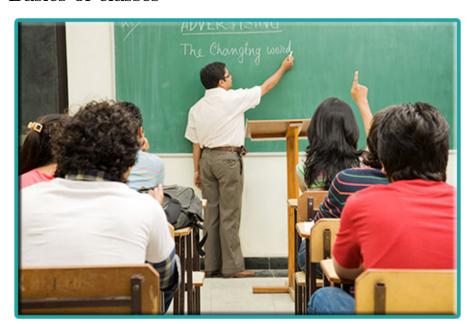
Ch.7: Introduction to classes

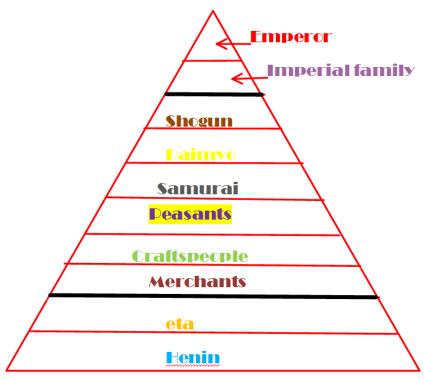
Hans Petter Langtangen 1,2

 $^1{\rm Simula}$ Research Laboratory $^2{\rm University}$ of Oslo, Dept. of Informatics

Oct 14, 2014

Basics of classes





Class = functions + data (variables) in one unit

- \bullet A class packs together data (a collection of variables) and functions as one single~unit
- As a programmer you can create a new class and thereby a new object type (like float, list, file, ...)
- A class is much like a module: a collection of "global" variables and functions that belong together
- There is only one instance of a module while a class can have many instances (copies)
- Modern programming applies classes to a large extent
- It will take some time to master the class concept
- Let's learn by doing!

Representing a function by a class; background

Consider a function of t with a parameter v_0 :

$$y(t; v_0) = v_0 t - \frac{1}{2}gt^2$$

We need both v_0 and t to evaluate y (and g = 9.81), but how should we implement this?

Having t and v_0 as arguments: def y(t, v0): g = 9.81 return v0*t - 0.5*g*t**2

Having t as argument and v_0 as global variable:

```
def y(t):
    g = 9.81
    return v0*t - 0.5*g*t**2
```

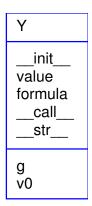
Motivation: y(t) is a function of t only

Representing a function by a class; idea

- \bullet With a class, y(t) can be a function of t only, but still have v0 and g as parameters with given values.
 - The class packs together a function y(t) and data (v0, g)

Representing a function by a class; technical overview

- We make a class Y for $y(t; v_0)$ with variables v0 and g and a function value(t) for computing $y(t; v_0)$
- Any class should also have a function <code>__init__</code> for initialization of the variables



Representing a function by a class; the code

```
class Y:
    def __init__(self, v0):
        self.v0 = v0
        self.g = 9.81

def value(self, t):
    return self.v0*t - 0.5*self.g*t**2
```

Usage:

```
y = Y(v0=3) # create instance (object)
v = y.value(0.1) # compute function value
```

Representing a function by a class; the constructor

When we write

```
y = Y(v0=3)
```

we create a new variable (instance) y of type Y. Y(3) is a call to the *constructor*:

```
def __init__(self, v0):
    self.v0 = v0
    self.g = 9.81
```

What is this self variable? Stay cool - it will be understood later as you get used to it

- Think of self as y, i.e., the new variable to be created. self.v0 = ... means that we attach a variable v0 to self (y).
- Y(3) means Y.__init__(y, 3), i.e., set self=y, v0=3

- Remember: self is always first parameter in a function, but never inserted in the call!
- After y = Y(3), y has two variables v0 and g

```
print y.v0
print y.g
```

In mathematics you don't understand things. You just get used to them. John von Neumann, mathematician, 1903-1957.

Representing a function by a class; the value method

- Functions in classes are called *methods*
- Variables in classes are called attributes

Here is the value method:

```
def value(self, t):
    return self.v0*t - 0.5*self.g*t**2
```

Example on a call:

```
v = y.value(t=0.1)
```

 $\tt self$ is left out in the call, but Python automatically inserts $\tt y$ as the $\tt self$ argument inside the $\tt value$ method. Think of the call as

```
Y.value(y, t=0.1)
```

Inside value things "appear" as

```
return y.v0*t - 0.5*y.g*t**2
```

self gives access to "global variables" in the class object.

