

Lecture 18a: Errors!

Breaking our code on purpose!
(And otherwise handling errors)

Dealing with problems in code

```
1 x = 10
2 y = 0
3
4 z = x / y
```

```
In [52]: z = x / y
Traceback (most recent call last):

  File "<ipython-input-52-ecc64115d3c8>", line 1, in <module>
    z = x / y
ZeroDivisionError: division by zero
```

What are some ways we can deal with this?

1. We can leave it as-is; the traceback gives a clear error message

Dealing with problems in code

```
7   x = 10
8   y = 0
9   → assert(y != 0), 'Error: y cannot be 0'
10  z = x / y
```

```
In [54]: assert(y != 0), 'Error: y cannot be 0'
Traceback (most recent call last):

  File "<ipython-input-54-4bb5e71fe6f1>", line 1, in <module>
    assert(y != 0), 'Error: y cannot be 0'

AssertionError: Error: y cannot be 0
```

2. We can force the program to halt *based on a conditional statement*. This lets us control the flow, raise custom warnings, and prevent errors that might otherwise pass unnoticed.

Dealing with problems in code

```
13 x = 10
14 y = 0
15
16 try:
17     z = x / y
18 except ZeroDivisionError:
19     print('Error: y cannot be 0')
```

```
In [55]: try:
...:     z = x / y
...: except ZeroDivisionError:
...:     print('Error: y cannot be 0')
Error: y cannot be 0
```

3. We can *capture the error* using a try/except block, and then proceed with our program without halting.

Dealing with problems in code

```
21 x = 10
22 y = [0]
23 try:
24     z = x / y[0]
25 except ZeroDivisionError:
26     print('Error: y cannot be 0')
27 except IndexError:
28     print('Error: the length of list y is not correct')
29 except:
30     print('Something else went wrong...')
```

```
21 x = 10
22 y = [0]
```

```
Error: y cannot be 0
```

```
21 x = 10
22 y = []
```

```
Error: the length of list y is not correct
```

```
21 x = 10
22 y = [5]
```

```
In [59]: z
Out[59]: 2.0
```

We can chain except statements together, just like elif, and conclude with a catch-all except at the end. Note that the last except block will capture ALL tracebacks, and is not generally good practice to do.

Combining assert with isinstance

```
35 def string_fixer(s):  
36     s = s.lower().strip()  
37     if s.startswith('a'):  
38         return "it's an a!"  
39     else:  
40         return "it's not an a."
```

Leaving it like this is called “duck typing”

But how can we have more control if we need it?

```
In [61]: string_fixer(42)  
Traceback (most recent call last):  
  
  File "<ipython-input-61-03a78e8eb66f>", line 1, in <module>  
    string_fixer(42)  
  
  File "<ipython-input-60-c0604abdd377>", line 2, in  
string_fixer  
    s = s.lower().strip()  
  
AttributeError: 'int' object has no attribute 'lower'
```

Combining assert with isinstance

```
In [80]: isinstance('Hello world!', str)
Out[80]: True

In [81]: isinstance('Hello world!', int)
Out[81]: False
```

isinstance returns True if the first argument is an instance of the second argument, else False.

Combining assert with isinstance

```
In [80]: isinstance('Hello world!', str)
Out[80]: True

In [81]: isinstance('Hello world!', int)
Out[81]: False
```

isinstance returns True if the first argument is an instance of the second argument, else False.

```
48 class MyClass():
49     pass
50
51 my_instance = MyClass()
```

```
In [68]: isinstance(my_instance, MyClass)
Out[68]: True
```

It works with classes we write ourselves also.

Combining assert with isinstance

```
35 def string_fixer(s):
36     assert(isinstance(s, str)), 'string_fixer requires string arg'
37     s = s.lower().strip()
38     if s.startswith('a'):
39         return "it's an a!"
40     else:
41         return "it's not an a."
```

```
In [64]: string_fixer(42)
Traceback (most recent call last):

File "<ipython-input-64-03a78e8eb66f>", line 1, in <module>
    string_fixer(42)

File "<ipython-input-63-ae51ef981c60>", line 2, in string_fixer
    assert(isinstance(s, str)), 'string_fixer requires string arg'

AssertionError: string_fixer requires string arg
```

Combining assert with isinstance

```
56 def math_some_numbers(a, b):  
57     val = (a + b) * 2  
58     return val
```

```
In [70]: math_some_numbers(10, 20)  
Out[70]: 60  
  
In [71]: math_some_numbers('Hello', 'World')  
Out[71]: 'HelloWorldHelloWorld'
```

This code runs incorrectly, but without errors.

