmethod
    def start(self):
        pass
    @abstractmethod
    def stop(self):
        pass
class Car(Vehicle):
    def start(self):
        print("Car started with key")
    def stop(self):
        print("Car stopped")
# ∜ Usage
c = Car()
c. start()
c. stop()
X If you try this:
v = Vehicle() # Error! Can't instantiate abstract class
```

Why Use Abstraction?

- ✓ Enforce method definitions in child classes
- ✓ Design clear interfaces

Real-Time Use Case: Banking System

```
from abc import ABC, abstractmethod
class Account (ABC):
                       @abstractmethod
    def deposit(self, amount):
        pass
    @abstractmethod
    def withdraw(self, amount):
        pass
class SavingsAccount(Account):
    def __init__(self, balance):
        self.balance = balance
    def deposit(self, amount):
        self.balance += amount
        print(f"Deposited ₹{amount}. New balance: ₹{self.balance}")
    def withdraw(self, amount):
        if amount <= self.balance:
            self.balance -= amount
            print(f"Withdrew ₹{amount}. Remaining balance: ₹{self.balance}")
```

```
else:

print("Insufficient balance")

# 	 Usage

acc = SavingsAccount(1000)

acc. deposit(500)

acc. withdraw(800)
```

Abstraction vs Encapsulation

Feature	Encapsulation	Abstraction
Purpose	Protect data from outside acc	ess Hide implementation details
Achieved via	Private variables/methods	Abstract classes & methods
Focus	"How" data is protected	"What" is shown to the user
Example	password in class	@abstractmethod in interface

Assignments

- 1. Create an abstract class Appliance with abstract methods turn_on() and turn_off(). Inherit it in TV, WashingMachine.
- 2. Design an abstract class Shape with area() method. Implement in Circle, Rectangle.
- 3. Build a mini payment gateway using an abstract class Payment with methods like pay(), and implement UPIPayment, CardPayment.

E-commerce Example using Abstraction

We'll simulate a basic **payment system** where different payment methods (like UPI, Credit Card, Wallet) follow a common interface but have different internal implementations.

from abc import ABC, abstractmethod

```
# Abstract class for payment method
class PaymentMethod(ABC):
  @abstractmethod
  def pay(self, amount):
    pass
# Concrete class for UPI payment
class UPIPayment(PaymentMethod):
  def pay(self, amount):
    print(f"Paid ₹{amount} via UPI.")
# Concrete class for Credit Card payment
class CreditCardPayment(PaymentMethod):
  def pay(self, amount):
    print(f"Paid ₹{amount} using Credit Card.")
# Concrete class for Wallet payment
class WalletPayment(PaymentMethod):
  def pay(self, amount):
    print(f"Paid ₹{amount} from Wallet.")
# Order class that takes a payment method (abstraction in action)
class Order:
  def __init__(self, payment_method: PaymentMethod):
    self.payment_method = payment_method
  def checkout(self, amount):
```

```
print("Processing payment...")
    self.payment_method.pay(amount)
    print(" Payment successful!\n")

# Usage
upi = UPIPayment()
card = CreditCardPayment()
wallet = WalletPayment()

order1 = Order(upi)
order2 = Order(card)
order3 = Order(wallet)

