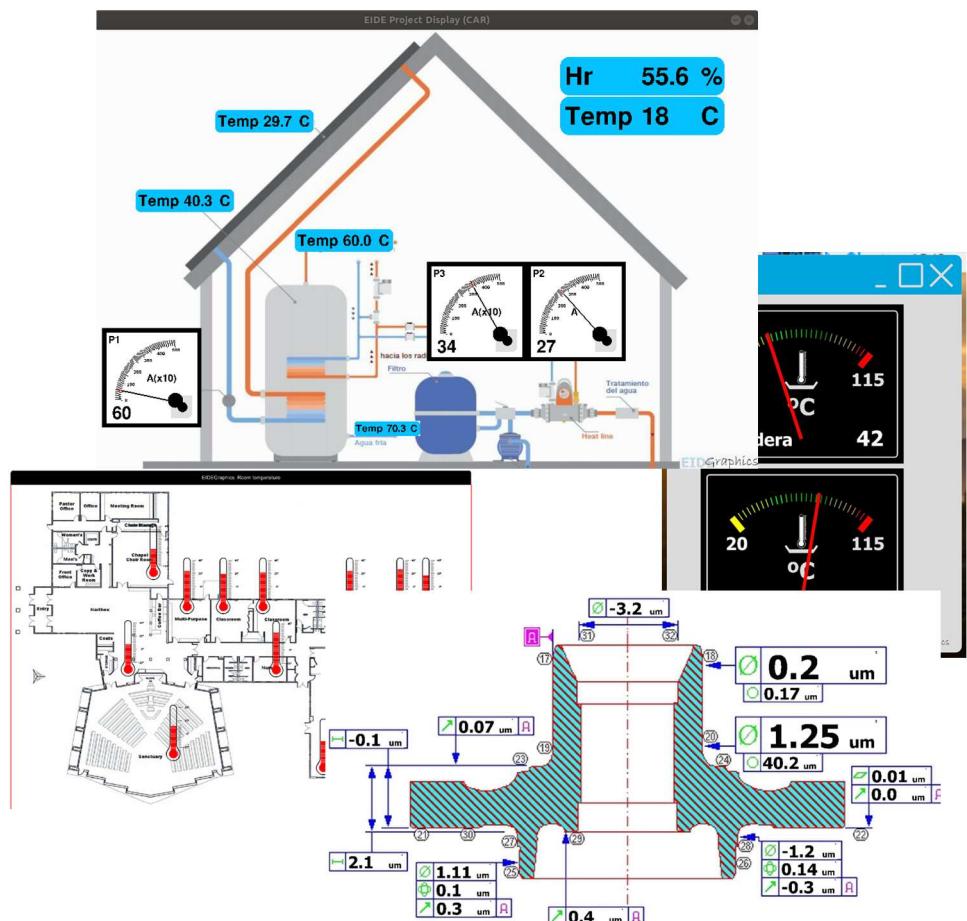


## Data acquisition using Python and Raspberry Pi



*EIDEAnalog library  
(Making of)*

## Revisions

Nº	Date	Paragraph	Description
0	May the 7 <sup>th</sup> , 2020	-	First chapter issued.
1	May the 10 <sup>th</sup> , 2020	-	Second chapter issued.
2	May the 18 <sup>th</sup> , 2020	-	Third chapter issued. Misspelling and untranslated text fixed.
3	June the 8 <sup>th</sup> , 2020	-	Fourth chapter issued.
4	June the 30 <sup>th</sup> , 2020	-	Fifth chapter issued.
5	July the 5 <sup>th</sup> , 2020	3.2.3	Changed reference to '5.3, "Readout calculation algorithms. agent classes.'
6	July the 8 <sup>th</sup> , 2020	-	Sixth chapter issued.
7	August the 5th, 2022	-	Seventh and eighth chapters issued.

# Table of Contents

1.- Brief introduction.....	6
1.1.- Blog declared goal.....	7
1.1.1.- OOP design pattern.....	8
1.1.2.- Data acquisition systems. A/D conversion.....	8
1.1.3.- Blog development. Pedagogics.....	9
1.1.4.- Conclusions. Goals.....	9
1.2.- Basic knowledge to follow the blog. Prerequisites.....	10
1.2.1.- Electronics. A/D converters. Binary numbers.....	11
1.2.2.- Raspberry.....	12
1.2.3.- Linux.....	14
1.2.4.- Python. OOP.....	16
1.2.5.- Other prerequisites.....	18
2.- Project: ADC library. Specs & tools.....	19
2.1.- Specs.....	19
2.2.- Raspberry.....	19
2.3.- ADC. Analog to digital converters.....	21
2.3.1.- oneWire bus.....	21
2.3.2.- ADS1115.....	24
2.3.3.- Arduino ProMini.....	25
2.4.- Programming language. Python. IDE.....	27
2.5.- Design using OOP.....	28
2.5.1.- Abstract.....	28
2.5.2.- Example.....	28
2.5.3.- OOP. Conclusions.....	30
3.- Library pattern. First approach.....	32
3.1.- Noun/verb.....	32
3.2.- The classes as services suppliers.....	33
3.2.1.- Bus classes. Sensor class. Conversion.....	33
3.2.2.- <i>readout</i> method.....	34
3.2.3.- <i>Calculation agent</i> classes.....	36
3.3.- Library pattern. Classes.....	37
4.- Class ADS1115.....	38
4.1.- Analysis.....	40
4.1.1.- Start conversion command.....	40
4.1.2.- End of conversion.....	45
4.1.3.- Conversion reading.....	45
4.1.4.- Class attributes.....	46
4.1.5.- <code>__init__()</code> method. Instance attributes.....	46

4.1.6.- Class ADS1115 minimal version code.....	48
4.1.7.- Class ADS1115 instantiation and usage.....	49
4.1.8.- ADS1115. Configuration methods.....	50
4.1.9.- <i>chooseVref</i> (reference voltage) method. <i>SetChannelGain</i> method.....	54
4.1.10.- Class ADS1115 complete code. Usage examples.....	56
4.1.11.- Class ADS1115. Caveats. Conclusion.....	57
5.- Sensor class. Calculation agents.....	58
5.1.- Sensors.....	58
5.2.- Class sensor. Preliminary approach.....	59
5.3.- Readout calculation algorithms. <i>agent</i> classes.....	61
5.3.1.- Binary calculation agent ( <i>binaryAgent</i> ). Inheritance.....	62
5.3.2.- ASCII calculation agent ( <i>ASCIIAgent</i> ).....	65
5.3.3.- <i>calculationAgent</i> class.....	66
5.3.4.- Tabulated agent ( <i>tabulatedAgent</i> ).....	68
5.3.5.- Multiple inheritance. <i>BinaryTabulatedAgent &amp; ASCITabulatedAgent</i> classes.....	70
5.3.6.- <i>calculation agent family</i> . Summary. Conclusion.....	73
5.4.- Class <i>sensor</i> code. Instantiation .....	76
5.5.- <i>sensor</i> Class. Conclusion.....	84
6.- <i>oneWire</i> and <i>arduino</i> classes. Class <i>ADCBus</i> .....	85
6.1.- Class <i>oneWire</i> .....	85
6.2.- Class <i>arduino</i> .....	93
6.3.- Class <i>ADCBus</i> .....	98
6.4.- Bus classes. Outline. Conclusion.....	101
7.- Sensor tables ( <i>sensorTable</i> ) .....	103
7.1.- Specification.....	103
7.2.- Caveats.....	105
7.3.- Native classes.....	105
7.4.- A geometrics library? .....	105
7.5.- Class <i>sensorTable</i> . Code analysis.....	107
7.6.- Sensor tables. Conclusion.....	112
8.- Library usage.....	114
8.1.- Basic use.....	115
8.1.1.- Direct instantiation of buses and sensors.....	115
8.1.2.- <i>Sensors list</i> .....	119
8.2.- Intermediary classes. Class <i>ADCBus_manager</i> .....	121
8.3.- EIDEAnalog library usage. Conclusions.....	126



# 1.- Brief introduction.

We will explain through this 'blog' how a *library* to help capturing physical parameters (analog-digital conversion) has been conceived and developed using Python as a programming language and OOP (Object Oriented Programming) as a technique. The hardware to be used is A) a Raspberry Pi card without added hardware for the oneWire bus, B) the same Raspberry plus an ADS1115 type analog to digital converter and C) the Raspberry connected to an Arduino ProMini; for the first option probes used are of the DS18B20 type, for the other two *combos* half a dozen conventional sensors are used - temperature, voltage - which will be opportunely depicted. As will be exhaustively explained in the blog, much emphasis is placed on the decision of the pattern of (the classes that make it up) the library and its development, issues that are usually the most complex in this type of programs.

The blog may be of interest:

- As a guide to programming practices for intermediate level courses. It may be even possible that in certain university degrees it will serve for the same purpose.
- For fans of (or professionals in) programming who wish to improve or test their knowledge of OOP.
- Engineers in the 'data acquisition' field. Although the hardware used has not an industrial grade (not, at least, the one that has been specifically used to prepare this blog), it is not ruled out that it may be of their interest.

Descriptions along the blog are intended to be as concise as the subject permits, which, as will be pointed several times, is not a simple issue.

(Should you just want to familiarize yourself with the use of the library and not with its design, please go directly to point 8, "Use of the library").

## 1.1.- Blog declared goal.

The stated objective of the blog is, therefore, to develop a -small- library written in Python to ease the use of various types of AD adapters, the popular ADS1115, the "oneWire" bus and an Arduino Promini. The first and the third are hardware additions to the Raspberry, while the oneWire bus is a Raspberry *native* option: loaded the driver, you can enable the pins of the GPIO connector that you deem appropriate to implement it.



**Configuring the Raspberry:** Depending on the version of the Raspberry you have and the Raspbian distribution, you will have your Raspberry configured for the i2c bus (necessary for the ADS1115 to work) and/or oneWire (necessary for the bus of the same name) and/or serial communication (necessary for the Arduino). See Annex II, "Configure your Raspbian/ Raspberry" for details.

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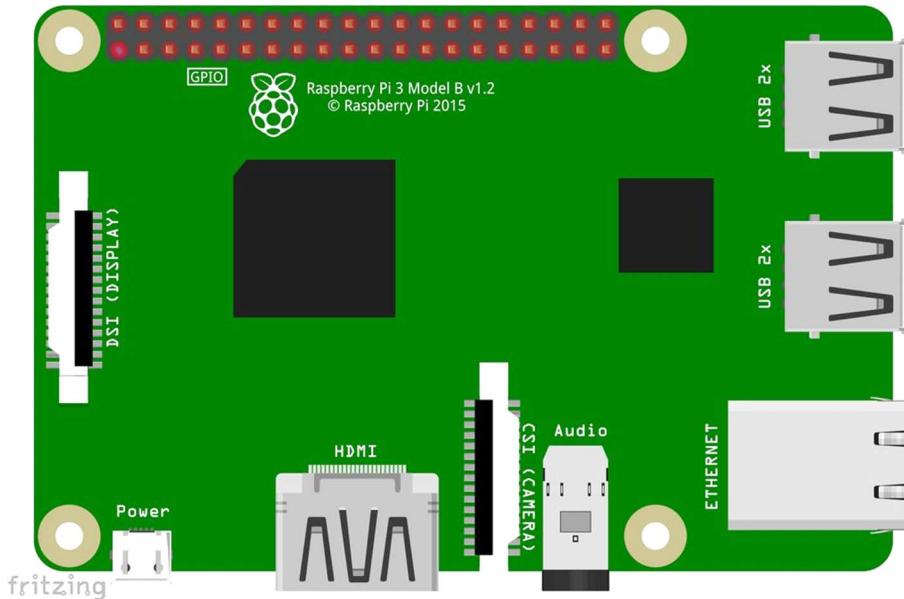


Figure 1. Raspberry 3B.

Yet, the blog is not limited to this: although the library is actually developed -as it is written-as outlined in the previous paragraph, there is another objective as important as the stated one, at least for who wants to learn some analysis and OOP programming. Let's hope that the trip, encompassing the needs, analysis, problem decomposition into classes and the discussion of the final pattern of the library, is as useful as its -trip's one- destination, which is the mere use of the library.

### 1.1.1.- OOP design pattern.

To focus the question: when addressing an OOP development analysis, one of the main issues is the *architecture* of the system, its pattern; i.e.: How do I find the classes that will be instantiated to give rise to the objects that make up my program?. How much should I crumble -granularity- the problem?. How many classes?. What are going to be the relationships among them? And the objects among themselves? How is it documented?

The specific matter that is addressed in this blog -the library itself- is quite simple: you can solve it with hardly a dozen classes (as we will see later). Its best feature is that it is fully developed (that the library code is available <https://github.com/Clave-EIDEAnalog/EIDEAnalog> -and that it works!). The reader, whose knees will probably tremble sometimes, is at least sure to come to an end.

In other words, the best virtue of this blog is that it is a fully developed example that does not limit to describe the basics of the OOP analysis, a complex issue that requires much more than this blog. If you want to follow it -the blog- please keep this in mind: it is a developed (programmed, working) example. Nothing more, nothing less.

### 1.1.2.- Data acquisition systems. A/D conversion.

If it is a matter of doing OOP pedagogy, one could have chosen a subject other than A/D (analog to digital) conversion . What does this have -that others do not- to have been chosen as the common thread of the blog?

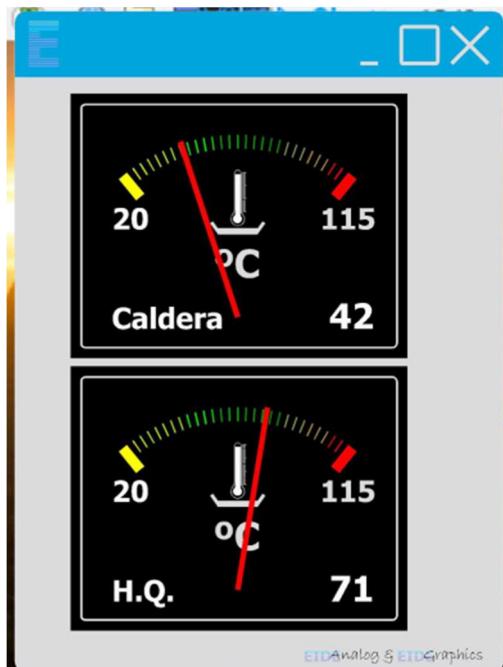


Figure 2. Raspberry data acquisition system.

That the blog authors know it well (and are perfectly aware that choosing a library to "acquire physical parameters", as stated in the third line of the first point of this blog, will take away a good part of potential followers who, a different topic chosen, perhaps would have been encouraged to follow it).

On the other hand, may be that the matter also is attractive, as the result is connecting sensors to a computer (an issue that, in many ways, can be considered eccentric). This is an issue of interest to a good number of activities, both in the field of industry and training, and in this - that of training – to all the engineering and degrees in physical or chemical sciences. At the end of the day, and except for the subtleties of the A/D conversion device itself -which are specific to this discipline- the remaining is not much more than algebra and binary logic; once you are satisfied with the purpose of what you are doing -the library-, the way of doing it -analysis- is valid for similar problems, or of a similar approaches.

#### **1.1.3.- Blog development. Pedagogics.**

We have been careful in the writing of the blog, using a pedagogical style. It is not just a matter of writing some classes so that they can be incorporated into a project by a "copy-paste" (yet this can be done without a problem - and it works). The main goal of the blog is, as mentioned, to help anyone who wants to analyse a case on how to approach the analysis and development of a library using OOP techniques.

#### **1.1.4.- Conclusions. Goals.**

By the end of the blog you should have acquired certain skills regarding OOP (see 2.5.3, "OOP. Conclusion."). In addition you will learn:

- Computer data acquisition (basic concepts). ADC (Analog to digital converters).
- User level Raspberry management. (Very) basic concepts of Linux.
- (Rudiments of) operation of oneWire, i2c buses and serial communication (UART).
- Functioning of some commercial (and popular) sensors.
- Thermistors. NTC. Tabulated sensors.

## 1.2.- Basic knowledge to follow the blog. Prerequisites.

Blog authors have experienced more than once manuals that begin -enthusiastically- explaining that to use the computer mouse you have to operate it with your hand, move it across the pad and press the left button to select or the right one for options (and that can be configured the opposite for left-handed); inevitably the manual -or whatever- abandons this level of detail on the second paragraph to, much worse, give indecipherable instructions just three or four paragraphs later (each of them -of the indecipherable instructions-, deserving for themselves a manual).

We will try not to repeat this error; It would be delusional to think that in order to follow this blog you do not need any prior knowledge of the subjects being addressed. Whoever that wants to follow it must have a *user knowledge* (whatever this means) of computing, personal computers. As we use a Raspberry as hardware you should familiarize with it (of course, whenever the Raspberry is referred to, we are also including the Linux operating system).



Figure 3. ADS1115 tied to a Raspberry.

Nor you should get disappointed for getting your hands a little dirty: whatever the option you choose to implement the blog content you will have to connect something to the Raspberry -see Figure 3 above- and tighten some screws (terminals). We encourage you to connect things to each other: the Raspberry with the A/D converter, the probes to the converter, the Raspberry's power supply (it's like the one of a mobile phone), ... nothing too complicated.

Let's go step by step.

### 1.2.1.- Electronics. A/D converters. Binary numbers.

You should know how to use a polimeter; it is worth knowing how to measure DC voltages. A review on Ohm's law won't hurt (although it is not strictly needed for the blog).



Figure 4. Polymeter.

The ADC (analog to digital conversion) issue is a bit trickier.

When it comes to acquiring values *quickly*, the A/D conversion issue is truly a challenging one. *Quickly* means thousands of times per second -or more; or much more- which is the case, for example, on an audio studio to capture music without losing quality (44,100 times per second); similar speeds are required in many problems in the industry of all kinds, in research, telecommunications, image (much more, this case).

This is not this blog case; it is enough understanding that it is all about converting real world parameters to numbers much more calmly. Although we will have to delve into how the A/D converter is controlled, this is a more *administrative* than an engineering problem, as we will see when it comes to it.

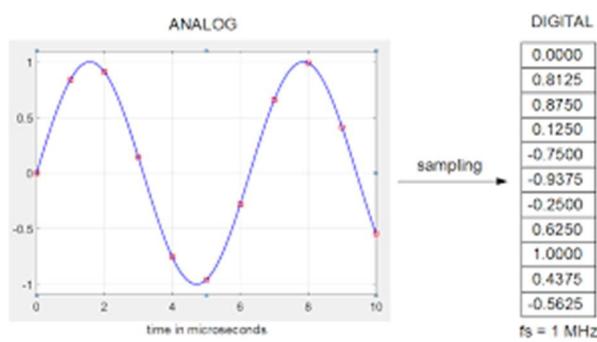


Figure 5. A/D conversion.

(As some WEB page explains, you sitting next to a mercury column thermometer taking notes every, say, 10 seconds, becomes an analog-to-digital converter: you are transforming -and recording- analog values to numbers).

The point is that the computer works with the base 2 numbering system (the -in-famous 1010001010 ...), which in this blog becomes the main scientific problem (at least different from the basic one: the analysis in OOP). If you already master this matter, congratulations, please go to the next paragraph; should you not, you have to make some investigation: entries of wikipedia for "binary" and "bitwise" are a good start. You also have to know what the hell the "two's complement" format is.

A basic knowledge of the terms *byte* and *word* are necessary too.

Incidentally, the hexadecimal numbering system is also mentioned; take a look at it on wikipedia.

### 1.2.2.- Raspberry.

Everything you need to know about the Raspberry hardware, at least to start with, is 1) how to connect it and 2) how to configure the µSD (microSD). There are literally thousands of WEBS that explain how to connect it; even the accompanying leaflet includes it.

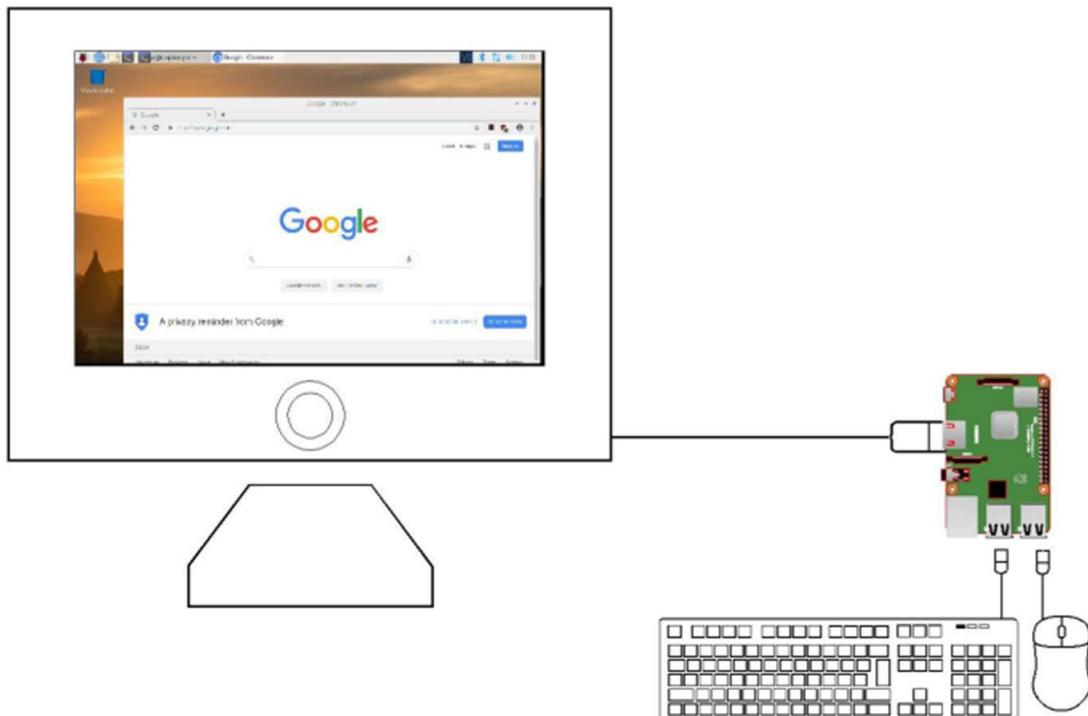


Figure 6. A Raspberry acting as a laptop.

(The easy way to get started is to connect an HDMI monitor to the video port, a keyboard and a USB mouse to two of the 4 USB ports it has, insert a properly configured µSD memory card and power it all.).

The µSD thing is a bit harder: see Annex II, “Raspbian Configuration” for more information.

Although as we present the different subjects they will be explained in detail, it does not hurt finding out what a oneWire, an i2c and a serial communication buses are. Take a look at the wikipedia entries for “oneWire”, “i2c” and “Serial Communication”.

### 1.2.3.- Linux.

The Raspberry has the enormous advantage of working with Linux ... should you not know Linux you miss it. But do not panic, it is not necessary to become an expert to use it, and using the graphical interface is quite simple to start with.

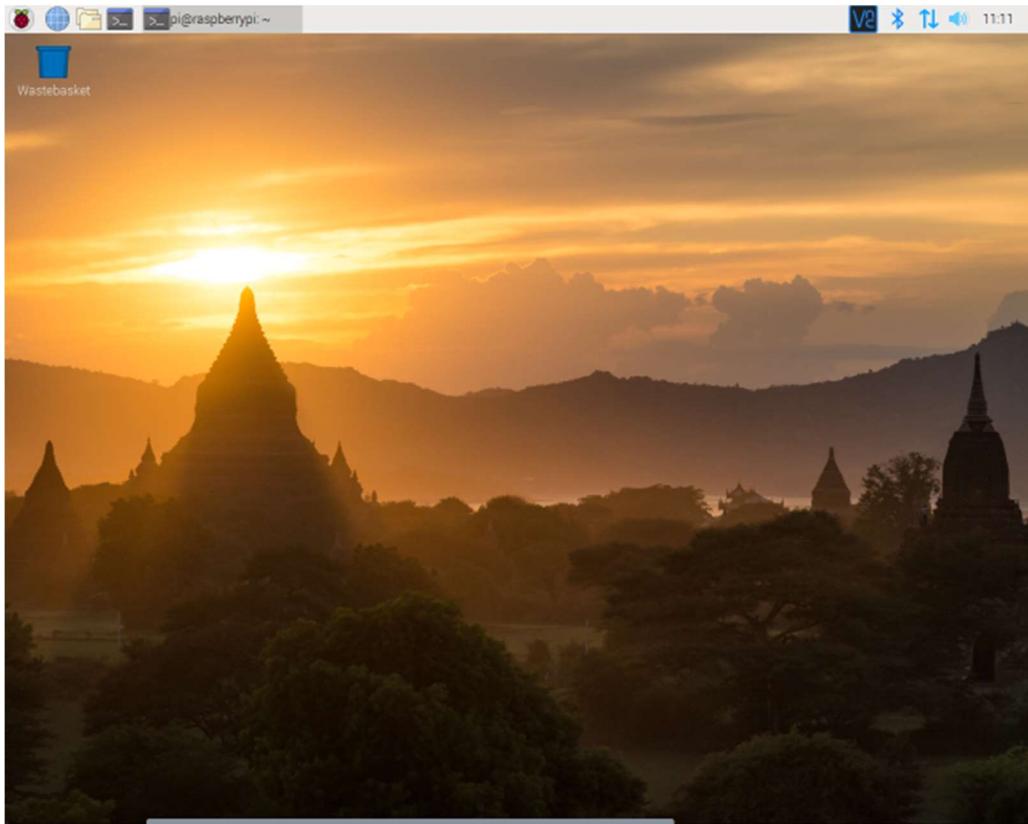


Figure 7. Linux interface (Raspbian).

To follow the blog, you don't have to know much about Linux: should you have a well configured *distribution*, a user knowledge should be enough to start (see annex II, "Raspbian configuration").

As in the precedent section, if you manage with Linux, congratulations, please go to the next paragraph.

Else, we recommend you to learn a bit:

- It is in your best interest to read something to at least familiarize yourself with the terms ("Debian", "Jessie", "Raspbian", "Noobs", "Ubuntu", ... don't be alarmed, they are very much the same). Read the article from wikipedia for "Raspbian" (be patient: you won't understand many things at first, but you have to get a bit comfortable with them); Raspberry's website ("www.Raspberry.org") is not the best in the world, but having a look at it is a good idea either.
- "Terminal": the term refers to the use of the operating system (Linux, in this case, although it can be applied to any O.S.) by means of a "command line". The elders in

the city would remember the black screen of MS-DOS prior to Windows: that is the "terminal" (and, by the way, a few MS-DOS commands are copied from Linux; they are the same).

- It is quite convenient that you know some commands to configure Raspberry things (again the reader is referred to Annex II, "Raspbian Configuration"). See
  - <https://maker.pro/linux/tutorial/basic-linux-commands-for-beginners>
  - <https://www.digitalocean.com/community/tutorials/an-introduction-to-linux-basics>
  - <https://www.freecodecamp.org/news/the-best-linux-tutorials/>
  - <https://www.tutorialspoint.com/unix/>
  - The book "The Linux Command Line: A Complete Introduction. William E. Shotts Jr" is excellent.

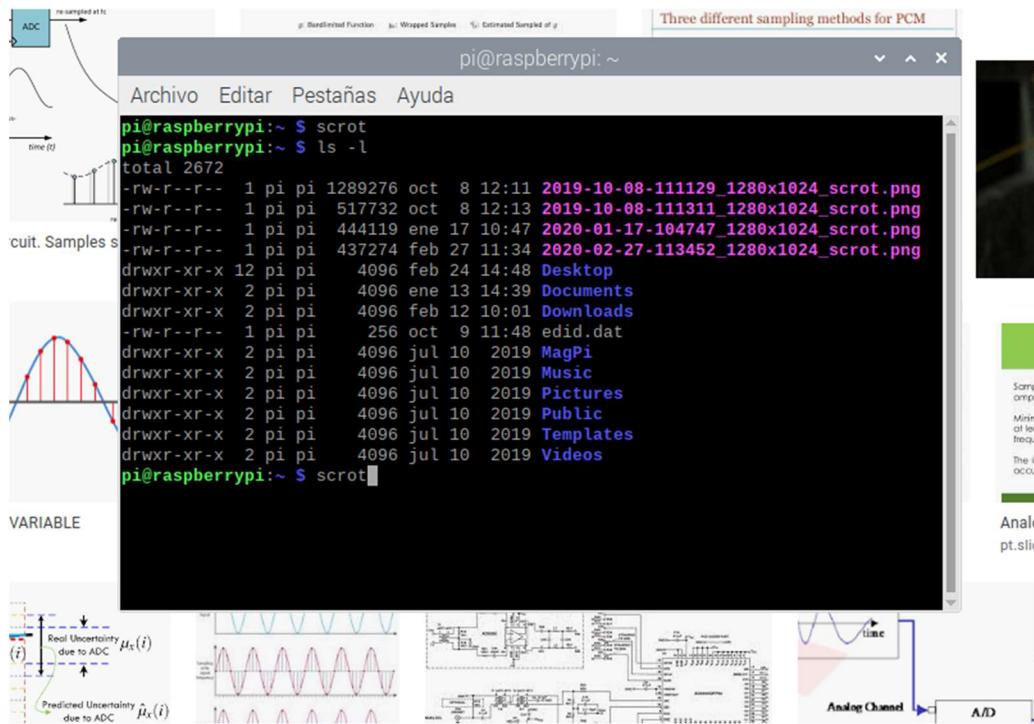


Figure 7. Linux terminal session (Raspbian).