Representing a function by a class; summary

- Class Y collects the attributes v0 and g and the method value as one unit
- value(t) is function of t only, but has automatically access to the parameters v0 and g as self.v0 and self.g
- The great advantage: we can send y.value as an ordinary function of t to any other function that expects a function f(t) of one variable

```
def make_table(f, tstop, n):
    for t in linspace(0, tstop, n):
        print t, f(t)

def g(t):
    return sin(t)*exp(-t)

table(g, 2*pi, 101)  # send ordinary function

y = Y(6.5)
table(y.value, 2*pi, 101)  # send class method
```

Representing a function by a class; the general case

Given a function with n+1 parameters and one independent variable,

$$f(x; p_0, \ldots, p_n)$$

it is wise to represent f by a class where p_0, \ldots, p_n are attributes and where there is a method, say value(self, x), for computing f(x)

```
class MyFunc:
    def __init__(self, p0, p1, p2, ..., pn):
        self.p0 = p0
        self.p1 = p1
        ...
        self.pn = pn

def value(self, x):
    return ...
```

Class for a function with four parameters

$$v(r;\beta,\mu_0,n,R) = \left(\frac{\beta}{2\mu_0}\right)^{\frac{1}{n}} \frac{n}{n+1} \left(R^{1+\frac{1}{n}} - r^{1+\frac{1}{n}}\right)$$

```
class VelocityProfile:
    def __init__(self, beta, mu0, n, R):
        self.beta, self.mu0, self.n, self.R = \
        beta, mu0, n, R

def value(self, r):
        beta, mu0, n, R = \
        self.beta, self.mu0, self.n, self.R
        n = float(n) # ensure float divisions
        v = (beta/(2.0*mu0))**(1/n)*(n/(n+1))*\
            (R**(1+1/n) - r**(1+1/n))
        return v

v = VelocityProfile(R=1, beta=0.06, mu0=0.02, n=0.1)
print v.value(r=0.1)
```

Rough sketch of a Python class

```
class MyClass:
    def __init__(self, p1, p2):
        self.attr1 = p1
        self.attr2 = p2

def method1(self, arg):
    # can init new attribute outside constructor:
    self.attr3 = arg
    return self.attr1 + self.attr2 + self.attr3

def method2(self):
    print 'Hello!'

m = MyClass(4, 10)
print m.method1(-2)
m.method2()
```

It is common to have a constructor where attributes are initialized, but this is not a requirement - attributes can be defined whenever desired

You can learn about other versions and views of class Y in the course book

- The book features a section on a different version of class Y where there is no constructor (which is possible)
- The book also features a section on how to implement classes without using classes
- These sections may be clarifying or confusing

Another class example: a bank account

- Attributes: name of owner, account number, balance
- Methods: deposit, withdraw, pretty print

```
class Account:
    def __init__(self, name, account_number, initial_amount):
        self.name = name
        self.no = account_number
        self.balance = initial_amount

def deposit(self, amount):
```

```
self.balance += amount

def withdraw(self, amount):
    self.balance -= amount

def dump(self):
    s = '%s, %s, balance: %s' % \
        (self.name, self.no, self.balance)
    print s
```

UML diagram of class Account



Example on using class Account

```
>> a1 = Account('John Olsson', '19371554951', 20000)
>> a2 = Account('Liz Olsson', '19371564761', 20000)
>> a1.deposit(1000)
>> a1.withdraw(4000)
>> a2.withdraw(10500)
>> a1.withdraw(3500)
>> print "a1's balance:", a1.balance
a1's balance: 13500
>>> a1.dump()
John Olsson, 19371554951, balance: 13500
>>> a2.dump()
Liz Olsson, 19371564761, balance: 9500
```

Use underscore in attribute names to avoid misuse

```
Possible, but not intended use:
```

```
>> a1.name = 'Some other name'
>> a1.balance = 100000
>> a1.no = '19371564768'
```

The assumptions on correct usage:

- The attributes should *not* be changed!
- The balance attribute can be viewed
- Changing balance is done through withdraw or deposit

Remedy: Attributes and methods not intended for use outside the class can be marked as *protected* by prefixing the name with an underscore (e.g., _name). This is just a convention - and no technical way of avoiding attributes and methods to be accessed.

Improved class with attribute protection (underscore)

```
class AccountP:
    def __init__(self, name, account_number, initial_amount):
        self._name = name
        self._no = account_number
        self._balance = initial_amount
    def deposit(self, amount):
        self._balance += amount
    def withdraw(self, amount):
        self._balance -= amount
                              # NEW - read balance value
    def get_balance(self):
        return self._balance
    def dump(self):
        s = '%s, %s, balance: %s' % \
            (self._name, self._no, self._balance)
        print s
```

Usage of improved class AccountP

```
a1 = AccountP('John Olsson', '19371554951', 20000)
a1.withdraw(4000)

print a1._balance  # it works, but a convention is broken

print a1.get_balance() # correct way of viewing the balance
a1._no = '19371554955' # this is a "serious crime"!
```

Another example: a phone book

- A phone book is a list of data about persons
- Data about a person: name, mobile phone, office phone, private phone, email
- Let us create a class for data about a person!
- Methods:
 - Constructor for initializing name, plus one or more other data