order1.checkout(1200)
order2.checkout(2500)
order3.checkout(500)
```

What's abstracted here?

The order class doesn't know how the payment is processed.

It depends only on the abstract class PaymentMethod.

Each payment method defines its own pay() logic.

Advantages of Abstraction Here:

Easy to add new payment types (e.g., NetBanking, Crypto) without changing the order class.

Promotes interface-based design.

Hides complex payment logic from the main application.

Magic Methods in Python

Magic methods (also known as **dunder methods**, because they have double underscores ___ before and after their names) are special methods that define the behavior of objects for built-in operations.

They allow you to customize how objects behave with operators, built-in functions, and type conversions.

\checkmark Commonly Used Magic Methods

Magic Method	Purpose	
init(self,)	Constructor - initializes a new object.	
str(self)	Defines a human-readable string representation (print(object)).	
repr(self)	Defines an official string representation (used in debugging).	
len(self)	Defines behavior for len(object).	
getitem(self, key)	Allows indexing like obj[key].	
setitem(self, key, value)	Defines behavior for item assignment.	
delitem(self, key)	Defines behavior for deleting an item with del.	
iter(self)	Makes an object iterable.	
next(self)	Defines iteration behavior for next().	

__call__(self, ...) Makes an object callable like a function.

__eq__(self, other) Defines behavior for equality ==.

__lt__(self, other) Defines behavior for <.

__add__(self, other) Defines behavior for + operator.

__sub__(self, other) Defines behavior for - operator.

__del (self) Destructor - called when an object is deleted.

Python Magic Methods Cheat Sheet Magic methods (dunder methods) allow you to customize object behavior.

1. Object Creation & Initialization:

__new__(cls), __init__(self), __del__(self)

2. String Representation: __str__(self), __repr__(self)

3. Arithmetic Operators: __add__(self, other), __sub__, __mul__, __truediv__, __floordiv__, __mod__, __pow__

4. Comparison Operators: __eq__, __ne__, __lt__, __gt__, __ge__

5. Container Behavior: __len__, __getitem__, __setitem__, __delitem__, __contains__, __iter__, __next__

6. Callable Objects: __call__(self, *args, **kwargs)

7. Context Managers: __enter__, __exit__

8. Attribute Access: __getattr__, __setattr__, __delattr__, __dir__

9. Object Copying: __copy__, __deepcopy__ Example usage: class Point: def __init__(self, x): self.x = x def __add__(self, other): return Point(self.x + other.x) def __str__(self): return f"Point({self.x})"

Magic methods allow you to **customize object behavior** for built-in functions and operators. Here's a **complete categorized list** with examples.

✓ 1. Object Creation & Initialization

✓ 2. String Representation

```
Method Purpose

_str__(self) Defines human-readable string (print(obj)).

_repr__(self) Defines official string for debugging (repr(obj)).

class Person:
    def __init__(self, name):
        self.name = name
    def __str__(self):
        return f"Person: {self.name}"
```

```
def __repr__(self):
    return f"Person('{self.name}')"

p = Person("Alice")print(p)  # Person: Aliceprint(repr(p))# Person('Alice')
```



```
Method
                        Operator
__add__(self, other)
sub (self, other)
mul (self, other)
truediv (self, other) /
floordiv (self, other) //
mod (self, other)
pow (self, other)
                        **
class Point:
   def __init__(self, x):
       self.x = x
   def __add__(self, other):
       return Point(self.x + other.x)
   def __str__(self):
       return f"Point({self.x})"
print(Point(3) + Point(7)) # Point(10)
```


Purpose

Method

__len__(self) Defines len(obj).

__getitem__(self, key) Allows indexing obj[key].

__setitem__(self, key, value) Allows item assignment.

__delitem__(self, key) Allows deletion of items.

__contains__(self, item) Defines behavior for in keyword.

__iter__(self) Makes object iterable.

__next__(self) Defines behavior for iteration using next().

```
class MyList:
   def init (self, data):
      self.data = data
   def getitem (self, index):
      return self.data[index]
   def len (self):
      return len(self.data)
nums = MyList([10, 20, 30])print(len(nums)) # 3print(nums[1])
                                                          # 20
Method
                                          Purpose
__call__(self, *args, **kwargs) Makes an object callable like a function.
class Greet:
   def call (self, name):
      return f"Hello {name}!"
say = Greet()print(say("Alice")) # Hello Alice!
Method
                                                 Purpose
                                     Used with with statement (enter
enter (self)
                                     block).
```

Method Purpose

```
__exit__(self, exc_type, exc_value, traceback)

class MyContext:

    def __enter__(self):
        print("Entering...")

    def __exit__(self, exc_type, exc_val, exc_tb):
        print("Exiting...")

with MyContext():
    print("Inside block")
```


Method Purpose

Method Purpose

```
__copy__(self) Defines behavior for copy.copy().
__deepcopy__(self, memo) Defines behavior for copy.deepcopy().
```

Module in Python

A **module** is a **file containing Python code** (functions, classes, or variables) that can be imported and reused in other programs.

Modules make programs modular, organized, and reusable.

Any Python file with .py extension is a module.

✓ Types of Modules in Python

1 Standard (Built-in) Modules

These come with Python installation. No need to install separately.

Examples:

math – Mathematical operations

os – Operating system interaction

datetime - Date and time handling

Sys – System-related parameters

random – Random number generation

Real-Time Example using Standard Modules

♥ Example 1: Using math for calculations

import math

```
radius = 5

area = math. pi * math. pow(radius, 2) print(f"Area of Circle: {area}")

