# Classes

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#### What are they? Why should I care?

A class is how you implement a new object.

Python is an object-oriented programming language - if you're a python programmer and you've never written a class, you're missing out on the *single most powerful* aspect of the language *by far*.

#### Recall: The Python Model

Everything is an object in Python, whether you knew it or not.

Objects have ...

- Attributes
- Functions
- Data

... which are unique to the object; also interactions with other objects.

#### Data Container

The simplest object – all it does is hold on to the attributes that you give it

#### class container: pass is all you need

• Doesn't *need* to be called container

The argument *pass* here means "do nothing." Objects with more specialization instead have *def* statements within them.

In [1]: import numpy as np

In [2]: class container: ...: pass

. . . :

In [3]: x = container()

In [4]: x.masses = abs(np.random.normal(size = 10))

In [5]: x.radii = abs(np.random.normal(size = 10))

In [6]: x.luminosities = abs(np.random.normal(size = 10))

In [8]: x.radii
Out[8]:

array([1.06055823, 1.9124843, 0.84339752, 0.08461345, 0.2870194, 0.76955582, 0.09024124, 1.46008861, 1.24039583, 0.62426455])

#### An Example Object: A Dog

Attributes: color, breed, name, gender

Functions: bark, roll over, shake, eat, drink, chase their tail

Data: date of birth, veterinary records, previous owners

Interactions with other objects: play with other dogs/owner, chase cats



How you create instances of the class (i.e. objects) is determined by the \_\_init\_\_ function.

The first argument to \_\_init\_\_ should always be self – this is true of most functions in a class, and refers to the object itself being passed

#### class dog:

**r**""" Implements a dog in python """

def \_\_init\_\_(self, name, breed):
 self.name = name
 self.breed = breed

In [2]: Spot = dog("Spot", "Dalmatian")

In [3]: Spot.name
Out[3]: 'Spot'

In [4]: Spot.breed
Out[4]: 'Dalmatian'

In [5]: Snoopy = dog("Snoopy", "Beagle")

In [6]: Snoopy.name Out[6]: 'Snoopy'

In [7]: Snoopy.breed Out[7]: 'Beagle'

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This gets the job done, but...

#### class dog: Implements a dog in python def \_\_init\_\_(self, name, breed): self.name = name self.breed = breed In [2]: Spot = dog("Spot", "Dalmatian") In [3]: Spot.name 3: 'Spot' [4]: Spot.breed 'Dalmatian' 4 In [5]: Snoopy = dog("Snoopy", "Beagle") In [6]: Snoopy.name 6 : 'Snoopy' Snoopy.breed 'Beagle'

How you create instances of the class (i.e. objects) is determined by the \_\_init\_\_ function.

The first argument to \_\_init\_\_ should always be self – this is true of most functions in a class, and refers to the object itself being passed

This gets the job done, but it's easily broken

#### class dog:

```
Implements a dog in python
    def __init__(self, name, breed):
         self.name = name
         self.breed = breed
In [5]: Snoopy = dog("Snoopy", "Beagle")
  6 : Snoopy.name
   6 : 'Snoopy'
[n [7]: Snoopy.breed
   7 : 'Beagle'
In [8]: Snoopy.name = 3
In [9]: Snoopy.breed = [0, 3, 7]
In [10]: Snoopy.name
   10 3
   [11]: Snoopy.breed
   11
        [0, 3, 7]
```

Error-handling of attributes requires *property* and *setter* functions

*self.\_property* is a conventional way of storing *self.property* under the hood, protected by error-handling

This throws a *TypeError* whenever the user tries to set *name* or *breed* to something other than a *str* 

#### class dog:

```
r"""
Implements a dog in python
"""
```

```
def __init__(self, name, breed):
    self.name = name
    self.breed = breed
```

```
aproperty
```

```
def name(self):
    r"""
    Type : str
```

```
The name of the dog
```

```
return self._name
```

```
@name.setter
def name(self, value):
    if isinstance(value, str):
        self._name = value
    else:
        raise TypeError("Attribute 'name' must be a string. Got: %s" % (
        type(value)))
```

```
@property
def breed(self):
    r"""
    Type : str
```

```
The breed of the dog
"""
```

```
return self._breed
```

```
gbreed.setter
def breed(self, value):
    if isinstance(value, str):
        self._breed = value
    else:
        raise TypeError("Attribute 'breed' must be a string. Got: %s" % (
            type(value)))
```

