

# Problem Solving with Python

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# Chapter 1

## Preface

### 1.1 Motivation

The motivation for writing this book is that many undergraduate engineering students have to take a programming course based on MATLAB. MATLAB is a great piece of software, but it currently costs \$49.00 for a student license and requires a site license to be used on school computers. Subsequently, it is costly for a student to use MATLAB and it is costly for a college to support a course that uses MATLAB. In addition this site license expires eventually and student need to purchase another copy often before they finish their degree.

The Python programming language on the other hand is open source and free. To download and use Python, the cost to both the student and the college is zero (minus time spent). By moving an undergraduate engineering programming class to Python, students will save money and have greater access to the software they use in class. Further in their engineering education, students can continue to use Python for free.

### 1.2 Acknowledgements

The creation of this book and supporting material would not be possible without the gracious support of my wife and family. Students at Portland Community College continue to give me hope that the next generation of engineers will be a diverse group of team problem solvers.

*The Python Data Science Handbook* and *Machine Learning in Python* as well as *Reiman Equations in Python* served as inspiration and examples of using Jupyter notebooks to construct a book. The *bookbook* repository on github provided a starting point for the tooling used to convert this book from Jupyter notebooks into a website and into LaTeX for printing.

### 1.3 Supporting Materials

Supporting materials for this text can be found at the textbook website:

<https://problemsolvingwithpython.com>

The textbook website contains all of the text in web format. Code examples and Jupyter notebooks for the text can be found in the github repository for the book:

<https://github.com/ProfessorKazarinoff/Problem-Solving-with-Python>

Live notebooks, where code examples found in the text can be run without installing any software, are available at:

<https://mybinder.org/v2/gh/ProfessorKazarinoff/Problem-Solving-with-Python/master>

If you are an instructor and using this book in a course with students- please send me an email using your school email address. In the email, include the course your are teaching and the term, approximate enrollment, and a link to the course listing on your school website.

peter.kazarinoff@problemsolvingwithpython.com

I am happy to reply with a solution key for the end of chapter review problems as well as quiz and exam question banks.

## 1.4 Formatting Conventions

This book and supporting materials use the following formatting conventions:

### Web Address

Web address will be shown as:

<https://github.com/professorkazarinoff/Problem-Solving-with-Python>

### Import terms and vocabulary

Important terms and vocabulary is shown in *italic text*

There is a difference between *local variables* and *global variables* in Python code

### File Names

File Names are shown in **bold and italic text**

After completing the code, save the file as *hello.py* in the current directory.

### Module and Package Names

Module and Package names will be shown in **bold text**

**Numpy** and **matplotlib** are two useful packages for problem solvers.

## Inline code

Inline code including variable names and extensions are shown in monospace font

To compare a variable use var == 'string' and make sure to include ==, the double equals sign.

## Separate code blocks

Separate code blocks will appear in their own sections in monospaced font

```
import numpy as np
import pandas as pd
import matplotlib.pyplot as plt
```

## Anaconda Prompt Commands

Commands typed into the **Anaconda Prompt** are shown in separate boxes which contain the prompt symbol > before each line. Note the prompt > should not be typed. It is included to indicate **Anaconda Prompt**, not a character for the user to enter.

```
> conda create -n newenv python=3.6
> conda activate newenv
```

## Terminal Commands

Commands typed into the terminal appear in separate boxes which contain the dollar symbol \$ before each line. Note the dollar symbol \$ should not be typed. It is included to indicate a terminal prompt, not a character for the user to enter.

```
$ pip install pint
$ cd pint_srcipts
```

## Python REPL Commands

Commands typed into the **Python REPL**, or Python Interpreter appear in separate code boxes, which contain the triple arrow prompt >>>. Note the triple arrow >>> sign should not be typed. Triple arrows are included to indicate the Python REPL prompt, not a character for the user to enter. Output from the Python REPL is shown on a separate line below the command, without the >>> prompt.

```
>>> 2 + 2
4
>>> print('Problem Solving with Python')
Problem Solving with Python
```

## Jupyter Notebook cells

Commands typed into Jupyter notebook cells will appear with the label In [#]:. Output from Jupyter notebook cells are shown after the input cell. Only code in the input cells need to be typed. Output cell are be produced automatically by clicking the run button or typing [shift]+[Enter]

```
In [1]: A = 2
        B = 3
        C = A + B
        print(C)
```

5

## Keystrokes and Buttons

Keystrokes directly entered by the keyboard or button that are indicated on programs or webpages will be shown inside square brackets and in [monospaced font].

In order to delete a line use the [Backspace] key. To exit the shell type [shift]+[c]

## 1.5 Errata

Errata including any typos, code errors and formatting inconsistencies can be submitted to:

[errata@problemsolvingwithpython.com](mailto:errata@problemsolvingwithpython.com)

Please include the chapter number and section number in your email. Thank-you in advanced for helping improve this text for future readers.

# **Chapter 2**

## **Orientation**

### **2.1 Introduction**

Welcome to the world of problem solving with Python. This first Orientation Chapter will help you get started by guiding you through the process of installing Python on your computer.

**By the end of this chapter, you will be able to:**

- Describe why Python is a good programming language for undergraduate engineers
- Describe applications where Python is used
- Detail advantages of Python over other programming languages
- Know the cost of Python
- Know the difference between Python and Anaconda
- Install Python on your computer
- Install Anaconda on your computer

### **2.2 Why Python?**

You might be wondering “Why should I solve problems with Python?” There are other programming languages in the world such as MATLAB, LabView, C++ and Java. What makes Python useful for solving problems?

#### **Python is a powerful programming language**

Python defines the types of objects you build into your code. Unlike some other languages such as C, you do not need to declare the object type. The object type is also mutable, you can change the type of object easily and on the fly. There is a wide array of object types built into Python. Objects can change in size. Python objects can also contain mixed data types. Strings and floating point numbers can be part of the same list.

Python has an extensive standard library. A huge number of object types, functions and methods

are available for use without importing any external modules. These include math functions, list methods, calls to a computers system. There is a lot that can be done with the standard library. The first couple chapters of this book will just use the standard library. It can do a lot.

Python has over 100,000 external packages available for download and use. They are easy to install off of the python package index, commonly called PyPI (“pie pee eye”). There is a python package for just about everything. There are packages which can help you: interact with the web, make complex computations, do unit conversions, plot data, work with .csv, .xls, and .pdf files, manipulate images and video, read data from sensors and test equipment, train machine learning algorithms, design web apps, work with GIS data, work with astronautical data, and many more added every day. In this book we will use some of the more useful Python packages for engineers such as numpy, matplotlib, pandas, and scipy.

## **Python is easy to learn and use**

Engineers solve the world’s problems in teams. One way Python helps solve these problems faster than other programming languages is that it is easy to learn and use. Python programs tends to be shorter and quicker to write than a program that does a similar function in other languages. In the rapid design, prototype, test, iterate cycle programming solutions can be spun up quickly. Python is also an easy language for fellow engineers on your team to learn. It is also quite human readable. While programmers can become preoccupied with a programs run time, it is development time that takes the longest.

## **Python is transportable**

Python can be installed and run on each of the three major operating systems: Windows, Mac and Linux. On Mac and Linux Python comes installed out of the box. Just open up a terminal in on a Mac OSX or Linux machine and type `python`. That’s it, you are now using Python. On Windows I recommend downloading and using the Anaconda distribution. The Anaconda distribution is free and can be installed on all three major operating systems. The same programming environment can be replicated across the three different operating systems.

## **Python is free**

MATLAB and LabView cost students to use and cost companies and colleges even more. Python is free to download and use. It is also open source and free to modify, contribute to, and propose improvements. All of the packages available for download on the Python Package Index, PyPI (pronounced pie-pee-eye) are free to download and install. Many more packages, scripts and utilities can be found in open source repos on github and bitbucket.

## **Python is growing**

Python is growing in popularity. Python is particularly growing in the data sciences and in use with GIS systems, physical modeling, machine learning and computer vision. These are growing team problem solving areas for engineers.

**Python has extensive standard library of modules and a vast array of external modules**

### The Python Standard Library

The Python Standard Library includes:

math, statistics, os, urllib, table for what they are used for. More can be found on Read-the-docs

### External Modules available on PyPI

There are over 100,000 external modules available for Python on PyPI. Ones useful for engineers include

**numpy, matplotlib** and **jupyter** table for what they are used for

installing Python modules can be done on the command line or at the Anaconda Prompt using;

```
$ pip install module_name
```

where `module_name` is the name of the module you want to install.

## 2.3 The Anaconda Distribution of Python

I recommend problem solvers install the *Anaconda Distribution of Python*. The following section details the differences between the Anaconda distribution of Python and the version of Python you can download from [Python.org](#)

### How is Anaconda different from Python?

When you download Python from Python.org, you get the Python Interpreter, a little text editing program called IDLE and all of the Python Standard Library modules.

When you download Anaconda from Anaconda.com, you get a Python Interpreter, Anaconda Prompt (a command line program), Spyder (a code editor) and about 200 extra Python modules that aren't included in The Standard Library. The Anaconda distribution of Python also includes a program called Anaconda Navigator that allows you to launch Jupyter Notebooks quickly.

### Why download Anaconda if I want to use is Python?

Regardless if you download Python from Python.org or if you download Anaconda (with all the extra stuff it comes with) from Anaconda.com, you will be able to write and execute Python code. However, there are a couple of advantages to using the Anaconda distribution of Python.

### Anaconda includes Python plus about 200 additional Python packages

Anaconda is advantageous because it includes Python as well as about 200 additional Python packages. These other packages are all free to use. The packages that come with Anaconda includes

many of the most common Python packages use to solve problems. If you download Anaconda, you get Python including The Standard Library plus 200 extra packages. If you download Python from Python.org, you just get Python and The Standard Library but no additional modules. You could install the extra modules that come with Anaconda (that don't come with plain old Python), but why not save a step (or 200 steps) and download one thing (Anaconda) instead of downloading 201 and one things (200 extra modules + 1 Python download).

### **Anaconda installs without administrator privileges**

Even if you don't have the ability to install program on a computer, like a computer in a school computer lab, you can still download and use Anaconda. The Anaconda distribution of Python will also allow you to install additional modules from the Python package index ([PyPI.org](#)) and conda-forge, the conda package index.