This is the worst result!

Combining assert with isinstance

```
63 import numbers
64 #https://docs.python.org/3/library/numbers.html
65
66 ▼ def math_some_numbers(a, b):
67 ▼     assert(isinstance(a, numbers.Number) and
68             isinstance(b, numbers.Number)), 'Must pass in numeric arguments!'
69     val = (a + b) * 2
70     return val
```

Note that “numbers” is a standard Python library that gives us access to the base class of all numeric data types. Alternatively, we could test isinstance against the int and float types separately for both a and b:

```
assert((isinstance(a, int) or isinstance(a, float)) and
       (isinstance(b, int) or isinstance(b, float)))
```

Combining assert with isinstance

```
63 import numbers
64 #https://docs.python.org/3/library/numbers.html
65
66 ▼ def math_some_numbers(a, b):
67 ▼     assert(isinstance(a, numbers.Number) and
68             isinstance(b, numbers.Number)), 'Must pass in numeric arguments!'
69     val = (a + b) * 2
70     return val
```

```
In [77]: math_some_numbers(10, 20)
```

```
Out[77]: 60
```

```
In [78]: math_some_numbers('Hello', 'World')
```

```
Traceback (most recent call last):
```

```
File "<ipython-input-78-6aeb3b9d2778>", line 1, in <module>
    math_some_numbers('Hello', 'World')
```

```
File "<ipython-input-76-f89ab47dfdb6>", line 6, in math_some_numbers
    isinstance(b, numbers.Number)), 'Must pass in numeric arguments!'
```

```
AssertionError: Must pass in numeric arguments!
```

Lecture 18b: Simulations

A sensible way to apply classes and methods.

The Schelling Model

- In 1971, used checkers and checkers boards to simulate neighborhood segregation.
- Showed that a relatively small preference for similar neighbors (less than 50%) can result in segregated neighborhoods, all else equal.

The Schelling Model

1. Agents are a member of one of at least two categories (originally red and black for checkers)
2. Agents are randomly assigned a spot on the board
3. On its turn, an agent looks at its 8 neighbors, and:
 - a. Counts the proportion that are the same color as them
 - b. Decides they're "happy" if the proportion meets or exceeds the threshold
 - c. Moves to a new random location if they are not happy
4. Simulation ends when no one moves, or improves their position

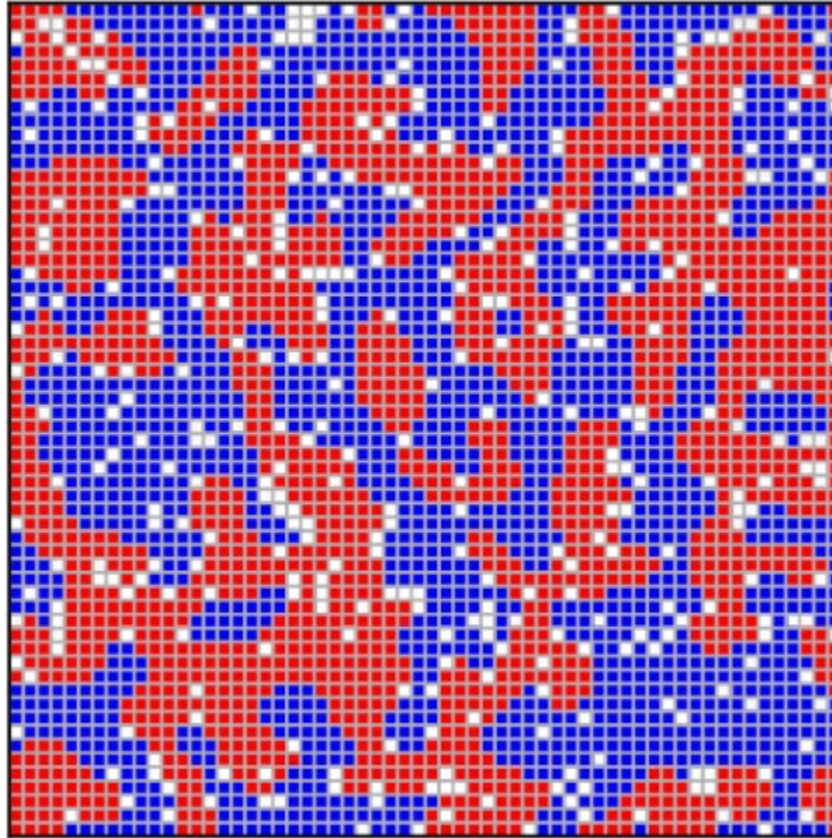
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The Schelling Model