Error-handling of attributes requires *property* and *setter* functions

*self.\_property* is a conventional way of storing *self.property* under the hood, protected by error-handling

This throws a *TypeError* whenever the user tries to set *name* or *breed* to something other than a *str* 

```
In [2]: Snoopy = dog("Snoopy", "Beagle")
In [3]: Snoopy.name
        'Snoopy'
    3
In [4]: Snoopy.breed
        'Beagle'
    4
 in [5]: Snoopy.name = 3
                                          Traceback (most recent call last)
<ipython-input-5-88ab4b918e8c> in <module>
 \rightarrow 1 Snoopy, name = 3
-/Work/Teaching/OSUAstroSURP2020/examples/classes/dog.py in name(self, value)
     27
                        else:
     28
                                raise TypeError("Attribute 'name' must be a string. Got: %s" % (
 ---> 29
                                        type(value)))
     30
     31
      ror: Attribute 'name' must be a string. Got: <class 'int'>
   [6]: Snoopy.breed = [0, 3, 7]
                                          Traceback (most recent call last)
<ipython-input-6-abbb0c87354e> in <module>
---> 1 Snoopy.breed = [0, 3, 7]
~/Work/Teaching/OSUAstroSURP2020/examples/classes/dog.py in breed(self, value)
     45
                        else:
     46
                                raise TypeError("Attribute 'breed' must be a string. Got: %s" % (
 --> 47
                                         type(value)))
     48
     49
    Error: Attribute 'breed' must be a string. Got: <class 'list'>
```

### A Quick Note: Property vs. Stored Data

Important: the name of a *property* is NOT related to the variables stored as data by a class

• The connection between *obj.x* and *obj.x* is purely for readability – if a value stored under the hood may be of use to the user, it is simply convention to use *x* and \_*x* 

In this example, the values of certain properties are calculated "on the fly" based only one value actually stored as internal data

The *@property* decorator removes the need for parentheses

class example:

def \_\_init\_\_(self, value):
 self.\_value = value

@property
def value(self):
 return self.\_value

@property
def onemore(self):
 return self.\_value + 1

```
@property
def twomore(self):
    return self._value + 2
```

```
In [2]: x = example(4)
```

```
In [3]: x.value
Out[3]: 4
```

```
In [4]: x.onemore
Out[4]: 5
```

```
In [5]: x.twomore
Out[5]: 6
```

Classes can have functions too. These functions can have any number of subroutines, just like other functions, and can access properties and other functions via *self* 

def speak(self):
 r"""
 Makes the dog bark when you tell it to speak.
 """
 print("%s says \"Woof!\"" % (self.name))

```
In [1]: from dog import dog
In [2]: snoopy = dog("Snoopy", "Beagle")
In [3]: snoopy.speak()
Snoopy says "Woof!"
In [4]: dog.speak(snoopy)
Snoopy says "Woof!"
```

The interpretation of *self*: refers to the *instance* of the class (x.func()) is the same as *classname.func(x)*). On line 4 here, I've passed *snoopy* to *dog.speak* as *self*.

#### Static Methods

Functions which are bound to the class and not the object of the class

Can't access or modify the class

Implemented as part of a class because it makes sense to do so

Created with the @staticmethod decorator

An example static method: *is\_puppy* to determine if a dog is a puppy or not.

Do not take *self* as an argument, and are called with the name of the class

```
In [1]: from dog import dog
In [2]: dog.is_puppy(1)
Out[2]: True
In [3]: dog.is_puppy(5)
Out[3]: False
```

#### astaticmethod def is\_puppy(age): Determine if a dog is a puppy. Signature: dog.is\_puppy(age) Parameters The age of the dog, in years Returns puppy : bool True if age < 2 years, otherwise False. if isinstance(age, int): return age < 2else: raise TypeError("Must be an integer. Got: %s" % (type(age)))

#### Class Methods

Like static methods, are bound to the class rather than objects of the class

Can access and modify class state, unlike static methods

Return an instance of the class (i.e. an object)