- Add new mobile number
- Add new office number
- Add new private number
- Add new email
- Write out person data

UML diagram of class Person



Basic code of class Person

```
class Person:
  def __init__(self, name,
               mobile_phone=None, office_phone=None,
               private_phone=None, email=None):
      self.name = name
      self.mobile = mobile_phone
      self.office = office_phone
      self.private = private_phone
      self.email = email
  def add_mobile_phone(self, number):
      self.mobile = number
  def add_office_phone(self, number):
      self.office = number
  def add_private_phone(self, number):
      self.private = number
  def add_email(self, address):
       self.email = address
```

Code of a dump method for printing all class contents

```
class Person:
    ...
    def dump(self):
        s = self.name + '\n'
```

```
if self.mobile is not None:
    s += 'mobile phone: %s\n' % self.mobile
if self.office is not None:
    s += 'office phone: %s\n' % self.office
if self.private is not None:
    s += 'private phone: %s\n' % self.private
if self.email is not None:
    s += 'email address: %s\n' % self.email
print s
```

Usage:

```
p1 = Person('Hans Petter Langtangen', email='hpl@simula.no')
p1.add_office_phone('67828283'),
p2 = Person('Aslak Tveito', office_phone='67828282')
p2.add_email('aslak@simula.no')
phone_book = [p1, p2]  # list
phone_book = {'Langtangen': p1, 'Tveito': p2} # better
for p in phone_book:
    p.dump()
```

Another example: a class for a circle

- A circle is defined by its center point x_0 , y_0 and its radius R
- These data can be attributes in a class
- Possible methods in the class: area, circumference
- The constructor initializes x_0, y_0 and R

```
class Circle:
    def __init__(self, x0, y0, R):
        self.x0, self.y0, self.R = x0, y0, R

def area(self):
    return pi*self.R**2

def circumference(self):
    return 2*pi*self.R
```

```
>> c = Circle(2, -1, 5)
>> print 'A circle with radius %g at (%g, %g) has area %g' % \
... (c.R, c.x0, c.y0, c.area())
A circle with radius 5 at (2, -1) has area 78.5398
```

Test function for class Circle

```
def test_Circle():
    R = 2.5
    c = Circle(7.4, -8.1, R)

    from math import pi
    exact_area = pi*R**2
    computed_area = c.area()
    diff = abs(exact_area - computed_area)
    tol = 1E-14
    assert diff < tol, 'bug in Circle.area, diff=%s' % diff

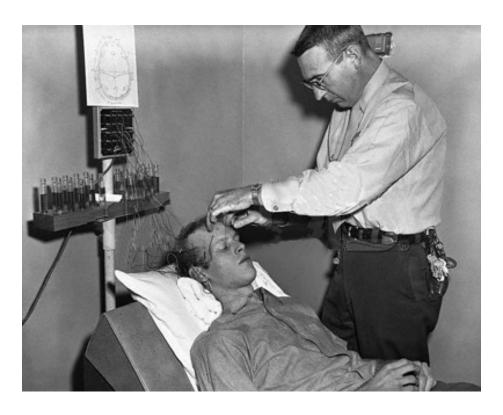
    exact_circumference = 2*pi*R
    computed_circumference = c.circumference()
    diff = abs(exact_circumference - computed_circumference)
    assert diff < tol, 'bug in Circle.circumference, diff=%s' %
    diff</pre>
```

Special methods

```
class MyClass:
    def __init__(self, a, b):
        ...

p1 = MyClass(2, 5)
p2 = MyClass(-1, 10)

p3 = p1 + p2
p4 = p1 - p2
p5 = p1*p2
p6 = p1**7 + 4*p3
```



Special methods allow nice syntax and are recognized by double leading and trailing underscores

```
def __init__(self, ...)
def __call__(self, ...)
def __add__(self, other)

# Python syntax
y = Y(4)
print y(2)
z = Y(6)
print y + z

# What's actually going on
Y.__init__(y, 4)
print Y.__call__(y, 2)
Y.__init__(z, 6)
print Y.__add__(y, z)
```

We shall learn about many more such $special\ methods$

Example on a call special method

Replace the value method by a call special method:

```
class Y:
    def __init__(self, v0):
        self.v0 = v0
        self.g = 9.81

def __call__(self, t):
    return self.v0*t - 0.5*self.g*t**2
```

Now we can write

```
y = Y(3)

v = y(0.1) # same as v = y.__call__(0.1) or Y.__call__(y, 0.1)
```

Note:

- The instance y behaves and looks as a function!
- The value(t) method does the same, but __call__ allows nicer syntax for computing function values

Representing a function by a class revisited

Given a function with n+1 parameters and one independent variable,

$$f(x; p_0, \ldots, p_n)$$

it is wise to represent f by a class where p_0, \ldots, p_n are attributes and __call__(x) computes f(x)

```
class MyFunc:
    def __init__(self, p0, p1, p2, ..., pn):
        self.p0 = p0
        self.p1 = p1
        ...
        self.pn = pn

def __call__(self, x):
        return ...
```

Can we automatically differentiate a function?

