



# PRG – PROGRAMMING ESSENTIALS

## Lecture 11 – Classes & Objects III

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# Four Principles of Object-Oriented Programming

1. **Encapsulation** – bundling data and methods that operate on the data into a single unit – the class
2. **Inheritance** – allows one class to inherit properties and behaviors of another class
3. **Polymorphism** – allows objects of different classes to be treated as objects of a common superclass
4. **Abstraction** – hiding unnecessary details from the user

# Encapsulation

- idea of wrapping data and the methods that work on data within one unit
- restrictions on accessing variables and methods directly
- can prevent the accidental modification of data
- object's variable can only be changed by an object's method
- variables must be accessed via getter and setter methods

# PROPERTY

## @property

- Method to generate a property of an object **dynamically** (*e.g. calculating it from the object's other properties*)
- Use a method to **access a single attribute and return it**
- Use a different method to **update the value of the attribute** instead of accessing it directly
- These methods are called **getters** and **setters**, because they “**get**” and “**set**” the values of attributes, respectively

SOURCE <http://python-textbok.readthedocs.io/en/1.0/Classes.html#> UNDER CC BY-SA 4.0 licence Revision 8e685e710775

# EXAMPLE – PROPERTY

```
1 class Person:
2     def __init__(self, name, surname):
3         self.name = name
4         self.surname = surname
5
6     @property
7     def fullname(self):
8         return "%s %s" % (self.name, self.surname)
9
10    @fullname.setter
11    def fullname(self, value):
12        # this is much more complicated in real life
13        name, surname = value.split(" ", 1)
14        self.name = name
15        self.surname = surname
16
17    @fullname.deleter
18    def fullname(self):
19        del self.name
20        del self.surname
21
```

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# Variables in Classes – Naming Conventions

Naming conventions to signify the intended scope of variables within class:

- Instance (or internal) variables starting with `_`
  - **Internal use** within the class of module
  - Not truly private
- **Private variables** with the `__` prefix
  - Name-mangled by Python to prevent direct access from outside the class
  - Still not absolute privacy

# Variables in Classes – Naming Conventions

```
class VariableConvention:
    def __init__(self, name, age):
        self.name = name          # Public variable
        self._internal_id = 12345 # Internal variable (by convention)
        self.__private_data = age # Private variable (name-mangled)

    def display(self):
        print(f"Name: {self.name}")
        print(f"Internal ID: {self._internal_id}")
        print(f"Private Data: {self.__private_data}")

    def update_private_data(self, new_age):
        self.__private_data = new_age # Modifying the private variable

# Creating an instance
obj = VariableConvention("Alice", 30)

# Accessing public and internal variables
print(obj.name)          # Output: Alice (Public)
print(obj._internal_id) # Output: 12345 (Accessible, but conventionally private)
```

```
# Accessing private variable directly (will raise an AttributeError)
try:
    print(obj.__private_data)
except AttributeError as e:
    print(e) # Output: 'VariableConvention' object has no attribute '__private_data'
```

```
# Using methods to update and access private data
obj.update_private_data(35)
obj.display()
# Output:
# Name: Alice
# Internal ID: 12345
# Private Data: 35
```

# Getter and Setters

```
class Person:
    def __init__(self, name, age):
        self._name = name           # Internal variable (convention)
        self.__age = age           # Private variable (name-mangled)

    # Getter for the public interface
    @property
    def name(self):
        return self._name

    # Setter for the public interface
    @name.setter
    def name(self, new_name):
        if isinstance(new_name, str) and new_name.strip():
            self._name = new_name
        else:
            raise ValueError("Name must be a non-empty string.")
```

```
try:
    person.age = -5
except ValueError as e:
    print(e) # Output: Age must be a positive integer.
```

```
# Getter for private variable __age
@property
def age(self):
    return self.__age

# Setter for private variable __age
@age.setter
def age(self, new_age):
    if isinstance(new_age, int) and new_age > 0:
        self.__age = new_age
    else:
        raise ValueError("Age must be a positive integer.")

# A method demonstrating internal and private variables
def display(self):
    print(f"Name: {self._name}, Age: {self.__age}")
```

```
# Using the property to access and modify the name
print(person.name) # Output: Alice
person.name = "Bob"
print(person.name) # Output: Bob

# Using the property to access and modify the private variable __age
print(person.age) # Output: 30
person.age = 35
print(person.age) # Output: 35
```



