

# Computational Physics

## Lecture 5

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git clone <https://github.com/ukzncompphys/lecture5.git>  
wget [www.cita.utoronto.ca/~sievers/compphys/lecture5.tar.gz](http://www.cita.utoronto.ca/~sievers/compphys/lecture5.tar.gz)  
(followed by tar -xzf lecture5.tar.gz)

# Tutorial Problems

- Write a function that will shift an array by an arbitrary amount using a convolution (yes, I know there are easier ways to do this). The function should take 2 arguments - an array, and an amount by which to shift the array. Plot a gaussian that started in the centre of the array shifted by half the array length. (10)
- The correlation function  $f \star g$  is  $\int f(x)g(x+y)$ . Through a similar proof, one can show  $f \star g = \text{ift}(\text{dft}(f) * \text{conj}(\text{dft}(g)))$ . Write a routine to take the correlation function of two arrays. Plot the correlation function of a Gaussian with itself. (10)
- Using the results of part 1 and part 2, write a routine to take the correlation function of a Gaussian (shifted by an arbitrary amount) with itself. How does the correlation function depend on the shift? Does this surprise you? (10)
- The circulant (wrap-around) nature of the dft can sometimes be problematic. Write a routine to take the convolution of two arrays \*without\* any danger of wrapping around. You may wish to add zeros to the end of the input arrays. (10)

# Tutorial Bonus Problem

- You have a sample code that calculates an FFT of an array whose length is a power of 2. Using that routine as a guideline, write an FFT routine that works on an array whose length is a power of 3 (e.g. 9, 27, 81). Verify that it gives the same answer as `numpy.fft.fft` (10)

# Dictionaries

- Dictionaries very useful built-in datatype in python
- Dictionaries have *keys*, each key stores a *value*.
- You can create a dictionary with {}
- Use square brackets to get the values

# Dictionaries in Action

```
>>> x={} #initialize an empty dictionary
>>> x[0]=4
>>> x[-1]='sandwich'
>>> x['quest']='to find the holy grail'
>>> print x['quest']
to find the holy grail
>>> y=0
>>> print x[y]
4
>>> y=-1
>>> print x[y]
sandwich
>>> print x
{0: 4, 'quest': 'to find the holy grail', -1: 'sandwich'}
>>> for key in x.keys():
...     print 'key ' + repr(key) + ' has value ' + repr(x[key])
...
key 0 has value 4
key 'quest' has value 'to find the holy grail'
key -1 has value 'sandwich'
>>>
```

See how to assign and reference dictionary entries.

`d.keys()` gets all keys  
you can use “del” to delete a dictionary entry (or any variable for that matter)

```
>>> sandwich={'bread' : 'rye','cheese' : 'swiss', 'meat' : 'pastrami','toppings': ('mustard','mayo')}
>>> for key in sandwich.keys():
...     print 'key ' + repr(key) + ' has value ' + repr(sandwich[key])
...
key 'cheese' has value 'swiss'
key 'toppings' has value ('mustard', 'mayo')
key 'meat' has value 'pastrami'
key 'bread' has value 'rye'
>>>
```

```
>>> del sandwich['bread']
>>> print sandwich.keys()
['cheese', 'toppings', 'meat']
>>>
```

Make a dictionary containing cubes from 1 to 10

# Make a dictionary containing cubes from 1 to 10

```
Jonathans-MacBook-Pro:lecture5 sievers$ more cube_dict.py
#file cube_dict.py
cubes={}
for x in range(1,11):
    cubes[x]=x**3

for xx in cubes.keys():
    print repr(xx) + ' cubed is ' + repr(cubes[xx])
Jonathans-MacBook-Pro:lecture5 sievers$ █
```

```
>>> execfile('cube_dict.py')
1 cubed is 1
2 cubed is 8
3 cubed is 27
4 cubed is 64
5 cubed is 125
6 cubed is 216
7 cubed is 343
8 cubed is 512
9 cubed is 729
10 cubed is 1000
>>> █
```

# Classes

- Python is *object-oriented*. That means things called objects contain data and contain methods (i.e. functions) that do things with the data.
- You have seen this in action: e.g. `vec=numpy.ones(10);print vec.sum()`
- This is very different from e.g. C or (classic) Fortran. In C, you need to know how to sum an array. In Python, the array knows how to sum itself
- In python, objects are called *classes*. You can define them in files with the *class* keyword.
- data/methods of a class are accessed with a period ‘.’. The first argument to any method is the instance of the class itself. It is customary (and strongly encouraged) to name that variable “self”.