Created with the @classmethod decorator

An example class method: create Snoopy

They take the class as the first argument (cls)





#### Syntactic Sugar

A line of code which is interpreted the same as another, but is more readable

You've been using it all along, you just didn't know it

To implement syntactic sugar, you as the programmer write functions with specific names often referred to as "magic methods"

### Syntactic Sugar

Can be used to emulate array-like indexing, item assignment, calling, and more

With Syntactic Sugar	Without Syntactic Sugar
x[0]	x. <u>g</u> etitem_(0)
x(0)	xcall(0)
x[0] = 1	xsetitem(0, 1)
str(x)	xstr() and xrepr()

There are many other forms of syntactic sugar – here is a reference on many of the magic methods you can implement: <u>https://www.tutorialsteacher.com/python/magic-methods-in-python</u>

#### Example Usage of Syntactic Sugar: Polynomials

#### Goals:

- Properties: coefficients and the order of the polynomial
- Indexing index *i* should return the *i*'th coefficient
- Calling -f(x) should evaluate the polynomial at the value of x
- Item Assignment -f[i] = a should assign the *i*'th coefficient to the value of *a*
- A string representation

Note: This object is scripted at examples/mypkg/mathlib/polynomial.py in the git repository

#### The first pieces of the implementation: the \_\_init\_\_ function and the properties

#### class polynomial:

```
N-th degree mathematical polynomial functions f(x)
Parameters
coeffs : array-like
The coefficients of the polynomial. See attribute below.
Must be either a list, tuple, or numpy array.
Attributes
coeffs : numpy array
The coefficients of the polynomial, in order of increasing exponent on
the independent variable x.
order : int
The order of the polynomial.
"""
```

def \_\_init\_\_(self, coeffs):
 self.coeffs = coeffs

```
aproperty
    def coeffs(self):
        Type : numpy array
        The numerical coefficients of the polynomial, in order of increasing
        return self._coeffs
    @coeffs.setter
    def coeffs(self, value):
        if isinstance(value, list) or isinstance(value, tuple):
            if all([isinstance(i, numbers.Number) for i in value]):
                self._coeffs = np.array(value)
            else:
                raise TypeError("Non-numerical value in coefficients.")
        elif isinstance(value, np.ndarray):
            if all([isinstance(i, numbers.Number) for i in value]):
                self._coeffs = value[:]
            else:
                raise TypeError("Non-numerical value in coefficients.")
        else:
            raise TypeError("""Attribute 'coeffs' must be either a list, \
tuple, or numpy array. Got: %s""" % (type(value)))
    aproperty
    def order(self):
```

```
r"""
Type : int
The order of the polynomial
```

```
return len(self._coeffs) - 1
```

#### Indexing – requires \_\_\_\_\_\_\_ function, which takes the index as a parameter

def \_\_getitem\_\_(self, index):
 if isinstance(index, int):
 # Don't need any more error handling - self.\_coeffs is a numpy
 # array and will raise errors for us
 return self.\_coeffs[index]
 else:
 raise IndexError("Index must be an integer.")

Calling – requires \_\_\_\_\_\_ function, which takes any number of parameters

• Here it should be a value *x* to evaluate the polynomial at

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

Item assignment – requires <u>setitem</u> function, which takes the index and the value to assign, in that order.

A string representation – requires <u>str</u> and <u>repr</u> functions, which do slightly different things.

- <u>str</u> is called when you type-cast to a string
- <u>repr</u> is called when you run a line with just the object in *ipython* or a notebook

```
def __repr__(self):
    rep = ""
    for i in range(self.order + 1):
        if i:
            if self. coeffs[i] > 0:
                rep += "+ %.2fx^%d " % (self._coeffs[i], i)
            elif self._coeffs[i] < 0:</pre>
                rep += "- %.2fx^%d " % (-self._coeffs[i], i)
            else:
                # don't print if the coefficient is zero
                pass
        else:
            if self._coeffs[i] > 0:
                rep += "%.2f " % (self._coeffs[i])
            elif self._coeffs[i] < 0:</pre>
                rep += "-%.2f " % (-self._coeffs[i])
            else:
                # don't print if the coefficient is zero
                 pass
    return rep
def __str__(self):
    return self.__repr__()
```