# Inheritance

- Ability to define a new class that is a modified version of an existing class
- ADVANTAGE: add new methods without modifying existing class
- Parent class (superclass, base class) – child class (subclass, derived class)

```
class Car():  
    pass  
class Yugo(Car):  
    pass
```

```
In [3]: give_me_car = Car()  
In [4]: give_me_yugo = Yugo()
```

```
In [5]: class Car():  
...:     def exclaim(self):  
...:         print("I'm a Car!")  
...:
```

```
In [6]: class Yugo(Car):  
...:     pass
```

```
In [12]: give_me_car = Car()  
In [13]: give_me_yugo = Yugo()  
In [14]: give_me_car.exclaim()  
I'm a Car!  
In [15]: give_me_yugo.exclaim()  
I'm a Car!
```

# Inheritance – Override a Method

- New class inherits everything from its parent class
- How to replace or **override** a parent method?

```
In [16]: class Car():
...:     def exclaim(self):
...:         print("I'm a Car!")
...:
In [17]: class Yugo(Car):
...:     def exclaim(self):
...:         print("I'm a Yugo!")

In [22]: car = Car()
In [23]: yugo = Yugo()
In [24]: car.exclaim()
I'm a Car!
In [25]: yugo.exclaim()
I'm a Yugo!
```

# Inheritance – Override a Method

- New class inherits everything from its parent class
- How to replace or **override** a parent method?

```
class Person():  
    def __init__(self, name):  
        self.name = name  
  
class MDPerson(Person):  
    def __init__(self, name):  
        self.name = "Doctor " + name  
  
class ProfPerson(Person):  
    def __init__(self, name):  
        self.name = "Professor " + name
```

```
person = Person('Fudge')  
doctor = MDPerson('Fudge')  
professor = ProfPerson('Fudge')  
print(person.name)  
print(doctor.name)  
print(professor.name)
```

```
Fudge  
Doctor Fudge  
Professor Fudge
```

# Inheritance – Add a Method

- New class inherits everything from its parent class
- How to replace or **override** a parent method?

```
class Car(): 2 usages
    def exclaim(self):
        print("I'm a Car")

class Yugo(Car): 1 usage
    def exclaim(self):
        print("I'm a Yugo")
    def honk(self): 1 usage
        print("brrrR000ARRRRRP")
```

```
yugo = Yugo()
yugo.honk()
```



```
brrrR000ARRRRRP
```

```
car = Car()
car.honk()
```



Traceback (most recent call last):

```
File "C:\Users\milan\PycharmProjects\CNN\tst.py", line 12, in <module>
    car.honk()
```

```
AttributeError: 'Car' object has no attribute 'honk'
```

# Getting Help from Your Parent

- Child class can override a method from the parent
- What if it wanted to call that parent method?

```
class Person(): 1 usage
    def __init__(self, name):
        self.name = name

class EmailPerson(Person): 1 usage
    def __init__(self, name, email):
        super().__init__(name)
        self.email = email
```

```
bob = EmailPerson(name='Bob Griffin', email='bob@griffin.com')
print(bob.name)
print(bob.email)
```



```
Bob Griffin
bob@griffin.com
```

# Polymorphism

- It is possible to apply the same operation to different objects, regardless of their class

```
1 class Quote(): 2 usages
2     def __init__(self, person, words):
3         self.person = person
4         self.words = words
5     def who(self):
6         return self.person
7     def says(self):
8         return self.words + "."
9
10 class QuestionQuote(Quote):
11     def says(self):
12         return self.words + "?"
13
14 class ExclamationQuote(Quote):
15     def says(self):
16         return self.words + "!"
17
```