**Backup copies:** One of the main advantages of Linux is the ability of recovering from the disaster of the loss of the S.O. itself. Using *another* operating system, the hard drive failure leaves you out in the open. In the case of the Raspberry, the equivalent would be the failure of the µSD (or the Raspberry itself, the worst disaster); The good -excellent- new is that it is possible to have a copy of the µSD simply by using another µSD. If you are going to mess around with the Raspberry, which we recommend, it is convenient that you have an updated backup by making periodic copies from one µSD onto the other: a few dollars in exchange of a priceless tranquillity.

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#### 1.2.4.- Python. OOP.

This blog is not a Python tutorial (nor an OOP one). To follow it without too many shocks - without having to return frequently to more basic issues than those required to understand what is being developed- it is necessary to have a reasonable knowledge of Python. And you have to have written half a dozen simple Python programs.

(The term "reasonable" in the previous paragraph is used with some bitterness because, who is able to say what a *reasonable* knowledge of Python is?).

Python is one of the easiest (the easiest?) programming languages to learn, and it is extremely powerful. And it is not just that its syntax allows coding in a way that summarizes in a single line of, say, 30 or 40 characters what using other languages requires many lines: Python has implemented as native all the instructions and architecture of any other modern language, and you have to take into account what is added by the libraries included in the normal download. It also has structures -dictionaries, for instance- and/or novelties -class attributes- that at the time, and still today, makes it different from the closer environment.

Python is, in summary, a world to explore. So let's see who is the brave woman or man who defines what a *reasonable* knowledge of Python is.

So we will proceed by extension: let's take the Python WEB reference tutorial ("<https://docs.Python.org/3/tutorial>") as a guide. You need to know:

- How to create and manage numeric variables, their types -int(eger), float, ... and formats -decimal, hexadecimal, binary, ...-. All the arithmetic and logical operations. You need to understand what "None" is.
- How to create and manage strings (the basics: what a string is).
- "Flow control". The above mentioned Python tutorial is not among the best of the foundation ("Python Software Foundation"): the first mention it makes on this

concern -flow control of a program- in point 3.2 is undoubtedly unfortunate: one cannot understand why the –very first- example is implemented with a *while* without any previous anaesthesia. To follow the blog smoothly go to point “4”: you have to understand all the contents in chapters 4.1 to 4.6, all.

- Lists, tuples and dictionaries: in depth. You should be familiar with all the content of tutorial points 5.1.1, 5.1.2. and 5.5. Along the library they are used a lot to iterate: please study in depth the content of point 5.6 and review the point 4.2.
- Modules: you need to understand what the "import" command is for and what is meant by "standard modules" (6.2).
- **Errors and exceptions.** They deserve their own comment: the implementation of a library that is worth of that name should not be made available to potential users without it having a minimum of *protection* against the mistakes that will surely be made when using it (and the ones that, undoubtedly, will be utterly hidden in the code of the library itself). The counterpart is that the use of error handling clauses introduces a new complication in the ‘aspect’ of the code, which, at least at first glance, causes the reject of rookies.

A necessary compromise has been reached: the first version of the library (the one that is discussed in depth into this blog and can be downloaded from <https://github.com/Clave-EIDEAnalog/EIDEAnalog>), has no *error handling* code. A ‘Pro’ version that will have it (open source too) is in preparation. Have a look on chapter 8 of the tutorial, though.

- Classes. Objects: This is the moment of the truth. The terms *class* and *object* should have not secrets for you; and we are off to a bad start, however, if you frown as soon as the first *self* appears or you panic when you see a *\_\_init\_\_* coming floating in the code. Along the blog we neither take everything for granted (related to the concepts of class, object, etc.) nor can we make pedagogy about it with the basic concepts of the subject (which, on the other hand, is done -pedagogy- when the things get complicated: abstraction, encapsulation, inheritance, polymorphism, patterns). On the other hand, the didactic standard of the chapter 9 of the above mentioned tutorial (“<https://docs.Python.org/3/tutorial>”) leaves, again, something to be desired. And this is not an easy matter (neither the basic question of the OOP technique nor how to start with it). Please, find below a couple of WEB sites that you should study if you want to follow the blog contents without shocks.
  - <https://www.programiz.com/Python-programming>
  - <https://realpython.com>



**Python download, install and configuration:** If you are not familiar with Linux, it is possible that starting up Python on Raspberry involves some difficulty. Although the authors of the blog are unrepentant supporters of Linux -and, therefore, self-conscious detractors of the "other" operating system-, it would be an excess to suggest to the blog follower to study it thoroughly -Linux- as a previous

step to start with the blog . The Raspberry start up and use is not complicated at all if you have a good *distribution* (the jargon to refer to the version of the S.O.). There are many vendors on the Internet who can supply you with a properly configured µSD. Linux has a graphical interface similar to that of Windows. See Annex II, “Raspbian Configuration” for complete information.

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### 1.2.5.- Other prerequisites.

- File types: You have to be able to identify and modify a text file (windows *notepad*; Linux *leafpad*).
- Needless to say that you have to know what the ASCII code is.
- Have a look into the wikipedia entrances for NTC and thermistor.

## 2.- Project: ADC library. Specs & tools.

If after such a lengthy advancements, so many reading recommendations, so many warnings and even threats, if, after all this stuff, you have come this far, congratulations: it is time, finally, to get into the matter.

Let's see, now in detail, what we are going to do and what tools we have to accomplish it.

### 2.1.- Specs.

We face this project::

1. The goal is developing a library in Python 3 to use a Raspberry as a data acquisition system (conversion of analog to digital variables). The library must allow to select the ADC from three *native* alternatives (alternatively or simultaneously): 1/ the Raspberry Pi native oneWire bus, 2/ A “Chinese” board -there is no explicit manufacturer- that mounts an ADS1115, and 3/ an arduino ProMini. The measurements taken by the ADC will be converted to a readable format.
2. The library has to solve connecting several sensor alternatives: those designed for the oneWire bus (see 2.3.1, “oneWire bus”) and *generic* sensors for temperature, pressure, distance, sound, etc. -those ones that convert the measured parameter to volts- in the case of the other two options (ADS1115 and arduino). While to add a new ADC to the library involves writing a new class, new sensor types would be added without modifying the library code. It should even be possible to do so for tabulated (non-linear) sensors.
3. Library should allow including new types of ADC converters easily. Classes that implement the control of *native* ADCs will be designed in such a way -interface- that it can be replicated for any ADC whose handling is standard. This way, the client application -the one of the user of the library- will not need to be modified even if a new type of ADC is added.

### 2.2.- Raspberry.

The Raspberry is a computer (microcomputer, nanocomputer, pocket computer, as you like) credit card sized and fully operational (applications compatible with -Microsoft- Office, Internet browsing, multimedia content playback, etc.). And last but not least, a modest model -perfectly suited for the purposes of this blog- costs less than 40€. Add a power supply (the *official* one costs 12€, there exist great ones for half the price), the µSD card and you have a full-fledged computer. A bargain for the kids and for yourself. Please visit the WEB (“<https://www.raspberrypi.org/>”) for complete information.

Models from the 3B upwards have Bluetooth and Wi-Fi too. All of them have, what is of great importance for the purposes of this blog, a 40-pin connector to which you can connect things that you cannot connect to a desktop computer or a conventional laptop.

Raspberry was conceived for students, proposing Python as a programming language, which is already pre-installed in Raspbian.

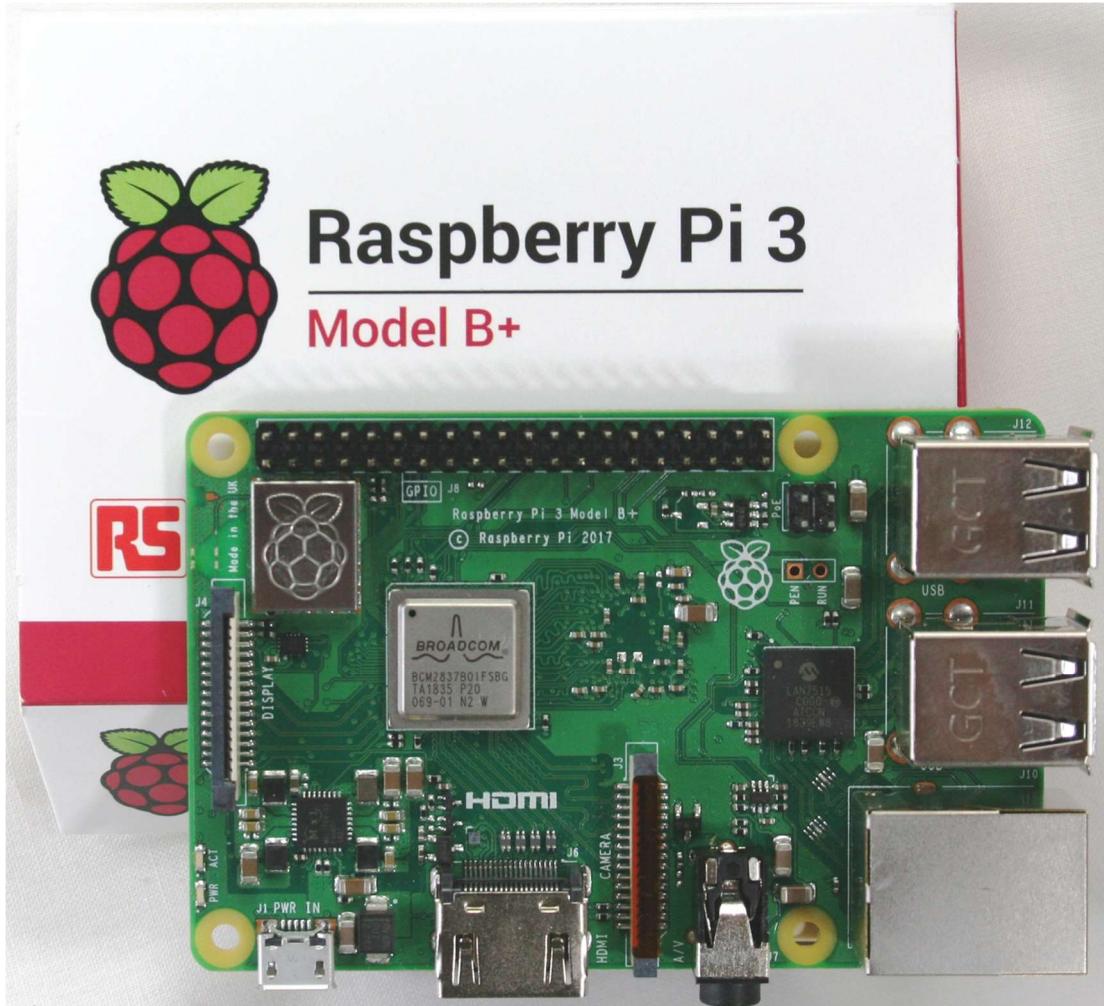


Figure 8. Raspberry Pi 3B +

Praises are over; you can find hundreds in the Internet, along with thousands and thousands of WEBs in which the product is described and all the other stuff that can be done using it. Finally, to state that any model from the "2" -Raspberry Pi 2- is more than enough for this project.

## 2.3.- ADC. Analog to digital converters.

An ADC converter converts -input- volts into a number you can operate with.

---

 About the terms "**ADC**" and "**bus**": These two terms are neither interchangeable nor about the same thing: while the first refers to a "chip" (or electronic board, or module), the second refers to the way two or more chips, either in a small system like the one in this project or in much more complex equipment, communicate among them. In this project -EIDEAnalog- is the case for both the *conventional* ADC chips -the ADS1115- and the small ADC converters that are integrated into the individual devices that are connected, in this case, to the Raspberry by means of a oneWire "bus" (the DS18B20 thermometers). This bus -the oneWire- thus solves the two problems simultaneously: first the sensors give the conversion already done and the bus -this is its mission- transmits it to the Raspberry; as you can see, the whole is a mixture of sensors, digital analog converter (s) and a communication bus that, from the point of view of the library we are conceiving, will be controlled by a single class - "oneWire" -.

The ADS1115 connects to the Raspberry through the i2c "bus" and the Arduino by means of a conventional "serial" bus -RS232 (buses that, on the other hand, allow you to connect many kinds of things to the Raspberry: displays, video cameras, keyboards, printers, ...).

Being the object of this project the design of classes that address all of the aforementioned possibilities in an homogeneous way, (and -being- the access to the bus and the capture of sensor data intertwined from a logical point of view), when referring to the classes that control the bus and ADC chips we will use both terms almost interchangeably (and even the -non-existent- word "*ADCBus*", which is not rigorous at all).

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### 2.3.1.- oneWire bus.

The oneWire bus was invented by Dallas Semiconductor Corp. and is a protocol (a set of specs for both hardware and software) that eases chips connection (with each other). It has the advantage of just needing one wire for data transmission (two, in fact, the other one is "earth" or "0 volt", as you wish) for all connected devices (in number almost unlimited; of course there are restrictions due to the power supply, lengths, interference, physical space, ...). The transmission speed is not very high 16 kbits / s (about 1600 characters per second) although much more than enough for our project.

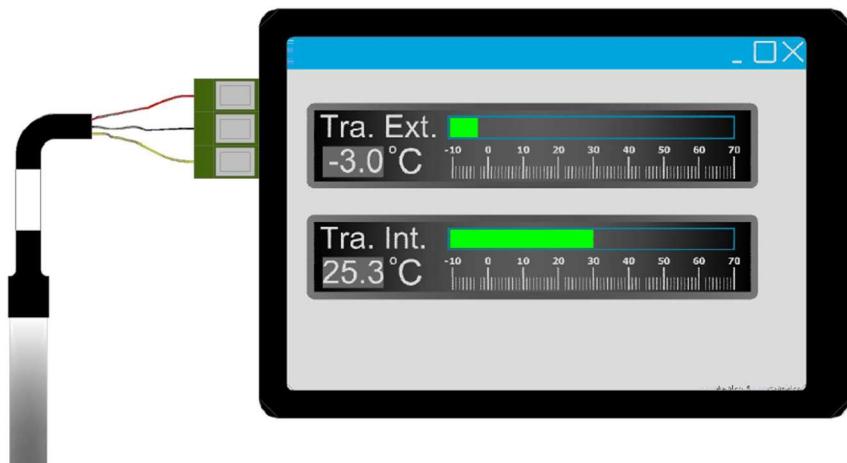


Figure 9. Commercial kit for temperature (Raspberry + oneWire)

The Raspberry acts as a oneWire bus “master” (the name says it all) without the need of any other hardware; It is, therefore, free (see Annex II, “Raspbian Configuration”). Several kinds of devices can be connected to the bus, temperature sensors among them. Along the blog we will use the DS18B20 for the examples; It is a temperature sensor with a microchip that includes an ADC converter and the necessary electronics to communicate - through the bus-, everything conveniently encapsulated. Each of the thermometers (and any other “slave” devices connected to the bus) have a single identification, that consists in a 12-character hexadecimal code. DS18B20 thermometers cost is around two dollars per unit.



Figure 10. Temperature probe DS18B20. Water proof finishing.

The DS18B20 arrangement needs a third cable and a small resistance to supply the sensors (See figure 11).

The standard Raspberry driver -software- to manage the oneWire bus at its lower level works in a quite peculiar way: when starting the Raspberry the driver makes a polling of the bus detecting every device that is connected to it; it creates a folder for each one it finds (See 6.1, “oneWire Class”). Then, to read the sensor, what you have to do is to look

inside the text file "w1\_slave" on the correspondent folder, this one identified by the sensor hexadecimal code.

This behaviour is convenient, since without the need for any specific software you may know the temperature by just opening the file. The problem is that this is quite a slow process, at least in terms of what is usual for ADC devices, even the simple ones: as average, the time it takes to get the reading is about 0.9 seconds per sensor. Despite this, it is enough for our project, since it is about discussing different solutions; this is one of them.

(Actually the probe, including the accompanying electronics, takes a fraction of those 0.9 s. It is the subsequent reading of the file that makes the complete cycle so slow).

The oneWire bus is implemented by using three of the Raspberry Pi GPIO header.

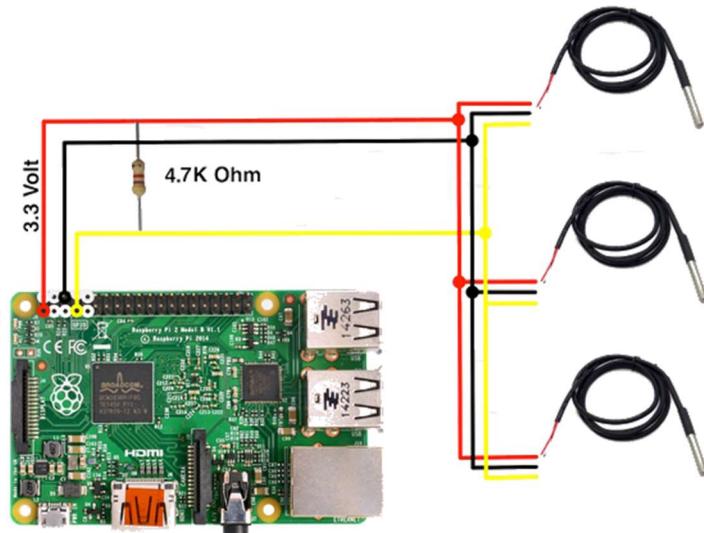


Figure 11. oneWire bus connection..



For the sake of hardware connectivity, class `oneWire` in this library activates a generic GPIO pin to supply 3.3 V to the oneWire bus. The most usual bus implementation -Figure 11 above- uses some pins that make the connection of the most common 3.5" LCD screens -Figure 9- impossible. A different pin may also be activated for the bus itself (again the *usual* pin is in the LCD screen header area. See annex II, "Raspbian configuration"). Discard all this information in case you are not using a LCD: you may use the conventional layout.

### 2.3.2.- ADS1115.

The ADS1115 is a 16-bit ADC designed by "Texas Instruments". It has four channels that may give a direct reading (4, therefore -direct readings-) or differential (2, maximum; mixed configurations can also be used -two direct + one differential-; in fact, the mode selection is made on the go, so the choice, except for the connection of the probes which is supposed to be permanent, can be changed even when working). The ADS1115 connects to Raspberry via i2c bus.

The chip has 6 programmable reference voltages (or "gains", to adapt itself to the range of the sensor) and 8 different sampling rates, also programmable (actually the sampling rate - the rate at which it samples- is always the same, a little bit more than 1,000 times per second; what happens is that the chip averages all the samples it has taken in the interval correspondent to the rate you program: if programmed for 475 samples per second (SPS) it will average 2 samples, if asked for 250 –it averages- four samples, and so on. -up to 8 SPS-. If you ask for 860 it will result in a single sample; the more samples averaged the more accurate the final result). The ADS1115 may also compare the measured value with a programmable threshold, providing alarms in case the value goes out of the predefined value (option that we will not use in this blog).

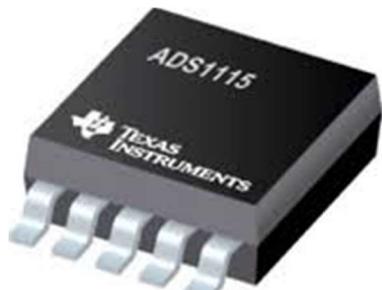


Figure 12. ADS1115

Direct use of the chip requires a quite skilled hardware job: the chip is 3 x 3 mm and has 10 pins, so the best is to look for an already assembled card that mounts it. The most popular is the *Sparkfun* one, but we have chosen a more than robust card made in China that has an header to connect directly to the Raspberry and screw terminals, so that you do not have to solder anything to use it (the fact that it is Chinese is an assumption: beyond the reference "HW-660" that it shows in it has no other identification). It also has a built-in thermistor (NTC) that can be connected to channel one by a jumper -again without soldering anything-, and that will be handy to check the operation of the library with non-linear probes (see 5.2.3 .- "'tabulated' calculation agent"). The HW-660 can be purchased in eBay or Amazon for 12€ (even less).

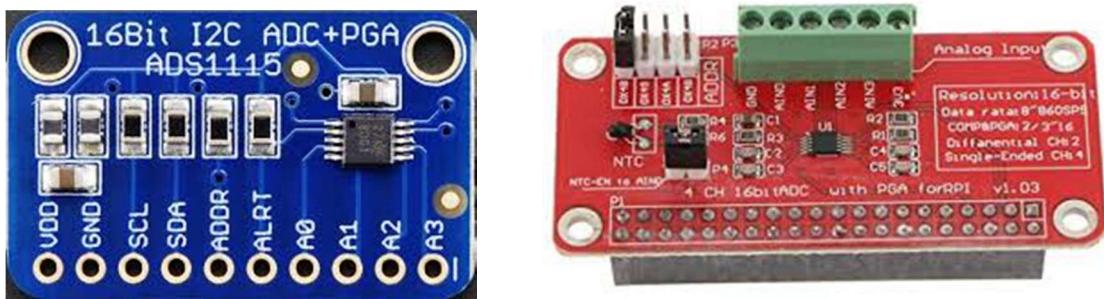


Figure 13. ADS1115 boards. Sparkfun (left) and HW-660

A couple of paragraphs above the option -need- to program the ADS1115 has been mentioned. The right way is to have a look on the chip datasheet: you can consult and download it from “[www.ti.com/lit/ds/symlink/ads1115.pdf](http://www.ti.com/lit/ds/symlink/ads1115.pdf)”. This is the proper way, we say. Don't worry if it looks cumbersome, in section 4.1., “Class ADS1115” the data sheet is sufficiently crumpled to justify the elaboration of the corresponding class; It is much better to start there.

A final issue: the Raspberry standard configuration of the i2c bus works at 100 kbytes/s; at this speed each sample takes -seems to take- (starting at the trigger command, plus the time it actually takes the chip to convert plus the time that it takes the reception of the information) much more than what it takes just converting (just over a couple of milliseconds for transmission and about 1.0 millisecond for conversion at 860 SPS). See exercise at the end of chapter 4.1.10 and annex II, “Raspbian configuration”.

### 2.3.3.- Arduino ProMini.

Arduino is an Italian company that had the great idea of taking some Atmel (A North American company now owned by “Microchip Technology Inc”, also a USA company) microcontrollers and mounting them on boards so that they could be used easily; something quite similar to what was done with the ADS1115 (see previous point) by Sparkfun -and also by the unknown Chinese manufacturer- from the point of view of hardware and, somewhat more difficult to explain -what arduino did-, from the point of view of the software. In summary, arduino managed to have their boards, and much especially the arduino “UNO”, a kind of standard in the microelectronic industry. The arduino ProMini that we will use in this blog is a minimal size version of the arduino UNO.

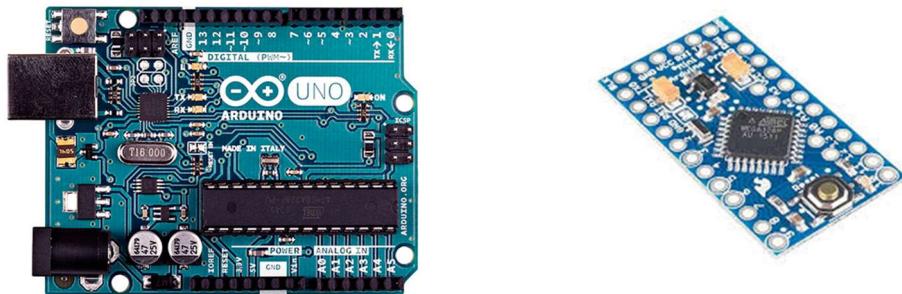


Figure 14. Arduino UNO (left) and Promini.

The Arduino boards -the Atmel microcontroller- are not -only- A/D converters, although they have one built-in (with eight conversion channels). They are, in that they resemble the Raspberry, miniature computers, although the Arduino is focused to the connection with the real world (say what is now known as IoT, although when Arduino was founded it did not exist -the name, the thing itself did-). Let's say that you cannot connect the Arduino to an HDMI display, or directly to a USB memory stick, for example (or not, at least, to basic models).

To use an Arduino it needs its own program, so you have to look for one that is already (programmed) to use the -its- ADC and you need some form of communication also programmed (all Arduinos have implemented the oneWire bus -as in the Raspberry you simply need a driver-, the i2c -the same- and several serial communication channels).

There is a Spanish manufacturer that has what is needed: a ProMini mounted on a board that, in turn, is prepared to be mounted directly on the Raspberry. Furthermore, although it has its own programming -see 4.3, "Arduino class"; this company uses it as part of a "data logger" - it behaves as intended: it converts the 8 analog channels (10 bits resolution) and sends the information packed by the serial channel on demand. We will use it as another option in the library.



Figure 15. Promini Raspberry hat.

## 2.4.- Programming language. Python. IDE.

Python's implementation of everything related to OOP is up to date. Add -to Python, no to OOP programming techniques, this is quite a different matter; see next paragraph- a more than generous learning curve and we have the perfect tool.

(Well, may be it is not perfect: Python is an interpreted -not compiled- language, so it is relatively slow. "Slow" means that, for example, a Python program that calculates the square of the first 1,000,000 numbers takes, on a veteran desktop computer, 0.23 seconds. That is 0.23 microseconds on average per calculation. There will be plenty of people who will cross out this ridiculous figure when compared to the speed of an iPad. By the way, on a Raspberry Pi 2 it takes 1.2 microseconds: it is five times slower!; on a Raspberry 3 B + it takes around 1.0 microseconds).

In what concerns the development environment (the IDE; *Integrated Development Environment*) to use there are discrepancies. The one that includes -it used to include, keep reading- by default the language, that is, what appears -it used to appear- when you select the option "Python 3" (or "2") in "Programming" -or a file ".py"- on the Raspberry is -it used to be- a good one. In the latest versions -distributions- of Raspbian ("Raspbian Buster" at the end of 2019) this has been replaced -damn!- by a certain "Thonny Python IDE". This environment is very likely to improve the old one, but when one gets older becomes reluctant to change (and much more if one is obliged to).

Should you are making your *debut* -following this blog- with Python, try that *Thonny*: sure it works well. If you are disobedient and prefer the old environment you have to mess around a bit: see Annex II, "Raspbian Configuration" to install the old IDLE.

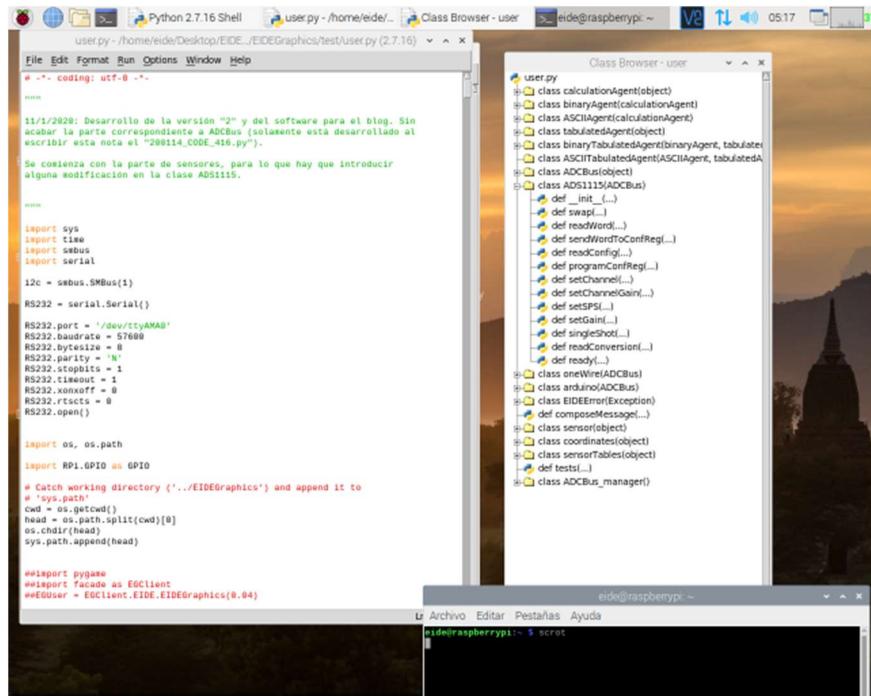


Figure 16. (Old) Python IDLE.

## 2.5.- Design using OOP.

### 2.5.1.- Abstract.

OOP is not an easy matter.