### **Anaconda works on MacOS**

If you use MacOS, you probably already have Python installed on your computer. Most MacOS installations come with Python included. The problem is that the version of Python that comes with MacOS is old (usually legacy Python, Python 2) and the version of Python that comes with MacOS is locked up behind a set of administrator privileges. Because the pre-installed version of Python can require administrator privileges, you can have trouble using the version of Python that comes on MacOS. Some things will seem to work fine, and then other things won't run at all, or you will keep getting asked for an administrator password over and over. Downloading and installing Anaconda (separate from the version of Python that came with MacOS) prevents most of these problems.

### **Anaconda makes package management and virtual environments easier**

Another advantage of Anaconda is that package management and virtual environments are a lot easier when you have Anaconda. Virtual environments and package handling might not seem to make a huge difference right now. If you just downloaded Anaconda for the first time, you are probably not dealing with package management and virtual environments yet. (It's OK if you don't even know what those two things are yet). After you write a couple of Python programs and start downloading a couple of extra modules from PyPI or conda-forge, dealing with package management and virtual environments becomes more critical.

## **2.4 Installing Anaconda on Windows**

For problem solvers, I recommend installing and using the Anaconda Distribution of Python.

This section details the installation of the Anaconda Distribution of Python on Windows 10. I think the Anaconda distribution of Python is the the best option for problemsolvers who want to use Python. Anaconda is free (although the download is large which can take time) and can be installed on school or work computers where you don't have administrator access or the ability to install new programs. Anaconda comes bundled with over 100 packages pre-installed including **numpy**, **matplotlib** and **sympy**. These three packages are very useful for problem solvers and will be discussed in subsequent chapters.



anaconda download page



anaconda select Windows

### Steps:

1. Visit [Anaconda.com/downloads](https://anaconda.com/downloads)
2. Select Windows
3. Download the .exe installer
4. Open and run the .exe installer
5. Open the Anaconda prompt and run some Python code

#### 1. Visit the Anaconda downloads page

Go to the following link: [Anaconda.com/downloads](https://anaconda.com/downloads)

The Anaconda Downloads Page will look something like this:

#### 2. Select Windows

Select Windows where the three operating systems are listed.

#### 3. Download

Download the most recent Python 3 release. At the time of writing, the most recent release was the Python 3.6 Version. Python 2.7 is legacy Python. For problem solvers, select the Python 3.6 version. If you are unsure if your computer is running a 64-bit or 32-bit version of Windows, select 64-bit as that is most common.

## Thank You for Downloading Anaconda!

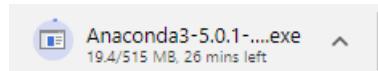
Get Started with the Anaconda Cheat Sheet

Work Email \*

Get the Starter Guide

No Thanks

anaconda



anaconda downloading

!Anaconda select Python 3.6](images/anaconda\_python3\_or\_python2.png)

You may be prompted to enter your email. You can still download Anaconda if you click [No Thanks] and don't enter your Work Email address.

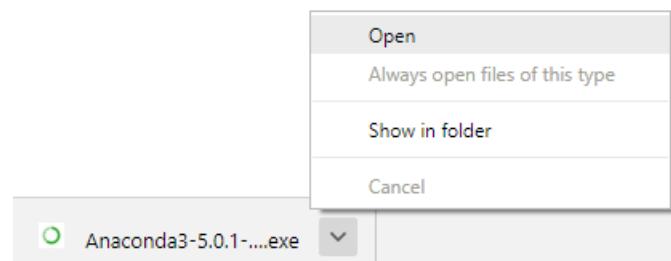
The download is quite large (over 500 MB) so it may take a while to complete

### 4. Open and run the installer

Once the download completes, open and run the .exe installer

At the beginning of the install you will need to click **Next** to confirm the installation and agree to the license

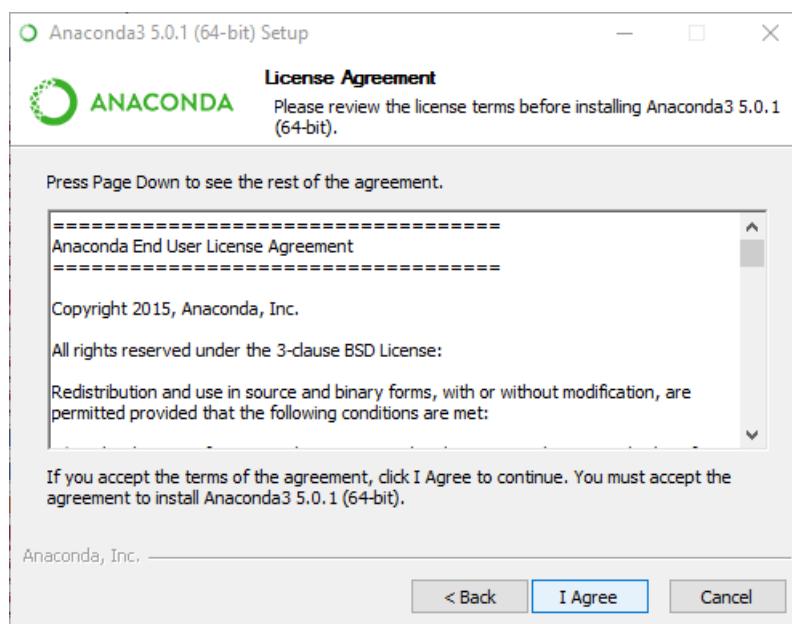
At the Advanced Installation Options screen, I recommend that you **do not check** “Add Anaconda to my PATH environment variable”



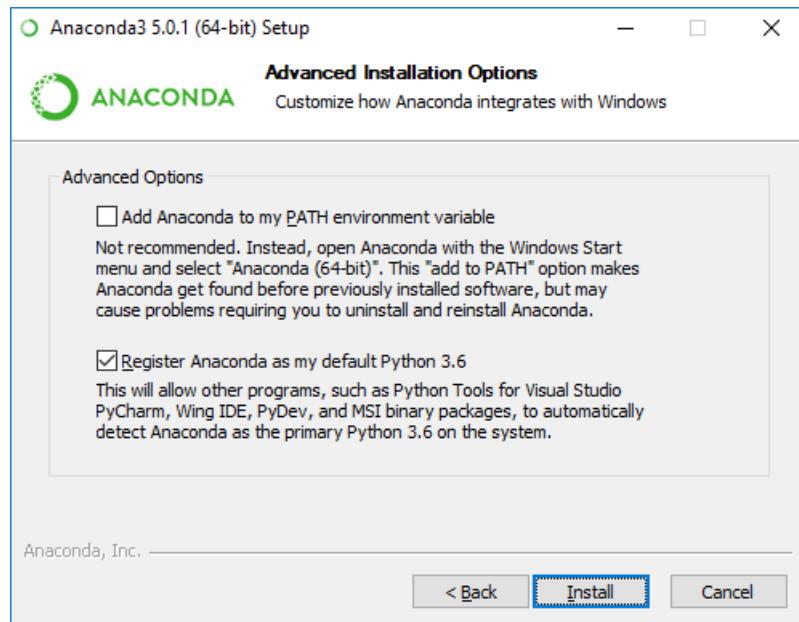
anaconda installer



anaconda installer click next



anaconda license



anaconda path variable

## 5. Open the Conda prompt from the Windows start menu

After the Anaconda install is complete, you can go to the Windows start menu and select the Anaconda Prompt

This will open up the **Anaconda Prompt**, which is often called the **conda prompt**. Anaconda is the Python distribution and the **Anaconda Prompt** is a command line shell (a program where you type in your commands instead of using a mouse). The black screen and text that makes up the **Anaconda Prompt** doesn't look like much, but it is really helpful for an undergraduate engineer using Python.

At the Anaconda prompt, type `python`. This will start the Python interperater, also called the Python REPL (for Read Evaluate Print Loop).

```
> python
```

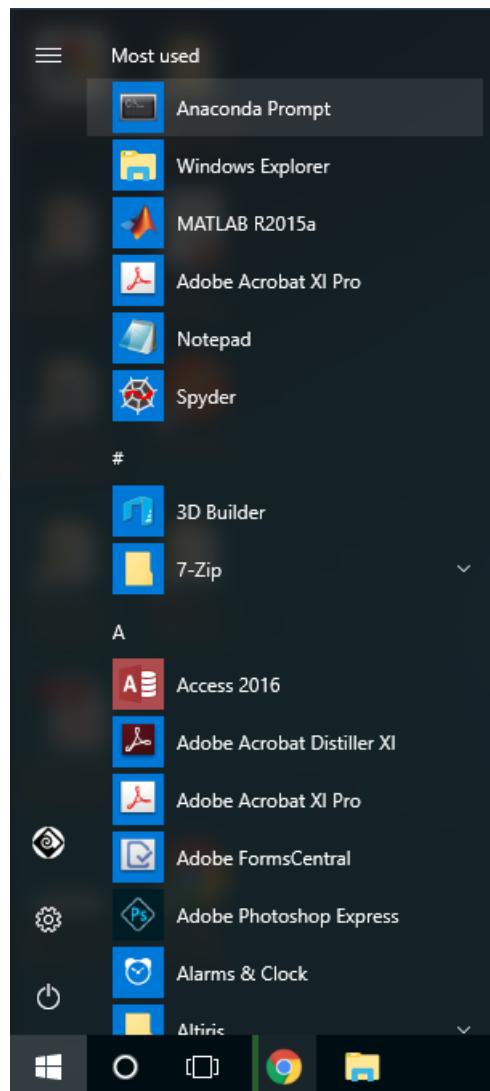
Note the Python version. You should see something like Python 3.6.1. With the interperter running, you will see a set of greater-than symbols `>>>` before the cursor.

Now you can type Python commands. Try typing `import this`. You should see the *Zen of Python* by Tim Peters

To close the Python interperater, type `exit()` at the interperator prompt `>>>`. Note the double parenthesis at the end of the `exit()` command. The `()` is needed to stop the Python interperator and get back out to the **Anaconda Prompt**.

To close the **Anaconda Prompt**, you can either close the window with the mouse, or type `exit`, no parenthesis necessary.

