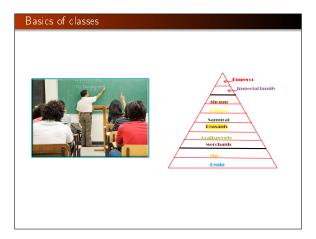
Ch.7: Introduction to classes Hans Petter Langtangen 1,2

Simula Research Laboratory 1 University of Oslo, Dept. of Informatics 2

May 6, 2015



Class = functions + data (variables) in one unit

- 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 :

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

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

- 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 __init__ for initialization of the variables

__init__ value formula __call __str__ g v0


```
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:

\frac{def}{self.v0} = \frac{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).
- \bullet 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!
- \bullet After y = Y(3), y has two variables v0 and g print y.v0 print y.v0

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)

self is left out in the call, but Python automatically inserts y as the self argument inside the 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 vO 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 linepace(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 beta, mu0, n, R = \beta mu0, n, R = \beta mu0, n, R = \self.beta, self.mu0, self.n, self.R = \beta self.beta, self.mu0, self.n, self.R n = float(n) # ensure float divisions v = (beta/(2.0*mu0))**(1/n)**(n/(n+1))*\beta (k**(i*i/n) - r**(i*i/n)) return v \vert VelocityProfile(R=1, beta=0.06, mu0=0.02, n=0.1) print v.value(r=0.1)

```
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

```
But what is this self variable? I want to know now!

Warning
You have two choices:

• follow the detailed explanations of what self really is
• postpone understanding self until you have much more experience with class programming (suddenly self becomes clear!)

The syntax
y = Y(3)

can be thought of as
Y.__init__(y, 3)  # class prefix Y. is like a module prefix

Then
self.vo = vo
is actually
y.vo = 3
```

How self works in the value method

v = y.value(2)
can alternatively be written as
v = Y.value(y, 2)
So, when we do instance.method(arg1, arg2), self becomes instance inside method.

```
Working with multiple instances may help explain self

id(obj): print unique Python identifier of an object

class SelfExplorer:
   """Class for computing ass."""

def __init__(self, a):
   self.a = a
   print 'init: a=%g, id(self)=%d' % (self.a, id(self))

def value(self, x):
   print 'value: a=%g, id(self)=%d' % (self.a, id(self))
   return self.a*x

>>> s1 = SelfExplorer(1)
   init: a=1, id(self)=38085696

>>> s2 = SelfExplorer(2)
   init: a=2, id(self)=38085192
   >>> s1.value(4)
   value: a=1, id(self)=38085696

4 >>> SelfExplorer.value(s1, 4)
   value: a=1, id(self)=38085696
```

But what is this self variable? I want to know now! Warning You have two choices: • follow the detailed explanations of what self really is • postpone understanding self until you have much more experience with class programming (suddenly self becomes clear!) The syntax y = Y(3) can be thought of as Y.__init__(y, 3) # class prefix Y. is like a module prefix Then self.v0 = v0 is actually y.v0 = 3

```
v = y.value(2)
can alternatively be written as
v = Y.value(y, 2)
So, when we do instance.method(arg1, arg2), self becomes instance inside method.
```

```
Working with multiple instances may help explain self

id(obj): print unique Python identifier of an object

class SelfExplorer:
    """Class for computing a*x."""
    def __init__(self, a):
        self.a = a
        print 'sint: a*g, id(self)="M4" % (self.a, id(self))

def value(self, x):
    print 'yalue: a=g, id(self)="M4" % (self.a, id(self))

>> si = SelfExplorer(1)
    init: a=1, id(self)=38085696

>>> s2 = SelfExplorer(2)
    init: a=2, id(self)=38085192

>>> id(s2)
    38085696

>>> s1 value(4)
    value: a=1, id(self)=38085696

4

>> SelfExplorer.value(s1, 4)
    value: a=1, id(self)=38085696
```

```
UML diagram of class Account

Account

Init_
deposit
withdraw
dump

balance
name
no
```

```
>>> a1 = Account('John Olsson', '19371554951', 20000)
>>> a2 = Account('Liz Olsson', '19371564761', 20000)
>>> a1.vithdraw(4000)
>>> a2.vithdraw(4000)
>>> a2.vithdraw(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.

```
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
```

```
These Constitutions of class Person

These Constitutions of the Constitution of the Co
```

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

```
Another example: a class for a circle

• A circle is defined by its center point x<sub>0</sub>, y<sub>0</sub> and its radius R

• These data can be attributes in a class

• Possible methods in the class: area, circumference

• The constructor initializes x<sub>0</sub>, y<sub>0</sub> and R

class Circle:
def __init__(self, x<sub>0</sub>, y<sub>0</sub>, R):
self.x<sub>0</sub>, self.y<sub>0</sub>, self.R = x<sub>0</sub>, y<sub>0</sub>, 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.x<sub>0</sub>, c.y<sub>0</sub>, c.area())
A circle with radius 5 at (2, -1) has area 78.5398
```

```
def test_Circle():
    R = 2.5
    c = Circle(7.4, -8.1, R)
    from math import pi
    expected_area = pi*R**2
    computed_area = c.area()
    diff = abs(expected_area - computed_area)
    tol = IE-I4
    assert diff < tol, 'bug in Circle.area, diff=%s' % diff
    expected_circumf erence = 2*pi*R
    computed_circumf erence = c.circumference()
    diff = abs(expected_circumference - computed_circumference)
    assert diff < tol, 'bug in Circle.circumference, diff=%s' % diff</pre>
```

```
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 __eald__(self, ...)
def __eald__(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.__eadd__(y, z)