Procedural programming (for the sake of simplicity, the one used without resorting to OOP) has a generous learning curve: one knows the "for- (next)", the "if- (then) – else" (what is in parentheses is because it is not used in Python) and having an idea of what a *routine* is (*function* in Python) you can write programs to solve quite complex issues; there exist code written with these resources and a little else that would make the Apollo X computer programmers green with envy.

Yet, this type of programming has drawbacks, being the most remarkable one its poor *reusability*.

It is all about the chances of reusing the code -the whole or a part- previously written to be used for a certain environment into another. The concern was for a long time (let's say from the time first programs were written -in the 1950s - till the beginning of the 1990s) a very controversial one -and poorly solved. There was no way for the “reuse” to be painless. To a greater or lesser extent, the copy-paste did not work: best case -and always based on military discipline- routines could be reused almost without modification, but the certainty of not having maintenance problems afterwards was minimal. Any improvement -this is another matter, that of *improvements*, which deserves another blog- in the original routine always required the user -customer- some effort to readapt the code. Most occasions, the *built-in* routine ended up being completely rewritten and the intended time saving turned into a loss: there are many examples; anyone who has developed software for someone else knows perfectly well what we are talking about.

The OOP technique solves this and other problems related to software reusability and maintenance. The code with the slightest probability of being reused is implemented by *classes* whose subsequent *instantiation* enables the code use in an opaque way (encapsulation of code and attributes). The classes, in turn become part of libraries that help to solve one or more problems in a certain domain -area- (this last statement being a simplification).

### 2.5.2.- Example.

You are taking your first steps in Python. You want to program a basic calculator: by entering two numbers and an operation ("+", "-", "\*" or "/") the operation is performed and the result is displayed.

Leave aside how you coded it (the calculation once the three elements have been entered into the computer). The point is that the basic -*native*- tools of Python to achieve a certain interactivity are really poor: the “*input ()*” function is quite primitive: your brand new calculator deserves something à *la mode*. Something like this:



Figure 17. Using wxPython .

Here is when the OOP becomes handy. If there is a library that covers this it will suffice (assuming that everything they say about libraries and OOP is true -it is), by using it. You mess around the Internet, social networks, ask someone you know he/she masters this stuff to finally get to the conclusion that the right thing is using "wxPython". (By the way, there is another widely used GUI library, "TkInter", which was the first for Python. There is a certain rivalry between the two -among their followers:- the authors of the blog opt for wxPython).

wxPython has a class *TextCtrl* that instantiated gives raise to an object which is the small window where the number "A" is to be written. The corresponding code would look something like this:

```
A = wx.TextCtrl(self.panel, -1, "", style = wx.PROCESS_ENTER)
```

(Do not run away: we have already told you that the OOP is not easy; by now you just want to make an idea). The other two, for "B" and the result would be:

```
B = wx.TextCtrl(self.panel, -1, "", style = wx.PROCESS_ENTER)
result = wx.TextCtrl(self.panel, -1, "", style = wx.TE_READONLY)
```

Let's say that in a certain "*self.panel*" (that is inside the window where the whole process will take place) there will be three boxes; in two of them you can write ("style = wx.PROCESS\_ENTER") and in another just look ("style = wx.TE\_READONLY"; we will leave the "-1" and "" for a better day).

Now we need the labels ("A", "B" and "result"; the above is just to enter and see numbers). You have to write something like this:

```
ALabel = wx.StaticText(self.panel, -1, "A")
BLabel = wx.StaticText(self.panel, -1, "B")
ResultLabel = wx.StaticText(self.panel, -1, "Result")
```

that shows up the labels (we have instantiated the *StaticText* class three times: three labels).

And so on: four instances of `wx.Button` (operations), tell where to put everything on the panel (alternatively it can be done automatically with another object of class `wx.GridBagSizer`: things get complicated), instantiate the `panel` where the whole drama will take place (`self.panel = wx.Panel(self)`) into the window, which, of course, is an object of another class (`?Calculator`, perhaps?) which in turn inherits from the `wxFrame` class.

Take a breath, the good new is that you do not have to program anything -*anything else* than the above- to have a window with a panel inside that, in turn, has buttons, labels, boxes (in which, by the way, you will have the functions of a word processor: insert, delete, etc. You can also move around the entire window with the mouse, write inside the box you have selected, press a button, etcetera). And all interactive: if you have any previous notion of programming you have a good idea of what the effort to get such an interface is. And surely you are starting to be intrigued by the above; else calm, it is a toll (the abstruse of the subject) that is worth it.

### 2.5.3.- OOP. Conclusions.

There are -the one you are right now reading too- a lot of blogs and WEB sites where you will find a lot of nonsense about the painlessness of the OOP: especially touching are those that introduce the subject with the class *mammal* whose subclasses are *cat* and *dog*, which, in turn, participate from the classes *tail* and *colour*; its objects, "Boby" and "Samson", move the tail (or not). Those of cars and drivers normally have also not waste.

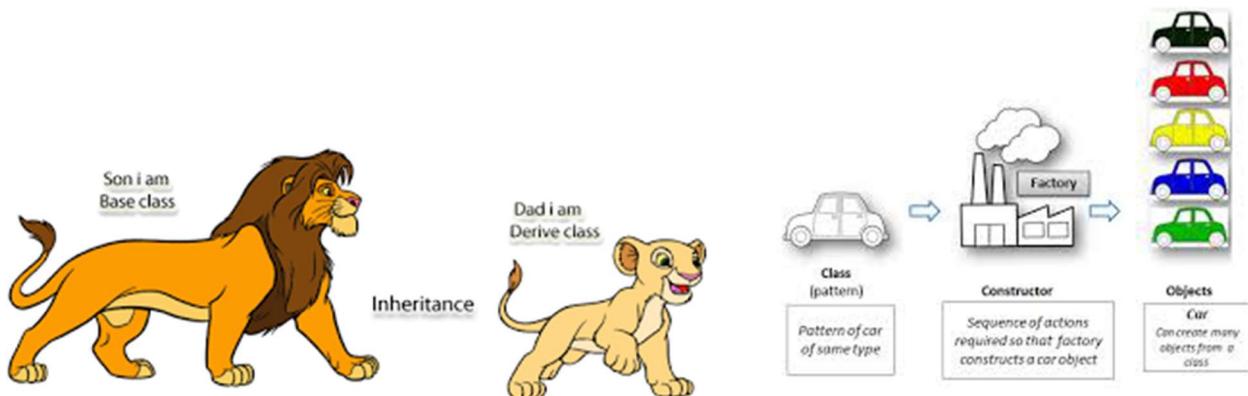


Figure 18. OOP made easy: mammals y cars.

(The point is not that this simple approach they propose being essentially false: it is not. The mistake is trying to explain a zoo with *mammal*, *dog*, *cat*, *Boby* and *Samson* or a Formula 1 race with just *car* and *driver*. There is much -much- more stuff than just that).

The OOP is not a one lesson subject -nor of a quarter, probably - so take it easy. This blog is intended to help you take the second steps (see 1.2.4., "[Basic knowledge to follow the

blog. Prerequisites] Python. OOP" for the first ones). By the end of the blog you will be familiar to the following basics of OOP:

- Classes and objects.
  - Class instantiation.
  - Class attributes. Methods. Object attributes.
  - Inheritance. Multiple inheritance.
  - Object composition.
  - Project documentation. UML Notation (very basic notions).
- Libraries.
  - Use of. Library client.

### 3.- Library pattern. First approach.

There is no magic bullet for what we are going to do next paragraphs. Yet, it is the most important part of the project (at least for those who follow it to learn a bit on applications building using OOP).

Let's go for it. The first issue to solve is to fragment the complete task into subtasks that are easier to face than the whole one. We are going to do it using the “object oriented analysis” (so that OOP can be used later).

#### 3.1.- Noun/verb.

We have to delineate the future classes and what *their* objects will be able to do (methods). As a first approach, the “noun/verb” technique is to be used. It helps clearing up the problem.

It is about:

1. Writing down the project spec (we've already done this).
2. Separate names from verbs: names would be the classes and verbs the methods.

The stated spec is:

- The goal is developing a library in Python 3 to use a Raspberry as a data acquisition system (**conversion** of analog to digital variables). The library must allow to **select** the ADC from three *native* alternatives (whether alternatively or simultaneously): 1/ the Raspberry Pi native oneWire bus, 2/ A “Chinese” board -there is no explicit manufacturer- that mounts an ADS1115, and 3/ an arduino ProMini. The measurements taken by the ADC will be **converted** to a readable format.
- The library has to help connecting several sensor alternatives: those designed for the oneWire bus (see 2.3.1, “oneWire bus”) and generic sensors for temperature, pressure, distance, sound, etc. - those ones that **convert** the measured parameter to volts- in the case of the other two options (ADS1115 and arduino). While to add a new ADC to the library involves writing a new class, new sensor types would be added without modifying the library code. It should even be possible to do so for tabulated (non-linear) sensors.
- Library should allow including new types of ADC converters easily. Classes that implement the control of *native* ADCs will be designed in such a way -interface- that it can be replicated for any ADC whose handling is standard. This way, the client application -the one of the user of the library- will not need to be modified even if a new type of ADC is added.

Some nouns (class candidates) stand out:

"Analog variable", "digital variable", "bus", "oneWire", "ADS1115", "arduino", "sensor", "ADC".

Verbs (methods candidates): "convert" (transform) is, undoubtedly, the star.

(Spoken language is not exact -is it computing?- . Some terms may be taken as nouns or verbs: conversion is a noun, but it derives directly from *to convert*; let us be a little ambiguous for the moment).

This "noun/verb" method is not quite scientific; we have to debug the result. Let's go to the next step: you have to sharp your mind because the next matter is a bit more elusive one.

## 3.2.- The classes as services suppliers.

It is about analysing the -eventual- classes from the point of view of what they -the objects you get by instantiating them- can offer to the client (user). Classes have to help solving the problem, not complicating it.

Look at it this way: the programming language, Python this case, has what it must have: variables, operators, flow control commands, error handling, class management, etc. We cannot ask the language is to have commands for the specific problem: Python has not an instruction "convertChannel" to manage an ADC or "tableLookup" to get a value from a given table.

We are addressing one of the core aspects of the OOP: class methods have to *supplement* the programming language so that to the client is -almost- as easy to use a Python primitive instruction -"print", for example- as a *new* one -*convertChannel*, for example-.

In addition, if the classes are conceived in such a way that they are valid for any similar environment -or maybe not so similar-, we are getting closer to the correct way of facing the problem. We get into matter below.

### 3.2.1.- Bus classes. Sensor class. Conversion.

Classes managing the *ADCBus* devices (oneWire, ADS1115, arduino; -see note at 4.3-) are quite a direct ones. They contain -encapsulate- what is essential for the *ADCBus* to work and little else; they touch the bare metal -the hardware. Taking a preliminary look at points 4 and 6, you can see that a good part of them (especially the ADS1115, which we will use as a standard throughout the blog) are almost the literal transcription of the datasheets. We will also make an effort to keep them -the *ADCBus* classes- as independent as possible (*loosely coupled*) from the rest of the library.

Much subtler, however, is the issue of sensors and the one of the human readable value calculation (They appear as candidates to a class -sensor- and a method -calculation-; the readout itself will end up being a sensor attribute). As we will see below, the classes related to these topics are much more abstract than the previous -*ADCBus*- ones.

Except for the oneWire bus, which delivers the sensor reading in an almost a readable format (it gives it directly in ASCII, in centigrade degrees millis), the conventional format for an ADC to give the reading is binary; so it is in the case of the other two ADCs that we use in the blog: in *two's complement* the ADS1115 and *direct binary* in the case of the Arduino. And we need to transform them into human readable format (for example, 00010000 = 32 for *direct binary* -Arduino- and 10000001 = - 127 in *two's complement* -ADS1115-).

### 3.2.2.- *readout* method.

To convert the value the ADC gives (remember, normally a binary one), and whoever does it and wherever it is done, the following is a must:

1. The format -*two's complement* or *binary*- is it. Put it another way, what ADC is it coming from.
2. The sensor parameters. The sensor gives a voltage -which is what the ADC converts: a voltage- proportional to what it is measuring: centigrade degrees, for example. It is highly unlikely that the ratio in between the parameter and the voltage is a "1 to 1" one, so the sensor is characterized by its *gain*, which is the ratio in between the units it measures and the volts it gives. Along the blog the LM35 is widely used as a reference sensor: it has a gain of 100 (see 5.1, "Sensors").

Sometimes (keep seeing 5.1, "Sensors") the sensor has an offset in between its "0" (Volts) and the "0" of what it is measuring: we will call that value *zero*.

There are sensors whose reading (or whatever they are converting) does not have a linear dependence such as that described in the previous paragraphs (keep seeing 5.1, "Sensors"). This case the conversion –in between what the ADC gives and what we want to see - is *tabulated*.

3. Finally there is a parameter which depends both on the sensor and the *ADC Bus*: the *reference voltage*. It is not about the volts that the sensor withstands; rather it is about how much -voltage- it outputs. This is another element when computing the readout, so it becomes part of the repertoire of things that you need to convert the ADC output to the human readable format. This parameter, along with the gain, the zero and the -eventual- table, will be part of the sensor "library" (see a little later).

Summarizing, to calculate the readout you need the bus data (the data format) and the sensor info (gain, zero, reference voltage and a table -if applicable-); the question is: where -method- is the calculation made?; Which class will hold that method?.

Let's think a bit: it looks like we need a class "sensor" which, at least, encompasses the above list for each one of the sensors connected to the system: 1) assuming that the information for each type of sensor -LM35- is centralized -it is-, one sensor object attribute has to be the type -'LM35', or whatever it is- and 2) which bus is it connected to -ADS1115, for example-. (This could be done the way around: the *ADCBus* object has the information of the sensors it is converting; this case it would be -the object of the bus class- responsible for the calculation. It would be a perfectly valid alternative, although, as will be seen in due course, less flexible: you cannot instantiate a sensor - a *real* sensor, not a *type* of sensor - until you know which bus it is connected to. It is possible, instead, to instantiate a bus without specifying which sensors it has connected: it may not have any).

So the *sensor* class has to be able of calculating the readout. As a first approach the class will have a method *-readout-* that computes, passed as an argument what the bus gives (binary; ASCII) the human readable value. To accomplish this task all the values listed above should have been passed as arguments at the time of *-sensor-* instantiation. Let's anticipate, it is a little early for this, that the instantiation will be something like this:

```
extTemperature = sensor('LM35', myBus, 2)
```

(We will come back to the subject in 5.4, "Class sensor. Code. Instantiation"; let's advance that *myBus* is the bus to which the sensor is connected and "2" the *ADCBus* channel).

Back to the analysis:

A landmark on an OOP analysis -and its subsequent implementation- is the absence of *do case* (or *switch*) clauses. These are at the heart of procedural programming: as the computing of the readout depends on many parameters (remember: type of sensor; *ADCBus* it is connected to), a procedural programming will select the computing *routine* by *switching* (or *do casing*) by the sensor type and then by the *ADCBus* type.

For tabulated sensors a table must be added to the above: Next paragraph is copied from 5.3.5. "Multiple inheritance. Classes 'binaryTabulatedAgent' and 'ASCIIITabulatedAgent'".

"In a project like the one we are dealing with -and almost always- what happens if there is a tabulated sensor (the NTC of the Chinese board made with the ADS1115 for instance, see figure 19), is that it is connected to a channel of the *ADCBus*, the latter delivering a reading in a certain format (binary, ASCII, ...) that must be converted to decimal -like that of any other sensor-, then pass the computed value to the "tabulatedAgent". This one looks up into the table to calculate the final readout".

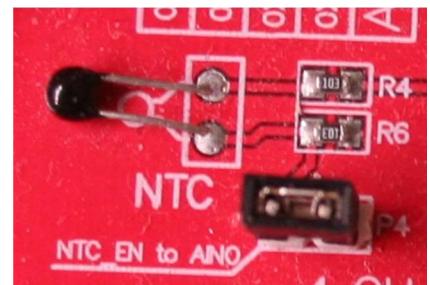


Figure 19. NTC

Should a tabulated sensor be present, the *ADCBus* value has to be converted as any other sensor: first the reading is converted to decimal and then the final value is extracted from the table.

Again, with procedural programming, this would lead to a “do case” or an “if-then-else” (which should not appear in the OOP either).

(It is beyond this blog scope going deeper into this matter. Let's say that the reason for what non-existence of “switch” clauses is a sign of good OOP analysis is because it is a symptom of little coupling in between classes, a desirable characteristic connected to software reusability).

### 3.2.3.- *Calculation agent* classes.

The issue of computing the final readout will be solved by devising a family of classes “calculation agents” (we will use the *inheritance* technique to derive some of them from the others) that implement the different calculation algorithms depending on the format (binary or ASCII), the sensor data and the fact of having or not -the sensor- an associated table (See 5.3, “Readout calculation algorithms. *agent* classes.”).

Nevertheless, the point is not how this family of classes is created - inheritance-, but rather the technique that we will use to link the one needed to each concrete sensor: is the *sensor* class object what in turn will instantiate the needed class from the family of *calculation agents*: this way we will get the *sensor* class *readout* method, which is the one in charge of computing the readout, to do it by delegating to the calculation agent object. The code will be exactly the same whatever are the sensor and bus; a mere line:

```
return self.agent.convert(value)
```

(as will be seen in due course).

So we have an initial library pattern:

1. Classes for each one of the ADCbuses that can be connected to the Raspberry: oneWire, ADS1115 and Arduino. As will be seen in due course, an abstract class - *ADCBus*- will also be created, from which these three inherit; It is -the abstract class- half a matter of style and half of utility: there are a couple of basic (essential) methods that all bus classes share.
2. A class *sensor*, whose main purpose is to act as a data warehouse, will enclose a *readout* method that, by means of a previously -and conveniently- instantiated calculation agent class, computes the final human readable value. At the moment of instantiation the objects of this class perform another key task by bringing together all the objects that will collaborate with each other (See 5.4.- “Class sensor code. Instantiating”).
3. A *calculation agent* family in charge of computing readouts.

Less than a dozen classes: the stuff to solve is not complicated.

### 3.3.- Library pattern. Classes.

Using an OMT (https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Object-modeling\_technique) based notation the figure below shows the intended pattern.

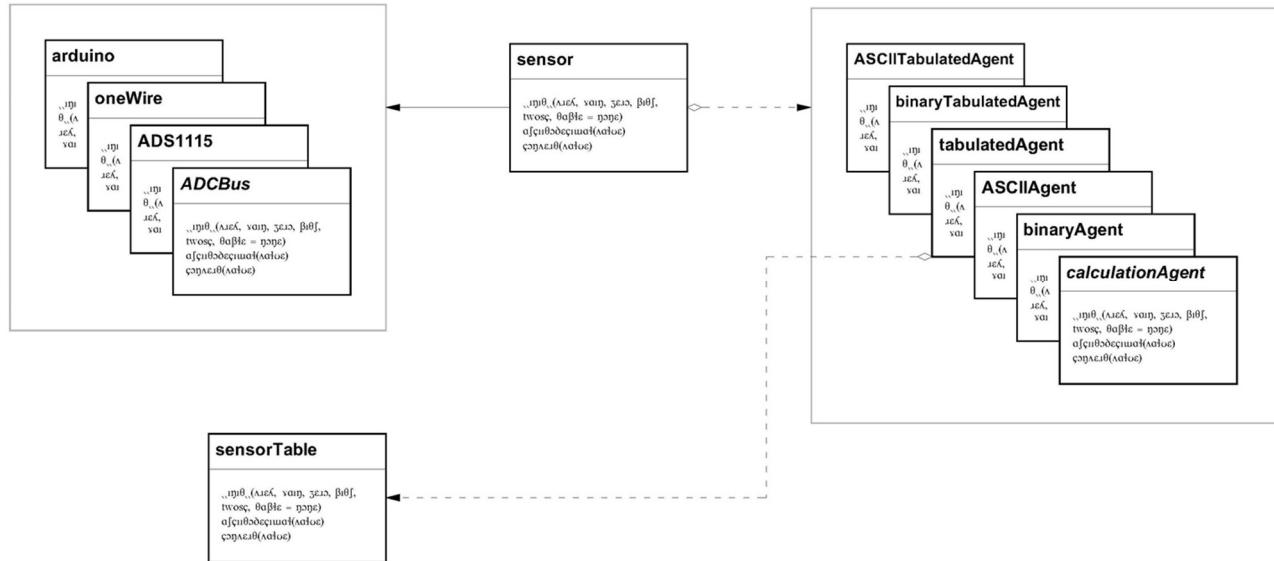


Figure 3-2. Library EIDEAnalog. Preliminary class pattern.

(Notation is derived from the excellent book “Design Patterns: Elements of Reusable Object-Oriented Software. Erich Gamma, Richard Helm, Ralph Johnson and John Vlissides”, that in turn is derived from the OMT standard).

## 4.- Class ADS1115

Let us summarize a bit before designing the classes to control the devices to which the sensors are connected: "ADS1115", "oneWire" and "Arduino".

Our goal is to design a Python library (those classes being a part of) by which the use of a Raspberry to acquire data will be eased.

The design (the classes interface: the "methods" to interact to the class objects) that directly control the different hardware options -ADC- has to be done in such a way that changing the analog to digital converter may be achieved with a minimum of modifications in the *client* code: just the instantiation of the bus. These classes have the purpose of just communicating with the bus (See below the -proposed- meaning of these terms - "bus" and "ADC").



Figure 20. ADS1115 board.

---

**!** About the terms "**ADC**" and "**bus**": These two terms are neither interchangeable nor about the same thing: the former refers to a "chip" (or electronic board, or module), while the latter refers to the way two or more chips, either in a small system like the one in this project or in much more complex equipment, communicate among them. In this project -EIDEAnalog- is the case for both the *conventional* ADC chips -the ADS1115- and the small ADC converters that are integrated into the individual devices that are connected to the Raspberry by means of a oneWire "bus" (the DS18B20 thermometers). This bus -the oneWire- thus solves the two concerns at the same time: first the sensors give the conversion already done and the bus transmits it to the Raspberry; as you can see, the whole is a mixture of sensors, digital analog converter(s) and a communication bus that, from the point of view of the library we are conceiving, will be controlled by a single class - "oneWire" -.

The ADS1115 connects to the Raspberry through the i2c "bus" and the Arduino by means of a conventional "serial" bus -RS232 (buses that, on the other hand, allow you to connect many kinds of things to the Raspberry: displays, video cameras, keyboards, printers, ...).

---

Being the object of this project the design of classes that address all of the aforementioned possibilities in an homogeneous way, (and -being- the access to the bus and the capture of sensor data intertwined from the logical point of view), when referring to the classes that control the bus and ADC chips we will use both terms almost interchangeably (and even the -non-existent- word "*ADCBus*", which is not rigorous at all).

*ADC Bus* control classes -their objects- will not be *aware* of what sensors are connected to them; so we have to think on other classes whose objects handle the sensor information - type, gain, etc.- and that convert the data the ADC delivers into human readable values that will be logged, shown on the screen or whatever you intend to do with them. Thus, the ADC control classes end their function by giving the raw value, which normally is a binary value (either direct or in two's complement), although oneWire bus DS18B20 thermometers deliver almost the human readable readout, as we will see in due course.

Depending upon the real system we are working on, *ADC Bus* classes will be instantiated as many times as necessary. Say several ADS1115s are connected to the Raspberry (four is the maximum), as many instances of the corresponding class will control them simultaneously and separately. They could even be managed together with any oneWire and Arduino *buses* that may coexist (provided the hardware is suitable for that purpose).

For the sake of clarity, we divide the class analysis and development in two stages, first one goal being to just convert the default channel (the first one) with the default gain, mode (*single shot*: the ADC has to be triggered each time it has to convert) and samples per second -SPS-. We will call this “the *minimal* version”; this allow us to read a sensor, which is the basic purpose of the project. Next, we will add the necessary methods to refine the control of the ADS1115 so that we can change the gain, the SPS and activate the conversion for all the four channels.

Two important guides to do the analysis:

1. *ADC Bus* classes *interface* will be the same for all of them (ADS1115, oneWire and arduino).
2. Methods will include from the very beginning the required coding according to the specs: we will flee from *provisional* solutions.

May be that applying those criteria leads to an apparent complication in the class structure; it will be in our own reward. If this circumstance occurs, it will be duly commented.

## 4.1.- Analysis.

Let us go to it: to reading the first channel of an ADS1115 one has to proceed as follows:

1. Send the “start conversion” command.
2. Wait till the ADS1115 finishes converting.
3. Ask for the -analog to digital- conversion (value).

Each one of these three steps correspond to three different class methods (*singleShot*, *ready* and *readConversion*). Now we have for free a class interface sketch: these methods.

As we will see those methods will demand other methods, more specialized, that we will delineate on the fly.

### 4.1.1.- Start conversion command.

In order for the ADS1115 to convert, a “1” must be written to position 15 of its *configuration register*. And this must be done by leaving the other 15 bits untouched so, taking into account that to change any bit on the configuration register you have to write all the 16 bits (the trigger -conversion start- and the other 15), you must first read its contents -the one of the configuration register-, change just this bit and send the result back to the ADS1115.

Doing things so, reading the configuration register, changing just what you need to and sending it back, is the usual way to program the ADS1115. It looks like we are going to need two “specialized” methods, one that reads the configuration register and another that writes it (sends information -commands- to it).

On the other hand, the ADS1115 has another register -the *conversion register*- that holds the last analog to digital conversion -the binary value. The code to read it is almost identical to the one used to read the configuration register; is not good having a similar code twice -repeated-. We devise a single method that does it -reading both registers, one at a time-: we have to pass which register number -or whatever- as an argument to this new method.

We will call those methods "*readWord (register)*" -the one that reads both registers: which one is passed as an argument (*register*)- and "*sendWordToConfReg*" -the one that writes the configuration register-.



**i2c bus usage:** In this blog we cannot submerge into the deepest details on how the i2c bus works. i2c is a protocol to manage the communication in between chips by two wires; Python has a "smbus" library that provides the instructions -methods- necessary to handle it. As the "smbus" protocol is actually a *low speed* subset of the complete "i2c" protocol, it is amazing that the library is not so called -"i2c"-

instead of "smbus". To finish messing it up -or not-, this blog calls "i2c" the instance of "smbus" that we use to interact with the ADS1115: you may excuse us -or not-.

---

The library "smbus" command -the *object method*, to be precise- to read a register is "*read\_word\_data*", that *returns* a "word" (16 bits) in 2 bytes. Taking the datasheet as a reference (on how to order these two bytes), the command returns the two bytes swapped: the second one on the first place and the first one on the second place. The write command -"*write\_word\_data*"- swaps them again on sending them back, so we could forget about it, locate the key bit -or bits- in the -swapped- word, change it and send the word back: it works. The issue is that this way of working would be confusing when working on the configuration register (you would have to swap for yourself the whole datasheet to make things clear). It is much better having another utility method to which we pass a "word" and returns it to us swapped: we will call it "*swap*" (of course).

A final issue: it is quite convenient the class interface -the methods the *client* is going to use- being as *friendly* as possible. A client code that has a *readWord(0)* line to read the configuration register and *readWord(1)* to read the A/D conversion will work nicely, but its reading -and probably its usage- will be much more confusing than if we "*wrap*" these two options with two separate methods: *readConfig* and *readConversion*. A few more lines of code and an priceless advantage to not make mistakes and read the code more easily.

Hence, we devise seven methods for our class ADS1115:

<b>Class: ADS1115</b>	
<b><u>Methods</u></b>	
<b><code>readConversion(self)</code></b> <b><code>ready(self)</code></b> <b><code>singleShot(self)</code></b>  <b><code>swap(self, word)</code></b> <b><code>readWord(self, register)</code></b> <b><code>readConfig(self)</code></b> <b><code>sendWordToConfig(self, word)</code></b>	

Table I. Class ADS1115 (*minimal*). Interface methods in bold characters.

Explanations and caveats preceding the table should be enough as to understand the content for each one of the methods (it follows). We will remark some aspects as we present them so that the ideas get completely clear (many code lines are not fully explained, except for the case that they have any detail that goes beyond the basic knowledge of Python):

### **swap(self, word)**

```
def swap(self, word):
    """ Swaps the two bytes of a word """
    valor = ((word&0xff00)>>8) | ((word&0x00ff)<<8)
    return valor
```

- Returns a word with its two halves (bytes) swapped.
- The `self` pseudo-parameter is a Python syntactic requirement for all the class methods. It is also used as a prefix whenever a class references its own attributes and methods (for example: `self.swap`, `self.addr`, see below).