When you want to use the Python interperater again, just click the Windows Start button and select the **Anaconda Prompt** and type `python`.



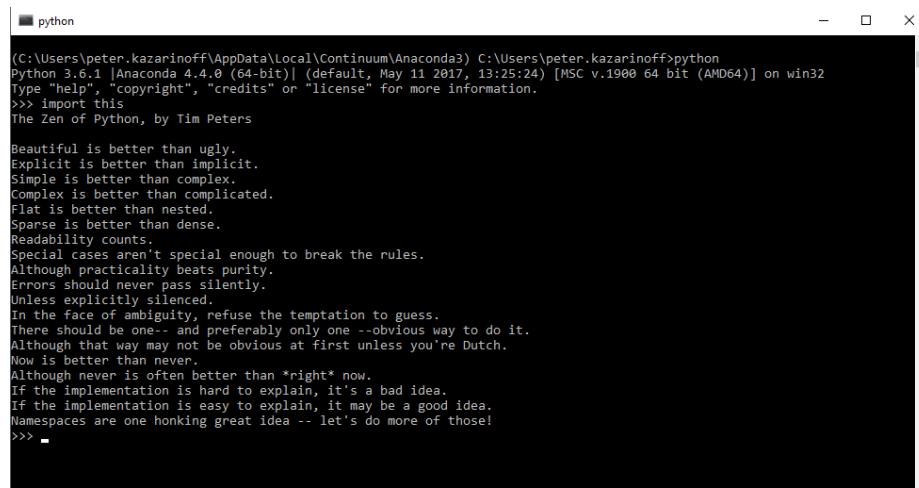
anaconda in start menu

A screenshot of the Anaconda Prompt window. The title bar says "Anaconda Prompt". The command line shows "(C:\Users\peter.kazarinoff\AppData\Local\Continuum\Anaconda3) C:\Users\peter.kazarinoff>python".

conda prompt type python

A screenshot of the Anaconda Prompt window. The title bar says "python". The command line shows "(C:\Users\peter.kazarinoff\AppData\Local\Continuum\Anaconda3) C:\Users\peter.kazarinoff>python". Below that, it displays the Python version information: "Python 3.6.1 |Anaconda 4.4.0 (64-bit)| (default, May 11 2017, 13:25:24) [MSC v.1900 64 bit (AMD64)] on win32". It also shows the Python prompt ">>>".

anaconda prompt



```
(C:\Users\peter.kazarinoff\AppData\Local\Continuum\Anaconda3) C:\Users\peter.kazarinoff>python
Python 3.6.1 |Anaconda 4.4.0 (64-bit)| (default, May 11 2017, 13:25:24) [MSC v.1900 64 bit (AMD64)] on win32
Type "help", "copyright", "credits" or "license" for more information.
>>> import this
The Zen of Python, by Tim Peters

Beautiful is better than ugly.
Explicit is better than implicit.
Simple is better than complex.
Complex is better than complicated.
Flat is better than nested.
Sparse is better than dense.
Readability counts.
Special cases aren't special enough to break the rules.
Although practicality beats purity.
Errors should never pass silently.
Unless explicitly silenced.
In the face of ambiguity, refuse the temptation to guess.
There should be one-- and preferably only one --obvious way to do it.
Although that way may not be obvious at first unless you're Dutch.
Now is better than never.
Although never is often better than *right* now.
If the implementation is hard to explain, it's a bad idea.
If the implementation is easy to explain, it may be a good idea.
Namespaces are one honking great idea -- let's do more of those!
>>>
```

`anaconda_import_this`

## 2.5 Installing Anaconda on MacOS

This section details the installation of the Anaconda Distribution of Python on MacOS. Most versions of MacOS come pre-installed with legacy Python (Version 2.7). You can confirm this legacy version of Python is installed by opening and running a command at the MacOS **terminal**. To open the MacOS terminal use **[command]+[Space Bar]** and type **terminal** in the Spotlight Search bar.

In the MacOS Terminal type (note: the dollar sign \$ is used to indicate the terminal prompt. The dollar sign \$ does not need to be typed):

```
$ python
```

You will most likely see version 2.7 is installed. An issue for MacOS users is that the installed system version of Python has a set of permissions that will not always allow Python to run and may not allow Python to install external packages. Therefore, I recommend the Anaconda Distribution of Python is installed along side the system version of Python that comes with MacOS. You will be able to run Python code using the Anaconda Distribution of Python, and you will be able to install external packages on the Anaconda Distribution of Python.

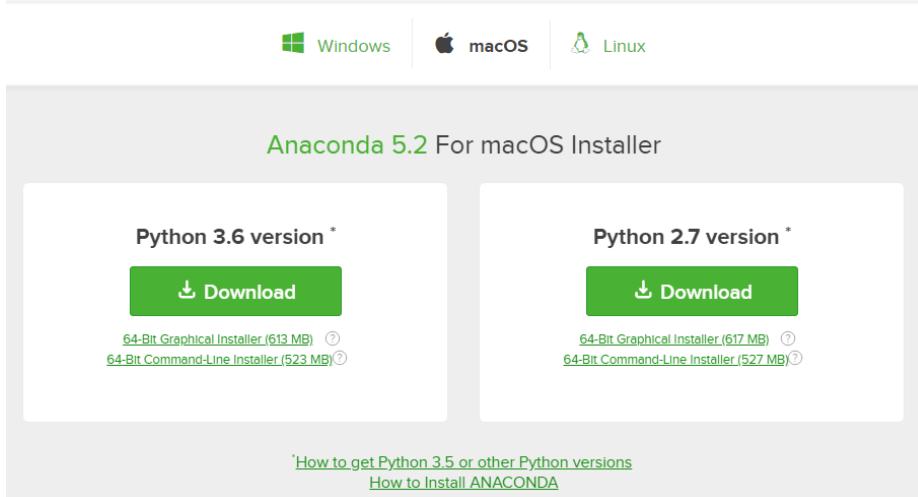
To install the Anaconda Distribution of Python follow the steps below:

### Steps:

1. Visit [Anaconda.com/downloads](https://www.anaconda.com/downloads)
2. Select MacOS and Download the *.pkg* installer
3. Open the *.pkg* installer
4. Follow the installation instructions
5. Source your *.bash-rc* file
6. Open a terminal and type `python` and run some code.



anaconda download page



Anaconda Select Python 3.6

## 1. Visit the Anaconda downloads page

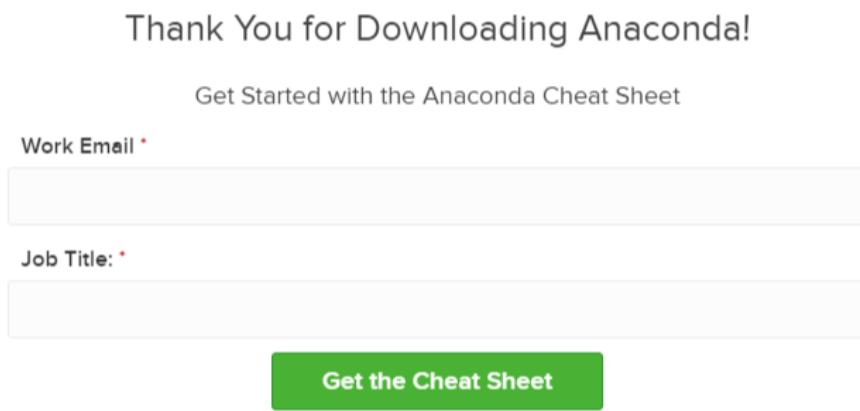
Go to the following link: [Anaconda.com/downloads](https://www.anaconda.com/downloads)

The Anaconda Downloads Page will look something like this:

## 2. Select MacOS and download the .pkg installer

In the operating systems box, select [MacOS]. Then download the most recent Python 3 distribution (at the time of this writing the most recent version is Python 3.6) graphical installer by clicking the Download link. Python 2.7 is legacy Python. For problem solvers, select the most recent Python 3 version.

You may be prompted to enter your email. You can still download Anaconda if you click [No Thanks] or [x] and don't enter your Work Email address.



Thank You for Downloading Anaconda!

Get Started with the Anaconda Cheat Sheet

Work Email \*

Job Title: \*

**Get the Cheat Sheet**

Your information will be processed according to Anaconda's [Privacy Policy](#)

Anaconda ask for email

### 3. Open the .pkg installer

Using the MacOS finder, navigate to the downloads folder and double click the *.pkg* installer file you just downloaded. It may be helpful to order your downloads by date to find the *.pkg* file.

### 4. Follow the installation instructions

Follow the installation instructions. It is advised that you install **Anaconda** for the current user and that **Anaconda is added to your PATH**.

### 5. Source your .bash-rc file

Once Anaconda is installed, you need to load the changes to your PATH environment variable in the current terminal session.

Open the MacOS Terminal and type:

```
$ cd ~  
$ source .bashrc
```

### 6. Open a terminal and type python and run some code.

Open the MacOS Terminal and type:

```
$ python
```

You should see something like

```
Python 3.6.3 | Anaconda Inc. |
```

At the Python REPL (the Python >>> prompt) try:

```
>>> import this
```

If you see the Zen of Python, the installation was successful. Exit out of the Python REPL using `>>> exit()`. Make sure to include the double parenthesis () after the `exit` command.

## 2.6 Installing Anaconda on Linux

This section details the installation of the Anaconda distribution of Python on Linux, specifically Ubuntu 16.04, but the instructions should work for other Debian-based Linux distributions as well.

Ubuntu 16.04 comes pre-installed with Python (Version 3.3) and legacy Python (Version 2.7). You can confirm the legacy version of Python is installed by opening up a terminal.

In the terminal type:

```
$ python
```

You will most likely see version 2.7 is installed. If you enter:

```
$ python3
```

You will most likely see version 3.3 is installed. You can use this version of Python, but each time a new package needs to be downloaded, the `$ pip3 install` command must be used.

Install the Anaconda distribution of Python to follow the examples in the book without the need to install additional third-party packages.