Given some mathematical function in Python, say

```
def f(x):
    return x**3
```

can we make a class Derivative and write

```
dfdx = Derivative(f)
```

so that dfdx behaves as a function that computes the derivative of f(x)?

```
print dfdx(2) # computes 3*x**2 for x=2
```

Automagic differentiation; solution

Method. We use numerical differentiation "behind the curtain":

$$f'(x) \approx \frac{f(x+h) - f(x)}{h}$$

for a small (yet moderate) h, say $h = 10^{-5}$

Implementation.

```
class Derivative:
    def __init__(self, f, h=1E-5):
        self.f = f
        self.h = float(h)

    def __call__(self, x):
        f, h = self.f, self.h  # make short forms
        return (f(x+h) - f(x))/h
```

Automagic differentiation; demo

```
>> from math import *
>> df = Derivative(sin)
>> x = pi
>> df(x)
-1.000000082740371
>> cos(x) # exact
-1.0
>> def g(t):
... return t**3
...
>> dg = Derivative(g)
>> t = 1
>> dg(t) # compare with 3 (exact)
3.000000248221113
```

Automagic differentiation; useful in Newton's method

Newton's method solves nonlinear equations f(x) = 0, but the method requires f'(x)

```
def Newton(f, xstart, dfdx, epsilon=1E-6):
    ...
    return x, no_of_iterations, f(x)
```

Suppose f'(x) requires boring/lengthy derivation, then class Derivative is handy:

```
>> def f(x):
... return 100000*(x - 0.9)**2 * (x - 1.1)**3
...
>> df = Derivative(f)
>> xstart = 1.01
>> Newton(f, xstart, df, epsilon=1E-5)
```

```
(1.0987610068093443, 8, -7.5139644257961411e-06)
```

Automagic differentiation; test function

- How can we test class Derivative?
- Method 1: compute (f(x+h)-f(x))/h by hand for some f and h
- ullet Method 2: utilize that linear functions are differentiated exactly by our numerical formula, regardless of h

Test function based on method 2:

Automagic differentiation; explanation of the test function

```
Use of lambda functions:
f = lambda x: a*x + b
```

is equivalent to

```
def f(x):
    return a*x + b
```

Lambda functions are convenient for producing quick, short code

```
Use of closure:
f = lambda x: a*x + b
a = 3.5; b = 8
dfdx = Derivative(f, h=0.5)
dfdx(4.5)
```

Looks straightforward...but

- How can Derivative.__call__ know a and b when it calls our f(x) function?
- Local functions inside functions remember (have access to) all local variables in the function they are defined (!)
- f can access a and b in test_Derivative even when called from __call__ in class 'Derivative
- f is known as a *closure* in computer science

Automagic differentiation detour; sympy solution (exact differentiation via symbolic expressions)

SymPy can perform exact, symbolic differentiation:

```
>> from sympy import *
>> def g(t):
...    return t**3
...
>> t = Symbol('t')
>> dgdt = diff(g(t), t)  # compute g'(t)
>> dgdt
3*t**2
>> # Turn sympy expression dgdt into Python function dg(t)
>> dg = lambdify([t], dgdt)
>> dg(1)
```

Automagic differentiation detour; class based on sympy

```
import sympy as sp

class Derivative_sympy:
    def __init__(self, f):
        # f: Python f(x)
        x = sp.Symbol('x')
        sympy_f = f(x)
        sympy_dfdx = sp.diff(sympy_f, x)
        self.__call__ = sp.lambdify([x], sympy_dfdx)
```

```
>> def g(t):
... return t**3

>> def h(y):
... return sp.sin(y)

>> dg = Derivative_sympy(g)
>> dh = Derivative_sympy(h)
>> dg(1) # 3*1**2 = 3
3
>> from math import pi
>> dh(pi) # cos(pi) = -1
-1.0
```

Automagic integration; problem setting

Given a function f(x), we want to compute

$$F(x;a) = \int_{a}^{x} f(t)dt$$

Technique: Trapezoidal rule

$$\int_{a}^{x} f(t)dt = h\left(\frac{1}{2}f(a) + \sum_{i=1}^{n-1} f(a+ih) + \frac{1}{2}f(x)\right)$$

Desired application code:

```
def f(x):
    return exp(-x**2)*sin(10*x)

a = 0; n = 200
F = Integral(f, a, n)
x = 1.2
print F(x)
```

Automagic integration; implementation

```
def trapezoidal(f, a, x, n):
    h = (x-a)/float(n)
    I = 0.5*f(a)
    for i in range(1, n):
        I += f(a + i*h)
    I += 0.5*f(x)
    I *= h
    return I
```