### **readWord(self, register)**

```
def readWord(self, register):
    """Read word from ADS1115 register """
    valor = i2c.read_word_data(self.addr, register)
    valor = self.swap(valor)
    return valor
```

- Returns the contents of the register whose number is passed as an argument (`readWord(self, register)`). The *word* is *returned conveniently swapped* (`valor = self.swap(valor)`).
- The code gets the info by means of the “`read_word_data`” method of the `smbus` object “`i2c`”. We will come back on the subject later.
- `self.addr` is the i2c bus address for the -physical- ADS115 that the instance of the ADS1115 class is managing (you can connect up to four ADS1115 simultaneously to a i2c bus). `self.addr` value is loaded at the instantiation time (see below).

### **readConfig(self)**

```
def readConfig(self):
    """ Read config reg. """
    r = self.readWord(ADS1115.confReg)
    return r
```

- This method uses the precedent one -`readWord`- to read the configuration register contents and return it.
- The register is addressed by the contents of the class attribute `ADS1115.confReg`. It is a matter of style, using attributes instead of raw values (“0”, for the configuration register; the conversion register is “1”) that improves code readability and maintenance.

## **sendWordToConfig(self, word)**

```
def sendWordToConfReg(self, word):
    """ Send a word to the ADS1115 configuration register """
    # swap byte order
    word = self.swap(word)
    i2c.write_word_data(self.addr, ADS1115.confReg, word)
```

- Sends (*write\_word\_data*) the *word* passed as argument to the *configuration register* (*ADS1115.confReg*) of the ADS1115 in *self.addr*.

## **singleShot(self)**

```
def singleShot(self):
    """ Start an analog to digital conversion """
    #Read config register
    valor = self.readConfig()
    # Set "single shot" bit
    valor = valor | ADS1115.startConv
    self.sendWordToConfReg(valor)
```

- See paragraphs preceding the table above.

The preceding five code snippets almost make up the *minimal version* entire core of the class "ADS1115". Remember that it is about being able to read the ADS1115 default channel ("0"). It is worth discussing it a bit: it is the first Python code implementation of the blog.

- Let us have a look on the *singleShot* method (which is the intended goal of this block of code; it is about telling the ADS1115 to convert to later read the conversion). They are nothing else than three lines of code: *value = self.readConfig()*, *value = value | ADS1115.startConv* and *self.sendWordToConfReg (value)*. Only *value = value | ADS1115.startConv* is native to Python; the other two are calls to methods of the class itself. This is one of the OOP cornerstones: it is about generating a language of your own so that the code becomes a chain of calls in between methods of the different objects (or from the object methods to the object methods themselves). This is a recurrent idea that has already been discussed (see 3.2, "Classes as service providers.") and that will be widely analysed in the remaining of the blog.
- The class (and its *interface*) is designed without a particular specification. In our case the specification is quite generic: it is about reading analog variables by means of a Raspberry; one of the devices used is the ADS1115. It is not specified whether the converted values are to be displayed, to be dumped to a WEB page or if they will lead to alarm warnings. We don't even know if they are going to be transformed to a "visible" readout (23.2 centigrade degrees; 7.0 kg/cm<sup>2</sup>). Yet, all the work we have done will be used exactly as we have completed it. This is another of

the OOP pillars: the classes -their objects- offer the client an interface that is an extension of the programming language. From the very moment you instantiate the class, *singleShot()* becomes a (new) command. It does not matter if the class changes -the class code-: it is enough by keeping the interface so that the client that uses it is oblivious to these modifications; your code -the *client* application program- will continue working exactly the same, as long as the class does. We will also come back to this idea once and again.

- The client has access to *all* the object methods: *readWord(0)* -a non *public* (interface) method- can be used instead of *readConfig()* -a *public* one-. It is this, the issue of making certain class methods available to the client or not, more a methodology issue than a practical one; by coding in Python it is not possible to deny direct access to the class methods and attributes to the *client* (should he/she endeavours to). In this project the class table (summary) says which methods are considered “public” (which are recommended to be used as the *interface*) and which ones are not.
- A classical programming style avoids explicit constants in the code (*ADS1115.confReg* instead of “0”; *ADS1115.startConv* instead of “0x80”). This leads to adding a few lines of code into the class *heading* (see later what is the *heading*: “*Class Attributes*” and method “*\_\_init\_\_ ()*”). The effort is payed back by an improved readability and ease of code maintenance.

#### 4.1.2.- End of conversion.

The hard work done up to here (in order to have a *conversion start* command: *singleShot* plus other four utility methods) will begin to pay off right now. The method to check whether the ADS1115 has finished the conversion is:

```
def ready(self):
    """ Return true if last conversion finished """
    valor = self.readConfig()
    ready = valor & ADS1115.done
    return ready
```

that returns “1” (*True*) if conversion is over or “0” (*False*) otherwise. The code needs no further explanation (at least no more than that given in previous section 4.1.1, “Start conversion command”).

#### 4.1.3.- Conversion reading.

Once again the work done up to now eases code writing:

```
def readConversion(self):
    """ Returns the conversion register contents """
    valor = self.readWord(ADS1115.convReg)
```

```
    return valor
```

that returns the converted value in two's complement format.

We are almost done: the *minimal version* code just needs the above mentioned *heading*. Here you have.

#### 4.1.4.- Class attributes.

A Python distinguishing feature are the *class attributes*. All the class instances -objects- share these attributes.

We will use the class attributes to store the ADS1115 working parameters, that is, all the chip parameters needed for its use (all instances of the class will use them). For the moment we have detected the following ones, whose first appearance in the code is:

```
class ADS1115():
    confReg = 0b00000001
    convReg = 0b00000000
    startConv     = 0b1000000000000000
    done         = 0b1000000000000000
```

Those attributes are referenced as *ADS1115.XXXX* along the code (*ADS1115.confReg*). They can be referenced as object attributes also (*myBus.confReg*).

#### 4.1.5.- \_\_init\_\_() method. Instance attributes.

Each ADS1115 class instance has attributes of its own, that are not shared with the other instances (see previous paragraph). For the moment we have used one, *self.addr*, which is the address of each ADS1115 connected to the i2c bus. Its value is initialized in the \_\_init\_\_ method which is implemented like this:

```
def __init__(self, address, ordinal=0, name=None):
    # ADS bus and address (i2c)
    self.addr = address
    self.ordinal = ordinal
    self.name = name
```

The *init* method is the so-called *constructor* in the OOP jargon. Aside from its ugly look, it is just a method that is run every time a class is instantiated. Sometimes (see 5.4, “Sensor class code. Instantiation”) the *init* method has its own algorithms so that the mere instantiation endows the object with some sophistication to ease later tasks.

It is not the ADS1115 class case: the classes for the use of buses are simple and implement just what is necessary for their functioning. For the ADS1115 we will use it, by the moment -remember that we are writing a *minimal version*-, to initialize the address of

the board (see figure 22) and to numbering the instance *-ordinal-* and give it a name - *name*. These are assigned by default "0" and "None" in case the client indicates nothing.

In the case of the Chinese board, the address is selected by means of a jumper on the board to choose among four different addresses; ADS1115 instantiation has to be done with the selected address (0x48 in the picture), so that the instance is assigned to the board that has that address. The instantiation is:

```
myBus = ADS1115(0x48)
```

An object called “myBus” is generated. It is an object of the class ADS1115 with attribute *self.addr* 0x48; It corresponds to a *physical* board that contains an ADS1115 and that has the address 0x48 selected.



Figure 22. ADS1115 with address 0x48.

#### 4.1.6.- Class ADS1115 minimal version code.

We have got the complete *minimal version* code:

```
class ADS1115():

    # Registers
    confReg = 0b00000001
    convReg = 0b00000000

    # Start conversion
    startConv     = 0b1000000000000000
    # "Done" bit
    done          = 0b1000000000000000

    def __init__(self, address, ordinal=0, name=None):
        # ADS bus and address (i2c)
        self.addr = address
        self.ordinal = ordinal
        self.name = name

    def swap(self, word):
        """ Swaps the two bytes of a word """
        valor = ((word&0xff00)>>8) | ((word&0x00ff)<<8)
        return valor

    def readWord(self, register):
        """Read word from ADS1115 register """
        valor = i2c.read_word_data(self.addr, register)
        valor = self.swap(valor)
        return valor

    def readConfig(self):
        """ Read config reg. """
        r = self.readWord(ADS1115.confReg)
        return r

    def sendWordToConfReg(self, word):
        """ Send a word to the ADS1115 configuration register """
        # swap byte order
        word = self.swap(word)
        i2c.write_word_data(self.addr, ADS1115.confReg, word)

    def singleShot(self):
        """ Start an analog to digital conversion """
        #Read config register
        valor = self.readConfig()
        # Set "single shot" bit
        valor = valor | ADS1115.startConv
        self.sendWordToConfReg(valor)

    def ready(self):
        """ Return true if last task accomplished """
```

```

valor = self.readConfig()
ready = valor & ADS1115.done
return ready

def readConversion(self):
    """ Returns the conversion register contents """
    valor = self.readWord(ADS1115.convReg)
    return valor

```

#### 4.1.7.- Class ADS1115 instantiation and usage.

In order to use the resources (methods) the class has you have to instantiate it. The code is (write it below the class code):

```
myBus = ADS1115(0x48)
```

it deserves some notes:

- 0x48: Is the argument that the `__init__` method is going to assign to the `addr` attribute. The line

```
self.addr = address
```

at `__init__` will assign the passed value to `self.addr`.

- The instance line (`myBus = ADS1115(0x48)`) does not include any other argument - apart from the address- so the attributes `ordinal` and `name` will get the default values “0” and “None” (see above 4.1.5, “`__init__()` method. Instance attributes”).
- As soon as the code instantiates the class, its methods and attributes are *ready to use*. The way to use them is "`myBus.XXXX ()`" (so are all the attributes -for example `myBus.addr`)

This way, to read the conversion for the first channel, the code is (write it following the line “`myBus = ADS1115(0x48)`”):

```
myBus.singleShot()
while not(myBus.ready()):
    pass
print (myBus.readConversion())
```

 The above code is fine. However, if you try to run it, the error “global name ‘i2c’ is not defined” will come out: the class `smbus` object ‘`i2c`’ is not defined yet. The following lines of code must be added *at the beginning* of the module (there is a somewhat more detailed explanation in 4.1.1, “Start conversion command”, see also Annex II, “Raspbian configuration”):

```
import smbus
i2c = smbusSMBus(1)
```

When running this code the binary value for the ADS1115 first channel conversion will be *printed*: it has to be a value in between 0 and 65535 (both included; 65535 is  $2^{16} - 1$ ).

May be that the reader wants to interpret the binary value. “0” (“0000 0000 0000 0000”) means “0” Volts at the sensor connection; 32767 (a “0” followed by 15 “1”: “0111 1111 1111 1111”) is the biggest positive voltage value that the ADS1115 may convert according to the *reference value* programmed. As stated, the ADS1115 is working with the default -2.048 Volts-, so any voltage equal or greater than this one will give 32767; for intermediate -binary- values you have to use a *rule of three*. Values greater than 32767 correspond to negative values (that may not be converted nor connected).

One is tempted to include right here two lines of code to convert the binary value to decimal: we won’t. In due course the we will give a full explanation -and code- on the *calculation agent* classes; those are the ones in charge of performing this conversion. Patience.

#### 4.1.8.- ADS1115. Configuration methods.

The coding written up to now is limited to using the ADS1115 with the default values (the ones it defaults to when it is switched on). Of course, this is a (very) limited use; remember that it can be also programmed to:

1. Select which channel is to be converted (up to four).
2. Select the *gain* (reference voltage). Every sensor has a maximum output voltage: it may depend upon the *maximum absolute value* the chip stands or upon another characteristic (encapsulation, for example). The own nature of the sensor makes a difference too: a thermocouple gives barely one mV (millivolt) at ambient temperature (they are rarely used for such purpose) while a LM35 outputs 250 mV at 25 centigrade degrees. The ADS1115 may be trimmed for every situation; the *top of scale* value may be selected from 0.256 V to 6.144 V in eight steps: the lowest reference -0.256 V- suits a thermocouple measuring hundreds of degrees and one of the intermediates -1.024 V- is good for a LM35 that is not intended to be used over 100 centigrade degrees (1.00 Volts).
3. Select the *sample rate* (SPS). The ADS1115 samples at a steady rate (around 1000 samples per second; see exercise below); you can tell it indirectly to average samples to increase accuracy by setting the SPS from 8 -samples per second- to 860. “8” SPS means that the ADS1115s will average 125 samples; “860” is not to calculate any average at all.
4. Set a warning threshold that the ADS1115 uses to give an alarm signal (not covered in the blog).
5. Set the *continuous conversion mode* (in opposition to the *single shot mode*; is not covered in the blog either).

To program the ADS1115 the issue is just about modifying the configuration register: every option means changing different bits; the trick is how to modify the required bits while leaving the others untouched. A similar -though a little simpler; keep reading- issue was solved to set the *single shoot* bit (see 4.1.1, “Start conversion command”; *singleShoot* method). Setting a bit unconditionally to “1” requires just a logical “or” operation; setting several bits to “0” or “1” is a bit more difficult. We need four steps to do so.

1. Read the configuration register.

2. Set the bits to change to “0” (by means of a logical “and”).
3. Set to “1” the bits that have to take this value.
4. Send the result back to the configuration register.

The procedure may seem a little wordy: it is easy to understand, though. As a first step let us adding some new constants to the class attributes:

```

reset          = 0b0000010110000000 #0|MUX|PGA|M|DRT|COMPR
# Start conversion
startConv     = 0b1000000000000000 #1|000|000|0|000|00000
# "Done" bit
done          = 0b1000000000000000 #1|000|000|0|000|00000
# Channel selection (Multiplexer)
channelReset = 0b0000111111000000 #0|000|111|1|111|00000
setChannel1  = 0b0100000000000000 #0|100|000|0|000|00000
setChannel2  = 0b0101000000000000 #0|101|000|0|000|00000
setChannel3  = 0b0110000000000000 #0|110|000|0|000|00000
setChannel4  = 0b0111000000000000 #0|111|000|0|000|00000
# Gain
gainReset    = 0b0111000111100000 #0|111|000|1|111|00000
gain_6_144   = 0b0000000000000000 #0|000|000|0|000|00000
gain_4_096   = 0b0000001000000000 #0|000|001|0|000|00000
gain_2_048   = 0b0000010000000000 #0|000|010|0|000|00000
gain_1_024   = 0b0000011000000000 #0|000|011|0|000|00000
gain_0_512   = 0b0000100000000000 #0|000|100|0|000|00000
gain_0_256   = 0b0000101000000000 #0|000|101|0|000|00000
# Samples per second
SPSReset    = 0b0111111000000000 #0|111|111|1|000|00000
SPS_8        = 0b0000000000000000 #0|000|000|0|000|00000
SPS_16       = 0b0000000000100000 #0|000|000|0|001|00000
SPS_32       = 0b00000000001000000 #0|000|000|0|010|00000
SPS_64       = 0b00000000001100000 #0|000|000|0|011|00000
SPS_128      = 0b00000000010000000 #0|000|000|0|100|00000
SPS_250      = 0b00000000010100000 #0|000|000|0|101|00000
SPS_475      = 0b00000000011000000 #0|000|000|0|110|00000
SPS_860      = 0b00000000011100000 #0|000|000|0|111|00000

```

the preceding code is just an ADS1115 datasheet portion crumbled so that it can be used later with ease. One way or another every one of the listed values have to be used later to program the ADS1115. There are just three new reset words –*channelReset*, *gainReset* and *SPSReset*- that ease the coding, as we will see a bit later.

Such a way, to select channel three you have to write code for the following four tasks:

1. Reading the configuration register.
2. Set to “0” the bits correspondent to *channel selection* (by means of a logical *and of* the converted value and the word *channelReset*).

3. Set to “1” the needed bits by executing a logical *or* of the result of step 2 and *setChannel3*.
4. Send the result back to the configuration register.

And so on.

We have organized things so that we need a different method for each one of the three features *-gain*, *channel*, *SPS*-, because each reset (step “2”) uses a different word – *channelReset*, *gainReset* and *SPSReset*- . To further reduce the code it is a good idea grouping the *reset* and *set* words like this:

```

setChannels = (
    (channelReset, setChannel1),
    (channelReset, setChannel2),
    (channelReset, setChannel3),
    (channelReset, setChannel4),
)

setSPSs = (
    (SPSReset, SPS_8),
    (SPSReset, SPS_16),
    (SPSReset, SPS_32),
    (SPSReset, SPS_64),
    (SPSReset, SPS_128),
    (SPSReset, SPS_250),
    (SPSReset, SPS_475),
    (SPSReset, SPS_860),
)

setGains = (
    (gainReset, gain_0_256),
    (gainReset, gain_0_512),
    (gainReset, gain_1_024),
    (gainReset, gain_2_048),
    (gainReset, gain_4_096),
    (gainReset, gain_6_144),
)

```

The trick is having three *double tuple tuples*: each *double tuple* holding the couple of words for each one of the possible programming option: four channels, eight SPS’s and six gains. This pattern allows a quite simple coding:

```

myBus.setChannel(3)      # Select channel "3"
myBus.setSPS(7)          # Select 860 samples per second.

```

(remember that tuple numbering starts by “0”)

Let us see the methods code:

```
def setChannel(self, channel):
    """ Sets a channel -multiplexer-"""
    self.programConfReg(ADS1115.setChannels[channel - 1])

def setSPS(self, option):
    """ Sets the "samples per second" parameter"""
    self.programConfReg(ADS1115.setSPSs[option])

def setGain(self, option):
    """ Sets the "gain" parameter"""
    self.programConfReg(ADS1115.setGains[option])
```

By having organized programming *words* so (*double tuple tuples*), an utility method *programConfReg* is the single one to program the ADS1115:

```
def programConfReg(self, lista):
    """ Sends a -programming- command to the ADS1115"""
    #Read config register
    valor = self.readConfig()
    # Reset value by lista[0]
    valor = valor & lista[0]
    # Set value by lista[1]
    valor = valor | lista[1]
    self.sendWordToConfReg(valor)
    return valor
```

the already coded *readConfig* and *sendWordToConfReg* methods being used.

We have completed the ADS1115 class core code: we can program the channel to read, the SPS it is going to be sampled with and the gain.



The ADS1115 has differential inputs. As the individual inputs do not accept negative voltage, it is about being able to connect sensors that may output negative values. The bits that are programmed and the sensor connection correspond to this table:

Bits "MUX"	Connection
000	Positive: AIN0; Negative: AIN1
001	Positive: AIN0; Negative: AIN3
010	Positive: AIN1; Negative: AIN3
011	Positive: AIN2; Negative: AIN3

1. Find the suitable attributes to program these options.
2. Find a new method (`setDiffChannels?`) to use differential inputs

#### 4.1.9.- ***chooseVref* (reference voltage) method. *SetChannelGain* method.**

A final issue remains undiscussed.

In section 4.1.8, “ADS1115. Configuration methods” we have explained that changing the gain of the ADC serves to set it according to the sensor expected span: measuring a thermocouple, which outputs millivolts, is not the same as measuring a sensor from which we can have some volts; you must adjust the ADS1115 *gain* (voltage reference) according to the sensor.

Therefore, the reference voltage has to be selected according to the sensor. For example, a conventional waterproof LM35 -the one you can find easily in Internet- is intended to work from 0 up to 100 centigrade degrees, that is to say from 0.00 to 1.00 Volts. As one of the reference voltages for the ADS1115 is 1.024 Volts, it suits perfectly to this sensor.

To set the reference you can use the `setGain` method: for the mentioned reference -1.024 Volts- the code would be `myBus.setGain(2)`. But, is it possible to automatically set the *voltage reference*? It should, as each sensor type has a maximum voltage and the *ADCBus* -the ADS1115- has the voltage references it has.

The matter deserves a bit of thinking. Which -method of which object of which- class have to assign the correct -voltage- reference for a particular sensor?. To each physical sensor connected to the system an object of the class *sensor* is to be instantiated; the same happens with the *ADCBus* -the ADS1115-: each one will correspond to an object of the class *ADCBus*. In fact this issue of setting the reference value for later using it is a double stage process: when the sensor is instantiated it is assigned to an *ADCBus*. It looks like this -the instantiation one- is the right moment to look for the right reference; then the sensor class object stores the -reference voltage- value somewhere inside it (into an attribute, of course).

Now the issue of setting the reference prior to convert the analog value arises: the one who are going to actually convert is the *ADCBus* object, so we need to pass the voltage reference to it in some way. As we will see a couple of paragraphs below, just before giving

the *ADCBus* the *convert -singleShoot-* command, we will pass it not just the sensor voltage reference, but the complete sensor object itself. It -the sensor object- has attributes for both the reference voltage and the -*ADCBus*- channel number it is connected to; the former was calculated at the sensor instantiation time, the latter is passed as an argument when instantiating the sensor (just an instant before).

OK. But the issue of what the method to determine the voltage reference is and where is it to be placed remains unsolved.

In fact it maybe placed either into the -object of the- class sensor or into -the object of- the class *ADCBus*: both need to know about each other, so the sensor object is aware of some of the *ADCBus* features (binary format); and the *ADCBus* object some of the sensor ones (span, channel it is connected to) . We have finally decided to place it into the *ADCBus* class.

The ADS1115 class has to be completed by adding the voltage references. From the ADS1115 datasheet:

```
refVoltageList = (0, 0.256, 1.024, 2.048, 4.096, 6.144)
```

and the method to calculate the reference (and its place into the tuple) is:

```
def chooseVref(self, sensorMax):
    """ Return an ADC reference index and value """
    anterior = self.refVoltageList[0]
    for position, i in enumerate(self.refVoltageList):
        if sensorMax == i:
            return (position - 1, i)
        elif ((sensorMax < i) & (sensorMax > anterior)):
            return (position - 1, i)
        anterior = i
    return (position - 1, anterior)
```

This method is included in the class ADS1115 from now on.

As stated before, to prepare the ADS1115 object before converting, the sensor object is passed to it so that the correspondent channel and gain are set. Our ADS1115 class already has two separate methods to do so, but it is much easier for the library *client* to pass the sensor info -object- just once. A new *setChannel/Gain* method will be on charge of calling the two individual ones. Its code:

```
def setChannelGain(self, sensor):
    """ Set the channel # -multiplexer- and gain """
    self.programConfReg(ADS1115.setChannels[sensor.channel - 1])
    self.setGain(sensor.vRefPos)
```

The argument *sensor* is passed when calling this method. Yes, it is the *whole* sensor object. And yes, the two lines call the two class methods with arguments belonging to the sensor object: *sensor.channel* and *sensor.vRefPos*



Passing an object to a method as an argument entails certain implications. Let's say that the method code could modify the passed object, what is against one of the OOP paradigms. As it has been noted, in Python is impossible to hide an object to a *fool programmer* (a deeper explanation of what a fool programmer is for a better occasion), so let this comment being an opportune warning.

---

#### 4.1.10.- Class ADS1115 complete code. Usage examples.

From <https://github.com/Clave-EIDEAnalog/EIDEAnalog> (EA\_4111\_ADS1115\_COMPLETE\_USAGE.py), you can download the class code. Should you are learning, the best is to copy-paste it so that you can mess about as much as you want. Remember you have to import smbus and instantiate it (see 4.1.7, “Class ADS1115 instantiation and usage”).

Up to now we just know how to convert the first channel; now we are in position to read all the four channels, each one with its own gain. Do connect whatever you want to the ADS1115: sensors, potentiometers; tie them to “0” volts or to 3.3 Volts. Remember that you can connect the on board NTC (thermocouple) to the channel #1 (see figure 19). The following code performs a complete -the four channels- conversion.

```
myBus = ADS1115(0x48)

for i in range(1,5):
    myBus.setChannel(i)
    myBus.singleShot()
    while not (myBus.ready()):
        pass
    print ("channel", i, ":", myBus.readConversion())
```

the IDLE will show something like this:

```
channel 1: 17957
channel 2: 2533
channel 3: 8665
channel 4: 0
```

needless to say that the values depend on what you have connected to the ADS1115: the NTC outputs something around 18000.

---



The `time` module has a method `-time.time()`- that returns with sufficient precision the actual time (`now = time.time()`) saves the current time -in seconds- in `now`; don't worry about the time count origin: `time=0` -it's irrelevant for the purpose of this exercise)

Using this method write a code -do not use *print* commands- to calculate the effective sampling rate of the ADS1115 (The default channel; change the "SPS" to 860. Tip: program a loop that executes the conversion a number of times; 1000, for example).

Result: around 400 samples per second. This *apparent* speed is low because the shuffle of commands -*read.word*, *write.word*- that the i2c bus has to perform. The default i2c bus speed -100,000 bits/s- is low compared to the conversion lapse. Annex II, "Raspbian Configuration" shows how to change the speed to 400,000 bits/s; should you change it you will notice an increase in the apparent speed up to approximately 580 samples/s.

---

#### 4.1.11.- Class ADS1115. Caveats. Conclusion.

An ADS1115 chip control class has been fully discussed and coded. Some examples have been included and a second level ones have been proposed as exercises (All of them are available -solved- at <https://github.com/Clave-EIDEAnalog/EIDEAnalog>).

Exhaustive comments have been included, especially in what concerns the class code core. We hope the reader has to make just a reasonable effort to following them.

Beyond each method algorithms complexity there are some issues regarding the class coding and pattern that should be pointed out:

- While developing the code a subsidiary explanation of the ADS1115 functioning has been made. (Perhaps) it is worthwhile reading it before addressing the ADS1115 datasheet itself .
- No error detection code has been included in order to not complicate the overall development.
- Class interface: A great effort has been made in order to introduce the concept of *class interface* and the benefits and drawbacks of using it as an analysis tool. The ADS1115 class interface is shared with the other *ADCBus* classes: *oneWire* and *arduino* (see 6.1, "Class *oneWire*" and 6.2, "Class *arduino*").
- *Class attributes* are used to store the attributes common to all the -ADS1115- class objects. This feature may be a bit *heterodox*, so a pertinent warning has been issued.
- Class usage examples are included as the code is presented. Some examples are not directly included in the text, but presented as exercises whose solution can be found (and downloaded) at <https://github.com/Clave-EIDEAnalog/EIDEAnalog>.

## 5.- Sensor class. Calculation agents.

Once coded the *ADS1115 class* it is time for the *sensor class*.

The ADS1115 class development was made step by step and was fully commented. Moreover, the analysis was divided into two halves, such a way for the coding being simpler.

In this chapter we will analyse and code the *sensor class*. We will also develop a supporting family of classes that will be in charge of calculating the *readouts* -the *human readable* values- for every sensor. These classes are to be created by using *class inheritance*, another cornerstone of OOP; at the same time the term *polymorphism* is to be introduced and explained: it is another pillar on OOP theory).

---



**Logical objects vs. real objects:** a common noob's mislead is to think on the OOP *object* term as corresponding -always- to a physical object: a person, a car, an animal, a *sensor*. In fact an *object* rarely corresponds to a physical one; even this being the case, the code *object* is a logical construct: maybe its attributes being *name* or *address*, but, normally, the object exists as long as it does something in the context of the program, not because the program deals with *persons* or whatever.

---

Finally, the cream on the cake are the *composite objects*, also basic to the OOP: we will use them when instancing the class sensor.

### 5.1.- Sensors.

Let's see which sensors are to be used in the library examples.

1. **Analog sensors.** An *analog readout* is the output of a sensor that is proportional to the measured parameter (temperature, pressure, humidity); to calculate the actual value one has to make a rule of three (hence the term *analog*. It is not a joke). These sensors are the most common ones. The temperature sensor LM35 outputs a volt for every 100 centigrade degrees (centigrade degrees): 0.0 Volts are 0 centigrade degrees; 1.0 Volts are 100 centigrade degrees and so on.

The sensor output uses to be a *voltage*. The use of *current* is common also: it is much more immune to interference.

2. **Quasi proportional sensors:** They are quite similar to the analog sensors just described. The only difference is that they add an offset to the output so that this is not "0" when the measured parameter is "0". The LM50 is identical to the LM35

except for it gives an offset of 0.5 Volts: 0 V → -50 centigrade degrees; 0.5 V → 0 centigrade degrees; 1.0 V → 50 centigrade degrees ...

3. **Tabulated sensors:** There are sensors whose output is neither proportional nor linear with relation to the measured parameter. Its use is declining (those in sections "1" and "2" are increasingly cheaper), but you can't discard facing one of this; in fact, a very popular ADS1115-based ADC board has an on board thermistor -a temperature dependent resistance- that can be easily connected to the first channel of the ADC (See Figure 19). We will use it as an example of this type of sensors in the blog.

(It is not only about non linear sensors: many times a device gives a voltage that varies according to some parameter and the dependency is tabulated: an example is the water flow through a valve whose stem position is sensed by a linear sensor. A bulb luminosity depending on the applied voltage or the vapour pressure of water depending on its temperature are other examples. May be that a "formula" exists for the dependency, but many times it is much easier to use a table. (By the way, you can show off in front of your friends in case you know what the vapour pressure is)).