Example of a final equilibrium with
same-preference of 0.4

The Schelling Model

- An Agent class to represent each individual actor in the game
 - How to move
 - How to decide if they're happy
 - How to look at their neighbors
- A World class that holds knowledge of the grid and agents
 - How to set everything up
 - How to provide information to Agents
 - How to report on the state of the simulation
 - How to run the simulation

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The Agent Class

```
class Agent():  
    def __init__(self):  
        #needs to know its color and its same preference  
        pass  
  
    def move(self):  
        #decide if it wants to move  
        #move to new position if it does  
        #uses the self.am_i_happy method  
        pass
```

The Agent Class

```
def am_i_happy(self):  
    #return a boolean for whether an agent is happy in its  
    #current location  
    # uses the self.locate_neighbors method  
    pass  
  
def locate_neighbors(self):  
    #given a location, return a list of all patches that count  
    #as neighbors  
    pass
```

The World Class

```
class World():  
    def __init__(self):  
        #stores the grid as a container of some sort  
        #calculates how many agents there should be  
        #initializes agents in starting locations  
        #uses the build_grid and, build_agents, and init_world methods  
        pass  
  
    def build_grid(self):  
        #sets up the world agents can move in, returning a dict  
        pass
```


The World Class

```
def build_agents(self):  
    #generates the list of agents that can be iterated over  
    pass  
  
def init_world(self):  
    #sets up the starting conditions of the world  
    pass  
  
def find_vacant(self):  
    #find a list of empty patches and returns a random one  
    pass
```

The World Class

```
def report_integration(self):  
    #generates a report at the end of the current round  
    pass  
  
def report(self):  
    #generate the final report at model end  
    pass  
  
def run(self):  
    #executes the model as set up  
    pass
```

Execution

```
world = World()  
world.run()
```

Details: Imagining the grid

- x-y coordinates, e.g. (0,0), (0,1), (12,34), etc.
- Is it a torus?

(0,0)	(1,0)	(2,0) ... (n,0)
(0,1)	(1,1)	(2,1) ... (n,1)
(0,2)	(1,2)	(2,2) ... (n,2)
⋮	⋮	⋮
(0,n)	(1,n)	(2,n) ... (n,n)

Details: Imagining the grid

- x-y coordinates, e.g. (0,0), (0,1), (12,34), etc.
- Is it a torus?
- A dictionary with keys equal to tuples, and values equal to agent instances:

```
{(13, 34): <Agent1>,
 (13, 35): None,
 (13, 36): <Agent47>,
 ...}
```

(0,0)	(1,0)	(2,0) ... (n,0)
(0,1)	(1,1)	(2,1) ... (n,1)
(0,2)	(1,2)	(2,2) ... (n,2)
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```
{(13, 34): <Agent1>,
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 (13, 36): <Agent47>,
 ...}
```
- But what if the “patches” need to know more than who is there?
 - Resources for agents to take?
 - Environmental factors that affect agents?
 - Conditions that spread to neighbor patches?

(0,0)	(1,0)	(2,0) ... (n,0)
(0,1)	(1,1)	(2,1) ... (n,1)
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```
{(13, 34): <Agent1>,
 (13, 35): None,
 (13, 36): <Agent47>,
 ...}
```

- But what if the “patches” need to know more than who is there?
 - Resources for agents to take?
 - Environmental factors that affect agents?
 - Conditions that spread to neighbor patches?
- We could make each location a class instance also!

```
class Patch():
    def __init__(self, location):
        self.location = location
```

(0,0)	(1,0)	(2,0) ... (n,0)
(0,1)	(1,1)	(2,1) ... (n,1)
(0,2)	(1,2)	(2,2) ... (n,2)
⋮	⋮	⋮
(0,n)	(1,n)	(2,n) ... (n,n)

Full model

https://github.com/levyjeff/simple_abm