### Steps:

1. Visit [Anaconda.com/downloads](https://www.anaconda.com/download)
2. Select Linux
3. Copy the bash (.sh file) installer link
4. Use `wget` to download the bash installer
5. Run the bash script to install **Anaconda3**
6. `source .bashrc` file to add Anaconda to your PATH
7. Start the Python REPL

### 1. Visit the Anaconda downloads page

Go to the following link: [Anaconda.com/downloads](https://www.anaconda.com/download)

The Anaconda Downloads Page will look something like this:

### 2. Select Linux

On the downloads page, select the Linux operating system



anaconda download page



anaconda\_install\_linux

### 3. Copy the bash (.sh file) installer link

In the **Python 3.6 Version\*** box, right-click on the [64-Bit(x86) Installer] link. Select [copy link address].

### 4. Use wget to download the bash installer

Now that the bash installer (.sh file) link is stored on the clipboard, use wget to download the installer script. In a terminal, cd into the home directory and make a new directory called tmp. cd into tmp and use wget to download the installer. Although the installer is a bash script, it is still quite large and the download will not be immediate.

```
$ cd ~
$ mkdir tmp
$ cd tmp
$ wget https://repo.anaconda.com/archive/Anaconda3-5.2.0-Linux-x86_64.sh
```

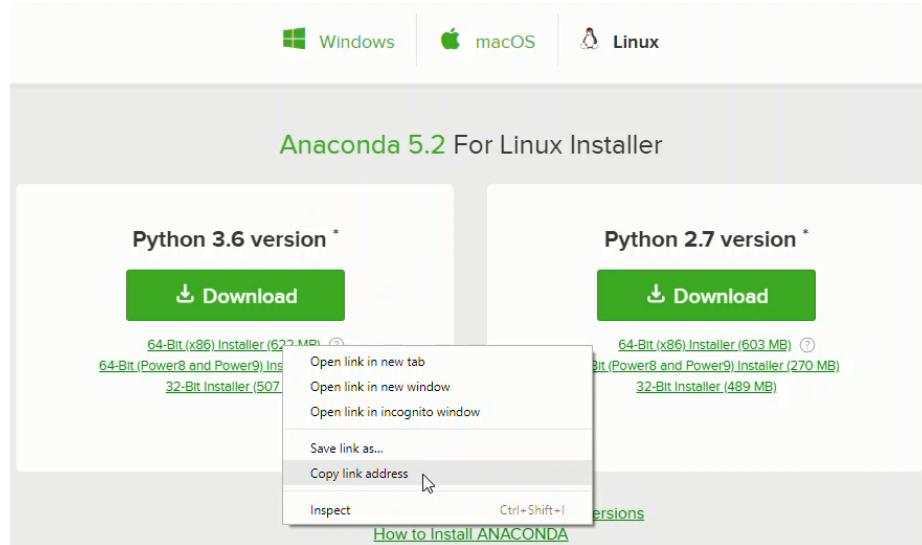
### 5. Run the bash script to install Anaconda3

With the bash installer script downloaded, run the .sh script to install **Anaconda3**. Ensure you are in the directory where the installer script downloaded:

```
$ ls
Anaconda3-5.2.0-Linux-x86_64.sh
```

Run the installer script with bash

```
$ bash Anaconda3-5.2.0-Linux-x86_64.sh
```



Anaconda installation on Linux copy link address

Accept the Licence Agreement and allow Anaconda to be added to your PATH. By adding Anaconda to your PATH the Anaconda distribution of Python will be called when you type \$ python.

#### 6. source the .bash-rc file to add Anaconda to your PATH

Now that **Anaconda3** is installed and **Anaconda3** is added to our PATH, source the .bashrc file to load the new PATH environment variable into the current terminal session. Note the .bashrc file is in the home directory. You can see it with \$ ls -a.

```
$ cd ~
$ source .bashrc
```

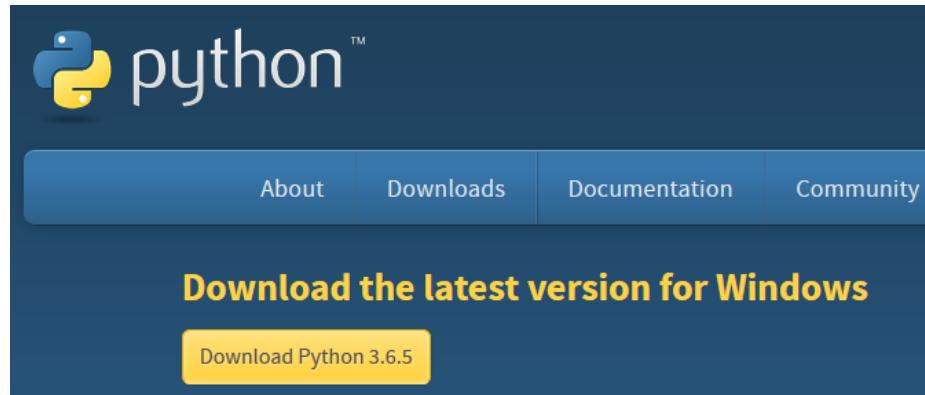
#### 7. Start the Python REPL

To verify the installation is complete, open Python from the command line:

```
$ python
Python 3.6.5 |Anaconda, Inc.| (default, Mar 29 2018, 18:21:58)
[GCC 7.2.0] on linux
Type "help", "copyright", "credits" or "license" for more information.
>>>
```

If you see Python 3.6 from Anaconda listed, your installation is complete. To exit the Python REPL, type:

```
>>> exit()
```



Python.org download for Windows

## 2.7 Installing Python from Python.org

Below are the recommended ways to install a new version of Python from Python.org on the three major operating systems: Windows, MacOS and Linux. This book is based on Python version 3.6. Some of the problems may not work properly on legacy Python (version 2.7). I recommend using the Anaconda Distribution of Python on Windows and MacOSX. The installation of Anaconda was detailed in previous sections.

### Installing Python on Windows

Go to <https://www.python.org/downloads/> and download the latest release. Make sure to select the box [add Python to my path].

### Installing Python on Mac OSX

Go to <https://www.python.org/downloads/mac-osx/> and download the latest release.

### Installing Python on Linux

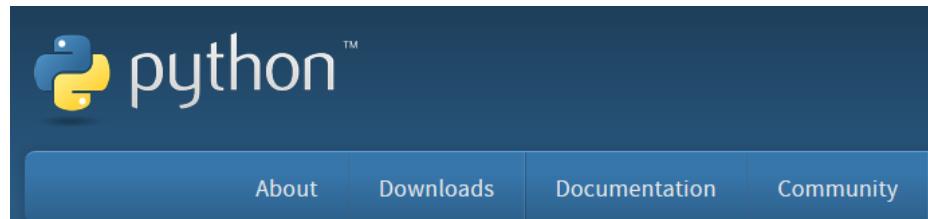
Open a terminal and enter \$ python to see if a version of Python is already installed on the system. If the Python version is 2.7 or below, download the newest release in the apt repositories.

```
$ sudo apt-get python3.6
```

After installation, you will need to append your PATH environment variable to ensure the newly installed Python3.6 version is the version of Python called when using the terminal.

## 2.8 Summary

In this chapter you learned how to install the **Anaconda** distribution of Python on your computer.



Python » Downloads » Mac OS X

## Python Releases for Mac OS X

- [Latest Python 3 Release - Python 3.6.5](#)

Python.org download for MacOS

### Key Terms and Concepts

Anaconda

Download

Install

Python

Operating System

Windows

MacOS

Linux

Terminal

PATH

## 2.9 Review Questions

1. What is Python? How is the Python language different than the Python Interpreter?
2. What is the difference between the version of Python at Python.org and the version of Python at Anaconda.com?
3. Why does the text advise that undergraduate engineers use
- 4.
- 5.
- 6.

7.

# Chapter 3

## The Python REPL

### 3.1 Introduction

By the end of this chapter, you will be able to:

- Open and close the Python REPL
- Compute mathematical calculations using the Python REPL
- Use the output from Python REPL as input in another problem
- Import the math and statistics modules from the standard library and use their functions
- Combine `True` and `False` in logical statements

### 3.2 Python as a Calculator

Python can be used as a calculator to compute arithmetic operations like addition, subtraction, multiplication and division. Python can also be used for trigonometric calculations and statistical calculations.

#### Arithmetic

Python can be used as a calculator to make simple or complex calculations.

We can do this easily with Python at the Python Prompt, also called the Python REPL. REPL stands for Read Evaluate Print Loop. The Python REPL shows three arrow symbols `>>>` after which you will see a blinking cursor. Programmers type commands at the prompt then hit [ENTER] to see the results. The commands are *read* by the interpreter, results of running the commands are *evaluated*, then *printed* to the command window. After the output is printed, a new `>>>` prompt appears on a new line. This process repeats over and over again in a continuous *loop*.

Try the following commands at the Python REPL:

Suppose the mass of a battery is 5 kg and the mass of the battery cables is 3 kg. What is the mass of the battery cable assembly?

```
>>> 5 + 3
8
```

Suppose one of the cables above is removed and it has a mass of 1.5 kg. What is the mass of the left over assembly

```
>>> 8 - 1.5
6.5
```

If the battery has a mass of 5000 g and a volume of  $2500 \text{ cm}^3$  What is the density of the battery? The formula for density is below, where D is density, m is mass and v is volume.

$$D = \frac{m}{v}$$

In the problem above  $m = 5000$  and  $v = 2500$

Let's solve this with Python

```
>>> 5000 / 2500
2.0
```

What if we have 2 batteries that each weight 5 kg? How much mass is two batteries?

```
>>> 5 * 2
10
```

The dimension of the battery of each battery is 3 cm. What is the area of the base of the battery? To do this problems, use the the double asterisk symbol  $**$  to raise a number to a power. This is similar to using  $3^2$ .

```
>>> 3 ** 2
9
```

What is the volume of the battery if each the length, width and height of the battery are all 3 cm?

```
>>> 3 ** 3
27
```

Find the mass of the two batteries, and two cables

We can use Python to find the mass of the batteries and then use the answer, which Python saves as an underscore `_` to use in our next operation. (This is similar to `ans` in MATLAB)

```
>>> 2 * 5
10
>>> _ + 1.5 + 1
12.5
```

## Section Summary

A summary of the arithmetic operations in Python is below:

operator	name	description	example	result
+	addition	adds two numbers	2 + 3	5
-	subtraction	subtracts two numbers	8 - 6	2
-	negation	negative number	-4	-4
*	multiplication	multiplies two numbers	5 * 2	10
/	division	divides two numbers	6 / 3	2
**	exponents	raises a number to a power	10**2	100
_	underscore	returns last saved value	_ + 7	107

## Trig: sin, cos, tan

Trig functions such as sine, cosine and tangent can also be calculated using the Python REPL.