4. **ASCII (or almost ASCII) sensors:** There are sensors that are actually miniaturized devices that include an ADC. Along the blog we will use the temperature sensor DS18B20, that gives the temperature directly in ASCII; it encloses not only the temperature sensor itself, but an ADC and the circuitry to convert the voltage to ASCII; see 2.3.1, "Bus *oneWire*").

## 5.2.- Class sensor. Preliminary approach.

Let us start by analysing the *sensor* class. An issue must be pointed out: although the class is to be instantiated once for each physical sensor in the system, these instances deal with converting what the ADC delivers for each sensor to the *readable* (human) format. It is a subtlety: the -*sensor* class- code has nothing to do with a physical sensor *thing*, but with the information that the ADC delivers and its conversion to readable format (on the other hand, it is not easy to imagine what code could be written related to a sensor that is nothing else than a little silicon chip withstandig high -or not so high- temperature, pressure, etc.).



**About the use of the term `sensor` for the class:** It is not the best. As will be seen almost immediately, it should actually be called “`sensorChannel`” (or something like that), for each -sensor- class instance corresponds to a physically different sensor that, in turn, might be connected to different types of `ADCBus`. To an LM35 connected to an ADS1115 an object of this class will be assigned; its attributes are a bundle of the ones of such a sensor -the physical sensor- and those of the ADS1115 chip. An LM35 connected to an arduino will have an object with different attributes than the one instantiated for the same LM35 connected to an ADS1115. Two LM35 type sensors connected to the same ADS1115 will also be represented by two different objects (in this case the only different attribute will be the channel number to which each one is connected -`self.channel`-).

---

The sensor class won’t have many methods, and only a few of them are essential: 1) *readout*: the one that calculates (better: tells somebody else to calculate) the readout from what is delivered by the ADC and 2) the one that assigns to the -sensor- object A) the *calculation agent* (the algorithm that transforms what is delivered by the ADC into the readout), B) the *ADCBus* reference voltage to be used for this sensor, and C) the conversion table -if any-. With the exception of these two methods, the sensor class has mainly an *administrative* role. It is a data container -type of sensor, gain, *ADCBus* to which it is connected, conversion tables for tabulated sensors, etc.-; you won’t find a single line of code inside the *readout* method: it passes the *hot potato* to the *calculation agent*, previously instanced depending on the type of sensor and the *ADCBus* to which it is connected. See below.

Hence, for the `sensor` class is as important analysing the *attributes* than the *methods*. Let’s see which ones -attributes- are essential for the objects of this class performing their job. Namely:

1. Sensor type: for example, LM35
2. Which *ADCBus* is it -the sensor- connected to: there may be several working at the same time connected to the Raspberry.
3. Which *ADCBus* channel the sensor is tied to.
4. Which reference voltage the sensor is assigned.
5. The sensor ID (if available).

“Which *ADCBus* is it connected to” actually refers to the *object* that has been instanced for the *ADCBus* (see 4.1.7, “Class ADS1115 instantiation and usage” as an example). This object is passed as an argument -to the sensor object- at the moment the instantiation command is issued: this is the way the sensor object knows what format the data is going to arrive. In fact passing an object as an argument to other object makes all the data into the former available to the later (see a deeper explanation a couple of paragraphs below).

The need for the *sensor* object knowing which channel it is connected to is obvious (remember that the pattern -the library architecture- used makes the sensor object responsible for telling the ADCBus about everything it needs to performing the AD conversion: it is obvious that it -the ADCBus- needs to know which channel -sensor- has to be converted).

The sensor ID is its *plate*. In this blog the only ones having ID are the DS18B20 (the ones that are connected to the Raspberry by means of the oneWire bus; the ID is recorded into each one electronics). As will be seen in due course the oneWire object will have methods both to get the ID from the sensors and to perform the conversion by using the sensor ID (instead of using the *sensor channel*).

A **dictionary “standardSensorsData”** in the *class attributes section* of the class *sensor* will store the data for the different types of sensors the library deals with. The dictionary holds the characteristics common to all sensors of a type. Thus, for example, the LM35 type will correspond in the table with the parameters “100, 0, 1.0” that are the gain (100 centigrade degrees / volt), the zero (0 volts → 0 centigrade degrees) and the maximum output voltage that these sensors output (1.0 volts → 100 centigrade degrees); the information for a *tabulated sensor* has the name of the *text file* that contains the table itself.

```
standardSensorsData = {
    'DS18B20':      ['DS18B20', 0.001, 0, 0, None],
    'LM35':         ['LM35', 100, 0, 1.0, None],
    'LM50':         ['LM50', 100, 50, 1.5, None],
    'rawVoltage' :  ['rawVoltage', 1, 0, 5.0, None],
    'ADS1115_NTC': ['ADS1115_NTC', 1, 0, 3.3, 'ADS1115_NTC'],
}
```

For the sensor class code explanation -and comprehension- being optimal, is much better deferring it till the *calculation agent* classes are introduced. The sensor class code is presented and discussed in 5.4, “Class sensor code. Instantiation”; you may have a look over there right now, but better following the proposed sequence. Keep reading.

### 5.3.- Readout calculation algorithms. *agent* classes.

All the LM35 sensors are the same (and all the LM50 are the same, and all the DS18B20 are the same, ...). The point is that they -the LM35- give 1.0 volt for every 100 centigrade degrees (or 10 mV by every centigrade degree, as you wish). You can use -read- them without any ADC: with just a battery (3.3 – 5.0 volts; red and black wires) and a voltmeter (yellow wire) you can read the temperature.



No all the sensors -the same type- are *exactly* the same: there may be very small differences that require *calibration*. For the purpose of this blog we can assume that all of them are the same.

---

On the other hand, not all the ADCs work the same: the ADS1115 delivers the conversion in two's complement (16 bits), while an arduino "ProMini" gives the reading in 10 bits direct binary (0.0 V. -> 00 0000 0000; 5.0 V. 11 1111 1111, assuming that the arduino is powered at 5.0 V: such a case 11 1111 1111 would not correspond exactly to 5.0 V, but to  $5.0 * [1023/1024]$ ).

The point is that the *calculation algorithm* is not only dependent on the sensor, but also on the ADC.

Let us go back to the *encapsulation* concept: we ask the *sensor* class objects to calculate the readout (by passing as an argument the ADCBus output). Hence they -the *sensor* class objects- need to have the resource to do so. On the other hand, the calculation algorithm does not belong to a specific sensor either: the difficult part -converting binary information to decimal; let's also include into the difficult category to change the decimal point of the reading of the oneWire sensors- depends on which ADC the sensor is connected to.

It is advisable to start thinking on some class(es) -*calculation agent(s)*- whose objects manage the above suggested algorithm(s): a *binaryAgent* class, for example, will produce objects that will be able to calculate the readout from the data delivered by ADS1115 (or an arduino); needless to say that the agent will *know* too what are the other necessary parameters, those of the sensor.

### 5.3.1.- Binary calculation agent (*binaryAgent*). Inheritance.

The ADS1115 and the arduino convert to different formats (16 bits two's complement the former and 10 bits unsigned the latter). There are, on the other hand, dozens of ADC converters that can be connected to a Raspberry, some will convert to 10 bits, others to 12, 13, 14, 15 or 16 (and there exist up to 24 bits: anyone with data acquisition skills questions anything above 16 bits; 20 is a real luxury; 24 may be actually too much); many give the data in *two's complement*, although the direct format -*unsigned*- is also frequent.

Therefore the first algorithm, based on a bunch of parameters -see below-, calculates the *readout* from the binary information provided by an ADC converter. This algorithm -the reader guess that the "algorithm" is (part of) what we have been calling *calculation agent*- has -*attributes*- these parameters:

1. Number of bits (16 for the ADS1115, for example).
2. Whether the binary data is signed (negative numbers).

- The gain, the zero and the reference voltage used for every particular sensor (100, "0" and 1.024 V for an LM35 connected to an ADS1115; should you don't understand why 1.024 volts please go to 4.1.9, "chooseVref (reference voltage) method. SetChannelGain method").

As will be seen in due course, the code of this class -*binaryAgent*- does not depend on the bus to which the sensor is connected, nor on the sensor. It is -the agent- *general purpose*. Or at least it is so for all linear sensors -the voltage they deliver varies linearly with what they measure- whose information comes in binary format. Every time a sensor is instanced, the sensor instance itself will instantiate the calculation agent that it needs to calculate its readout.

Please find below the complete code for this class. Code deciphering -except for the `__init__` method, which is quite a different matter-, the reader having a minimum knowledge of binary algebra, should not imply any problem. Even in the case you are an expert, read it diagonally; before going deeper into it is better reading the paragraphs corresponding to the analysis of the *agent* classes -*ASCII-Agent* and *tabulatedAgent* – that follow and that will lead you to the next point (5.3.3., “Class *calculationAgent*”). Sure you will have to go back to this -*binaryAgent*- code.

```
class binaryAgent(calculationAgent):

    def __init__(self, Vref, gain, zero, bits, twosC, table=None):
        calculationAgent.__init__(self, Vref, gain, zero, bits, twosC, None)
        self.name = 'binary'

    def binaryToDecimal(self, value):
        if self.twosC:
            # Two's complement format
            value = value - int((value << 1) & 2**self.bits) # Int value
            value = value / float(2**(self.bits - 1))
        else:
            value = value / float(2**self.bits)

        value = ((value * self.Vref) - self.zero) * self.gain
        return value

    def convert(self, value):
        return self.binaryToDecimal(value)
```

Conversely, the `__init__` method looks quite cryptic. It actually is. It is the first time on the blog that we have come across a class that *inherits* from another; the *calculationAgent* class this time. The code heading the class itself makes it explicit: “*class binaryAgent (calculationAgent)*”.

Let us have a first approach to the *inheritance* issue. There will be -there is- a *parent* class (*calculationAgent*) that has *attributes* -*data* and *methods*- that concern to the *child* class, *binaryAgent* this case. Let's take a preliminary look -also diagonally- at the code of the ancestor -*parent*- class:

```

class calculationAgent():

    def __init__(self, Vref, gain, zero, bits, twosC, table=None):
        self.Vref = Vref
        self.gain = gain
        self.zero = zero
        self.bits = bits
        self.twosC = twosC
        self.table = table

    def convert(self):
        pass

```

it appears to be the other half of *binaryAgent*. The latter has no attributes; they seem to be defined and initiated within the *calculationAgent* class code.

(*calculationAgent* class code will be discussed in detail in section 5.3.3, “class *calculationAgent*”; we have included it to ease the explanation of the *binaryAgent* code).

The *inheritance* matter consists on:

- The *child* class -*binaryAgent*- endorses all the methods and attribute definitions of the *parent* class -*calculationAgent*-.
- Methods that appear both in the *parent* and the *child* class do not have any conflict each other: the ones in the *child* class prevail: *\_\_init\_\_* and *convert* this case.
- For the *binaryAgent* and *calculationAgent* affair the *child* class (the former) *\_\_init\_\_* method calls the parent (the latter) one and passes to it the necessary arguments: *calculationAgent.\_\_init\_\_(self, Vref, gain, zero, bits, twosC, None)*. The five leading ones have just being passed at the moment as arguments by the *client code* when instantiating the *binaryAgent* class: this one just adds a *None* one because a *binaryAgent* has no table associated.




---

(a) Write a client code to use the *binaryAgent* class: the goal is to get the readout corresponding to a 10 bits positive value -binary code- (not two's complement) whose full scale is 5.0 ( $V_{ref} = 5$  ;  $0 \rightarrow 0, 1024 \rightarrow 5.0$ ). Write a code that calculates the readout for these input values: 2, 5, 10, 20, 50, 100, 200, and 1000.

---



At the end of section 4.1.7, “Class ADS1115 instantiation and usage”, we proposed converting the ADC reading to a human readable format. Add to the code proposed there the necessary code to convert the ADC reading (Tip: create an instance of the `binaryAgent` and use it - "convert (value)" - to convert the output).

---

### 5.3.2.- ASCII calculation agent (`ASCIIAgent`).

As said above (2.3.1, “oneWire Bus”) the `oneWire` bus is a (quite) special case of an analog to digital converter. It is not really a single ADC, but as many ADCs as sensors connected; by means of a singular (and very slow) technique, the driver of this bus places the readings already converted by the wired sensors into text files: this files contents are, among other information, the reading of the sensor (for example the temperature in the case of the DS18B20) although with the decimal point outplaced (the DS18B20 it gives it in thousandths of centigrade degree, that is, 23456 instead of 23.456 centigrade degrees).

Hence, a *calculation agent* is needed for the case; It will be a trivial algorithm, since all it has to do is to change the decimal point place.

```
class ASCIIAgent(calculationAgent):
    """ 'ascii' calculation agent """

    def __init__(self, Vref, gain, zero, bits, twosC, tabla):
        calculationAgent.__init__(self, Vref, gain, zero, bits, twosC, None)
        self.name = 'ASCII'

    def ASCIIToDecimal(self, value):
        """ Return a float from (ascii) """
        return value * self.gain

    def convert(self, value):
        """ Return a float from the raw value (ascii) """
        return self.ASCIIToDecimal(value)
```

Should you have analysed the `binaryAgent` class code, this one has to look familiar to you: the `__init__` method -except for the `self.name = 'ASCII'` line; sure you’re getting the hang of it- is identical, so it is -almost- the method `convert`. It just changes the core of the matter: the *algorithm* itself -`ASCIIToDecimal` method-; so that everything explained in previous paragraph is valid for this class.

### 5.3.3.- *calculationAgent* class.

The agents *binaryAgent* and *ASCIILAgent* contain what is strictly necessary to execute the part of the task that differentiates one from the other: compare them. Should the library we are developing had the need of just one of them (if we only had to deal with ADS1115 the *binaryAgent* would suffice, if the project included the oneWire bus only the *ASCIILAgent* is enough) they probably would not exist as such, and their function would be implemented as a method of the *sensor* class.

But the fact is that we *do* have two different algorithms (not only that: we have great *prospects of future* for the library).

Being that the situation, the need of several calculation algorithms based on -different-sensors and -different- ADC converters, we have decided to design a *family of calculation agents*, see figure 24. The *calculationAgent* class will be the common ancestor to all of them (except for the *tabulatedAgent*; ignore this fact for the moment). The *calculationAgent* class will contain all the attributes and methods shared by its *heirs* though, as will be explained a in due course, there is only one -common- method, *convert*, which is just enounced in this *-calculationAgent-* class.

This is the class code (a detailed explanation follows). Please, read it carefully as many times as needed to fully understand it.

```
class calculationAgent():

    def __init__(self, Vref, gain, zero, bits, twosC, table=None):
        self.Vref = Vref
        self.gain = gain
        self.zero = zero
        self.bits = bits
        self.twosC = twosC
        self.table = table

    def convert(self):
        pass

class calculationAgent():
    Class has no ancestors: "class calculationAgent()"

def __init__(self, Vref, gain, zero, bits, twosC, table=None):
    """ Init agent data. 'Table = None' unless specified """
    self.Vref = Vref
    self.gain = gain
    self.zero = zero
    self.bits = bits
    self.twosC = twosC
    self.table = table
```

`__init__` is the *class constructor* method. It does nothing else than assigning to the class attributes the arguments that are passed to it (if nothing is passed for "table" it assigns the default value *None* to it; "... `table = None`"). As all the calculation agents are directly -or second generation- inheriting from this *calculationAgent*, these attributes are part of all of them; they -the attributes- are given initial values when the child `__init__` method calls the `__init__` parent method. Now you can go back on the code of the *calculationAgent(s)* already presented and you will better understand some code lines that seemed *ununderstandable*.

```
def convert(self):  
    pass
```

Every *calculation agent* has its own *convert* method: they are all different to each others' and they *override* the one in the common ancestor class -*calculationAgent*-.

Let's summarize a bit this *inheritance* issue. It is a bit tricky: may be you have to go back and forth a couple of times to fully understand it.

- *binaryAgent* and *ASCIITagent* `__init__` methods are similar: they both call the `__init__` method of the *calculationAgent* class, passing it the arguments that they, in turn, received from the *client* that instantiates them.
- Including as an argument in the definition of a class the argument "*calculationAgent*" -class *binaryAgent* (*calculationAgent*)- causes the class so defined to *inherit* what is defined in the *ancestor* class -*calculationAgent*-. For the moment, the *binaryAgent* and *ASCIITagent* classes do not inherit much from the common ancestor, but things will happen.

The moment has arrived to analyse and summarize the attributes common to all the *calculation agents*. (Two future classes -*binaryTabulatedAgent* and *ASCIITabulatedAgent*- are included)

Attribute	Description	binaryAgent	ASCIIAgent	binaryTabulatedAgent	ASCIITabulatedAgent
vref	<i>Voltage reference</i> (maximum voltage at the sensor output): Is the reference used to convert the sensor output. The agent needs it to know what the <i>top of scale</i> is.	X	-	X	-
gain	Gain: output/input ratio. "100" for the LM35 (one volt every hundred centigrade degrees).	X	X	X	X
zero	Offset output voltage corresponding to zero input (the LM50 gives 0,5 V at 0 centigrade degrees)	X	-	X	-
bits	Number of bits (16 for the ADS1115, for example)	X	-	X	-
twosc	Negative input: <i>True</i> if the ADCBus accepts negative values (normally handled in <b>two's complement</b> )	X	-	X	-
table	Conversion table (a <code>sensorTable</code> class object. See 7, "Sensor tables [ <code>sensorTable</code> ]").	-	-	X	X

*Calculation agent* classes share these attributes (not all of them). Should a common *ancestor* class does not exist it would be necessary to repeat them in each one of the declaration of the classes.

(Not just this: if you decide to do some checks on the attributes -*gain* cannot be zero, nor the number of bits- it is very convenient that those -the checks- are *centralized*, that is, as *calculationAgent* class methods. Things will happen again).

#### 5.3.4.- Tabulated agent (*tabulatedAgent*).

There are sensors whose output is neither proportional nor linear (see 5.1, "Sensors. Tabulated sensors"). Such a case we need an algorithm -whose logic hasn't any similarity

with any of the previous *agents*- to which an input is passed and returns the corresponding value from a table that describes its behaviour. We will call it *tabulatedAgent*.

The table will not be passed as such (list or Python tuple) when instantiating the agent. For this purpose, we will devise a new class (see 7, “Sensor tables [sensorTable]”) whose goal is managing (reading the table from a text file, checking it, looking up into) the table; what will be passed to the agent will be an instance of this class.

Table content are *discrete* -individual- values of the sensor behaviour, so to calculate the intermediate values it is necessary to use some criteria (try with excel: enter a table, convert it to a graph and add a *trend line*; there are a dozen possibilities). In this blog we will choose the most modest of all, which is the *linear interpolation*: this is the one used in *sensorTable*; it requires just geometric calculations.

The *tabulatedAgent* class is a somewhat spurious member of the *calculation agent* family: we could have made it directly *heir* to the *calculationAgent* class, but this would have had the inconvenience of making it to carry with too many attributes (*titles*?) that are not worth at all: should you want to use it stand alone -from the rest of the library-, the instantiation would border on the incomprehensible (“*agent = tabulatedAgent (0, 0, 0, 0, 0, 'NTC')*”, for example). It is much better that it joins the family as an *uncle in law*, without so many attributes.

The class code is:

```
class tabulatedAgent():

    def __init__(self, table):
        self.table = table
        self.name = 'tabulated'

    def lookupTable(self, value):
        return self.table.lookup(value)

    def convert(self, value):
        return self.lookupTable(value)
```

```
class tabulatedAgent():
```

Class does not inherit from nobody.

```
def __init__(self, table):
    self.table = table
    self.name = 'tabulated'
```

*table* is the object of the class *sensorTable* that has been passed as an argument at the instantiation time.

```
def lookupTable(self, value):
    return self.table.lookup(value)
```

(*self.table.*)*lookup* is a *sensorTable* object method: it just looks up in the table to extract the data correspondent to *value*.

```
def convert(self, value):
    return self.lookupTable(value)
```

for the sake of consistency, a *convert* method is included (it just uses *lookup* to calculate the output).



Write the code to instantiate the *tabulatedAgent* class. Assume that you already have an object of the *sensorTable* class called "NTC".

---

### 5.3.5.- Multiple inheritance. *BinaryTabulatedAgent & ASCITabulatedAgent* classes

If there is a *tabulated sensor* in the project (for example, the NTC of the ADS1115 board, see figure 19) what happens is that it is connected to an ADCBus channel, therefore delivering a reading in a certain format (binary, ASCII, ...). This -the reading- must be converted to a decimal format -like every other sensor- prior to passing it to the *tabulatedAgent* that, finally, looks up into the table to calculate the definitive readout.

We face a double challenge, that is the aggregation of two ones already solved: 1) converting an analog reading -*binaryAgent*, *ASCIITabulatedAgent*- and 2) looking up into a table -*tabulatedAgent*- . We devise a new class -perhaps two- combining two other classes skills. As we want to explore the basics of OOP, and being the jobs assigned to this new class(es) the ones of some other -and existing- classes, we will try the *multiple inheritance* Python's ability. Let's see it.

```
class binaryTabulatedAgent(binaryAgent, tabulatedAgent):

    def __init__(self, Vref, gain, zero, bits, twosC, sensorTable):
        binaryAgent.__init__(self, Vref, gain, zero, bits, twosC, sensorTable)
        tabulatedAgent.__init__(self, sensorTable)
        self.name = 'binary tabulated'

    def convert(self, value):
        return self.lookupTable(self.binaryToDecimal(value))
```

This is the complete code for a class that implements both a binary to decimal conversion then a table extraction. The goal is to get a result that models a tabulated sensor. Having in mind that the line `self.name = 'binary tabulated'` can be omitted without affecting the class performance, it looks like the *fine-grained* development of the *calculation agent* classes family starts being rewarded.

### **BinaryTabulatedAgent class. Code analysis.**

```
class binaryTabulatedAgent(binaryAgent, tabulatedAgent):
```

Is the class *declaration*. As arguments both ancestor classes are listed: can be as many as needed. In this case the class inherits from two that are previously declared: *binaryAgent* and *tabulatedAgent*, and this time the *inheritance* matter is the heart of the issue: by inheriting from these two *ancestors* the new class has, in addition to the necessary attributes (Vref, gain, etc.), all the methods they -the ancestors- house. Therefore, it knows how to *convert* a reading in binary format to decimal, and it knows how to *look up into* the table to convert it to its final value.

```
def __init__(self, Vref, gain, zero, bits, twosC, table):
    binaryAgent.__init__(self, Vref, gain, zero, bits, twosC)
    tabulatedAgent.__init__(self, table)
```

The constructor of this class -`__init__`- uses those of the ancestors to what it passes the parameters that, in turn, have been passed to it when it has been instantiated; thus, all the attributes are declared. Note that while on the call to the *binaryAgent* “`__init__`” `self.table` will be assigned -provisionally- to *None*, on the call to the “`__init__`” of *tabulatedAgent* that value will become the argument passed as *table* in the *binaryTabulatedAgent* instantiation. (Take a breath and re-read it a couple of times: should you still do not fully understand it, don't worry, get *the melody*, go forth and back more calmly when you are done with everything related to the *calculation agents*).

```
def convert(self, value):
    return self.lookupTable(self.binaryToDecimal(value))
```

This -new- method *convert* is the one that best summarizes inheritance benefits: the new class inherits all its ancestors methods: hence, it *knows* how to convert a binary content (`self.binaryToDecimal(value)`) and how to look into a table searching for a value (`self.lookupTable(...)`).

The new *convert* method overrides any *convert* ones its ancestors may contain (by the way, both of them this case. Should a specific *convert* method had not been defined for the

new class, the one of the ancestor furthest to the left would have prevailed in the definition of the class: that of the *binaryAgent* class, in this case).

Using the same term *-convert-* for every *converting* method among all the members of the family is not unintentional. Though in a little unorthodox way it corresponds to the *polymorphism paradigm* in OOP: the point is using the same name for different contents (algorithms in this case).

Good. The above is not all you need to know about *-multiple-* inheritance, but it is a lot. The code for the class *ASCIITabulatedAgent* being:

```
class ASCIITabulatedAgent(ASCIIAgent, tabulatedAgent):  
  
    def __init__(self, Vref, gain, zero, bits, twosC, sensorTable):  
        binaryAgent.__init__(self, Vref, gain, zero, bits, twosC, sensorTable)  
        tabulatedAgent.__init__(self, sensorTable)  
        self.name = 'ASCII tabulated'  
  
    def convert(self, value):  
        return self.sensorTable(self.ASCIIToDecimal(value))
```

whose meaning should be crystal clear (as long as you fully understand the *binaryTabulatedAgent* class code).

### 5.3.6.- *calculation agent family*. Summary. Conclusion.

Next chart summarizes previous paragraphs:

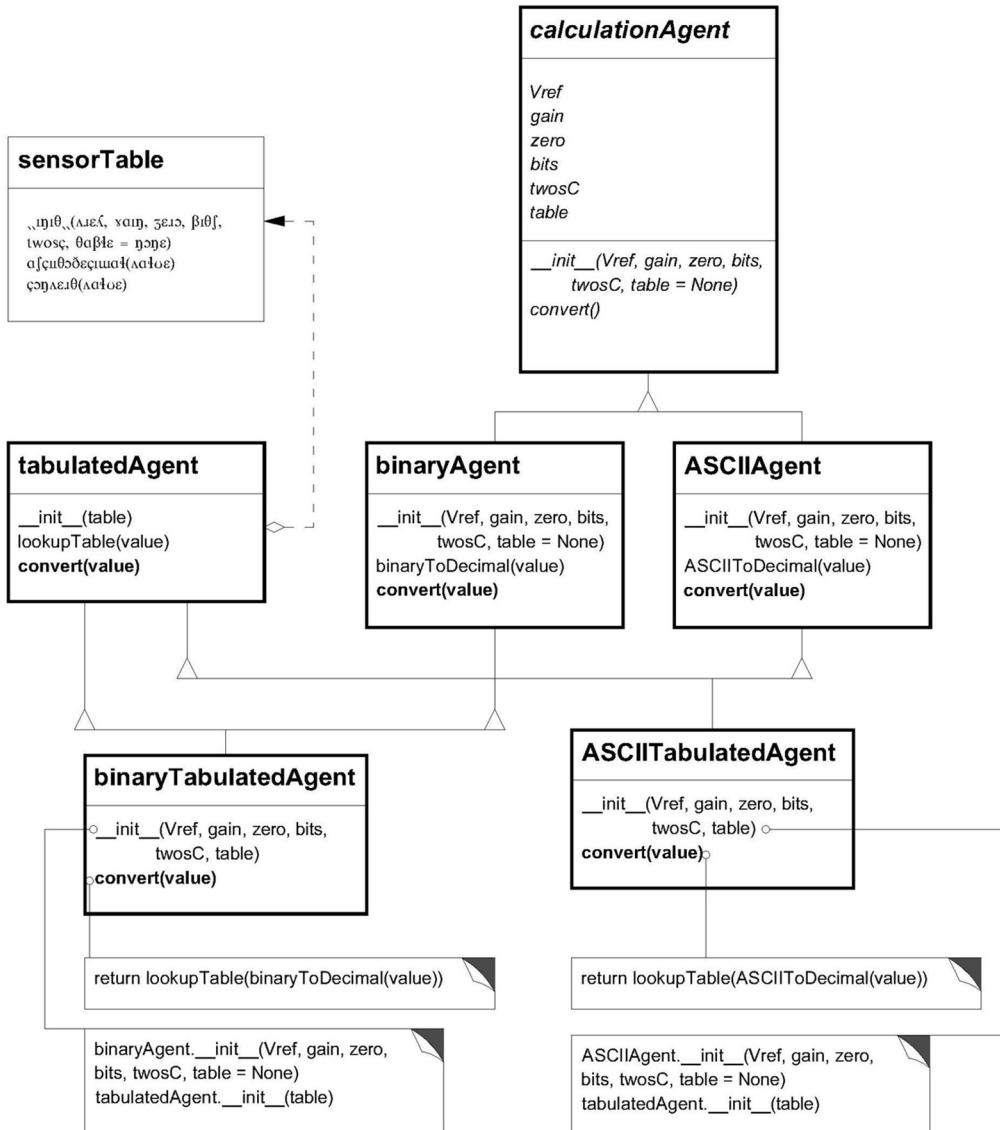


Figure 24. *calculation agent family tree*.

- The library under development solves the problem of calculating the readout corresponding to a particular sensor connected to a certain ADC by means of a family of *calculation agent* classes; these implement the necessary algorithms according to the format of the ADC converter and the characteristics of each sensor. To implement the classes that house the algorithms, the OOP ***inheritance*** technique is used.