Different versions of  
say() provide different  
behavior

\_\_init\_\_() of the  
parent class Quote  
called automatically!

```
In [4]: speaker1 = Quote('Charlie Brown', "Good grief")
In [5]: print(speaker1.who(), 'says:', speaker1.says())
...:
Charlie Brown says: Good grief.
In [6]: speaker2 = QuestionQuote('Snoopy', "Do you have any cookies")
...:
In [7]: print(speaker2.who(), 'says:', speaker2.says())
...:
Snoopy says: Do you have any cookies?
In [8]: speaker3 = ExclamationQuote('Lucy', "Get off my football")
...:
In [9]: print(speaker3.who(), 'says:', speaker3.says())
...:
Lucy says: Get off my football!
```

# Polymorphism

- Python goes further and lets you run `who()` and `says()` methods of *any* objects that have them

```
In [10]: class BabblingBrook():
...:     def who(self):
...:         return 'Brook'
...:     def says(self):
...:         return 'Babble'
...:
In [11]: brook = BabblingBrook()
```

BabblingBrook has no relation to Quote class or its descendants!

```
In [12]: def who_says(obj):
...:     print(obj.who(), 'says', obj.says())

In [13]: who_says(speaker1)
Charlie Brown says Good grief.
In [14]: who_says(speaker2)
Snoopy says Do you have any cookies?
In [15]: who_says(speaker3)
Lucy says Get off my football!
In [16]: who_says(brook)
Brook says Babble
```

This principle is sometimes called *duck typing*.

Duck test:

**"If it walks like a duck and it quacks like a duck, then it must be a duck"**

Meaning:

An object's suitability for use is determined by its behavior rather than its explicit type.

# Class Point

```
1 class Point:
2     """ Create a new Point, at coordinates x, y """
3
4     def __init__(self, x=0, y=0):
5         """ Create a new point at x, y """
6         self.x = x
7         self.y = y
8
9     def distance_from_origin(self):
10        """ Compute my distance from the origin """
11        return ((self.x ** 2) + (self.y ** 2)) ** 0.5
```

```
1 class Point:
2     # Previously defined methods here...
3
4     def __add__(self, other):
5         return Point(self.x + other.x, self.y + other.y)
```

```
1 def __mul__(self, other):
2     return self.x * other.x + self.y * other.y
```

```
1 def __rmul__(self, other):
2     return Point(other * self.x, other * self.y)
```

```
>>> p1 = Point(3, 4)
>>> p2 = Point(5, 7)
>>> print(p1 * p2)
43
>>> print(2 * p2)
(10, 14)
```



# POLYMORPHISM

```
1 def multadd (x, y, z):  
2     return x * y + z
```

```
>>> multadd (3, 2, 1)  
7
```

```
>>> p1 = Point(3, 4)  
>>> p2 = Point(5, 7)  
>>> print(multadd (2, p1, p2))  
(11, 15)  
>>> print(multadd (p1, p2, 1))  
44
```

- **Polymorphism** == ability to process objects differently based on data type
- There are certain operations that can be applied to many types, such as the arithmetic operations ...
- **EXAMPLE:** *The **multadd** operation takes three parameters: multiplies the first two and then adds the third*

# POLYMORPHISM

```
1 def front_and_back(front):  
2     import copy  
3     back = copy.copy(front)  
4     back.reverse()  
5     print(str(front) + str(back))
```

```
>>> my_list = [1, 2, 3, 4]  
>>> front_and_back(my_list)  
[1, 2, 3, 4][4, 3, 2, 1]
```

- **EXAMPLE: *front\_and\_back*** – *consider a function which prints a list twice: forward and backward*
- The reverse method is a **modifier** therefore a copy needs to be made before applying it (this way we prevent to modify the list the function gets as a parameter!)
- Function that can take arguments with different types and handles them accordingly is called **polymorphic**

# POLYMORPHISM

```
1 def reverse(self):  
2     (self.x , self.y) = (self.y, self.x)
```

```
>>> p = Point(3, 4)  
>>> front_and_back(p)  
(3, 4)(4, 3)
```

- Python's fundamental rule of polymorphism is called the **duck typing rule**: *If all of the operations inside the function can be applied to the type, the function can be applied to the type.*
- Operations in the **front\_and\_back** : *copy, reverse, print*
- **EXAMPLE**: What about our Point class?  
The **copy** method works on any object; already written a **\_\_str\_\_** method for Point objects for the **str()** conversion, only the **reverse** method for the Point class is needed!