# Beginnings of a complex variable class

```
#class_example1.py
import numpy
class Complex:
    #__init__ is a special function. When you create a new
    #instance of a class, if it exists in the class definition,
    #__init__ will get called. __init__ is assumed to return the first value

    def __init__(self,r=0,i=0):
        self.r=r
        self.i=i

if __name__=='__main__':
    num=Complex()
    print 'real part of num is ' + repr(num.r)
    print 'imaginary part of num is ' + repr(num.i)

    num2=Complex(2,5)
    print 'real part of num2 is ' + repr(num2.r)
    print 'imaginary part of num2 is ' + repr(num2.i)

    #we can assign new data to classes whenever we want.
    #you probably want to be really careful with this however
    num2.len=numpy.sqrt(num2.r**2+num2.i**2)
    print 'length of num2 is ' + repr(num2.len)
```

Left: a bare-bones  
complex number class.

Below: output

```
-uu-:---F1 class_example1.py All L1 (Python)--
Loading python...done
```

```
Jonathans-MacBook-Pro:lecture5 sievers$ python class_example1.py
real part of num is 0
imaginary part of num is 0
real part of num2 is 2
imaginary part of num2 is 5
length of num2 is 5.3851648071345037
Jonathans-MacBook-Pro:lecture5 sievers$
```

# Class Methods

- We've made a class that can hold complex numbers.
- Right now the class just holds numbers, it doesn't do anything.
- We did take an absolute value, but we had to know at the command line how to do that.
- Let's add a method to the class to take its absolute value

# Methods ctd.

```
#class_example2.py
import numpy
class Complex:
    #__init__ is a special function. When you create a new
    #instance of a class, if it exists in the class definition,
    #__init__ will get called. __init__ is assumed to return the first value

    def __init__(self,r=0,i=0):
        self.r=r
        self.i=i
    def abs(self):
        return numpy.sqrt(self.r**2+self.i**2)

if __name__=='__main__':

    num=Complex(2,5)
    print 'real part of num is ' + repr(num.r)
    print 'imaginary part of num is ' + repr(num.i)
    myabs=num.abs()
    print 'absolute value is ' + repr(myabs)
```

We have added an `abs()` method to the complex class. Now you can get the absolute value without having to know anything about complex numbers.

```
Jonathans-MacBook-Pro:lecture5 sievers$ python class_example2.py
real part of num is 2
imaginary part of num is 5
absolute value is 5.3851648071345037
Jonathans-MacBook-Pro:lecture5 sievers$
```

# What's the difference?

```
#class_example3.py

import numpy
class Complex:
    def __init__(self, r=0, i=0):
        self.r=r
        self.i=i
    def abs(self):
        return numpy.sqrt(self.r**2+self.i**2)
#####
#
# What is the difference between these two classes?
#
#####
class Complex2:
    def __init__(self, r=0, i=0):
        self.r=r
        self.i=i
def abs(self):
    return numpy.sqrt(self.r**2+self.i**2)

if __name__=='__main__':

    num=Complex(2,5)
    print num.abs()
    num2=Complex2(2,5)
    print num2.abs()
```

Classes Complex and Complex2 look similar, but they might have different behaviour. Why?

```
Jonathans-MacBook-Pro:lecture5 sievers$ python class_example3.py
5.38516480713
Traceback (most recent call last):
  File "class_example3.py", line 28, in <module>
    print num2.abs()
AttributeError: Complex2 instance has no attribute 'abs'
Jonathans-MacBook-Pro:lecture5 sievers$
```

# What's the difference?

Always remember your indenting! By not indenting we closed the Complex2 definition *and* defined a global function abs that replaced the built-in function.

```
#class_example3.py
```

```
import numpy
class Complex:
    def __init__(self, r=0, i=0):
        self.r=r
        self.i=i
    def abs(self):
        return numpy.sqrt(self.r**2+self.i**2)
#####
#
# What is the difference between these two classes?
#
```

```
#####
class Complex2:
    def __init__(self, r=0
        self.r=r
        self.i=i
def abs(self):
    return numpy.sqrt(sel

if __name__=='__main__':
    num=Complex(2,5)
    print num.abs()
    num2=Complex2(2,5)
    print num2.abs()

>>> abs(-3)
3
>>> execfile('class_example3.py')
5.38516480713
Traceback (most recent call last):
  File "<stdin>", line 1, in <module>
  File "class_example3.py", line 28, in <module>
    print num2.abs()
AttributeError: Complex2 instance has no attribute 'abs'
>>> abs(num2)
5.3851648071345037
>>> abs(num)
5.3851648071345037
>>> abs(3)
Traceback (most recent call last):
  File "<stdin>", line 1, in <module>
  File "class_example3.py", line 20, in abs
    return numpy.sqrt(self.r**2+self.i**2)
AttributeError: 'int' object has no attribute 'r'
>>>
```