- The ***calculationAgent*** class acts as a *common ancestor* for all classes in the family (except for *tabulatedAgent* which, however, is an ancestor of the last two *generation* classes). This class -*calculationAgent*- does not house any of the calculation algorithms; it simply has the attributes common to all classes (and which are necessary, however, for the actual calculation of the readouts). In an extended version of the library it will centralize, at least, the checking of the passed arguments for the instantiation (error -exception- management).
- Two classes, ***binaryAgent*** and ***ASCIIAgent***, implement the basic algorithms (data in binary and ASCII formats).
- A ***tabulatedAgent*** class implements a simple algorithm (actually the algorithm is delegated to an object of the *sensorTable* class) to looking up in a table that contains discrete values (couples of reals). It is about handling either sensors that are not linear (NTC), or sensors -processes- whose readout -behaviour- is tabulated. This class is instantiable *per se*, and would serve to implement a *table query* (in the context of ADC conversion or any other).
- Two *double-inheriting* classes, ***binaryTabulatedAgent*** and ***ASCIITabulatedAgent***, inherit the algorithms of the three classes described in the previous two paragraphs.
- This technique -(***multiple inheritance***)- leads to implement complex algorithms by using quite simple classes -coding-.
- The *calculationAgent* class is an ***abstract class***: it cannot be instantiated (better, it could be instanced, but it is useless). This type of classes serve to enunciate the methods common to all the *child* classes (the *interface* of the class; we will come back to this concept once and again).
- ***convert***: all the calculation agent classes have a *convert* method whose use is exactly the same in all of them: convert the passed *value* to the readout. This technique is known as *polymorphism*: the same command uses different algorithms that, in turn, are *encapsulated* in different objects whose classes have defined different methods with the same name and purpose.
- ***Class explosion***. The -multiple- inheritance technique used for the development of this family of classes can sometimes lead to what is called “class explosion”. A detailed explanation of the term -phenomenon- is beyond the scope of this blog; Let's say it has to do with the -many- combinations that could appear if there are (many) more algorithms to implement in addition to those that already exist. Let's assume that in addition to the format -binary, ASCII- and the eventuality of needing - or not- a table, there is a third possibility on converting: say that the result may -or may not- be multiplied by two -it is an improbable nonsense, but it serves to illustrate what would happen. This case, following the pattern we have already used, there would be another class (*doubleAgent*, or something like that) that would multiply the reading by two. Hence, we would need the *binaryDoubleAgent*, *ASCIIDoubleAgent*, *binaryTabulatedDoubleAgent*, *tabulatedDoubleAgent*, ...

classes to implement the corresponding algorithms. It is obvious that this is not functional, so this technique is not recommended if there is no a reasonable certainty that something like this won't happen.

---



Noise is measured in decibels (db). It is a unit whose definition is conventional. An old device that delivers a signal in volts that senses the ambient noise is available. A lab has calibrated the device: an approximate relationship between the voltage -volts- it delivers and the ambient noise measured in dB is:

$$A_n(\text{db}) = (e^{V(\text{volt})} - 0.9) * 4,2$$

Find what modifications (or additions) are necessary to adapt the "EIDEAnalog" library to this device.

(Tip: There are several possibilities one of them being to devise a brand new calculation agent for this purpose (decibelsAgent? In this case, a "spurious" use of the general parameters of the classes is proposed, for example, *Vref* for the value "0.9", *gain* for "4.2").

---

## 5.4.- Class *sensor* code. Instantiation

Once set the classes for the buses (section 4) and the calculation agent classes puzzle (section 5.3) solved, it is time to frame everything with the sensor class so that the whole set is functional.

The sensor class is the centre of the library: when instantiating each sensor its type and the bus to which it is connected are passed as arguments, the latter as an object of the ADCBus class that, of course, must have been previously instantiated. With the bus attributes and the sensor data all the attributes of the -new- sensor class object itself are complete: these are used in turn to create on the fly other two instances 1) one of the *sensorTable* classes -if applicable; tabulated sensors- and 2) the corresponding *calculation agent* -this is always applicable- and that are linked to the *sensor class object* as attributes. The following figure is an outline of the above.

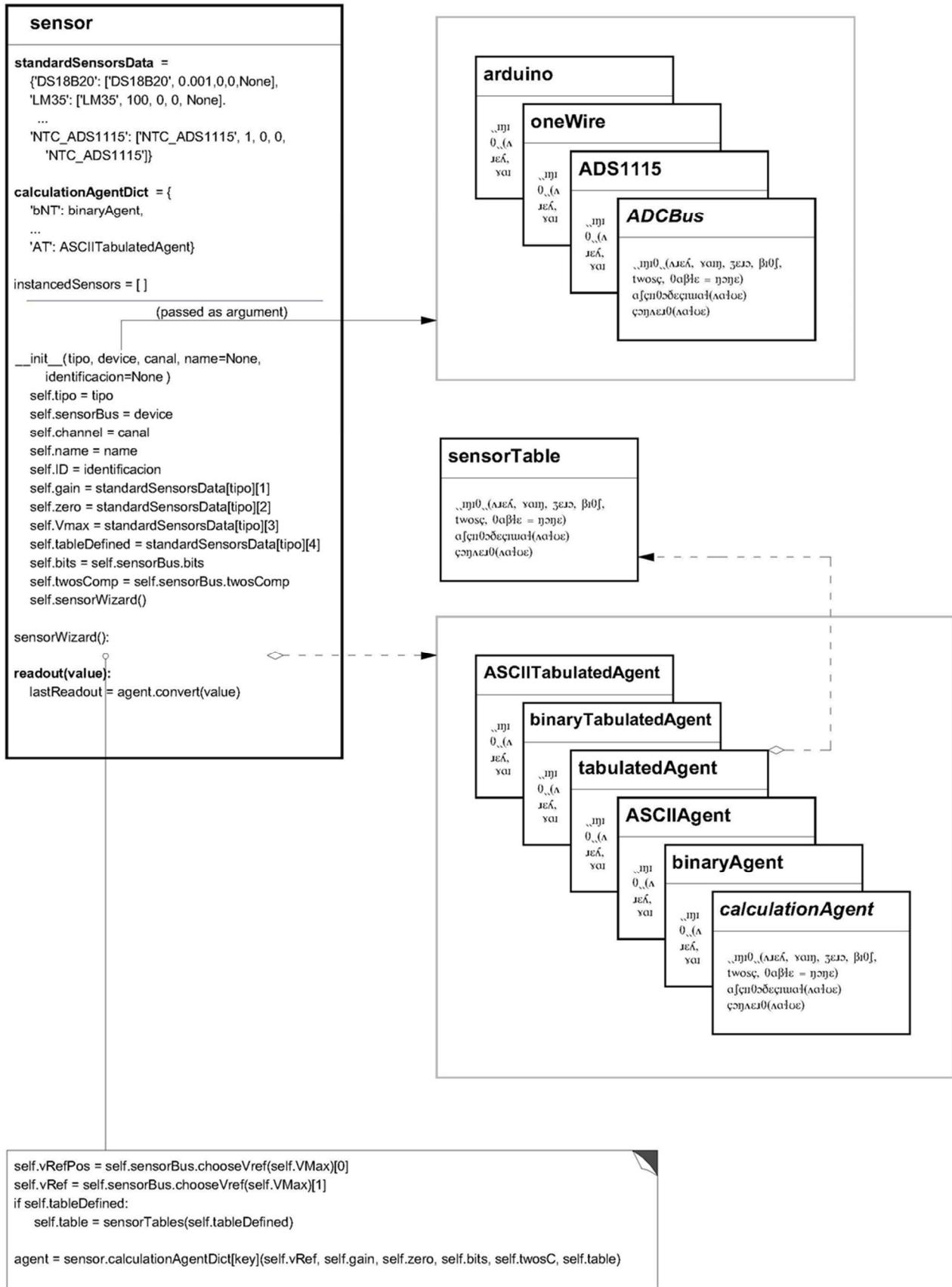


Figure 25. Class sensor outline.

May be that it is not easy to understand at the drop of a hat so, even at the risk of repeating things, we are going to discuss it a little more:

- Note that the *sensor class* -its objects- do not represent a specific sensor *type*, but a specific sensor connected to a specific ADCBus. There is no a *sensor class* that, instantiated, represents a specific sensor type; in this library this job is delegated to the *standardSensorsData* dictionary (see a little below), which is an attribute of the *sensor class*. It seems like a tongue twister (and, in a way, it is), but until you fully understand it, it is much better not to continue.
- To instantiate a *sensor*, at least one *bus* must have previously instantiated; this instance has to be passed as an argument when instantiating the sensor: some characteristics of the bus -data format- to which the sensor is connected are necessary so that it -the sensor object- can in turn instantiate the *calculation agent* it will need.
- When instancing a sensor, the object being created in turn creates an instance of the *sensorTable* class in case a table is associated with the sensor type. For example the 'ADS1115\_NTC' sensor has an associated the table ADS1115\_NTC; the 'LM35' has no associated table. The *sensorTable* instance becomes one more attribute of the object being instantiated (another tongue twister). This kind of collaboration between objects is called *aggregation*; you may forget about it to continue. The concept itself may -just- remain as an intuitive idea: an object of one class can be helped by the skills of objects of a different class.
- In a somewhat more elaborate way, the object of the *sensor class* also instantiates an object of one of the *calculation agents* in section 5.3, the one it -the sensor class object- needs depending on its type -sensor- and the bus to which it is connected. To do this -to select the right calculation agent- it needs the information in the *calculationAgentDict* dictionary which is an attribute of the sensor class (as the *standardSensorsData* dictionary above). This is also an aggregation (instantiating a particular *calculation agent* class).
- Collaboration in between the object of the ADCBus class that has been passed as an argument to instantiate the sensor and its instance –the one of the sensor- is functionally identical to those mentioned for the *(sensor)table* and the *calculation agent*, although its implementation -it is passed as an argument to instantiate the sensor- is a little unorthodox. As the methods and attributes of the ADCBus object are available to the sensor object, it is also an aggregation, although, unlike the previous two, the ADCBus object is not exclusive to the sensor object that has been passed as an argument: It will be shared by all the sensors it has connected (the ADCBus).

Let's see what the sensor class code is:

```
class sensor():
    """ Sensor information and readout calculation """

    standardSensorsData = {
        'DS18B20':      ['DS18B20', 0.001, 0, 0, None],
        'LM35':          ['LM35', 100, 0, 1.0, None],
        'LM50':          ['LM50', 100, 0.5, 1.0, None],
        'rawVoltage' :   ['rawVoltage', 1, 0, 5.0, None],
        'ADS1115_NTC':  ['ADS1115_NTC', 1, 0, 3.3, 'ADS1115_NTC'],
    }

    # Agent selection dictionary
    calculationAgentDict = {
        'bNT': binaryAgent,           # Binary; not table
        'bT': binaryTabulatedAgent,  # Binary; table
        'ANT': ASCIIAgent,           # ASCII; not table
        'AT': ASCIITabulatedAgent,   # ASCII; table
    }

    instancedSensors = []

    def __init__(self, tipo, device, canal, name=None, identificacion=None):

        self.name = name
        self.ID = identificacion
        self.tipo = tipo
        self.sensorBus = device
        self.channel = canal
        self.gain = float(sensor.standardSensorsData[tipo][1])
        self.zero = float(sensor.standardSensorsData[tipo][2])
        self.VMax = float(sensor.standardSensorsData[tipo][3])
        self.tableDefined = sensor.standardSensorsData[tipo][4]
        self.bits = self.sensorBus.bits
        self.twosC = self.sensorBus.twosC
        self.sensorWizard()

        self.lastReadout = 0

    def sensorWizard(self):
        """ Assign sensor other data """
        # Search for reference voltage and index it.
        self.vRefPos = self.sensorBus.chooseVref(self.VMax)[0]
        self.vRef = self.sensorBus.chooseVref(self.VMax)[1]
        # Instantiate table (if any).
        if self.tableDefined:
            self.table = sensorTable(self.tableDefined)
        else:
            self.table = None
        # Calculate and instance calculation agent
        key = ''
        if self.bits > 0: key = key + 'b'    # binary
```

```

        else: key = key + 'A'                      # ASCII
        if self.table: key = key + 'T'                # Tabulated
        else: key = key + 'NT'                      # Not table

        self.agent = sensor.calculationAgentDict[key](
            self.vRef, self.gain, self.zero, self.bits,
            self.twosC, self.table)

    def readout(self, value):
        """
        """
        self.lastReadout = self.agent.convert(value)
        return self.lastReadout

```

## Class `sensor`. Code analysis.

```
class sensor():
    """ Sensor information and readout calculation """
```

Class has no ancestors.

```

standardSensorsData = {
    'DS18B20':      ['DS18B20', 0.001, 0, 0, None],
    'LM35':         ['LM35', 100, 0, 1.0, None],
    'LM50':         ['LM50', 100, 0.5, 1.0, None],
    'rawVoltage' :  ['rawVoltage', 1, 0, 5.0, None],
    'ADS1115_NTC': ['ADS1115_NTC', 1, 0, 3.3, 'ADS1115_NTC'],
}

```

We use the *class attributes section* of the `sensor` class to house the dictionary with the basic data of the sensors that the project has -or may have- connected. This will be one of the section in the library that will need to be modified to add new sensors; successive dictionary entries contain this information: *sensor type, gain, zero, reference voltage, and table*; the latter being the name of the file holding the table data (See 7, “Sensor tables [sensorTable]”).



May be that two identical sensors are used with different characteristics: an example would be two tabulated sensors physically identical that use a different table; just define them with two different names in `sensor.standardSensorsData`. The same happens if, for example, the reference voltage is different: it is necessary to include two different sensors in the dictionary.

```

# Agent selection dictionary
calculationAgentDict = {
    'bNT': binaryAgent,           # Binary; not table
    'bT': binaryTabulatedAgent,   # Binary; table
    'ANT': ASCIIAgent,           # ASCII; not table
    'AT': ASCIITabulatedAgent,   # ASCII; table
}

```

This dictionary is also included as a *class attribute*; it indexes the *calculation agent* classes (see 5.3, “Readout calculation algorithms. *agent* classes”). It is used, as explained below - *sensorWizard*- , to instantiate the *calculation agent* required by the sensor.

```
InstancedSensors = []
```

*InstancedSensors* is a python list to keep the instantiated sensors -the objects-. It will be - optionally- used by the library *client classes*. You can ignore it for now.

```

def __init__(self, tipo, device, canal, name=None, identificacion=None):

    self.name = name
    self.ID = identificacion
    self.tipo = tipo
    self.sensorBus = device
    self.channel = canal
    self.gain = float(sensor.standardSensorsData[tipo][1])
    self.zero = float(sensor.standardSensorsData[tipo][2])
    self.VMax = float(sensor.standardSensorsData[tipo][3])
    self.tableDefined = sensor.standardSensorsData[tipo][4]
    self.bits = self.sensorBus.bits
    self.twosC = self.sensorBus.twosC
    self.sensorWizard()

    self.lastReadout = 0

```

This *\_\_init\_\_* method is one of the most important parts of the library. In addition to 1) initializing the attributes of the class necessary to identify the sensor, the ADCBus to which it is connected and to which channel, (“self.name =” ... “self.tableDefined =”), 2) extracts from the bus object the required parameters (bits, twosC) to later instantiate the *calculation agent* that this instance of the *sensor class* needs.

The *calculation agent* thus bind to the *sensor class object* that is being initialized remains, let's say, "property" of the sensor (remember that it is about a specific sensor of type *self.type* connected to the *self.channel* channel of the ADCBus whose object has been passed as an argument to instantiate the sensor -*device*).

Let's come back to it (at the cost of repeating concepts once again):

1. Each *sensor class object* (it has been already noticed that the class name is not the best; perhaps "sensorChannel" would have been better) contains -it must contain- the right values for all its attributes, so that it can instantiate the *calculation agent* it needs and with the correct arguments. Thus, as we will see below, the mere call to the *convert* method of the associated *calculation agent* (with the argument of the ADC reading) returns the sensor *readout*.
2. The sensor class object delegates the calculation of the readout to the object of the *calculation agent* class (*convert* method). Hence, the objects of the calculation agent class are so verbose while the code of the sensor class is small (although dense).
3. The library pattern requires that before instantiating the sensors at least one ADCBus -object- exists (the sensor does not connect directly to the Raspberry, but through a *bus*).
4. At the instantiation time *the client* passes the sensor basic information (*type*, *bus*, *channel*, *name* and *identification*; the *name* is optional and the *identification* is only necessary for the oneWire bus sensors); the remaining -of the information necessary to calculate the readout (which, we emphasize, is almost the only thing that the -objects of the- sensor class does)- comes from 1) the sensor dictionary (*sensor.standardSensorsData*) by means of the type (*self.type*) and 2) the *ADCBus object* that is passed as an argument.

In order to fix ideas, let's see an instantiation example:

```
hW = sensor('LM35', myBus, 4, name='Hot water')
```

This code line instantiates the class *sensor* and creates an object named *hW* (the object; the sensor itself is named "*Hot water*"). Sensor type is *LM35* and it is connected to channel 4 of the *ADCBus myBus*.

The object *\_\_init\_\_* method extracts the data format and the reference voltage from the object of the *ADCBus* class -*myBus*- and adds the sensor parameters ("LM35" entry on *standardSensorsData* dictionary) to these. With all this information it -the sensor object- instantiates the agent -*self.sensorWizard* below- that it needs for the readout calculation (and which it will use every time it is asked to calculate it -the readout).

```
def sensorWizard(self):
    """ Assign sensor other data """
    # Search for reference voltage and index it.
    self.vRefPos = self.sensorBus.chooseVref(self.VMax) [0]
    self.vRef = self.sensorBus.chooseVref(self.VMax) [1]
    # Instantiate table (if any).
```

```

if self.tableDefined:
    self.table = sensorTable(self.tableDefined)
else:
    self.table = None
# Calculate and instance calculation agent
key = ''
if self.bits > 0: key = key + 'b'      # binary
else: key = key + 'A'                  # ASCII
if self.table: key = key + 'T'         # Tabulated
else: key = key + 'NT'                # Not table

self.agent = sensor.calculationAgentDict[key](
    self.vRef, self.gain, self.zero, self.bits,
    self.twosC, self.table)

```

This method is actually the continuation of `__init__`; it has been detached to improve readability:

1. It indexes (locates) into the bus `refVoltageList` the sensor *top of scale* (see 4.1.9, “chooseVref method [reference voltage]”).
2. It assigns to the `self.table` attribute the `sensorTable` object in case it -the table-exists.
3. It finally determines which class of the *calculation agent* family corresponds to the sensor according to its characteristics and those of the bus to which it is connected. It instantiates and assigns it to the attribute `self.agent`.

```

def readout(self, value):
    """
    """
    self.lastReadout = self.agent.convert(value)
    return self.lastReadout

```

This method *-readout-* synthesizes all the above. As an advantage from the complexity introduced in the elaboration of the *calculation agent* classes (and in the `__init__` method of the sensor class), it elegantly solves the problem of calculating the readout (which corresponds to such sensor connected to such ADC) with a single line of code.

## 5.5.- sensor Class. Conclusion.

- Unlike the bus control classes, which encapsulate the code necessary for their use (therefore being directly instantiable and operational in themselves), the sensor class -its objects- manages the operation of the ADCBus classes and those of the calculation agents. This class is not useful -not even instantiable- without the prior instantiation of a bus and the existence of, at least, one *calculation agent*.
- The `__init__` method (the `sensorWizard` method included) links the operation of the other library classes. It is a good example on a *constructor* method having an internal logic that makes the rest of the code much simpler.
- To assign the *calculation agent* to the sensor a dictionary -`calculationAgentDict`- and a piece of code -`sensorWizard`- are used; it uses the sequence "if then else" a couple of times. This is not the part of the library that best meets OOP standards. The logic contained in `sensorWizard` should not be implemented like this, but as a class method that would contain the `calculationAgentDict` dictionary as a class attribute. This method, on the other hand, would be instantiated only once, since it only implements the allocation algorithm. Although this is the orthodox procedure, it gives rise to some intricate code that has been avoided.



The ADS1115 class, the calculation agent classes family and the sensor class presented -and fully explained- up to here form a complete and operational (sub)library. Should you just intend using an ADS1115 with conventional (or not so conventional; without *table*, any case) sensors, you can use just this part of the library and discard the remaining. Any case we strongly recommend reading chapter 8, "Library usage".

---

## 6.- *oneWire* and *arduino* classes. Class *ADCBus*.

The structure and code of the ADS1115 class have been developed in section 4. Being an ADC -the ADS1115- that has a quite standard behaviour -the way of programming it, the timing, the way to read the conversions- we have decided to use its *interface* as a model for the other two buses we're going to use.

(Remember that the *interface* is basically the set of methods that the class makes available to its clients to use its *objects*).

Both the *oneWire* bus and the way of interacting with the *arduino* -the *serial* bus plus its programming- bear little resemblance to that of the ADS1115; however, we will use the ADS1115 *interface* as a model for those classes. This will allow us (section 8.2, “Use with intermediate classes. Class ‘ADCBus\_manager’”), to use exactly the same code to read all the buses.

### 6.1.- Class *oneWire*.

Basics of the *oneWire* bus are summarized in 2.3.1, “Bus *oneWire*” (it is quite convenient you *re-reading* this section carefully). Remember:

- The Raspberry *polls* the bus to detect how many devices -sensors or whatever- it has connected. The operating system creates as many folders as devices it finds in the sys/bus/w1/ devices system folder.
- Folders corresponding to DS18B20 type thermometers are named as 28-NNNNNNNNNNNN. In each one of these folders there is a text file called *w1\_slave* in which the reading is placed every time the user (a human one or a program) reads the file. The sequence is: 1) *open file* command; 2) -automatically- the O.S. asks the DS18B20 for its output; it -the O.S.- waits till the reading arrives and places it into the file; 3) the O.S. reads the file.
- In what concerns the class *interface* (how we are going to interact to it, to its objects), the *oneWire* bus is always “*ready*”: reading is done at the same time as it is requested (*readConversion*); see previous paragraph.

Let's start by analysing the differences in between the ADS1115 class and the oneWire class:

<b>ADS1115</b>	<b>oneWire</b>
<b>Singleshot():</b>  Request the ADS1115 to start a conversion.	The <i>oneWire</i> bus hasn't a <i>shooting command</i> . This dummy method will do nothing ( <i>pass</i> ; the method is inherited from the "ADCBus" class).
<b>Ready():</b>  Check for ADC conversion completion.	<i>The oneWire</i> bus is always <i>ready</i> : reading is made upon request. This method always returns <i>True</i> , so the client code does not hang.
<b>readConversion():</b>  Read and returns last conversion.	Reading command. As the -devices connected to the bus- <i>oneWire</i> convert on the fly, when the -file; see above- reading command is issued, this method <i>triggers</i> the conversion, <i>waits</i> for it and then <i>returns</i> it.
<b>setChannel(channel):</b>  Sets the ADS1115 multiplexor to <i>self.channel value</i> .	Sets both <i>self.channel</i> and <i>self.currentChannelID</i> so next <i>readConversion</i> addresses the right sensor.
<b>setChannelGain(sensor):</b>  Program the channel to convert and the gain of the ADS1115 as <i>sensor.channel</i> and <i>sensor.vRefPos</i> -both attributes of the <i>sensor</i> object- values.	The <i>oneWire</i> bus has no chance to set different gains for the sensors. This method simply invokes <i>setChannel</i> with <i>sensor.channel</i> passed as an argument.

<b><u>__init__()</u></b>	<p>Inits both <i>self.address</i> and <i>self.ordinal</i>.</p> <p>Inits both <i>self.address</i> and sets to “1” (<math>V_{cc}</math>) the selected GPIO pin.</p> <p>Polls the bus searching for connected sensors.</p> <p>Inits <i>self.channel</i> and <i>self.currentChannelID</i></p>
<b>Class attributes:</b>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Data format.</li> <li>• ADS1115 commands.</li> <li>• Data format.</li> <li>• Sensors folder and data file.</li> </ul>

As already noted, the endeavour to make the interface of both classes - ADS1115 and oneWire (and, later, arduino) - identical, may seem useless. It is not: it is done in this way so that the client software is as independent as possible from the bus it drives. In the development of the ADS1115 bus, a minimum version of it was proposed (see 4.1.6, “Class ADS1115 minimal version code.”), and a snippet of client code proposed:

```
myBus = ADS1115(0x48)

myBus.singleShot()
while not(myBus.ready()):
    pass
print (myBus.readConversion())
```

by which it is possible to read the first channel of the ADS1115. Just replace the bus instantiation by:

```
myBus = oneWire(19)
```

*Voilà*, we have the reading of the *first channel* of the oneWire bus: it seems, then, that it is advantageous to keep the *interface* (by the way, if you are seeing the ambient temperature multiplied by a thousand, congratulations). We will come back of this *interface* matter once and again: its advantages will become clearer.

Apart from the methods that make up the interface (the table above), the *oneWire* class has methods for its own algorithms (reading the file *w1\_slave*; building the sensors *plate list*). The complete code for the *oneWire* class is:

```
class oneWire(ADCBus):
    tipo = 'oneWire'
```

```

refVoltageList = [0, 9999]
bits = 0
twosC = False

baseDirectory = "/sys/bus/w1/devices/"
folderPrefix = '28-'
sensorInfoFile = 'w1_slave'

def __init__(self, pin, ordinal=0, name=None):
    self.ordinal = ordinal
    self.name = name
    self.initPin(pin)
    # Get sensors info.
    self.sensorsData = self.sensorsID()

    # 1st channel selected by default.
    self.setChannel(1)

def initPin(self, pin):
    """ Set passed pin as Vcc """
    GPIO.setmode(GPIO.BCM)
    GPIO.setup(pin, GPIO.OUT)
    GPIO.output(pin, True)
    time.sleep(1)

def sensorsID(self):
    """ Construct and return a list with the sensors info. """
    # Read base folder contents.
    folders = os.listdir(oneWire.baseDirectory)
    sensorsData = []
    for folder in folders:
        if not(oneWire.folderPrefix in folder):
            pass
        else:
            sensor = folder[len(oneWire.folderPrefix)-len(folder):]
            sensorsData.append(sensor)
    return sensorsData

def setChannel(self, channel):
    """ Sets the channel for next 'readConversion()' """
    self.channel = channel
    self.currentChannelID = self.sensorsData[channel-1]

def setChannelGain(self, sensor):
    """ Sets a channel """
    self.setChannel(sensor.channel)

def ready(self):
    """ Return true if new data available"""
    # oneWire ALWAYS has data available (see class comment)
    return True

```

```

def readConversion(self):
    """ Returns the conversion for current channel """
    sensorFile = os.path.join(oneWire.baseDirectory,
        (oneWire.folderPrefix+str(self.currentChannelID)))
    sensorFile = os.path.join(sensorFile, oneWire.sensorInfoFile)
    with open(sensorFile, "r") as f:
        data = f.readlines()
    return float(data[1].split("=")[1])

```

## Class oneWire. Code analysis.

```
class oneWire(ADCBus):
```

- Class inherits from ADCBus see 6.4 “Class ADCBus”.

```

tipo = 'oneWire'
refVoltageList = [0, 9999]
bits = 0
twosC = False

```

- The oneWire bus has no *reference voltages*, no *bits*, and, of course, the reading isn't in two's complement format.

```

baseDirectory = "/sys/bus/w1/devices/"
folderPrefix = '28-'
sensorInfoFile = 'w1_slave'

```

- Information for the program accessing folders and data files.

```

def __init__(self, pin, ordinal=0, name=None):
    self.ordinal = ordinal
    self.name = name
    self.initPin(pin)
    # Get sensors info.
    self.sensorsData = self.sensorsID()

    # 1st channel selected by default.
    self.setChannel(1)

```

- For practical reasons (it is necessary to have 3.3 V somewhere and the connector of the raspberry is frankly stingy with this possibility: it only gives it in a pin that is

used by almost all the LCD screens that they are used in commercial temperature measurement kits -figure 9.- See also “Annex II.3.2.- OneWire Bus”), it is up to the library client to activating a generic pin to supply 3.3 V. See *initPin* below.