We shall learn about many more such special methods
```

```
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*z**2 for z=2
```

Automagic differentiation; solution

Mothod

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.f = f
        self.h = float(h)

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

Automagic differentiation; demo

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

Automagic differentiation; useful in Newton's method

```
Newton's method solves nonlinear equations f(x)=0, but the method requires f^{\prime}(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)
(1.0987610065093443, 8, -7.513964257961411e-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
- 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():
    f 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): 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

```
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 = diff(g(t), t)  # compute g'(t)
>>> dgdt = diff(g(t), t)  # compute g'(t)
>>> dgdt = lambdify([t], dgdt)
>>> dg = lambdify([t], dgdt)
>>> dg(1)
3
```

```
Automagic differentiation detour; class based on sympy

import sympy as sp

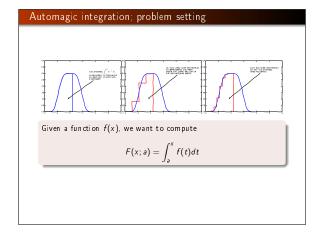
class Derivative_sympy:

def __init__(self, f):
    # f: Python f(x)
    x = sp. Symbol('x')
    sympy_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)
>>> dg Derivative_sympy(h)
>>> dg(1)    # 3*1**2 = 3
3
>>> from math import pi
>>> dh(pi)    # cos(pt) = -1
-1.0
```



```
Automagic integration; technique F(x;a) = \int_a^x f(t)dt Technique: Midpoint rule or Trapezoidal rule, here the latter: \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: \det_{f(x): \text{ return exp}(-x**2)*\sin(10*x)} a = 0; \ n = 200 F = Integral(f, a, n) x = 1.2 print F(x)
```

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

```
◆ How can we test class Integral?
◆ Method 1: compute by hand for some f and small n
◆ Method 2: utilize that linear functions are integrated exactly by our numerical formula, regardless of n
Test function based on method 2:
def test_Integral(): f = lambda x: 2*x + 5
F = lambda x: 2*x + 5
F = lambda x: x*2 + 5*x - (a**2 + 5*a)
a = 2
ddx = Integralf, a, n=4)
x = 6
diff = abs(I(x) - (F(x) - F(a)))
assert diff < iE-15, 'bug in class Integral, diff=%s' % diff</li>
```

```
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 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
```

```
class Polynomial; addition

class Polynomial:
...

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

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

else:
    coeffsum = other.coeff[:] # copy!
    f or i in range(len(self.coeff)):
        coeffsum[i] += self.coeff[i]
    return Polynomial(coeffsum)
```

Class Polynomial; differentation

Mathematics:

Rule for differentiating a general polynomial:

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

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(i, 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()
```

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 - 24xx3 - 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._.mul_.(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

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) if a = c and b = dDesired application code: >>> u = Vec2D(0,1) >>> v = Vec2D(1,0) >>> print u + v (1, 1) >>> a = u + v >>> v = Vec2D(1,1) >>> a = v = v 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__
```

```
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):
        """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
```

```
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:

>>> u = Complex(2,-1)
>>> v = Complex(1)  # sero imaginary part
>>> print w
(3, -1)
>>> w! = u
True
>>> u + v
Complex(2, -1)
>>> u + v
complex(2, -1)
>>> v! = u
True
>>> print w + 4
(7, -1)
>>> print w + 4
(7, -1)
>>> print d - w
(1, 1)
```



```
What if we try this:

>>> u = Complex(1, 2)
>>> v = 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):

### "## true other + self * self + other:
    f other + self * self + other:
    return self.__add__(other)
```

```
Right operands for "right" operands; subtraction

Right operands for subtraction is a bit more complicated since a-b\neq b-a:
class Complex:
    def __sub__(self, other):
        if isinstance(other, (float,int)):
            other = Complex(other)
        return Complex(self, real - other.real, self.imag - other.imag)

def __rsub__(self, other):
    if isinstance(other, (float,int)):
        other = Complex(other)
        return other.__sub__(self)
```

```
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)
'__doc__', __init__', __module__', 'dump', 'v']
>>> a___doc__ # programmer's documentation of A
'A class for demo purposes.'
```

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.Groce(r) title='m='/g, M='/g' % (self.m, self.M) plot(r, g, title=title)

```
Example on using the class:

mass.moon = 7.358+22
mass.earth = 5.978+24

# make instance of class Gravity:
gravity = Gravity(mass.moon, mass.earth)

r = 3.858+8 # earth-moon distance in meters
Fg = gravity.force(r) # call class method
```

```
c = a + b 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
```

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 IntervalNath:
    def __init__(self, lower, upper):
        self lo = float(lower)
        self lo = float(upper)

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

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

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

def __div__(self, other):
        a, b, c, d = self.lo, self.up, other.lo, other.up
        if c*d* = 0: return None
        return IntervalNath(min(a/c, a/d, b/c, b/d))

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

```
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 = [-15, -8]
a/b = [-0.75, -0.4]
```

```
"Rounding" to the midpoint value:

>>> a = IntervalNath(5,7)
>>> float(a)
6

is achieved by

class IntervalArithmetics:

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

```
>>> g = 9.81

>>> y 0 = 1(0.99, 1.01)

>>> Tm = 0.45

>>> T = I(Tm*0.95, Tm*1.05)  # mean T

>>> print T

[0.4275, 0.4725]

>>> g = 2*y_0*0***(-2)

>>> g

IntervalMath(8.86873, 11.053)

>>> # computing with mean values:

>>> T = float(T)

>>> y = 1

>>> g = 2*y_0*0***(-2)

>>> print T

>>> p = 1

>>> g = 2*y_0*0***(-2)
```

Demonstrating the class: volume of a sphere

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