In action – the example has all of these features because of the magic methods implemented in the polynomial class

This is essentially a reimplementation of NumPy's *poly1d* object

```
In [1]: from mypkg.mathlib import polynomial
In [2]: example = polynomial([1, 2, -1, 3, -3])
In [3]: example
    [3]: 1.00 + 2.00x^1 - 1.00x^2 + 3.00x^3 - 3.00x^4
In [4]: example[0]
 ut[4]: 1
In [5]: example[1]
 ut 5 : 2
In [6]: example(0)
 ut 6 : 1
In [7]: example(3)
 )ut[7]: -164
In [8]: example[4] = 3
In [9]: example(3)
    9 322
In [10]: example.coeffs
    [10]: array([ 1, 2, -1, 3, 3])
In [11]: example.order
   11 : 4
In [12]: example
    12
         1.00 + 2.00x^{1} - 1.00x^{2} + 3.00x^{3} + 3.00x^{4}
```

#### Emulating Numeric Types

# Another application of syntactic sugar

There is also <u>rsub</u> for -=, <u>rmul</u> for \*=, <u>rdiv</u> for /=, etc., but unless otherwise specified these lines will call the corresponding function without the *r* in the name.

With Syntactic Sugar	Without Syntactic Sugar
x + y	xadd(y)
x += y	xradd(y)
x - y	xsub(y)
x * y	xmul(y)
x / y	xdiv(y)
x // y	xfloordiv(y)
х % у	xmod(y)

Extend the polynomial object to allow addition, subtraction, and equivalence comparison with other polynomials

Some extra useful syntactic sugar elements in doing so:

With Syntactic Sugar	Without Syntactic Sugar
+X	xpos()
-x	xneg()
x == y	xeq(y)
x != y	xne(y)

Unary +: The same as the original polynomial

Unary -: Each coefficient is the negative of the original

def \_\_pos\_\_(self):
 return self

def \_\_neg\_\_(self):
 return polynomial([-i for i in self.\_coeffs])

Magic methods can return anything, hence the need to specifically create a polynomial object. They don't call <u>\_\_init\_\_</u> automatically, so in theory you can have them do whatever you want. Why isn't this required for <u>\_\_pos\_\_</u>?

Adding polynomials: The coefficients of each power on *x* add

```
def __add__(self, other):
    if isinstance(other, polynomial):
        new_coeffs = (max(other.order, self.order) + 1) * [0.]
        for i in range(len(new_coeffs)):
            if i <= self.order: new_coeffs[i] += self[i]
            if i <= other.order: new_coeffs[i] += other[i]
            return polynomial(new_coeffs)
        else:
        raise TypeError("Must be a polynomial object. Got: %s" % (
            type(other)))
```

Subtracting polynomials: Use what we've already written to add the negative

```
def __sub__(self, other):
    if isinstance(other, polynomial):
        # The same as "return self + -other"
        return self.__add__(other.__neg__())
    else:
        raise TypeError("Must be a polynomial object. Got: %s" % (
            type(other)))
```

Equivalence comparison: If two polynomials have the same coefficients, say that they are equal to one another



Note: This <u>ne</u> method actually isn't necessary. If you write an <u>eq</u> method, the <u>ne</u> method takes on this default form. Advice: If you ever override that, you should have a good reason for doing so.

In action -x and y have all of these features because of the magic methods we implemented

Features like this are also included in NumPy's *poly1d* object

In [1]: from mypkg.mathlib import polynomial In [2]: x = polynomial([1, 2, 3]) In [3]: y = polynomial([1, 3, 4]) In [4]: x + y 4 : 2.00 + 5.00x^1 + 7.00x^2 In [5]: x == y 5 : False In [6]: x != y 6 : True In [7]: x - y t[7]: - 1.00x^1 - 1.00x^2 In [8]: (x + y)(3) 8:80.0 In [9]: (x - y)(1) 9: -2.0

#### Recall: Lists vs. Arrays

If it wasn't already, it should now be fairly clear what we mean when we say lists and arrays are different objects.

They are instances of different classes with different source code.