- The list *self.sensorsData* holds the *plate* for all the sensors connected to the bus. See *self.sensorsID* below.
- Default *self.channel* is “1”.

```
def initPin(self, pin):
    """ Set passed pin as Vcc """
    GPIO.setmode(GPIO.BCM)
    GPIO.setup(pin, GPIO.OUT)
    GPIO.output(pin, True)
    time.sleep(14)
```

- See *\_\_init\_\_* comment.
- A 14 seconds delay is needed to make sure the bus inits properly.

```
def sensorsID(self):
    """ Construct and return a list with the sensors info. """
    # Read base folder contents.
    folders = os.listdir(oneWire.baseDirectory)
    sensorsData = []
    for folder in folders:
        if not(oneWire.folderPrefix in folder):
            pass
        else:
            sensor = folder[len(oneWire.folderPrefix)-len(folder):]
            sensorsData.append(sensor)
    return sensorsData
```

- By scanning the folders in *baseDirectory* that begin with *folderPrefix* *sensorsData* list is built with -just- the ID’s of the sensors.

```
def getIDs(self):
    """ Return a list with the sensors ID's """
    return self.sensorsData
```

- Return a list with the sensors ID’s (*plates*).

```

def setChannel(self, channel):
    """ Sets the channel for next 'readConversion()' """
    self.channel = channel
    self.currentChannelID = self.sensorsData[channel-1]

```

- At client's request, a channel is activated (selected). There is no such channel, really: the oneWire bus is organized with the ID's of the sensors connected to it, so that which channel corresponds to which sensor is almost completely arbitrary. You can fix yourself like many people do, heat the sensors -a little- with a lighter to see what number is each one. Or you can connect them one by one and, by using the getIDs method (or by consulting the folders), write down the plates (and then marking them with a permanent marker ...).
- Remember that lists are numbered starting at "0" (*self.channel – 1*).

```

def setChannelGain(self, sensor):
    """ Sets a channel """
    self.setChannel(sensor.channel)

```

- This method is included just for interface compatibility purposes.

```

def ready(self):
    """ Return true if new data available """
    # oneWire ALWAYS has data available (see class comment)
    return True

```

- As explained extensively, the oneWire bus is always “ready”. In fact this bus is neither ready nor not ready; what happens is that, again for compatibility with the ADS1115 bus interface (and with that of most ADCs, which work similarly), the client must be tricked so that, informed that the bus is ready, asks for the conversion. To keep the interface -you are encouraged to do so- there is no other way to do it. (On the other hand, it is feasible to using the class without the ready method).

```

def readConversion(self):
    """ Returns the conversion for current channel """
    sensorFile = os.path.join(oneWire.baseDirectory,
        (oneWire.folderPrefix+str(self.currentChannelID)))
    sensorFile = os.path.join(sensorFile, oneWire.sensorInfoFile)
    with open(sensorFile, "r") as f:
        data = f.readlines()
    return float(data[1].split("=")[1])

```

- This method returns the reading corresponding to the sensor that is selected - self.channel-. See comments in the setChannel method.
- 



The above code works fine. However, you have to activate some system modules to make it work, namely:

```
import os                      # Operating System module
import time                    # Time module
import Rpi.GPIO as GPIO        # Module for managing Raspberry GPIO pins
```

write this code before the class code (it is included in the repository examples).

---



(a) Write a client code that, using an instance of the *oneWire* class, display the readings of all the sensors connected to the bus. Do not use any method that is not strictly necessary (ready, for example) do not use *calculation agents* nor the *sensor class*.

Hint: Use the *sensorsData.index(sensor plate)* method -remember that lists are objects of *class list*; *index* is a method of this class- to know what position it occupies in the list.

This code -the one you write to solve this exercise- will not be valid for anything other ADCBus than the *oneWire* one.

---



(b) Do check that this code (written for an ADS1115):

```
myBus = ADS1115 (0x48)

myBus.singleShot ()
while not (myBus.ready ()):
    pass
print (myBus.readConversion ())
```

works fine for the *oneWire* bus by simply changing the bus instantiation command (you also have to add the *singleShot* method to the class code -with the *pass* instruction-; later, 6.3, “ADCBus class” it is fully explained). Remember that the *oneWire* instance has an argument: the *pin number* that the bus will be powered on; depending on how the bus is connected, this value may be arbitrary (or not; see Annex II, “3.2 *oneWire Bus*”).

---



(c) Write a method (*readChannelByID?*) that reads the sensor based on its ID (12 character hexadecimal code). Hint: Although it doesn't serve to this purpose directly, the *sensorsData* list can be used. Use the *sensorsData.index* (*sensor identification*) method - remember that lists are objects of the class *list*; *index* is a method of the class- to know its position in the table.

---



(d) Using a code similar to the one in the exercise in 4.1.11, check the conversion speed of the *oneWire* bus. Do it with a loop but don't even think about doing it more than, say, 10 times -the loop. The *oneWire* bus, as has been noted on several occasions, is very, very slow.

---

You will find many more usage examples in section 8, "Library usage".

## 6.2.- Class arduino.

Let's see what the specifications of the board on which the Arduino Promini is mounted are. What are instructions and in what order should be given to convert the sensors data: This is the specification given by the manufacturer:

1. To make sure the Arduino Promini starts up properly a *reset pulse* is needed. The pin of the Raspberry GPIO connector to which the *Promini reset* is connected is the 22; it has to be set to "0" (Low) for one second. Once this pulse is sent, you have to wait for 4 additional seconds.
2. The Arduino Promini communicates through its *serial interface*, that is connected to the corresponding pins of the Raspberry GPIO connector: 14 for the Raspberry *Tx - transmit-* and 15 for the *Rx - receive-*. The *protocol* is: 57600 baud, byte size 8, no parity, 1 stop bit.
3. Once reset, the Arduino Promini waits to receiving sixteen 16-byte blocks whose content is arbitrary. Once received, the Arduino Promini sends -returns- in turn another 16 blocks of 16 bytes; once this exchange is over, it -the arduino- waits for the -ADC- *conversion command*. This initial exchange of information just serves to confirm the correct connection of both devices.
4. The conversion command consists on the Raspberry sending an *arbitrary byte* (see note below) to the Arduino Promini. After a short lapse -the, approximately, 30 us it takes to the Promini to convert- the Arduino Promini sends back a 32-byte block

with the conversion of the eight A/D. Once the information has been sent, the Arduino Promini waits for the next conversion command. No special precautions are necessary to disconnect it (turn it off).

5. A/D conversions are contained in the first 16 bytes of the packet of 32 sent by the Arduino Promini. The format is: "1122334455667788XXXXXXXXXXXXXX", the information of each channel comes with the most significant byte the first (a protocol called *big-endian*).



Trigger byte: the start conversion trigger byte has also another purpose that we don't use in this library: the software in the arduino Promini uses the information contained in the byte to control 8 of its digital outputs. The device that mounts the board can control alarm thresholds for the parameters it measures and, eventually, control the outputs for signalling (light, acoustic, ...).

---

Let's analyse the differences in between the ADS1115 class and the arduino one:

<b>ADS1115</b>	arduino
<b>Singleshot():</b>  Request the ADS1115 to start a conversion.	Send an arbitrary byte to the Arduino Promini. The conversion of the whole 8 channels starts.
<b>Ready():</b>  Check for ADC conversion completion.	This method checks whether there are 32 bytes of information in the Raspberry serial communication input buffer
<b>readConversion():</b>  Read and returns last conversion.	The Arduino Promini always sends the conversions for the whole 8 A/D channels. To make this method compatible with that of ADS1115, it will return the conversion of the channel that is currently selected (see setChannel below)
<b>setChannel(channel):</b>  Sets the ADS1115 multiplexor to <i>self.channel</i> value.	Modify the object's <i>self.channel</i> attribute so that the next readConversion returns the conversion of the channel corresponding to this attribute.
<b>setChannelGain(sensor):</b>  Program the channel to convert and the gain of the ADS1115 as <i>sensor.channel</i> and <i>sensor.vRefPos</i> - both attributes of the sensor object-values.	The Arduino Promini can't set different gains for the sensors. This method simply invokes setChannel with the sensor number passed in as an argument

<b>__init__():</b>	Inits both <i>self.address</i> and <i>self.ordinal</i> .  Inits the ordinal value.
	Reset the Arduino Promini by sending a reset pulse and instant the serial class to have serial communication.  Check acknowledge (see “3” above)
<b>Class attributes:</b>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Data format.</li> <li>• ADS1115 commands.</li> <li>• Data format</li> <li>• Serial communication protocol.</li> </ul>

The arduino class also has its own methods: resetting the arduino Promini, converting the buffer to binary values, ... You can find the complete code of the class below

```
class arduino(ADCBus):
    """ Class to implement an arduino Promini ADC converter """

    tipo = 'ProMini'
    bits = 10
    twoSC = False

    refVoltageList = [0, 5.1]

    def __init__(self, ordinal):
        self.ordinal = ordinal

        self.channel = 1           # Default channel

        self.reset()
        self.initCommunication()

    def reset(self):
        """ Reset arduino """
        # Configure pin
        GPIO.setmode(GPIO.BCM)
        GPIO.setup(22, GPIO.OUT)

        GPIO.output(22, False)      # Send a "0"
        time.sleep(1)               # Hold it for a second
        GPIO.output(22, True)       # Send a "1"
        GPIO.cleanup()              # Close module
```

```

time.sleep(4)

def initCommunication(self):
    """ Start an analog to digital conversion """
    dummy = "0123456789012345"
    for i in range(16):
        self.enviar(dummy)

    for i in range(1,17):
        while not(RS232.inWaiting()>15):
            pass

def enviar(self, texto):
    RS232.write(texto)

def readBuffer(self):
    """ Get arduino buffer -32 bytes- information """
    return RS232.read(32)

def setChannel(self, channel):
    """ Sets the channel for next 'readConversion()' """
    self.channel = channel.channel

def setChannelGain(self, sensor):
    """ Sets the current channel # """
    self.setChannel(sensor.channel)

def singleShot(self):
    """ Start an analog to digital conversion """
    self.enviar('0')

def ready(self):
    """ Return true if data has arrived from arduino"""
    hay = RS232.inWaiting()
    if hay > 31:
        return True
    else:
        return False

def readConversion(self):
    """ Returns the conversion for current channel """
    cadena = self.readBuffer()
    conversion = ord(cadena[2*(self.channel-1)])\
        +256*ord(cadena[2*(self.channel-1)+1])
    return conversion

```

## 6.3.- Class ADCBus.

ADCBus is an ancestor class (and almost an abstract one).

Abstract classes just contain empty methods (it is not the case). They have several purposes, some very subtle, and whose explanation is clearly beyond the scope of this blog. One of them is to define methods that some of the *child* -inheriting- classes may not use but that can be called -even if they do nothing-. Generally speaking the methods that are included in the *ancestor* only to define the *interface* -of the inheriting classes- do not have any code (*pass*, in the case of Python). Sometimes some of the inheriting classes need some of these methods to do just that -nothing-; such a case the method may be omitted in the inheriting class, for the one in the *parent* class is valid (being the case of the *singleShot* method for the *oneWire* class: *pass* is OK).

For the ADCBus classes there is also a method common to all of them (*chooseVref*) that is used to find the *reference voltage* used for each sensor into the list of references *self.refVoltageList* (and which has a *fake* implementation -the list of voltages- in the *oneWire* and *arduino* buses)

ADCBus class code is:

```
class ADCBus():
    """ Base class for ADC-bus devices """

    instancedBuses = []

    def chooseVref(self, sensorMax):
        anterior = self.refVoltageList[0]
        for position, i in enumerate(self.refVoltageList):
            if sensorMax == i:
                return (position - 1, i)
            elif ((sensorMax < i) & (sensorMax > anterior)):
                return (position - 1, i)
        anterior = i
        return (position - 1, anterior)

    def setChannel(self, channel):
        pass

    def setChannelGain(self, sensor):
        pass

    def singleShot(self):
        pass

    def ready(self):
        pass

    def readConversion(self):
        pass
```

## Class ADCBus. Code analysis.

```
class ADCBus():
    """ Base class for ADC-bus devices """
```

```
instancedBuses = []
```

- Class doesn't inherit from nobody.
- *instancedBuses* is a list to store ADCBus objects. Client may use his/her one alternatively.

```

def chooseVref(self, sensorMax):
    anterior = self.refVoltageList[0]
    for position, i in enumerate(self.refVoltageList):
        if sensorMax == i:
            return (position - 1, i)
        elif ((sensorMax < i) & (sensorMax > anterior)):
            return (position - 1, i)
        anterior = i
    return (position - 1, anterior)

```

- This method returns the position of the *sensor reference voltage* -the maximum expected voltage at its output- into the *bus reference voltage* list (see 5.2, “Sensor class. Preliminary”).

```

def setChannel(self, channel):
    pass

def setChannelGain(self, sensor):
    pass

def singleShot(self):
    pass

def ready(self):
    pass

def readConversion(self):
    pass

```

- ADCBus *interface* classes. Except for the *singleShot* method in the *oneWire* class, all methods are replaced in each of the *child* classes by their own methods.

## 6.4.- Bus classes. Outline. Conclusion.

Next diagram shows the hierarchy and differences between all ADCBus classes:

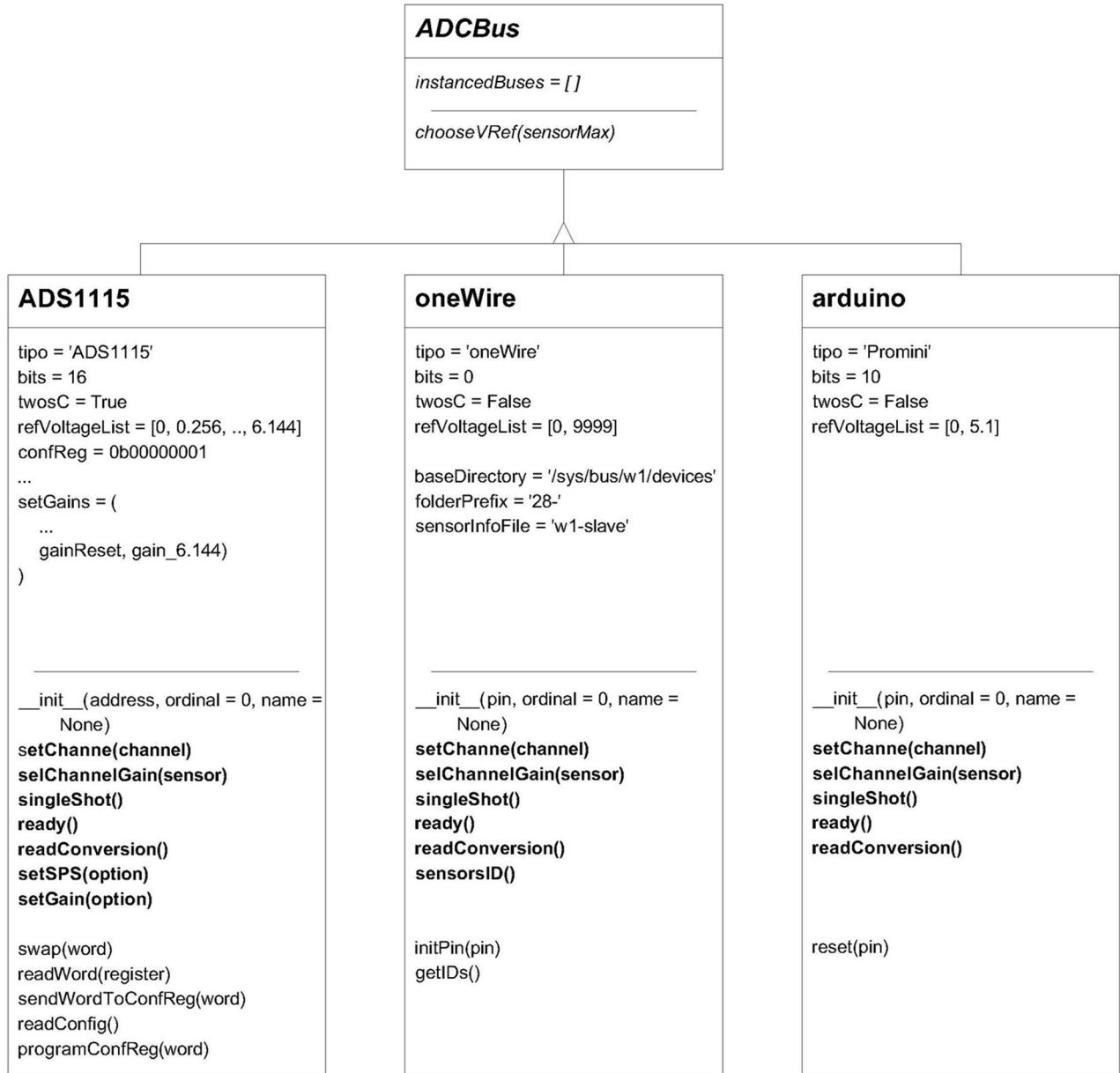


Figure 26. ADCBus classes hierarchy

(The classes in bold are the only ones to be called by the client code. The ones common to all the classes are the common *interface*).

- The -big- effort for the classes having the same *interface* is paid off by having all the classes the same behaviour. The *client code* is -beyond the instantiation of the bus, which, of course, must be done with the name of the corresponding class- independent of the particular bus. The code developed for one specific bus is valid for another; it is also possible to use the classes in the library as a whole: by pivoting in the *instanced sensors* (see 8.1.2, “Usage with a list of sensors”). Being the most standard of the three studied, the -interface- of the ADS1115 has been taken as a model.
- To add a new type of ADC to the library (there are many very popular: the MCP3X08 family from the manufacturer microChip, for example) requires the development of a class for the new ADC. If the standard for the interface is kept, the client code already developed for the existing ones (see 8, "Library usage") will almost certainly be valid for the new one.
- In spite of the differences in between them -among the code of the methods that implement them-, the three classes inherit from a *common ADCBus class* so that they share a method -chooseVref- and the definition of the *interface*. Any case the complexity of this class family is less than that of the calculation agents: there is no *multiple inheritance*.

## 7.- Sensor tables (*sensorTable*).

A table is nothing else than a python "*list of lists*" (of coordinate pairs), but their managing is complex enough as to implement it by using a specific class.

(Although this description -that of the *sensorTable* class- comes up after the ones of the bus classes, the calculation agents and the sensor class, it is far from complicated; it wasn't its time, yet. Take the analysis and coding of this class as a review of the precedent. If you have already walked through all the blog and worked on it, the tables class issue is, believe it, plain sailing).

### 7.1.. Specification.

Let's approach the issue. The point is building a class that solves the following:

1. A number –output- has to be derived from another one –input- by means of a lookup table. The table is a list having –at least- two lines; three points. There shouldn't be two identical abscissas: each line –point- consists on two numbers: first one is the *abscissa* and second one the *ordinate*.
2. Tables are –contained in- plain text files -ASCII-. The internal format of the file is as simple as possible: one table point per line, the two coordinates separated by a comma. The decimal point will be used as decimal separator. There will be no header (the first line will contain the first point, the second line the second point, and so on). At the moment of the instantiation of the *sensorTables* class, the table inside the file will be loaded and converted to a suitable format for Python using it (a list of lists. These of two real numbers -the coordinates of each point-).
3. The class –the objects- verify data consistency when building the table: file contents is checked as it is loaded from it. Each line has to have two reals separated by a comma. The table should not have two identical abscissas and should content at least three points. A fail on this check will raise an *EIDEError*.
4. A lineal interpolation algorithm is to be implemented (see figure 27 below). Basically the method is (do not assume that the *interpolation method* –algorithm- will fatally become itself into a *class method*: it may or may not do so):
  1. Should the consult abscissa –input- match exactly with the one of the table points, the output is the correspondent ordinate.
  2. Should the point fall inside the table (its abscissa is equal to or greater than that of the first point and equal to or less than that of the last), the output will be calculated as the ordinate of the point on the line passing through the points whose abscissa are immediately before and after the passed -abscissa-. A small tongue twister that is easily understood by taking a look at figure 27.

3. Finally, if the point falls outside the table, a similar procedure is used by using the line determined by the two first (last) points of the table.

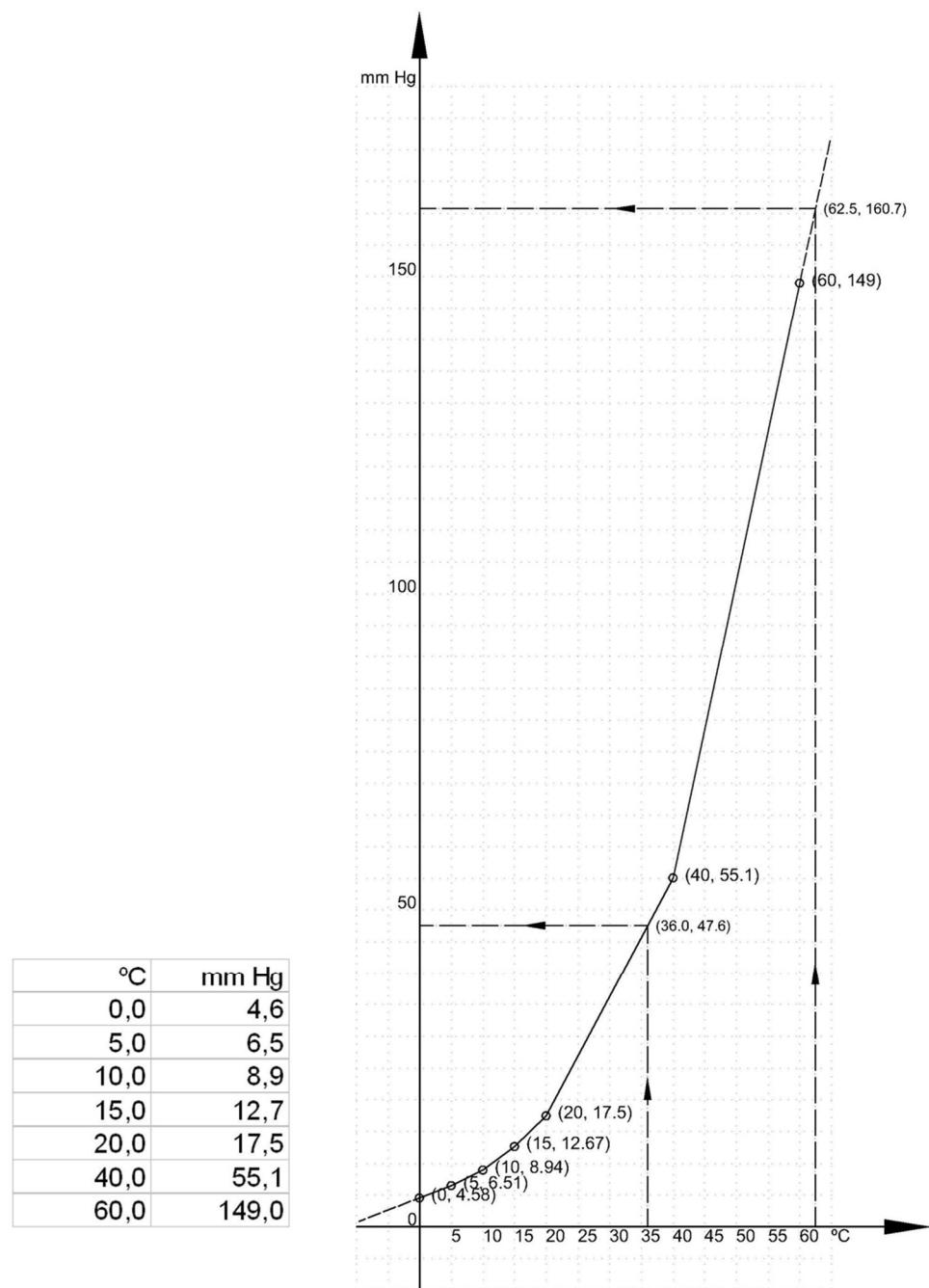


Figure 27. Lineal interpolation example. *Water steam pressure* against temperature.

## 7.2.- Caveats.

The project we are working on is not complicated. Should it be a part of a more complex one (developing too displays, alarm and interface systems to complement the capturing process for instance), some common necessities –for this one and the other mentioned modules- perhaps would lead the designer to deem the possibility of using an external library (or develop a simple one, -finally they never are so *simple*) to accomplish them.

Let's think in the specifications we've just written down. They require of some geometrical stuff (interpolation, lines, points), an issue that is completely apart from the native goal of EIDEAnalog. A display module that uses needles to show the values probably has to manage lines and points too.

By crumbling the problem a little bit more, we find that perhaps even the *reals* (numbers) themselves deserve being objects of a class -float?–.

## 7.3.- Native classes.

When using Python any stuff you use are objects; instances of a class (even a class is an object of a class, *damn it!*).

Do not hammer your brain should this is the first time you think on it (the fact that everything in python are objects) and you're right now suffering from a mental breakdown. Look it that way: coordinates are real numbers -floats- and, since floats are, apparently, objects of a class -float?: yes- we don't have to create such a class. The *float* class objects are instanced every time you mention them for the first time ( $a = 1.234$ ) and come provided of all the expected methods. Please, type in “`a=1.234`”, “`type(a)`”, “`dir(a)`” and, for instance, “`a.__add__(2.2)`” to get ascertain. By the way, this fact –the float class- is true from the very beginning of the blog; we haven't told till now to avoid complicating matters.

Summarizing, you don't need to worry about a new class to manage floats; it comes together with the basic equipment of python; in a certain way it is *native* class.

On the other hand Python has, fortunately, a *file* class that frees us from cumbersome task of coping with the text file in which the values of the table come. More good news.

## 7.4.- A geometrics library?

A completely different issue is that of the eventual classes *point* and *line*: at the end of the day we are going to calculate *points* from *points* by *linear* interpolation (Fig. 27).

Let's come back to the same idea: should we be developing a bigger project this is the time to evaluate the possibility of using an external geometrics library –*scipy*, for instance

(*sci* coming nothing less than from *science*; hands up!)-. Have in mind that the issues we face now –managing points, lines, interpolate- are not specific to a “data acquisition” project. The question is: what is the right procedure?

The point is, once again, the –this- project volume. This is a small project and, although it works fine (and some people is using it in labs and small industrial business), it has been conceived for training. One has to decide sometimes when to stop (*re*)complicating things so that, finally, the supposed improvement (or, say, the *academic* solution) goes against the main goal. So let's be a bit unorthodox and implement the necessary code to interpolate in the body of the *sensorTable* class. We insist: is not orthodox but they are finally just seven lines of code.

(At the end of the chapter you can find an exercise that proposes a solution closer to the geometrics library solution).

So let's have a look on the *sensorTable* class code:

```
class sensorTable():
    """ Class for sensor tables """
    head = os.getcwd()
    tables = os.path.join(head, 'SENSOR_TABLES')

    def __init__(self, archivo):
        self.name = archivo.split(".")[0]
        self.table = []
        self.archivoPath = os.path.join(tables, self.name + '.txt')
        self.read(self.archivoPath)

        self.mapLen = len(self.table)
        self.mapMinimum = self.table[0][0]
        self.mapMaximum = self.table[len(self.table) - 1][0]
        self.sort()
        self.verify()

        self.position = -1

    def read(self, file):
        fichero = open(self.archivoPath, "r+")
        for linea in fichero:
            pointsList = (float(linea.split(",")[0]),
                          float(linea.split(",")[1]))
            self.table.append(pointsList)
        fichero.close()

    def sort(self):
        self.table.sort()

    def verify(self):
        if self.mapLen < 4:
            raise EIDEError("", "Sensor table error: less than three points")
```

```

        for counter, i in enumerate(self.table):
            if counter == self.mapLen - 1:
                # Table top reached.
                return
            print (i[0], self.table[counter+1][0])
            if i[0] == self.table[counter+1][0]:
                raise EIDEEError("", "Sensor table error: double abcissa")

    def lookup(self, abcissa):
        """ Return ordinate for abcissa """
        return self.linearInterpolate(self.abcissaPoints(
            self.pointer(abcissa)), abcissa)

    def pointer(self, abcissa):
        """ Return position of equal or first smaller number """
        if abcissa < self.table[0][0]:
            # abcissa 'below' table.
            return 0
        for contador,i in enumerate(self.table):
            if i[0] > abcissa:
                return contador - 1
        return contador

    def abcissaPoints(self, pointer):
        """ Return a list holding interpolation points """
        if pointer >= (self.mapLen - 1):
            # Point 'above' table.
            return (self.table[self.mapLen - 2],
                   self.table[self.mapLen - 1])
        return (self.table[pointer],
                self.table[pointer + 1])

    def linearInterpolate(self, points, abcissa):
        """ Return the ordinate """
        x1 = points[0][0]
        y1 = points[0][1]
        x2 = points[1][0]
        y2 = points[1][1]
        m = (y2-y1)/(x2-x1)
        b = y2 - (x2/(x2-x1))*(y2-y1)
        return (m * abcissa + b)

```

## 7.5.- Class sensorTable. Code analysis.

```

class sensorTable():
    """ Class for sensor tables """
    head = os.getcwd()
    tables = os.path.join(head, 'SENSOR_TABLES')

```

- Class code –the code just below the class definition line- executes once (when the python interpreter sees the class definition). This opportunity it serves to address the folder where (tables) files are. (“../SENSOR\_TABLES”. See Annex 1 “Download and configure”.)



For the class *sensorTable* to be instanced the code of the file EIDEAnalog.py –the file itself- has to be contained in the folder ‘EIDEAnalog’; the folder ‘SENSOR\_TABLES’ –the one in that reside the ‘txt’ files with the sensor tables- has to be inside the folder ‘EIDEAnalog’ too. Should you have downloaded the whole stuff from <https://github.com/Clave-EIDEAnalog/EIDEAnalog> folders and files have to be already placed as described.