# Python Uses References

- Python uses *references*. If *a* is an instance of a class, and you say *b=a*, then the contents of *b* will point to the same memory as the contents of *a*.
- This means that if I then change *b*, *a* will also change.
- General rule is if you change/assign a piece of *b*, same piece of *a* will change.
- Be very careful - don't change values inside of functions unless you meant to.

```
>>> a=Complex(3,5)
>>> b=a
>>> print a.r
3
>>> b.r=5
>>> print a.r
5
>>> █
```

# Copy

- Because of this, it is often customary to have a `copy()` function.
- Copy should make a fully distinct version of the instance.

```
#class_example4.py

import numpy
class Complex:
    def __init__(self, r=0, i=0):
        self.r=r
        self.i=i
    def copy(self):
        return Complex(self.r, self.i)
    def abs(self):
        return numpy.sqrt(self.r**2+self.i**2)

if __name__=='__main__':

    num=Complex(2,5)
    num2=num.copy()
    num2.r=10
    print 'real part of num is ' + repr(num.r)
    print 'real part of num2 is ' + repr(num2.r)
```

```
Jonathans-MacBook-Pro:lecture5 sievers$ python class_example4.py
real part of num is 2
real part of num2 is 10
Jonathans-MacBook-Pro:lecture5 sievers$
```



# Overloading

- The operators in python (e.g. +,-,\*...) just map to a set of special functions. You can use them on your classes if you include methods with those names.
- Extending the behaviour of the default operators is called overloading.
- `__add__` is the keyword for '+'. `__repr__` is the keyword for printing things.
- If you want to do this, you can google to get the rest of the special function names.
- Note that `a+b` is shorthand for `a.__add__(b)` so as written `a+2` will work, but `2+a` won't. Why?

```
#overload.py

import numpy
class Complex:
    def __init__(self,r=0,i=0):
        self.r=r
        self.i=i
    def copy(self):
        return Complex(self.r,self.i)
    def __add__(self,val):
        ans=self.copy()
        if isinstance(val,Complex):
            ans.r=ans.r+val.r
            ans.i=ans.i+val.i
        else:
            ans.r=ans.r+val
        return ans
    def __repr__(self):
        if (self.i<0):
            return repr(self.r)+' - '+repr(-1*self.i) +'i'
        else:
            return repr(self.r)+' + '+repr(self.i) +'i'
```

```
>>> from overload import Complex
>>> a=Complex(2,5)
>>> b=Complex(4,-3)
>>> c=a+b
>>> print c
6 + 2i
>>> d=a+b+2
>>> print d
8 + 2i
>>>
```



# Try/Except

- Sometimes things go wrong. Say a method is given invalid input
- Python has *try/except*. The code will execute the *try* block. As soon as that hits an error it jumps to the *except* block.
- If there is no error, *except* is skipped.
- Optionally, you can include a *finally* clause that always gets executed after the *try/except*. Useful for e.g. freeing memory/closing files etc.

```
def __add__(self, val):
    ans=self.copy()
    if isinstance(val, Complex):
        ans.r=ans.r+val.r
        ans.i=ans.i+val.i
    else:
        try:
            ans.r=ans.r+val
        except:
            print 'Invalid type in Complex.__add__'
            ans=None
    return ans
```

```
>>> a=Complex(2,5)
>>> b=3
>>> c=a+b
>>> print c
5 + 5i
>>> b='abc'
>>> print a+b
Invalid type in Complex.__add__
None
>>> █
```

# Tutorial Problems

- Complete the complex definition to support -, \*, and / (`__sub__`, `__mul__`, and `__div__`). Recall that  $a/b = a \cdot \text{conj}(b) / (b \cdot \text{conj}(b))$ . Show from a few sample cases that your functions work. (10)
- Next lecture we will look at n-body simulations. In preparation, write a class that contains masses and x and y positions for a collection of particles. The class should also contain a dictionary that can contain options. Two entries in the dictionary should be the # of particles and G (gravitational constant). The class should also contain a method that calculates the potential energy of every particle,  $\sum (G m_1 m_2 / r_{12})$ . (10)
- Bonus: extend the complex class to also support arbitrary (i.e. non-integer) powers (keyword is `__pow__`). +3 if the routine works if  $a^b$  works for complex  $a$  and real  $b$ , +5 if it works for complex  $a$  and complex  $b$ . (you may ignore branch cuts).