In order to use these functions, we need to introduce a new concept: *importing modules*.

In Python there are many operations built into the language when it starts. These include `+, -, *, /` like we saw in the previous section. However, not all functions will work right away when Python starts. Say we want to find the sine of an angle. Try the following:

```
>>> sin(60)
Traceback (most recent call last):
  File "<stdin>", line 1, in <module>
NameError: name 'sin' is not defined
```

This error is returned because we have not told Python to include the `sin` function. The `sin` function is part of the *Python Standard Library*. The Python Standard Library comes with every python installation and includes many functions, but not all of these functions are available to us when we start a new Python REPL session. In order to use the `sin` function, first import the `sin` function from the `math module` which is part of the Python Standard Library.

Importing modules and functions is easy. Use the following syntax: `from module name import function name`

To import the `sin()` function from the `math` module try:

```
>>> from math import sin
>>> sin(60)
-0.3048106211022167
```

Success! Multiple modules can be imported at the same time. Say we want to use a bunch of different trig functions to solve the following problem.

Angle has a value of  $\pi/6$  radians. What is the sin, cos and tan of the angle?

To solve this problem we need to import the `sin()`, `cos()`, and `tan()` functions. It would also be use full to have the value of  $\pi$ , rather than having to write `3.14....` We can import all of these functions at the same time using the syntax `from <module> import <function1>, <function2>, <function3>`. Note the commas in between the function names.

Try:

```
>>> from math import sin, cos, tan, pi
>>> pi
```

```
3.141592653589793
>>> pi/4
0.7853981633974483
>>> sin(pi/4)
0.7853981633974483
>>> sin(2*pi)
```

## Section Summary

The following trig functions are part of Python's **math** module:

trig function	name	description	example	result
<code>math.pi</code>	<code>pi</code>	mathematical constant $\pi$	<code>math.pi</code>	3.14
<code>math.sin()</code>	<code>sine</code>	sine of an angle in radians	<code>math.sin(4)</code>	9.025
<code>math.cos()</code>	<code>cosine</code>	cosine of an angle in radians	<code>cos(3.1)</code>	400
<code>math.tan()</code>	<code>tangent</code>	tangent of an angle in radians	<code>tan(100)</code>	2.0
<code>math.asin()</code>	<code>arc sine</code>	inverse sine, output in radians	<code>math.sin(4)</code>	9.025
<code>math.acos()</code>	<code>arc cosine</code>	inverse cosine, output in radians	<code>log(3.1)</code>	400
<code>math.atan()</code>	<code>arc tangent</code>	inverse tangent, output in radians	<code>atan(100)</code>	2.0
<code>math.radians()</code>	radians conversion	degrees to radians	<code>math.radians(90)</code>	1.57
<code>math.degrees()</code>	degree conversion	radians to degrees	<code>math.degrees(2)</code>	114.59

## Exponents and Logarithms

It is easy to calculate exponents and logarithms with Python. Note that exponent and logarithm functions need to be imported from the **math** module just like the trig functions were imported from the **math** module above.

The following functions can be imported from the math module:

- `log`
- `log10`
- `exp`
- `e`
- `pow(x,y)`
- `sqrt`

Let's try a couple of examples

```
>>> from math import log, log10, exp, e, pow, sqrt
>>> log(3.0*e**3.4)          # note: natural log
4.4986122886681095
```

A right triangle has side lengths 3 and 4. What is the length of the hypotenuse?

```
>>> sqrt(3**2 + 4**2)
5.0
```

The power function `pow()` works like the `**` operator to raise a number to a power.

```
>>> 5**2
25

>>> pow(5,2)
25.0
```

## Section Summary

The following exponent and logarithm functions are part of the **math** module:

math module function	name	description	example	result
math.e	euler's number	mathematical constant $e$	math.e	2.718
math.exp()	exponent	$e$ raised to a power	math.exp(2.2)	9.025
math.log()	natural logerithm	log base e	math.log(3.1)	400
math.log10()	base 10 logerithm	log base 10	math.log10(100)	2.0
math.pow()	exponents	raises a number to a power	math.pow(2,3)	8.0
math.sqrt()	square root	square root of a number	math.sqrt(16)	4.0

## Staticstics

To round out this section, we will look at a couple of statistics functions. These functions are part of the Python Standard Library, but not part of the **math** module. To access Python's statistics functions, we need to import them from the **statistics** module using the statement `from statistics import mean, median, mode, stdev`. Then the functions `mean`, `median`, `mode` and `stdev`(standard deviation) can be used.

```
>>> from statistics import mean, median, mode, stdev

>>> test_scores = [ 60 , 83, 83, 91, 100]

>>> mean(test_scores)
83.4

>>> median(test_scores)
83

>>> mode(test_scores)
83

>>> stdev(test_scores)
14.842506526863986
```

Alternatively, we can import the whole **statistics** module using the statement `import statistics`. Then to use the functions, we need to use the names `statistics.mean`, `statistics.median`, `statistics.mode`, and `statistics.stdev`. See below:

```
>>> import statistics
```

```
>>> test_scores = [ 60 , 83, 83, 91, 100]

>>> statistics.mean(test_scores)
83.4

>>> statistics.median(test_scores)
83

>>> statistics.mode(test_scores)
83

>>> statistics.stdev(test_scores)
14.842506526863986
```

## Staticstics

To round out this section, we will look at a couple of statistics functions. These functions are part of the Python Standard Library, but not part of the `math` module. To access Python's statistics functions, we need to import them from the `statistics` module using the statement `from statistics import mean, median, mode, stdev`. Then the functions `mean`, `median`, `mode` and `stdev`(standard deviation) can be used.

```
>>> from statistics import mean, median, mode, stdev

>>> test_scores = [ 60 , 83, 83, 91, 100]

>>> mean(test_scores)
83.4

>>> median(test_scores)
83

>>> mode(test_scores)
83

>>> stdev(test_scores)
14.842506526863986
```

Alternatively, we can import the whole `statistics` module using the statement `import statistics`. Then to use the functions, we need to use the names `statistics.mean`, `statistics.median`, `statistics.mode`, and `statistics.stdev`. See below:

```
>>> import statistics

>>> test_scores = [ 60 , 83, 83, 91, 100]

>>> statistics.mean(test_scores)
83.4
```

```
>>> statistics.median(test_scores)
83

>>> statistics.mode(test_scores)
83

>>> statistics.stdev(test_scores)
14.842506526863986
```

### Section Summary

The following functions are part of the **statistics** module:

statistics module function	name	description	example	result
mean()	mean	mean or average	mean([1,4,5,5])	3.75
median()	median	middle value	median([1,4,5,5])	4.5
mode()	mode	most often	mode([1,4,5,5])	5
stdev()	standard deviation	spread of data	stdev([1,4,5,5])	1.892
variance()	variance	variance of data	variance([1,4,5,5])	3.583

## 3.3 Variables

Variables are assigned in Python using the = equals sign also called the assignment operator. The statement:

```
a = 2
```

Assigns the integer 2 to the variable a. Note this is different from the logical operator == equivalent to.

```
>>> a = 2
>>> a
2

>>> a == 2
True
```

Problem: The Arrhenius relationship states that

$$n = n_v e^{-Q_v / (RT)}$$

We can use variables to assign a value to each one of the constants in the problem.

```
>>> nv = 2.0**(-0.3)
>>> Qv = 5
>>> R = 3.18
>>> T = 293
```

```
>>> n = nv*e**(-1*Qv/(R*T))
>>> n
0.8079052775625613
```

## 3.4 Boolean Arithmetic

*Boolean Arithmetic* is the arithmetic of true and false logic. A *boolean* or logical value can either be `True` or `False`.

```
>>> A = True
>>> B = False

>>> A
True

>>> B
False

>>> A or B
True

>>> A and B
False

>>> not A
False

>>> not B
True

>>> A == B
False

>>> A != B
True

>>> C = False
>>> A or (C and B)
True
>>> (A and B) or C
False
```

## 3.5 String Operations

Some operations we can do on strings include indexing, concatenation, and logical comparisions

## Indexing

```
>>> word = 'Solution'
>>> word[0]
'S'
>>> word[2]
'1'
>>> word[-1]
'n'
>>> word[0:3]
'Sol'
>>> word[:]
'Solution'
>>> word[-3:-1] #not including ending
'io'
>>> word[0:8:2] #start:stop+1:countby
'Slto'
>>> word[::-1] # start=not specified :stop=not specified:step=-1
'soituloS'
```

## 3.6 Print Statements

The `print()` function useful in Python. Below is a code example:

```
>>> name = Kendra
>>> print('Your name is: ')
Your name is
>>> print(name)
Kendra
```

## 3.7 Summary

This is the text summary for the chapter. Will be about half a page long

Lorem ipsum dolor sit amet, consectetur adipiscing elit, sed do eiusmod tempor incididunt ut labore et dolore magna aliqua. Ut enim ad minim veniam, quis nostrud exercitation ullamco laboris nisi ut aliquip ex ea commodo consequat. Duis aute irure dolor in reprehenderit in voluptate velit esse cillum dolore eu fugiat nulla pariatur. Excepteur sint occaecat cupidatat non proident, sunt in culpa qui officia deserunt mollit anim id est laborum.