Class Integral holds f, a and n as attributes and has a call special method for computing the integral:

```
class Integral:
    def __init__(self, f, a, n=100):
        self.f, self.a, self.n = f, a, n

def __call__(self, x):
    return trapezoidal(self.f, self.a, x, self.n)
```

Automagic differentiation; test function

- How can we test class Derivative?
- Method 1: compute (f(x+h)-f(x))/h by hand for some f and h
- \bullet Method 2: utilize that linear functions are differentiated exactly by our numerical formula, regardless of h

Test function based on method 2:

```
def test_Derivative():
    # The formula is exact for linear functions, regardless of h
    f = lambda x: a*x + b
    a = 3.5; b = 8
    dfdx = Derivative(f, h=0.5)
```

```
diff = abs(dfdx(4.5) - a)
assert diff < 1E-14, 'bug in class Derivative, diff=%s' %
    diff</pre>
```

Automagic differentiation; explanation of the test function

```
Use of lambda functions:

f = lambda x: a*x + b
```

is equivalent to

```
def f(x):
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```

Lambda functions are convenient for producing quick, short code

```
Use of closure:
f = lambda x: a*x + b
a = 3.5; b = 8
dfdx = Derivative(f, h=0.5)
dfdx(4.5)
```

Looks straightforward...but

- How can Derivative.__call__ know a and b when it calls our f(x) function?
- Local functions inside functions remember (have access to) all local variables in the function they are defined (!)
- f can access a and b in test_Derivative even when called from __call__ in class 'Derivative
- f is known as a *closure* in computer science

Automagic integration; test function

- Method 1: compute with the Trapezoidal rule by hand
- Method 2: utilize the fact that the Trapezoidal rule integrates linear functions exactly

Test function based on method 2:

```
def test_Integral():
    # The Trapezoidal rule is exact for linear functions
    f = lambda x: 2*x + 5
    F = lambda x: x**2 + 5*x # integral of f
    a = 2
    I = Integral(f, a, n=4)
    x = 6
    diff = abs(I(x) - (F(x) - F(a)))
    assert diff < 1E-15, 'bug in class Integral, diff=%s' % diff</pre>
```

Special method for printing

- In Python, we can usually print an object a by print a, works for built-in types (strings, lists, floats, ...)
- Python does not know how to print objects of a user-defined class, but
 if the class defines a method __str__, Python will use this method to
 convert an object to a string

Example:

```
class Y:
    ...
    def __call__(self, t):
        return self.v0*t - 0.5*self.g*t**2

def __str__(self):
    return 'v0*t - 0.5*g*t**2; v0=%g' % self.v0
```

Demo:

```
>> y = Y(1.5)
>> y(0.2)
0.1038
>> print y
v0*t - 0.5*g*t**2; v0=1.5
```

Class for polynomials; functionality

A polynomial can be specified by a list of its coefficients. For example, $1-x^2+2x^3$

$$1 + 0 \cdot x - 1 \cdot x^2 + 2 \cdot x^3$$

and the coefficients can be stored as [1, 0, -1, 2]

Desired application code:

```
>> p1 = Polynomial([1, -1])
>> print p1
1 - x
>> p2 = Polynomial([0, 1, 0, 0, -6, -1])
>> p3 = p1 + p2
>> print p3.coeff
[1, 0, 0, 0, -6, -1]
>> print p3
1 - 6*x^4 - x^5
>> p2.differentiate()
>> print p2
1 - 24*x^3 - 5*x^4
```

How can we make class Polynomial?

Class Polynomial; basic code

```
class Polynomial:
    def __init__(self, coefficients):
        self.coeff = coefficients

def __call__(self, x):
        s = 0
        for i in range(len(self.coeff)):
            s += self.coeff[i]*x**i
        return s
```

Class Polynomial; addition

```
class Polynomial:
    ...

def __add__(self, other):
    # return self + other

# start with the longest list and add in the other:
    if len(self.coeff) > len(other.coeff):
        coeffsum = self.coeff[:] # copy!
        for i in range(len(other.coeff)):
            coeffsum[i] += other.coeff[i]

else:
        coeffsum = other.coeff[:] # copy!
        for i in range(len(self.coeff)):
            coeffsum[i] += self.coeff[i]

return Polynomial(coeffsum)
```

Class Polynomial; multiplication

 ${\bf Mathematics:} \quad {\bf Multiplication \ of \ two \ general \ polynomials:}$

$$\left(\sum_{i=0}^{M} c_{i} x^{i}\right) \left(\sum_{j=0}^{N} d_{j} x^{j}\right) = \sum_{i=0}^{M} \sum_{j=0}^{N} c_{i} d_{j} x^{i+j}$$

The coeff. corresponding to power i+j is $c_i \cdot d_j$. The list ${\tt r}$ of coefficients of the result: ${\tt r[i+j]} = {\tt c[i]*d[j]}$ (i and j running from 0 to M and N, resp.)

Implementation:

```
class Polynomial:
    ...
    def __mul__(self, other):
        M = len(self.coeff) - 1
        N = len(other.coeff) - 1
        coeff = [0]*(M+N+1) # or zeros(M+N+1)
        for i in range(0, M+1):
            for j in range(0, N+1):
                 coeff[i+j] += self.coeff[i]*other.coeff[j]
        return Polynomial(coeff)
```

Class Polynomial; differentation

Mathematics: Rule for differentiating a general polynomial:

$$\frac{d}{dx} \sum_{i=0}^{n} c_i x^i = \sum_{i=1}^{n} i c_i x^{i-1}$$

If c is the list of coefficients, the derivative has a list of coefficients, dc, where dc[i-1] = i*c[i] for i running from 1 to the largest index in c. Note that dc has one element less than c.

Implementation:

```
class Polynomial:
    ...
    def differentiate(self):  # change self
        for i in range(1, len(self.coeff)):
            self.coeff[i-1] = i*self.coeff[i]
        del self.coeff[-1]

def derivative(self):  # return new polynomial
        dpdx = Polynomial(self.coeff[:])  # copy
        dpdx.differentiate()
    return dpdx
```

Class Polynomial; pretty print

Class for polynomials; usage

Consider

$$p_1(x) = 1 - x$$
, $p_2(x) = x - 6x^4 - x^5$

and their sum

$$p_3(x) = p_1(x) + p_2(x) = 1 - 6x^4 - x^5$$

```
>>> p1 = Polynomial([1, -1])
>>> print p1
1 - x
>>> p2 = Polynomial([0, 1, 0, 0, -6, -1])
>>> p3 = p1 + p2
>>> print p3.coeff
[1, 0, 0, 0, -6, -1]
>>> p2.differentiate()
>>> print p2
1 - 24*x^3 - 5*x^4
```

The programmer is in charge of defining special methods!

How should, e.g., __add__(self, other) be defined? This is completely up to the programmer, depending on what is meaningful by object1 + object2.

An anthropologist was asking a primitive tribesman about arithmetic. When the anthropologist asked, What does two and two make? the tribesman replied, Five. Asked to explain, the tribesman said, If I have a rope with two knots, and another rope with two knots, and I join the ropes together, then I have five knots.

Special methods for arithmetic operations

```
c = a + b  # c = a.__add__(b)
c = a - b  # c = a.__sub__(b)
c = a*b  # c = a.__mul__(b)
c = a/b  # c = a.__div__(b)
c = a**e  # c = a.__pow__(e)
```

Special methods for comparisons

```
a == b  # a.__eq__(b)

a != b  # a.__ne__(b)

a < b  # a.__lt__(b)

a <= b  # a.__le__(b)

a > b  # a.__gt__(b)

a >= b  # a.__ge__(b)
```

Class for vectors in the plane

Mathematical operations for vectors in the plane:

```
(a,b) + (c,d) = (a+c,b+d)

(a,b) - (c,d) = (a-c,b-d)

(a,b) \cdot (c,d) = ac+bd

(a,b) = (c,d) \text{ if } a=c \text{ and } b=d
```

Desired application code:

```
>> u = Vec2D(0,1)
>> v = Vec2D(1,0)
>> print u + v
(1, 1)
>> a = u + v
>> w = Vec2D(1,1)
>> a == w
True
>> print u - v
(-1, 1)
>> print u*v
0
```

Class for vectors; implementation

```
class Vec2D:
  def __init__(self, x, y):
       self.x = x; self.y = y
   def __add__(self, other):
      return Vec2D(self.x+other.x, self.y+other.y)
   def __sub__(self, other):
       return Vec2D(self.x-other.x, self.y-other.y)
   def __mul__(self, other):
       return self.x*other.x + self.y*other.y
   def __abs__(self):
      return math.sqrt(self.x**2 + self.y**2)
   def __eq__(self, other):
       return self.x == other.x and self.y == other.y
   def __str__(self):
      return '(%g, %g)' % (self.x, self.y)
   def __ne__(self, other):
       return not self.__eq__(other) # reuse __eq__
```

The repr special method: eval(repr(p)) creates p

```
class MyClass:
    def __init__(self, a, b):
        self.a, self.b = a, b

def __str__(self):
    """Return string with pretty print."""
    return 'a=%s, b=%s' % (self.a, self.b)

def __repr__(self):
    """Return string such that eval(s) recreates self."""
    return 'MyClass(%s, %s)' % (self.a, self.b)
```

Class Y revisited with repr print method

```
class Y:
    """Class for function y(t; v0, g) = v0*t - 0.5*g*t**2."""

def __init__(self, v0):
    """Store parameters."""
    self.v0 = v0
    self.g = 9.81

def __call__(self, t):
    """Evaluate function."""
    return self.v0*t - 0.5*self.g*t**2

def __str__(self):
    """Pretty print."""
    return 'v0*t - 0.5*g*t**2; v0=%g' % self.v0

def __repr__(self):
    """Print code for regenerating this instance."""
    return 'Y(%s)' % self.v0
```

Class for complex numbers; functionality

Python already has a class complex for complex numbers, but implementing such a class is a good pedagogical example on class programming (especially with special methods).