# Abstraction

- Abstraction focuses on hiding the implementation details and showing only the essential features of an object
- It allows the user to focus on what an object does rather than how it does it

*abc* module (Abstract Base Classes)

*Animal* inherits *ABC*

`@abstractmethod` decorator

```
from abc import ABC, abstractmethod

# Abstract base class
class Animal(ABC):
    @abstractmethod
    def sound(self):
        """Abstract method, must be implemented by subclasses."""
        pass

    @abstractmethod
    def move(self):
        """Abstract method, must be implemented by subclasses."""
        pass
```

Objects based on *Animal* cannot be initialized!

Abstract methods **MUST** be implemented by derived classes.

# Abstraction

- Abstraction focuses on hiding the implementation details and showing only the essential features of an object
- It allows the user to focus on what an object does rather than how it does it

```
from abc import ABC, abstractmethod

# Abstract base class
class Animal(ABC):
    @abstractmethod
    def sound(self):
        """Abstract method, must be implemented by subclasses."""
        pass

    @abstractmethod
    def move(self):
        """Abstract method, must be implemented by subclasses."""
        pass
```

```
# Subclass implementing the abstract methods
class Dog(Animal):
    def sound(self):
        return "Bark"

    def move(self):
        return "Runs on four legs"

# Subclass implementing the abstract methods
class Bird(Animal):
    def sound(self):
        return "Chirp"

    def move(self):
        return "Flies in the sky"
```

```
# Using the abstraction
def animal_activity(animal: Animal):
    print(f"Animal sound: {animal.sound()}")
    print(f"Animal movement: {animal.move()}")
```

# Abstraction

- Abstraction focuses on hiding the implementation details and showing only the essential features of an object
- It allows the user to focus on what an object does rather than how it does it

```
# Subclass implementing the abstract methods
class Dog(Animal):
    def sound(self):
        return "Bark"

    def move(self):
        return "Runs on four legs"

# Subclass implementing the abstract methods
class Bird(Animal):
    def sound(self):
        return "Chirp"

    def move(self):
        return "Flies in the sky"
```

```
# Using the abstraction
def animal_activity(animal: Animal):
    print(f"Animal sound: {animal.sound()}")
    print(f"Animal movement: {animal.move()}")
```

```
In [3]: dog = Dog()
In [4]: bird = Bird()
In [5]: animal_activity(dog)
Animal sound: Bark
Animal movement: Runs on four legs
In [6]: animal_activity(bird)
Animal sound: Chirp
Animal movement: Flies in the sky
```

The abstract class tells the user: "You can call *sound* and *move* on any *Animal*, but you don't need to know how they are implemented."

# REFERENCES

This lecture re-uses selected parts of the OPEN BOOK PROJECT  
**Learning with Python 3 (RLE)**

<http://openbookproject.net/thinkcs/python/english3e/index.html>  
available under **[GNU Free Documentation License Version 1.3](#)**)

- Version date: October 2012
- by Peter Wentworth, Jeffrey Elkner, Allen B. Downey, and Chris Meyers (based on 2nd edition by Jeffrey Elkner, Allen B. Downey, and Chris Meyers)
- Source repository is at <https://code.launchpad.net/~thinkcspy-rle-team/thinkcspy/thinkcspy3-rle>
- For offline use, download a zip file of the html or a pdf version from <http://www.ict.ru.ac.za/Resources/cspw/thinkcspy3/>

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