## Key Terms and Concepts

---

### Key Terms and Concepts

---

REPL  
 Operator  
 Mathematical Operator  
 Command Line  
 Error  
 Module  
 Standard Library  
 Import

---

## Summary of Python Functions and Commands

Below is a summary of the functions and operators used in this chapter:

### Arithmetic

Arithmetic Operators	description
+	Addition
-	Subtraction
*	Multiplication
/	Division
**	Exponents
-	answer in memory

### Trigonometry

Trig Function	Description
from math import *	
sin	sine of angle in radians
cos	cosine of angle in radians
tan	tangent of angle in radians
pi	$\pi$
degress	convert radians to degress
radians	convert degrees to radians
asin	inverse sine
acos	inverse cosine
atan	inverse tangent

### Logarithms and Exponents

Logarithms and Exponent Function	Description
from math import *	

Logarithms and Exponent Function	Description
log	log base e, natural log
log10	log base 10
exp	$e^{power}$
e	the math constant $e$
pow(x,y)	x raised to the y power
sqrt	square root

**Statistics**

Statistical Function	Description
from statistics import *	
mean	mean (average)
median	median (middle value)
mode	(most often)
stdev	standard deviation of a sample
pstdev	standard deviation of a population

**3.8 Review Questions**

- 2.1
- 2.2
- 2.3
- 2.4
- 2.5
- 2.6
- 2.7
- 2.8
- 2.9
- 2.10



# Chapter 4

# Python Data Types and Variables

## 4.1 Introduction

Python has many builtin data types. These include integers, floats, boolean, strings, and lists.

By the end of this chapter you will be able to:

- Use the `type()` function to determine an object's type
- Define variables in Python with the assignment operator `=`
- Complete mathematical calculations with variables
- Complete logical evaluations with variables
- Convert variables from one data type to another

## 4.2 Numeric Data Types

Python has many useful built in data types. Python variables can store different types of data. A variable's data type is created dynamically, without the need to specifically define a data type when the variable is created. It's useful for problem solvers to understand a couple of Python's core data types in order to write well-constructed code. Below is a discussion of a few different data types in Python.

### Integers

Integers are one of the Python data types. An integer is a whole number, negative, positive or zero. In Python, integer variables are defined by simply assigning a whole number to a variable. Python's `type()` function can be used to determine the data type of a variable.

```
>>> a = 5
>>> type(a)
<class 'int'>
```

```
>>> b = -2
>>> type(b)
<class 'int'>
>>> z = 0
>>> type(z)
<class 'int'>
```

## Floating Point Numbers

Floating point numbers or *floats* are another Python data type. Floats are decimals, positive, negative and zero. Floats can also be numbers in scientific notation which contain exponents. Both a lower case e or an upper case E work to define floats in scientific notation. In Python, a float can be defined using a decimal point . when a variable is assigned.

```
>>> c = 6.2
>>> type(c)
<class 'float'>
>>> d = -0.03
>>> type(d)
<class 'float'>
>>> Na = 6.02e23
>>> Na
6.02e+23
>>> type(Na)
<class 'float'>
```

To define a variable is a float instead of an integer, even if it is assigned a whole number, a trailing decimal point . is used. Note the difference when a decimal point . comes after a whole number:

```
>>> g = 5
>>> type(g)
<class 'int'>
>>> g = 5.
>>> type(g)
<class 'float'>
```

## Complex numbers

Another useful data type for problem solvers are complex numbers. A complex number is defined in Python using a real component + an imaginary component j. The letter j must be used in the imaginary component. Using the letter i will return an error. Note how imaginary numbers can be added to integers and floats.

```
>>> comp = 4 + 2j
>>> type(comp)
<class 'complex'>

>>> comp2 = 4 + 2i
^
SyntaxError: invalid syntax
```

```
>>> intgr = 3
>>> type(intgr)
<class 'int'>

>>> comp_sum = comp + intgr
>>> print(comp_sum)
(7+2j)

>>> flt = 2.1
>>> comp_sum = comp + flt
>>> print(comp_sum)
(6.1+2j)
```

## 4.3 Boolean Data Type

The *boolean* data type is either True or False. In Python, boolean variables are defined by the True and False key words.

```
>>> a = True
>>> type(a)
<class 'bool'>

>>> b = False
>>> type(b)
<class 'bool'>
```

Note that True and False must have an Upper Case first letter. Using a lowercase true returns an error.

```
>> c = true
Traceback (most recent call last):
  File "<input>", line 1, in <module>
NameError: name 'true' is not defined
d = false
Traceback (most recent call last):
  File "<input>", line 1, in <module>
NameError: name 'false' is not defined
```

### Ints and Floats as Booleans

An int, float or complex number set to zero will always return False. An int, float or complex number set to any other number, positive or negative, will return True.

```
>>> zero_int = 0
>>> bool(zero_int)
False
```

```
>>> pos_int = 1
>>> bool(pos_int)
True

>>> neg_flt = -5.1
>>> bool(neg_flt)
True
```

## 4.4 Strings

Strings are sequences of letters, numbers, symbols and spaces. In Python, strings can be almost any length and can contain spaces. String variables are assigned in Python using quotation marks ' '. Strings can contain blank spaces. A blank space is a valid string character in Python string.

```
>>> string = 'z'
>>> type(string)
<class 'str'>

>>> string = 'Engineers'
>>> type(string)
<class 'str'>
```

### Numbers as Strings

Numbers and decimals can be defined as strings too. If a decimal number is defined using quotes ' ', it will be saved as a string rather than as a float. Integers defined using quotes will become strings as well if surrounded with quotes.

```
>>> num = '5.2'
>>> type(num)
<class 'str'>

>>> num = '2'
>>> type(num)
<class 'str'>
```

## 4.5 Lists

A list is a data structure in Python that can contain multiple elements of any of the other data type. A list is defined with square brackets [ ] and commas , between elements.

```
>>> lst = [ 1, 2, 3 ]
>>> type(lst)
list
```

```
>>> lst = [ 1, 5.3, '3rd_Element']
>>> type(lst)
list
```

## Indexing Lists

Individual elements of a list can be accessed or *indexed* using bracket [ ] notation. Note that Python lists start with the index zero, not the index 1. For example:

```
>>> lst = ['statics', 'strengths', 'dynamics']
>>> lst[0]
'statics'

>>> lst[1]
'strengths'

>>> lst[2]
'dynamics'
```

Remember! Python lists start indexing at [0] not at [1]. To call the elements in a list with 3 values use: lst[0], lst[1], lst[2].

Colons : are used inside the brackets to denote *all*

```
>>> lst = [2, 4, 6]
>>> lst[:]
[2, 4, 6]
```

Negative numbers can be used as indexes to call the last number of elements in the list

```
>>> lst = [2, 4, 6]
>>> lst[-1]
6
```

The colon operator can also be used to denote *all upto* and *from thru end*.

```
>>> lst = [2, 4, 6]
>>> lst[:2]
[2, 4]
```

```
lst = [2, 4, 6]
lst[2:]
[6]
```

The colon operator can also be used to denote *start : end + 1*. Note that the indexing here is not inclusive. lst[1:3] will return the 2nd element, and 3rd element but not the fourth even though the 3 is used in the index.

Remember! Python indexing is not inclusive. The last element called in an index will not be returned.

## 4.6 Dictionaries and Tuples

Besides lists, Python has two additional data structures that can store multiple objects. These are **dictionaries** and **tuples**.

### Dictionaries

Dictionaries are made up of key: value pairs

### Tuples

Tuples are immutable lists. Elements of a list can be modified, but elements in a tuple can only be accessed, not modified. The name tuple does not mean that only two values can be stored.

## 4.7 Summary

In this chapter we reviewed a couple of different data types built-in to Python

### Key Terms and Concepts

- variable
- integer
- floating point number
- boolean
- dictionary
- tuple
- list
- index, indexing

### Summary of Python Functions and Commands

#### Built-in Data Types

Python Object	Description
int	integer
float	floating point number
bool	boolean value: True or False
complex	complex number, real and imaginary components
str	string, sequence of letters, numbers and symbols
list	a Python list

Python Object	Description
<code>dict</code>	a Python dictionary
<code>tuple</code>	an immutable list

**Python Functions**

Function	Description
<code>type()</code>	outputs a variable or objects data type
<code>len()</code>	return the length of a string
<code>str()</code>	converts a <code>float</code> or <code>int</code> into a <code>str</code> (string)
<code>int()</code>	converts a <code>float</code> or <code>str</code> into an <code>int</code> (integer)
<code>float()</code>	converts an <code>int</code> or <code>str</code> into an <code>float</code> (floating point number)

**Python List Operators**

Operator	Description	Example	Result
[ ]	indexing	<code>lst[1]</code>	4
:	start	<code>lst[:2]</code>	[ 2, 4 ]
:	end	<code>lst[2:]</code>	[ 6, 8 ]
:	through	<code>lst[0:3]</code>	[ 2, 4, 6 ]

**4.8 Review Questions**

1. Question 1
2. Question 2
- 3.
- 4.
- 5.
- 6.
- 7.
- 8.
- 9.



# **Chapter 5**

## **Jupyter Notebooks**

### **5.1 Introduction**

In this chapter you will learn:

- What a Jupyter Notebook is
- How to open a Jupyter Notebook
- How to write code in a Jupyter Notebook
- How to run code in a Jupyter Notebook
- How to write text in a Jupyter Notebook
- How to save and close a Jupyter Notebook

### **5.2 What is a Jupyter Notebook?**

A Jupyter notebook is sort of half way between the Python REPL and a Python module .py file.

Jupyter notebooks run in a web browser like Google Chrome where as .py files are edited with a text editor like notepad. Regular .py files only contain Python commands and comments. Jupyter notebooks contain two types of cells: code cells and markdown cells. Lines of Python code are run in code cells. Markdown cells contain comment like descriptions to describe code cells.

### **5.3 Why Jupyter Notebooks?**

There is a vast array of editors and IDE's (Integrated Development Environments) which can be used to edit and run Python code. Why should engineers learn to use Jupyter Notebooks?

Below is a table of simple text editors and IDE's which can be used to edit and run Python code:

---

### Text Editors

---

Notepad  
Idle  
Vim  
Sublime Text  
Atom

---

---

### IDE's

---

PyCharm  
Visual Studio Code  
Spyder

---

Jupyter Notebooks provide a quick and streamlined way for engineers to prototype code and quickly share code. Jupyter notebooks also provide a way for engineers to share solutions with team members, supervisors and customers.

## 5.4 Installing Jupyter

To install **Jupyter Notebooks**, the simplest way is to use the **Anaconda** distribution of Python. Anaconda has **Jupyter Notebooks** pre-installed and no further steps are necessary.

### Installing Jupyter on Windows

To install jupyter on Windows, open the Anaconda prompt and type:

```
> conda install jupyter
```

Type y for yes when prompted.