---

```
def __init__(self, archivo):  
  
    self.name = archivo.split(".")[0]  
    self.name = self.name + '.txt'  
    self.archivoPath = os.path.join(sensorTable.tables, self.name)  
    self.table = []  
    self.read(self.archivoPath)  
  
    self.mapLen = len(self.table)  
    self.mapMinimum = self.table[0][0]  
    self.mapMaximum = self.table[len(self.table) - 1][0]  
    self.sort()  
    self.verify()
```

- File name is splitted in as many parts as dots it contains (plus one). The first one is added the prefix ‘txt’, making the definitive name of the file (so ‘DATA’, ‘DATA.txt’ o ‘DATA.PLUS.DATA’ as file name will result, in all cases, in ‘DATA.txt’).
- *self.table* is the list holding the coordinates.
- File reading.
- Some relevant table data is stored ( *self.mapLen*, *self.mapMinimum*, *self.mapMaximum*)
- Table sort and check.

```
def read(self, file):  
    fichero = open(self.archivoPath, "r+")  
    for linea in fichero:  
        pointsList = (float(linea.split(",")[0]),  
                      float(linea.split(",")[1]))  
        self.table.append(pointsList)  
    fichero.close()
```

- File contents is downloaded into a list. When converting the line contents to floats an indirect check is performed: an error comes up in case they are not floats; this error is not captured by the code (see two paragraphs below) so a python message appears to notify it.

```
def sort(self):
    """ Sort the table by abscissas """
    self.table.sort()
```

- Use *sort* method for lists to classify it (from the smallest abscissa to the biggest). Just in case: a *list* is an object of a class *list*; as such it has many methods, one of them being *sort*.

```
def verify(self):
    if self.mapLen < 3:
        raise EIDEError("", "Sensor table error: less than three points")
    for counter, i in enumerate(self.table):
        if counter == self.mapLen - 1:
            # Table top reached.
            return
        if i[0] == self.table[counter+1][0]:
            raise EIDEError("", "Sensor table error: double abscissa")
```

- Verify data –table- consistency. We are going to do our first stints on error catching and treatment (well, mainly catching). The point is verifying that the table has at least three points and unique abscissas. Error treatment code is ugly, but, at least in this case, very intuitive. Python generates –raises- its own errors when it finds an error condition executing the code (the case of trying to convert into a float what is not convertible to a float; see two paragraphs above; the error is shown on the IDLE in a quite obscure –obscure because the message- manner). Should the error condition not to be detectable by python (the table having less than three points or repeated abscissas), you –your code- have to raise the error *manually*. The error message will appear the same way than python errors, but at least you can control the message –the text-. Errors are too objects of a special class that should inherit from a general class *Exception* and it should have been defined somewhere else in the code (the error class).

```
def lookup(self, abscissa):
    """ Return ordinate for abscissa """
    return self.linearInterpolate(self.abscissaPoints(
        self.pointer(abscissa)), abscissa)
```

- This method calculates –and returns- the output based on the input to the table - *abcissa*- . It uses the methods *pointer* y *abcissaPoints* to locate the points inside the table; then passes them to the *linearInterpolate* method.

```
def pointer(self, abcissa):
    """ Return position of equal or first smaller number """
    if abcissa < self.table[0][0]:
        # abcissa 'below' table.
        return 0
    for contador,i in enumerate(self.table):
        if i[0] > abcissa:
            return contador - 1
    return contador
```

- Find the ordinal of the abcissa inside the table. Return it.

```
def abcissaPoints(self, pointer):
    """ Return a list holding interpolation points """
    if pointer >= (self.mapLen - 1):
        # Point 'above' table.
        return (self.table[self.mapLen - 2],
                self.table[self.mapLen - 1])
    return (self.table[pointer],
            self.table[pointer + 1])
```

- Return the two points correspondent to pointer (the two ones that determine the line to be used to interpolate).

```
def linearInterpolate(self, points, abcissa):
    """ Return the ordinate """
    x1 = points[0][0]
    y1 = points[0][1]
    x2 = points[1][0]
    y2 = points[1][1]
    m = (y2-y1)/(x2-x1)
    b = y2 - (x2/(x2-x1)) * (y2-y1)
    return (m * abcissa + b)
```

- Calculate line on the fly –m and b- and return ordinate.



(a) Instance `sensorTables` class with the file 'NTC\_ADS1115.txt' as argument. Do calculate by means of the just created instance the temperature correspondent to 1.0, 2.0 and 2.5 Volts.

---



(b) By using 'VAPOUR\_PRESSURE' check the vapour pressure values for 36,0 °C and 62,5 °C (Figure 27).

---



(c) Write a file ('FAULTY\_TABLE') with just two points. Check the error when trying to instance it. Check too the error if a file has a duplicate abscissa and if, instead of floats, it holds texts ("1.234" will do). Have a look on the different error messages thrown by the computer every case.

---



For the class `sensorTable` to be instanced the code of the file `EIDEAnalog.py` –the file itself- has to be inside the folder 'EIDEAnalog'; the folder 'SENSOR\_TABLES' –the one in that reside the 'txt' files with the sensor tables- has to be inside the folder 'EIDEAnalog' too. Should you have downloaded the whole stuff from <https://github.com/Clave-EIDEAnalog/EIDEAnalog> folders and files have to be already placed as described.

---

## 7.6.- Sensor tables. Conclusion.

- Though at the end of the day the sensor table points are just a python list, it's convenient this list being an attribute of a class –`sensorTables`- that has some specific methods so that the table can answer our future requests (calculate an *interpolated* value).
- There are some methods *linearInterpolate*, *pointer*, *abcissaPoints* which are algorithms that have nothing to do with the rest of the library; They are purely geometrical methods. Though they seem to demand different classes –objects- (probably from a different library –geometry?), they have been included altogether with the class code for simplicity (once made the opportune warning).
- A class method, *verify*, contains a modest approach to error managing.

- The class `sensorTable`, its code, has a poor efficiency, just because the calculation algorithm and because how the table itself is organised and how the search across it is made: every time the algorithm is used a sequential search is performed (from the very beginning –first point- of the table up to where the required point is –or to the table end), a method that, specially for big tables, is unacceptable. There are some well known procedures to improve it: a binary search for instance. It falls outside this blog goal to get deeper into such matters; just say that because the encapsulation achieved by using OOP, such a changes do not suppose any client code modification (See exercise just below).
- 



`sensorTables`, as it is coded, is not efficient in terms of speed; every time an input has to be processed, the algorithm is:

1. Look up the table for the two points that surround the passed one: `pointer` and `abcissaPoints` methods.
2. Calculate the line parameters ("m" and "b") and the correspondent ordinate: `linearInterpolate`.

As explained, this procedure is too slow:

1. Calculate by instancing `sensorTables` with NTC\_ADS1115.txt as argument and calling the algorithm a number of times (see exercise at the end of 4.1.10) the average time the program takes to calculate a single ordinate.
2. Forget all the precedent (in the scope of this exercise, we mean):
  1. Write a class `line` that is passed two points as argument when instanced: when constructing itself (`__init__`), the object calculates "m" and "b" parameters that became attributes of the object: `self.m` y `self.b`.
  2. When instancing –an object of the class- `sensorTables`, do instance when constructing (`__init__`) as many `lines` –objects of the class `line`- as needed; keep the objects in a list (`self.lines`, for instance)
  3. When the object of the class `sensorTables` needs to calculate -`lookup`- the ordinate correspondent to an `abcissa`, use `self.Lines` list: you will need to use `pointer` to address the correct line; then just modify method `lookup` like this:

```
punter = self.pointer(abcissa) - 1
return self.Lines[punter].m * abcissa + self.Lines[punter].b
```

to get a quicker execution (`linearInterpolate` is not used anymore).

NOTE: You need an, almost, identical class to `sensorTables` but different in that it has to implement the three points above. The academic procedure is writing a class that inherits from `sensorTables`; it works almost the same with the exception of the `lookup` method and the instantiation of the `lines`. Forget *working wonders* and write a new class (`sensorTables7`. "7" for we are in chapter 7) to solve the exercise.

Answer: About a 30%. It may change a bit depending on the table, the points you pass, etcetera. It may vary from one test to the following.

---

## 8.- Library usage.

The library is complete. A nice work has been done: by designing and writing the *bus* classes (ADCBus, ADS1115, *oneWire*, *arduino*), the *calculation agent* classes and the class *sensor* it is possible, by just instancing the buses and the sensors they have connected to, to manage them easily. If we look at the whole system from the vintage point of the class methods –the “commands”- we can use now (see 3.2, “The classes as services suppliers”) are:

<b>Buses</b>
<b>singleShot():</b> method to tell the ADC to start a conversion
<b>ready():</b> Check the ADC for conversion completion.
<b>readConversion():</b> Return (ADC) the last conversion done.
<b>setChannel(channel):</b> Set active channel.
<b>setChannelGain(sensor):</b> Set active channel and, if possible, the correspondent gain.

In what concerns sensors, thanks to the *calculation agents* classes we have pulled out our hat (and the very structure the class *sensor* has; see 5.4 “Class *sensor* code. Instantiation”) it suffices for it –the class *sensor*- having a class *readout* for it giving a *human readable* readout. It is not a bad issue.

Let us see a use case.

## 8.1.- Basic use.

This is the specification:

1. ADS1115 board at address 0x48 of an i2c bus (*chinese* one. See figure 13)
2. Thermistor (non linear temperature sensor) mounted on the board and connected to channel “1” (see figure 19). The table converting the direct readout to the correspondent temperature is in the file ADS1115\_NTC.txt; see 7, “Sensor tables (sensorTable)”.
3. Temperature sensor LM35 connected to channel “2” of the ADS1115 board.

Finally, the goal is to visualize –print- both temperatures.

---



**Blog use as a *cookbook*-:** The code we are about to write is a little wordy. Do not panic, at the end of this very chapter we will find that the library may be used with a little bit more than a couple of lines of code. The point is that the blog has been conceived as a pedagogic tool.

The warning is for people that have skipped the whole blog (perhaps you’re coming directly from paragraph 1, “Presentation”, where you can find a timid suggestion of doing so. Welcome if that is the case).

Nevertheless, point 8.2, “auxiliary classes. ADCBus\_manager” is more of a cookbook; perhaps is what you are looking for.

---

Let’s focus on the issue. From now on, you are the *client*.

Don’t be afraid (we’re not going to ask you for any money): The point is that all the code written up to now is on a python file named EIDEAnalog.py. You are writing your own file, your own “.py” file, a *program*. Call it as you like (twoTemperatures?).

### 8.1.1.- Direct instantiation of buses and sensors.

The very first thing that your client code has to do is to import the library.

```
import EIDEAnalog
```

Once executed this line, all the classes and methods we have written up to now are available.



**Class services:** Including all the classes written up to now into a common file is the most reasonable procedure and does not imply a single change into them. The main idea is that the client should not modify in any way their contents to use them.

Having this in mind,

**Class services:** An *auxiliary* class –*services*- is used to hold A) the data to be used by several classes and B) common services. Namely:

- **Sensors data:** this –the present- library version has a dictionary -‘*standardSensorsData*’- as a class attribute right into this *services* class. (Next versions, this data would probably be into a text -.txt- file that would be read into the code at instantiation time. By doing so, the client wouldn’t even need to edit the library code in case a new sensor is included).
- **Table files path:** a class attribute -*tablesFolder*- holds this information.
- **I2c service instantiation:** may be you add another device that communicates to the Raspberry via i2c (or just another ADS1115), so a *general* instantiation of the bus is a good idea. A single instance is made just after the class is defined:

```
srv = services()
```

so all its attributes and methods are at hand as `srv.xxxxxx`.

(This class –its instance- has been included to be used by the library classes; nevertheless, the client may use them also)

On the other hand, it should be pointed that this approach –writing a class *services* to hold this data (sensors, paths) and services (i2c communication)- is not the most orthodox one; there are many more ways of doing it (more or less *orthodox* themselves; i.e.: a simple list –sensors data- and instance –i2c-, much the way we’ve made it before). Some experts would, perhaps, instance two or three classes instead (one for every purpose), mainly for the sake of maintenance; it is a –*the*?- perfect OOP procedure.

---

To turn the board operative you have to instance it:

```
myBus = EIDEAnalog.ADS1115(0x48)
```

so generating an instance of bus ADS1115 in address 0x48 of the i2c bus. Should you don’t understand a single word go back to paragraph 2.3, “ADC. Analog to digital converters.” immediately .

Once this line is executed we have all the class ADS1115 methods at our disposal. Let’s imagine that you need to select the second channel: the command would be:

```
myBus.setChannel(2)
```

(Nothing new, after all; this subject has been crumbled in paragraph 4.1.10, “Class ADS1115 complete code. Usage examples”; go back over there should you don’t have issues abundantly clear).

Let’s go with the sensors:

To instantiate the on board NTC the command is:

```
NTC_china = EIDEAnalog.sensor('ADS1115_NTC', myBus, 1, name='NTC_placa')
```

Object name -"NTC\_china"- and sensor one -"NTC\_placa"- at our choice.

Sensor type -'ADS1115\_NTC'-, conversely, has to be what it has to be; other case –the system is not able to identify it- an error message will come up (see 5.4,- “Class sensor code. Instantiation”; ‘*standardSensorsData*’).

So LM35 instantiation is :

```
T_Exterior = EIDEAnalog.sensor('LM35', myBus, 2, name='T_Exterior')
```

Let’s imagine that you are testing this two lines of code: you want to check that the NTC is really measuring temperature. Your code has to include –in addition to the code above-:

1) Select channel 1

```
myBus.setChannel(1)
```

2) Select as the voltage reference 4.096 V. (the table *standardSensorsData* shows that the NTC has a reference voltage 3,3 V; the immediately bigger value in the references is 4.096 V).

```
myBus.setGain(4)
```

(A seasoned –and keen- reader may now be thinking that those two lines of code may be merged into a single one -"setChannel/Gain"-: that’s true, as will be explained in due course. Keep reading).

3) Once set channel and gain, you instruct the ADS1115 to convert:

```
myBus.singleShot()
```

4) You take a *wait and see* attitude ...

```
while not(myBus.ready()):  
    pass
```

5) and read:

```
lectura = myBus.readConversion()
```

6) and, then, you convert (to a human readable format) and visualize

```
a_visualizar = NTC_china.readout(lectura)
print (a_visualizar)
```

If you have made exactly what you have been told to, now you are seeing the temperature the NTC is sensing on your screen. Let's summarize:

1) You have a file named “EIDEAnalog.py” whose contents you have downloaded by using Internet - <https://github.com/Clave-EIDEAnalog/EIDEAnalog> -

2) In the same folder holding “EIDEAnalog .py” you have saved a *script* -program- like this:

```
# Import and init EIDEAnalog.
import EIDEAnalog
EIDEAnalog.init()

# Instance bus and sensor.
myBus = EIDEAnalog.ADS1115(0x48)
NTC_china = EIDEAnalog.sensor('ADS1115_NTC', myBus, 1, name='NTC_placa')

# Configure and trigger ADC. Wait for bus ready.
myBus.setChannel(1)
myBus.setGain(4)
myBus.singleShot()
while not (myBus.ready()):
    pass

# Read conversion. Convert and display it.
lectura = myBus.readConversion()
a_visualizar = NTC_china.readout(lectura)
print (a_visualizar)
```

and it has to work (it is tested).



Now that we are serious clients and import libraries, it is time to acquire good habits: the library, as it has been explained many times, loads when imported some Raspberry resources that should be released when the work is finished. In order to close the program properly, the last line in your program has to disconnect all those resources. The command:

```
EIDEAnalog.quit()
```

serve just for that purpose. Write it at the very end of your script.

---

In case we want to follow suit with the LM35, the code would be:

```
# Instance sensor
T_Exterior = EIDEAnalog.sensor('LM35', myBus, 2, name='TE_LM35')

# Configure and trigger ADC. Wait for bus ready.
myBus.setChannel(2)
myBus.setGain(2)
myBus.singleShot()
while not(myBus.ready()):
    pass

# Read conversion. Convert and display it.
lectura = myBus.readConversion()
a_visualizar = T_Exterior.readout(lectura)
print (a_visualizar)
```

You can add this code at the end of the precedent –the one for the NTC- and you will see the LM35 temperature on the screen too.



Change the precedent code to read the temperature of two DS18B20 thermometers connected to the `oneWire` bus.

---

### 8.1.2.- Sensors list.

The code in the precedent paragraph may be improved. Deeply.

To begin with, the class `ADCBus` has a method -"setChannel/Gain"- that, as its own name suggest, sets in a stroke both the channel and the gain. Remember that in the sensors

dictionary –‘*standardSensorsData*’- you can find a reference to the maximum voltage that a sensor may deliver (1.0 V for the LM35, for instance). On the other hand, each bus has a list with its reference voltages; when instancing the sensor, the code looks up in the latter – reference voltages list- for the closer value, that the sensor object includes in its attributes (*vRef* and *vRefPos*).

Taking the precedent into account, it suffices calling the above mentioned method – *setChannel/Gain*- **using the sensor object as argument** so that the method takes charge of everything.

(Please, find next the correspondent warning)

---



Passing an object to a method as an argument entails certain implications. Let's say that the method code could modify the passed object, what is against one of the OOP paradigms. As it has been noted, in Python is impossible to hide an object to a *fool programmer* (a deeper explanation of what a fool programmer is for a better occasion), so let this comment being an opportune warning.

---

The two couples of lines:

```
myBus.setChannel(1)  
myBus.setGain(4)
```

```
myBus.setChannel(2)  
myBus.setGain(2)
```

are now

```
myBus.setChannelGain(NTC_china)  
myBus.setChannelGain(T_Exterior)
```

what is a little saving –of coding- and a substantial improvement on software legibility.

The code keeps being, nevertheless, too cumbersome. There is a notorious fact: the two blocks of code for both sensors are almost similar, with the exception of those two last lines and the *sensor.readout* one, that are different for each sensor.

Python has a magic to solve that: lists. A list, you should know it by now, is a collection of items –numbers, strings, objects-. Lists can be created and updated on the fly; our case, the point is having a list of the sensor objects. Like this:

```
instancedSensors = []  
NTC_china = EIDEAnalog.sensor('ADS1115_NTC', myBus, 1, name='NTC_placa')  
T_Exterior = EIDEAnalog.sensor('LM35', myBus, 2, name='TE_LM35')  
instancedSensors.append(NTC_china)  
instancedSensors.append(T_Exterior)
```

and, as python lists are iterable:

```

for i in instancedSensors:
    i.sensorBus.setChannelGain(i)
    i.sensorBus.singleShot()
    while not(i.sensorBus.ready()):
        pass
    lectura = i.sensorBus.readConversion()
    a_visualizar = i.readout(lectura)
    print (a_visualizar)

```

let's do not complicate things by the moment (there's an evident issue: adding the sensor name to identify the figures that come up when executing the program. Please, see next exercise).

---



Modify the precedent code as to show the sensor name. Something similar to:

ADS1115\_NTC : 24.1 C ..

LM35: 12.5 °C

Labels (ADS1115, LM35) taken from the sensor objects, not included as such in the command.

---

## 8.2.- Intermediary classes. Class *ADCBus\_manager*.

The code in the immediate precedent paragraph is a remarkable advance, yet it is still reducible, specially if you have not *speed* concerns.

A library client may need the library –its buses, ADC, ...- working at its maximum speed. Such a case the client code may be:

```

lecturas = [0,0]

while True:
    for counter, i in enumerate(instancedSensors):
        myBus.setChannelGain(i)
        myBus.singleShot()
        # The client process code (displaying, averaging, plotting) here.
        while not(myBus.ready()):
            pass
        lectura = myBus.readConversion()
        lecturas[counter] = i.readout(lectura)

```

In this approach a loop that repeatedly reads and calculates is executed. Further than a little boasting in the loop code itself (*enumerate* serves for keeping a counter on which element of the list is being processed), the point is placing the client application code ("# The client process code (displaying, averaging, plotting) here") immediately after the converting command so that –part of- the time the converter takes to convert, is used to compute (display, average, plot) whatever the client needs.

Say that this way you get the maximum in terms of speed of the hardware you have working: if, for instance, you have a single ADS1115 with just one sensor connected, this code will give you a throughput of, about, 400 SPS (samples per second, a common unit to evaluate data acquisition systems performance. See 4.1.10, "Class ADS1115 complete code. Usage examples"). This rate will allow you to display, for instance, the most common biological constant graphics (heart rate, blood pressure) by a continuous line (much like in a movie).

Let us imagine your necessities are not so critical. For instance what you need is to display a room temperature and humidity by using digits. This case is enough by updating the display every second (some times even this frequency is annoying; once every 5 seconds is more than enough).

Such a case you can program a much shorter loop, waiting for every sensor (ADC channel, in fact) to convert and keeping every readout in a list for further process (displaying, averaging, plotting) when all the conversions are done. Just to have an idea of what it means, say that with two sensors connected to an ADS1115 you will have at your disposal the readouts list updated about every 0,005 (1/200) seconds, what keeps being enough as to display a continuous graphic; nothing to say about a numeric display.

Therefore, let us face a project –a class- that allows a library super(client) to have things even easier. Summarizing:

1. Write a new class, *ADCBus\_manager*, that acts as interface with the already developed classes, *ADS1115* and *sensor*, so you don't have to instance them directly (such a class are frequently called *wrapper* or *façade*. As this class also instance objects, it is called a *factory* too).
2. *ADS1115* and *sensor* classes are instanced by this new class, that knows which – and how many times- classes has to instance by means of a python list that identifies the connected hardware (buses and sensors). This list is passed as an argument in the class - *ADCBus\_manager*- instantiation.
3. Just insisting on the premise: speed is not an issue, so that every readout does not need to be processed immediately. They –the readouts- will wait into a list till they are all completed, then they are processed (displayed, averaged, plotted, whatever). Readouts will be *returned* by the correspondent –new class- method.

To fix ideas, let us assume that the new class is already written. We can think that its use by the client is going to be something similar to:

```

manager = ADCBus_manager(project)

while True:
    readouts = manager.readConversions()
    # Client code here.

```

Look at the precedent lines as *pseudo-code* (not the final code, although it may look like – it won't be much different).

An EIDEAnalog project will always have one or several buses –ADCBus- to which one or several sensors are connected. Both, buses and sensors have to be of a *known type*: buses –identified- by means of its class and sensors because of their membership to the sensors dictionary -*standardSensorsData*; see 5.2-.

So, whatever the format that *project* has –the argument passed to *ADCBus\_manager* when instanced-, it –the *project*- has to contain the following data:

1. Bus type and their operative data (i2c address for the ADS1115).
2. Sensors connected to the ADC. Id data: type, ADC channel it is tied to, name.

Let a *project* sketch be:

```

project = [
    'ADS1115', 0x48,
    ['NTC_china', 'ADS1115_NTC', 1, 'NTC_placa'],
    ['T_Exterior', 'LM35', 2, 'TE_LM35']
]

```

(That, obviously, matches with the example in 8.1.1.)

Summarizing: the list *project* has three sections: the two first ones identify the bus and the last one –two lists, this example- the sensors connected to it; every new sensor would require a similar list. If you look at it carefully, you will notice that this list –*project*- holds all the information needed for the project.

As the final use of the whole thing allows it ("speed is not an issue, so that every readout does not need to be processed immediately. They –the readouts- will wait into a list till they are all completed, then they are processed (displayed, averaged, plotted, whatever). Readouts will be returned by the correspondent –new class- method"), we can devise a simple line of code to have all the conversions at hand:

```
lecturas = manager.readConversions()
```

Let us sketch the code of the *ADCBus\_manager* class:

1. **parseProject**: A class -*ADCBus\_manager*- method crumbles the information in the passed list as to separate the sensors data from that one of the bus (*parse*, in computing jargon).
2. **InstanceObjects**: once parsed, the information is passed to that method, that instances the bus and sensor(s).
3. **readConversions**: by looping through all the sensors, this method triggers conversions one by one and collects the converted readouts into a list.

Let's have a look on the (checked) code for the class:

```
class ADCBus_manager():
    busesDict = {'ADS1115': EIDEAnalog.ADS1115,
                 'oneWire': EIDEAnalog.oneWire,
                 }
```

- Just to ease things, a dictionary to address the class that correspond to the bus specified by the client by its '*nude*' name ('ADS1115' -> *EIDEAnalog.ADS1115*) is included as a class attribute. See warning below.



*'Just to ease things ...'* and, although it may look exactly the opposite, it is true. Words reiteration is frequent in OOP ("self.table = table"; "self.name = name" from this very blog –many times. Even worse: "*class Year {private Millis millis; Year (Millis msec) {this.millis = msec;}}*>"; is Java, taken from a very good book on OOP. And not as an example of "*don'ts*").

(Trying to) avoiding words repetition in OOP is a frequent headache for OOP developers; some times to try to use synonyms is even worse. This case – *busesDict*-, the point is to relieve the client from instancing the buses, but she has to have a way to tell the class which kind of bus is connected to the computer: we could have wrote the dictionary entry different –*'fourChannels'*, for instance: such a case the line would be "*"fourChannels": EIDEAnalog.ADS1115*". Maybe we improve the syntactical –or whatever- appearance, but by making things a bit more abstruse (in our opinion).

```
def __init__(self, project):
    self.sensorsCName = []
    self.sensorsType = []
    self.sensorsChannel = []
    self.sensorsName = []
    self.instancedSensors = []
    self.project = project
    self.parseProject(self.project)
    self.instanceObjects()
```

- Auxiliary lists. Execute class methods *parseProject* and *instanceObjects*.

```

def parseProject(self, project):
    for i in project:
        if isinstance(i, list):
            # Sensor list
            self.sensorsCName.append(i[0])
            self.sensorsType.append(i[1])
            self.sensorsChannel.append(i[2])
            self.sensorsName.append(i[3])

```

- Extract sensors data from list project. (*if isinstance(i, list)* discards data that does not come into lists; *project* ones)

```

def instanceObjects(self):
    self.bus = ADCBus_manager.busesDict[self.project[0]](
        self.project[1])
    for contador, i in enumerate(self.sensorsCName):
        objeto = sensor(self.sensorsType[contador],
                         self.bus,
                         self.sensorsChannel[contador],
                         self.sensorsName[contador])
        self.instancedSensors.append(objeto)

```

- Instance bus (by using the two first elements in *project*) and sensors (by using the lists).

```

def readConversions(self):
    lecturas = []
    for i in self.instancedSensors:
        self.bus.setChannelGain(i)
        self.bus.singleShot()
        while not(self.bus.ready()):
            pass
        lectura = self.bus.readConversion()
        lecturas.append(i.readout(lectura))
    return lecturas

```

- Loop through sensors: 1) set sensor channel and gain; 2) trigger it; 3) wait for conversion; 4) convert it to a human readable format and 5) put the *readout* into a list.

Ready. Once written this class, this code:

```

manager = ADCBus_manager(project)
while True:
    lecturas = manager.readConversions()
    # Client code here

```

Reads continuously all the instanced sensors and put their conversions into *lecturas* so that the library *client* has them at her disposal to do whatever she needs (*displaying, averaging, plotting; # Client code here*).

Needless to say that, after such a big work to have all the classes having the same *interface*, it is enough having a *project2*:

```
project2 = [
    'oneWire', 19,
    ['DS18B20_1', 'DS18B20', 1, 'DS18B20_1'],
    ['DS18B20_2', 'DS18B20', 2, 'DS18B20_2']
]
```

like this so that the same *ADCBus\_Manager* –the same– manages the bus oneWire. It is not a bad outcome for a three lines code an a list with just the necessary data to identify the hardware.

---



(a) A Raspberry has an ADS1115 connected at address 0x48 of its bus i2c with the two usual sensors and the bus one wire active on GPIO #19 with two DS18B20 tied to it. Write a piece of code to read every sensor (4) and show the *readouts*. You're not in a hurry ("You're not in a hurry" as to how quick getting the *readouts*, not to write the code; this is up to you) use class *ADCBus\_Manager* just written.

---



(b) As explained in paragraph 8.1.2, "Usage with a list of sensors", the library may be used directly by iterating a list of sensors. Should you have not solved the precedent exercise this way, solve it right now using a single *sensors list*.

---

## 8.3.- EIDEAnalog library usage. Conclusions.

- EIDEAnalog library has been developed focusing on the homogeneity of its elements –classes *interface*–; by doing so, the library usage is quite simple.
- You can use the library pivoting on the classes ADCBus and/or on the instanced sensors indistinctly (see paragraph 8.2). You can even iterate on a list of sensors connected to different buses (ADS1115 and oneWire).

- If the overall specs are not too exigent in terms of speed, an intermediate class may be used that makes it possible to get all the readouts by means of a single line of code.