Real-Time Use: Calculating areas, scientific computations in engineering applications.
```

✓ Example 2: Using datetime in an attendance system

from datetime import datetime

```
now = datetime.now()print("Login Time:", now.strftime("%Y-%m-%d %H:%M:%S"))
```

Real-Time Use: Logging user login times in attendance or employee management systems.

♥ Example 3: Using os for file management

```
import os
# Create a folder for reportsif not os.path.exists("Reports"):
    os.mkdir("Reports")print("Reports directory created!")
```

Real-Time Use: Automating folder creation for daily reports in a business application.

2 Custom (User-Defined) Modules

Custom modules are Python files created by the user to organize reusable code.

Creating and Using a Custom Module

mymodule.py (Custom Module)

```
def greet (name):
```

```
return f"Welcome, {name}! You have successfully logged in."

def calculate_salary(basic, bonus):
    return basic + bonus

company_name = "Tech Solutions Pvt Ltd"
```

main.py (Using the Custom Module)

```
import mymodule
print(mymodule.greet("John")) # Using a function from custom
moduleprint("Total Salary:", mymodule.calculate_salary(40000,
5000))print("Company:", mymodule.company_name)
```

Real-Time Use:

A billing_module.py could have functions to calculate bills, taxes, discounts.

A database module.py could handle database connections.

Real-Time Use: API calls in web applications.

Ø Difference Between Standard, Custom, and ThirdParty Modules

Feature Standard Modules Custom Modules Third-Party

Python

Installation No installation needed

needed

Examples math, os, datetime mymodule.py(user created module)

Use Case Common tasks Project-specific code

⊗ Built-in Modules in Python (OS, Math, Sys, Datetime)

Python provides several **built-in modules** that simplify development by offering pre-written functionalities.

Here's a detailed explanation with real-time examples for os, math, sys, and datetime.

1. OS Module

The os module allows interaction with the **operating system** (file handling, directory management, environment variables, etc.).

Common Functions:

```
os.getcwd() → Get current working directory

os.listdir() → List files/folders

os.mkdir("folder") → Create new folder

os.remove("file.txt") → Delete file

os.path.exists("path") → Check if path exists
```

≪ Example:

```
import os
print("Current Directory:", os.getcwd())
# Create a folder if not existsif not os.path.exists("Logs"):
    os.mkdir("Logs")
    print("Logs folder created!")
```

Real-Time Use: Creating log folders, managing uploads in applications.

2. Math Module

The math module provides mathematical functions and constants.

Common Functions:

```
math.sqrt(x) \rightarrow Square root

math.pow(x, y) \rightarrow x^y (power)

math.factorial(n) \rightarrow Factorial

math.pi \rightarrow \pi constant

math.ceil(x) \rightarrow Round up

math.floor(x) \rightarrow Round down
```

⊗ Example:

```
import math
radius = 7
```

```
area = math.pi * math.pow(radius, 2)print("Area of Circle:", area)
```

Real-Time Use: Scientific calculations, financial modeling.

3. Sys Module

The sys module provides access to system-specific parameters and functions.

Common Functions:

```
sys.version → Python version

sys.exit() → Exit program

sys.argv → Command-line arguments

sys.path → List of module search paths
```

⊗ Example:

```
import sys
print("Python Version:", sys.version)
# Command-line argument example# Run as: python script.py Johnif
len(sys.argv) > 1:
    print("Hello,", sys.argv[1])
```

Real-Time Use: Handling command-line inputs, terminating scripts on errors.

4. Datetime Module

The datetime module is used for working with dates and times.

Common Functions:

```
datetime.now() \rightarrow Current date \& time
```

```
strftime("%Y-%m-%d") \rightarrow Format date timedelta(days=5) \rightarrow Date arithmetic date.today() \rightarrow Current date
```

⊗ Example:

 $from\ date time\ import\ date time,\ time delta$

```
now = datetime.now()print("Current Time:", now.strftime("%Y-%m-%d %H:%M:%S"))
# Calculate date 7 days later
future_date = now + timedelta(days=7)print("After 7 days:",
future_date.strftime("%Y-%m-%d"))
```

Real-Time Use: Attendance systems, reminders, scheduling.

✓ Summary Table

Module	Purpose	Example Use Case
os	OS interaction (files, folders)	File management in apps
math	Mathematical functions/constants	Scientific apps, finance
sys	System parameters/functions	Command-line tools
datetime	Date & time operations	Logging, event scheduling