### Installing Jupyter on Mac OSX

To install jupyter on Mac OSX, open the OSX terminal and type:

```
$ conda install jupyter
```

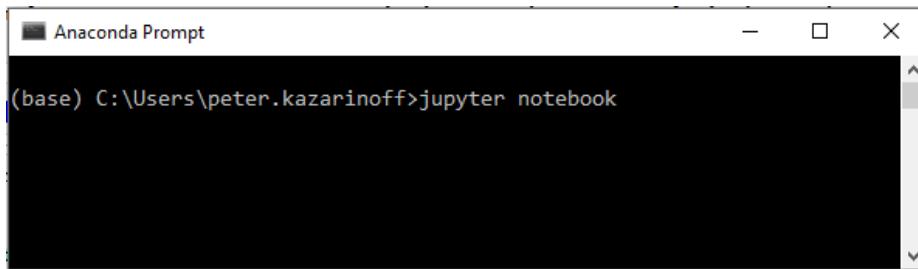
Type y for yes when prompted.

### Installing Jupyter on Ubuntu Linux

To install jupyter on Ubuntu Linux, open a terminal and type:

```
$ conda install jupyter
```

Type y for yes when prompted.



Anaconda Prompt Jupyter Notebook

## 5.5 Opening a Jupyter Notebook

One simple way to open a jupyter notebook on Windows is to click the Windows Start Button in the lower left-hand corner, select the Anaconda Folder, and click Jupyter Notebook.

### Open a Jupyter Notebook from the Anaconda prompt

To Open a Jupyter notebook from the Anaconda prompt, first open the Anaconda prompt, then type:

```
> jupyter notebook
```

This will produce output in the Anaconda Prompt Window which looks something like:

A webbrowser will open and something which looks kind of like a file browser will be shown:

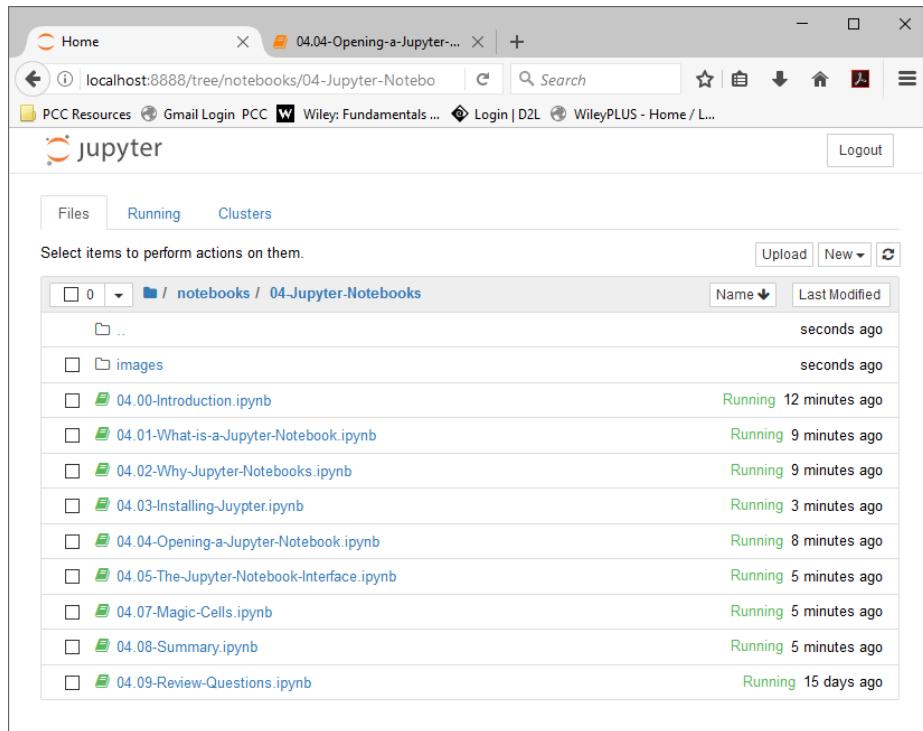
Here you can select an existing jupyter notebook file which will end with the .ipynb extension (which stands for IPython Notebook). You can also start a new Jupyter Notebook my clicking the [New] button in the upper right and selecting [Python 3]

## 5.6 The Jupyter Notebook Interface

When a new notebook opens, you will see the Jupyter Notebook interface. Across the top of the notebook will be the Jupyter icon and the Notebook name. You can click in the notebook name field and change the name of the notebook. Note that the file extension .ipynb is not printed in the file name field, but if you look in the Home tab, you will see that the notebook is saved with the .ipynb extension.

### Menus and Buttons

A jupyter notebook is comprised of a bunch of cells which are arrayed one after another in boxes below the menu items and buttons. There are two main types of cells: Markdown cells and Code cells.



Jupyter File Browser

## Code Cells

In code cells you can type Python Code and see the output. An example of a code cell is shown below. Note that the code cell has an the text In [ ] to the left of it.

To run the code in a code cell push the [Run] button or type [Shift]+[Enter]

## Markdown Cells

In markdown cells you can type text and headings. Markdown cells are used for documentation and explaining your code. The text in a markdown cell is not executed. Markdown cells can be formatted with a few special characters

### Headings

```
# H1 Heading
## H2 Heading
### H3 Heading
#### H4 Heading
```

## Code Blocks

For inline code blocks use the ' left quote character, the character to the left of the number 1 and above tab on most keyboards.

This is inline code: ' ' ' Inline code block ' ' ' within a paragraph

For separate code blocks use three ' left quote characters on one line, followed by the code block on separate lines. Terminate the separate code block with a line of three ' left quote characters.

'''

Separated code blocks

'''

## Bold and italics

**Bold** and *italic* font is displayed by surrounding text with a double asterisk for **\*\*bold\*\*** and a single underscore for italics

**\*\*bold\*\*** produces **bold**

italics produces *italics*

**\*\*\_bold** and *italic\_\*\** produces **bold and italic**

## Tables

Tables are displayed using the pipe | character, which is [Shift]+[\] on most keyboards. Columns are separated by pipes and rows are separated by lines. After the header row, a row of pipes and dashes are needed to define the table.

```
| header1 | header 2 | header 3 |
| --- | --- | --- |
| col 1 | col 2 | col 3 |
| col 1 | col 2 | col 3 |
```

produces:

header1	header 2	header 3
col 1	col 2	col 3
col 1	col 2	col 3

## Bullet Points and Lists

Bullet points are produced using the asterisk character \*

```
* item 1
* item 2
* item 3
```

produces

- item 1
- item 2

Numbered lists are produced using sequential numbers followed by a dot. Indent sub-items with two spaces.

```
1. First item
2. Second item
3. Third item
  1. sub item
  2. sub item
    1. sub-sub item
    2. sub-sub item
```

produces

```
1. First item
2. Second item
3. Third item
  4. sub item
  5. sub item
    1. sub-sub item
    2. sub-sub item
```

## Horizontal Rule

A horizontal rule is specified with three asterisks on a single line.

\*\*\*

produces

---

## Links

Hyperlinks are specified using a set of square brackets [ ] followed by pair of parenthesis ( ). The text inside the square brackets will be the link, the link address goes in the parenthesis

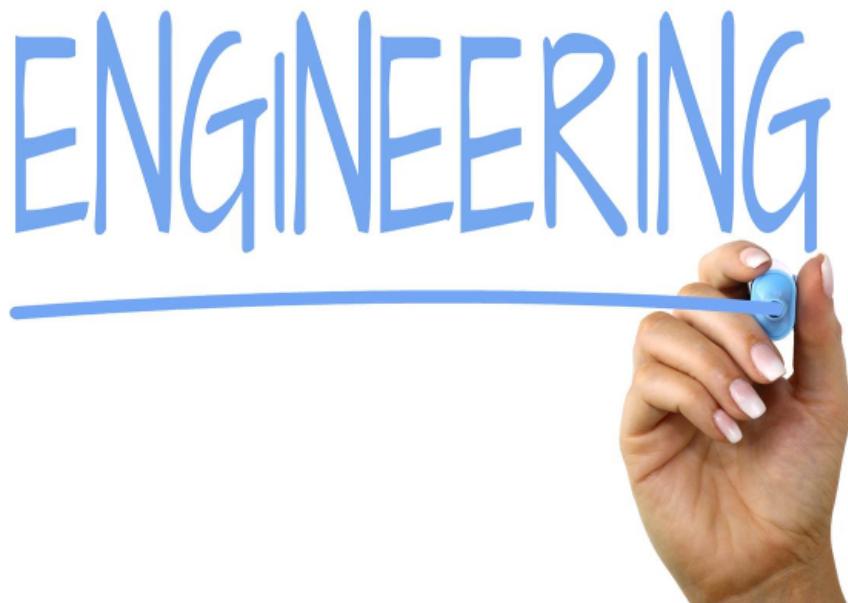
```
[link to docs](https://docs.python.org/3/)
```

produces

[link to docs](https://docs.python.org/3/)

## Images

Images are embedded in Jupyter Notebook markdown using the exclamation point and square brackets ! [ ], followed by the image file path in parenthesis ( ). If the image can not be displayed,



Python Logo

the text in square brackets will be shown. The image can be in the same directory as the notebook, or a relative path can be specified. In this case the image `engineering.png` is stored in the `images` directory, which is a subdirectory of the directory the notebook is saved in.

```
! [Python Logo](images/engineering.png)
```

produces

### LaTeX Math

LaTeX Math equations and symbols are rendered by markdown cells. A more extensive list of LaTeX commands can be found in the appendix.

```
$$ \int_a^b \frac{1}{x^2} dx $$
```

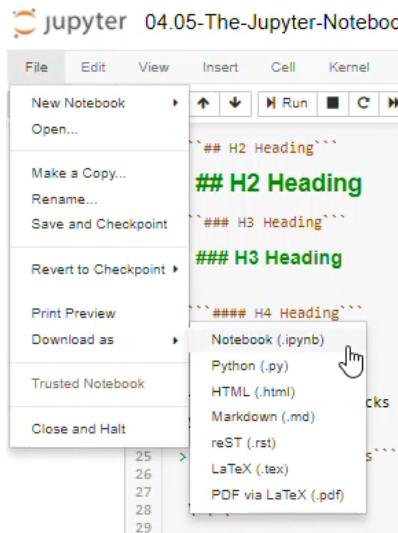
produces

$$\int_a^b \frac{1}{x^2} dx$$

### html

Because jupyter notebooks are rendered by web browsers, just about any html tag can be included in the markdown portion of a notebook. An example is the `<sup></sup>` tags that surround super script text

```
x<sup>2</sup>
```



Jupyter Notebook Export Options

produces

x2

Text can be colored using html <font> </font> tags

```
<font color=red>Red Text</font>
```

produces

Red Text

### warning boxes

bootstrap style warning boxes can be included in jupyter notebook markdown using <div> tags

```
<div class="alert alert-danger" role="alert">
  <strong>Warning!</strong> Python lists start at 0
</div>
```

produces

Warning! Python lists start at 0

## Saving Jupyter Notebooks in Other Formats

Jupyter notebooks can be saved in other formats besides the native .ipynb format. These formats can be accessed on the [File] → [Download As] menu.