```
Usage:
\gg u = Complex (2,-1)
>> v = Complex(1)
                     # zero imaginary part
>> w = u + v
>> print w
(3, -1)
>> w != u
True
>> u∗v
Complex(2, -1)
>> u < v
illegal operation "<" for complex numbers
\gg print w + 4
(7, -1)
>> print 4 - w
(1, 1)
```

Class for complex numbers; implementation (part 1)

```
class Complex:
    def __init__(self, real, imag=0.0):
        self.real = real
        self.imag = imag
    def __add__(self, other):
        return Complex(self.real + other.real,
                       self.imag + other.imag)
    def __sub__(self, other):
        return Complex(self.real - other.real,
                       self.imag - other.imag)
    def __mul__(self, other):
        return Complex(self.real*other.real -
            self.imag*other.imag,
                       self.imag*other.real +
                           self.real*other.imag)
    def __div__(self, other):
        ar, ai, br, bi = self.real, self.imag, \
                         other.real, other.imag # short forms
        r = float(br**2 + bi**2)
        return Complex((ar*br+ai*bi)/r, (ai*br-ar*bi)/r)
```

Class for complex numbers; implementation (part 2)

```
def __abs__(self):
    return sqrt(self.real**2 + self.imag**2)

def __neg__(self):  # defines -c (c is Complex)
    return Complex(-self.real, -self.imag)

def __eq__(self, other):
    return self.real == other.real and \
```

```
self.imag == other.imag

def __ne__(self, other):
    return not self.__eq__(other)

def __str__(self):
    return '(%g, %g)' % (self.real, self.imag)

def __repr__(self):
    return 'Complex' + str(self)

def __pow__(self, power):
    raise NotImplementedError(
        'self**power is not yet impl. for Complex')
```

Refining the special methods for arithmetics

Can we add a real number to a complex number?

```
»> u = Complex(1, 2)
»> w = u + 4.5
...
AttributeError: 'float' object has no attribute 'real'
```

Problem: we have assumed that other is Complex. Remedy:

Special methods for "right" operands; addition

What if we try this:

```
>> u = Complex(1, 2)
>> w = 4.5 + u
...
TypeError: unsupported operand type(s) for +:
   'float' and 'instance'
```

Problem: Python's float objects cannot add a Complex.

Remedy: if a class has an __radd__(self, other) special method, Python applies this for other + self

```
class Complex:
    ...
    def __radd__(self, other):
        """Rturn other + self."""
        # other + self = self + other:
        return self.__add__(other)
```

Special methods for "right" operands; subtraction

Right operands for subtraction is a bit more complicated since $a - b \neq b - a$:

What's in a class?

```
class A:
    """A class for demo purposes."""
    def __init__(self, value):
        self.v = value
```

Any instance holds its attributes in the self.__dict__ dictionary (Python automatically creates this dict)

```
>> a = A([1,2])
>> print a.__dict__ # all attributes
{'v': [1, 2]}
>> dir(a) # what's in object a?
'__doc__', '__init__', '__module__', 'dump', 'v']
>> a.__doc__ # programmer's documentation of A
'A class for demo purposes.'
```

Ooops - we can add new attributes as we want!

Summary of defining a class

Example on a defining a class with attributes and methods:

```
class Gravity:
    """Gravity force between two objects."""
    def __init__(self, m, M):
        self.m = m
        self.M = M
        self.G = 6.67428E-11 # gravity constant

def force(self, r):
        G, m, M = self.G, self.m, self.M
        return G*m*M/r**2

def visualize(self, r_start, r_stop, n=100):
        from scitools.std import plot, linspace
        r = linspace(r_start, r_stop, n)
        g = self.force(r)
        title='m=%g, M=%g' % (self.m, self.M)
        plot(r, g, title=title)
```

Summary of using a class

Example on using the class:

```
mass_moon = 7.35E+22
mass_earth = 5.97E+24

# make instance of class Gravity:
gravity = Gravity(mass_moon, mass_earth)

r = 3.85E+8 # earth-moon distance in meters
Fg = gravity.force(r) # call class method
```

Summary of special methods

- $c = a + b \text{ implies } c = a._add_(b)$
- There are special methods for a+b, a-b, a*b, a/b, a**b, -a, if a:, len(a), str(a) (pretty print), repr(a) (recreate a with eval), etc.
- With special methods we can create new mathematical objects like vectors, polynomials and complex numbers and write "mathematical code" (arithmetics)

- The call special method is particularly handy: v = c(5) means $v = c._call_(5)$
- Functions with parameters should be represented by a class with the parameters as attributes and with a call special method for evaluating the function

Summarizing example: interval arithmetics for uncertainty quantification in formulas

Uncertainty quantification: Consider measuring gravity g by dropping a ball from $y = y_0$ to y = 0 in time T:

$$q = 2y_0 T^{-2}$$

What if y_0 and T are uncertain? Say $y_0 \in [0.99, 1.01]$ m and $T \in [0.43, 0.47]$ s. What is the uncertainty in g?

The uncertainty can be computed by interval arithmetics

Interval arithmetics. Rules for computing with intervals, p = [a, b] and q = [c, d]:

- p + q = [a + c, b + d]
- p q = [a d, b c]
- $pq = [\min(ac, ad, bc, bd), \max(ac, ad, bc, bd)]$
- $p/q = [\min(a/c, a/d, b/c, b/d), \max(a/c, a/d, b/c, b/d)]$ ([c, d] cannot contain zero)

Obvious idea: make a class for interval arithmetics!

Class for interval arithmetics

```
class IntervalMath:
    def __init__(self, lower, upper):
        self.lo = float(lower)
        self.up = float(upper)

def __add__(self, other):
        a, b, c, d = self.lo, self.up, other.lo, other.up
        return IntervalMath(a + c, b + d)

def __sub__(self, other):
        a, b, c, d = self.lo, self.up, other.lo, other.up
        return IntervalMath(a - d, b - c)

def __mul__(self, other):
        a, b, c, d = self.lo, self.up, other.lo, other.up
        return IntervalMath(min(a*c, a*d, b*c, b*d),
```

Demo of the new class for interval arithmetics

```
Code:
    I = IntervalMath  # abbreviate
a = I(-3,-2)
b = I(4,5)

expr = 'a+b', 'a-b', 'a*b', 'a/b'  # test expressions
for e in expr:
    print e, '=', eval(e)
```

```
Output:

a+b = [1, 3]

a-b = [-8, -6]

a*b = [-15, -8]

a/b = [-0.75, -0.4]
```

Shortcomings of the class

This code

```
a = I(4,5)
q = 2
b = a*q
```

leads to

File "IntervalMath.py", line 15, in __mul__
 a, b, c, d = self.lo, self.up, other.lo, other.up
AttributeError: 'float' object has no attribute 'lo'

Problem: IntervalMath times int is not defined.

Remedy: (cf. class Complex)

(with similar adjustments of other special methods)

More shortcomings of the class

Try to compute g = 2*y0*T**(-2): multiplication of int (2) and IntervalMath (y0), and power operation T**(-2) are not defined

```
class IntervalArithmetics:
    def __rmul__(self, other):
        if isinstance(other, (int, float)):
            other = IntervalMath(other, other)
        return other*self
    def __pow__(self, exponent):
        if isinstance(exponent, int):
           p = 1
            if exponent > 0:
                for i in range(exponent):
                  p = p*self
            elif exponent < 0:</pre>
                for i in range(-exponent):
               p = p*self
p = 1/p
            else: # exponent == 0
               p = IntervalMath(1, 1)
            return p
        else:
            raise TypeError('exponent must int')
```

Adding more functionality to the class: rounding

"Rounding" to the midpoint value:

```
>> a = IntervalMath(5,7)
>> float(a)
6
```

is achieved by

```
class IntervalArithmetics:
    ...
    def __float__(self):
        return 0.5*(self.lo + self.up)
```

Adding more functionality to the class: repr and str methods

```
class IntervalArithmetics:
    ...
    def __str__(self):
        return '[%g, %g]' % (self.lo, self.up)

def __repr__(self):
    return '%s(%g, %g)' % \
```

```
(self.__class__.__name__, self.lo, self.up)
```

Demonstrating the class: $g = 2y_0T^{-2}$

```
»> g = 9.81
\gg y_0 = I(0.99, 1.01)
>> Tm = 0.45
                                 # mean T
\gg T = I(Tm*0.95, Tm*1.05)
                               # 10% uncertainty
»> print T
[0.4275, 0.4725]
\Rightarrow g = 2*y_0*T**(-2)
»> g
IntervalMath(8.86873, 11.053)
»> # computing with mean values:
»> T = float(T)
»> y = 1
>> g = 2*y_0*T**(-2)
>> print '%.2f' % g
9.88
```

Demonstrating the class: volume of a sphere

```
>> R = I(6*0.9, 6*1.1)  # 20 % error
>> V = (4./3)*pi*R**3
>> V
IntervalMath(659.584, 1204.26)
>> print V
[659.584, 1204.26]
>> print float(V)
931.922044761
>> # compute with mean values:
>> R = float(R)
>> V = (4./3)*pi*R**3
>> print V
904.778684234
```

20% uncertainty in R gives almost 60% uncertainty in V