The available file types are:

- Notebook (.ipynb) - The native jupyter notebook format



The screenshot shows a Jupyter Notebook interface. The title bar says "jupyter creat\_sec\_names\_dict.py 04/03/2018". The menu bar includes File, Edit, View, Language, and Python. The code cell contains the following Python code:

```

1 # coding: utf-8
2
3 # ## Tool to remove dashes from names of files and put in a dictionary where:
4 #
5 # Key: Filename-with-dashes-and-extensions, Value: Name with no dashes or extensions
6
7 # In[86]:
8
9
10 import os
11
12 # In[87]:
13
14
15 os.getcwd
16
17 # In[88]:
18
19
20 os.getcwd()
21
22 # In[89]:
23
24
25 os.pardir

```

### Markdown Cells as Comments

- Python (.py) - The native Python code file type.
- HTML (.html) - A web page
- Markdown (.md) - Markdown format
- reST (.rst) - Restructured text format
- LaTeX (.tex) - LaTeX Article format
- PDF via LaTeX - a pdf exported from LaTeX, requires a converter

When a Notebook is saved as a .py file, any text in Markdown Cells are converted to comments, and any code cells are kept as Python code.

The .py file after this notebook is Downloaded as a Python(.py) looks like:

## 5.7 Magic Cells

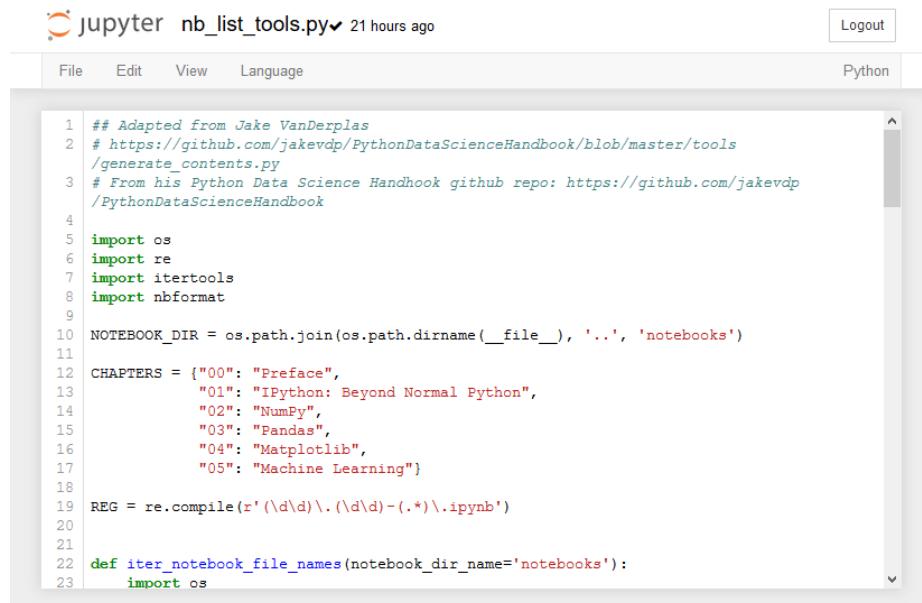
Jupyter notebook code cells can contain special commands which are not valid Python code, but will affect the behavior of the notebook

### %matplotlib inline

One of the most popular magic commands is:

```
%matplotlib inline
```

Using this command at the top of a jupyter notebook will produce matplotlib plots in cells of the notebook. Without %matplotlib inline, plots will jump out as external windows. A typical start to a jupyter notebook using **matplotlib** might start as:



The screenshot shows a Jupyter Notebook interface. At the top, there's a toolbar with a logo, the text "jupyter nb\_list\_tools.py", and a timestamp "21 hours ago". To the right of the toolbar is a "Logout" button. Below the toolbar is a menu bar with "File", "Edit", "View", "Language", and a "Python" tab. The main area contains a code cell with the following Python code:

```

1 ## Adapted from Jake Vanderplas
2 # https://github.com/jakevdp/PythonDataScienceHandbook/blob/master/tools
3 # From his Python Data Science Handbook github repo: https://github.com/jakevdp/
4 # /PythonDataScienceHandbook
5
6 import os
7 import re
8 import itertools
9 import nbformat
10
11 NOTEBOOK_DIR = os.path.join(os.path.dirname(__file__), '..', 'notebooks')
12
13 CHAPTERS = {"00": "Preface",
14             "01": "IPython: Beyond Normal Python",
15             "02": "NumPy",
16             "03": "Pandas",
17             "04": "Matplotlib",
18             "05": "Machine Learning"}
19
20 REG = re.compile(r'(\d\d)\.(\d\d)-(.*).ipynb')
21
22 def iter_notebook_file_names(notebook_dir_name='notebooks'):
23     import os

```

Image of Notebook

```

import numpy as np
import pandas as pd
import matplotlib.pyplot as plt
%matplotlib inline

```

## %run

The `%run` magic command followed by the name of a python file will run the current python file as a script. Suppose the file `hello.py` is created in the same directory as the running jupyter notebook. The directory structure will look something like this:

```

| folder
---| notebook.ipynb
---| hello.py

```

In the file `hello.py` is the code:

```

print('This code was run from a seperate Python file')
print('Hello from the file hello.py')

```

Within our jupyter notebook, if we `%run` this file, we will get the output of or `hello.py` script in a jupyter notebook output cell.

In [3]: `%run hello.py`

```

This code was run from a seperate Python file
Hello from the file hello.py

```

In [10]: %pwd

Out[10]: 'C:\\\\Users\\\\peter.kazarinoff\\\\Documents\\\\book\\\\notebooks\\\\04-Jupyter-Notebooks'

In [11]: %ls

```
Volume in drive C is Windows
Volume Serial Number is A048-4C53
```

```
Directory of C:\\\\Users\\\\peter.kazarinoff\\\\Documents\\\\book\\\\notebooks\\\\04-Jupyter-Notebooks
```

```
04/19/2018  06:01 PM    <DIR>        .
04/19/2018  06:01 PM    <DIR>        ..
04/18/2018  12:24 PM    <DIR>        .ipynb_checkpoints
04/18/2018  12:17 PM            1,164 04.00-Introduction.ipynb
04/18/2018  12:21 PM            1,125 04.01-What-is-a-Jupyter-Notebook.ipynb
04/18/2018  12:21 PM            1,477 04.02-Why-Jupyter-Notebooks.ipynb
04/18/2018  12:26 PM            1,901 04.03-Installing-Jupyter.ipynb
04/18/2018  02:37 PM            2,029 04.04-Opening-a-Jupyter-Notebook.ipynb
04/19/2018  07:23 AM            4,196 04.05-The-Jupyter-Notebook-Interface.ipynb
04/19/2018  06:01 PM            11,102 04.07-Magic-Cells.ipynb
04/18/2018  12:24 PM            1,325 04.08-Summary.ipynb
04/03/2018  04:11 PM            970 04.09-Review-Questions.ipynb
04/19/2018  05:53 PM            94 hello.py
04/18/2018  02:36 PM    <DIR>        images
                           10 File(s)       25,383 bytes
                           4 Dir(s)   133,241,610,240 bytes free
```

## Other usefull magic commands

Other usefull magic commands are:

magic command	result
%pwd	print the current working directory
%cd	change the current working directory
%ls	list the contents of the current directory
%history	the history of the In [ ]: commands

You can list all of the available magic commands by typing and running %lsmagic in a jupyter notebook code cell:

In [12]: %lsmagic

Out[12]: Available line magics:

```
%alias  %alias_magic  %autocall  %automagic  %autosave  %bookmark  %cd  %clear  %cls  %
```

```
Available cell magics:
%%! %%HTML %%SVG %%bash %%capture %%cmd %%debug %%file %%html %%javascript %%

Automagic is ON, % prefix IS NOT needed for line magics.
```

## 5.8 Summary

In this chapter we learned...

### Key Terms and Concepts

- Kernal
- Notebook
- Jupyter
- iPython
- Execute
- .ipynb file
- backend

## Python Commands and Functions

### Jupyter Notebook Magic Commands

Command	Description
%matplotlib inline	Display plots in output cells
%run file.py	Runs file.py and displays output
%pwd	Prints the working directory file path
%ls	List contents of the current working directory
%precision	sets float point precision for pretty printing
%whos	lists variables and types in the running kernel session
function?	Display help on a function
function??	Display source code of a function

## 5.9 Review Questions

- 1.
- 2.
- 3.

4.

5.

6.

7.

8.



# Chapter 6

# Functions and Modules

## 6.1 Introduction

By the end of this chapter you will be able to:

- \* import functions and use them in scripts
- \* create your own functions
- \* run functions from other files in your scripts
- \* create functions with default arguments
- \* provide reusable code for other engineers to use

## 6.2 Why Functions?

Functions are reusable pieces of code. Functions are an essential part of most programming languages. Functions provide a couple of benefits:

- Functions allow the same piece of code to be run multiple times
- Functions can break a long program up into smaller pieces
- Functions can be shared with other programmers

## 6.3 First Function

For our first function we will create a simple function that adds two to any number. Functions in Python typically contain at least two lines. The first line defines the function name and arguments.

```
def function_name(arguments):
    <code>
    return output
```

This line contains a couple parts:

`def`

The key word `def` needs to be the start of the line that declares the function. `Def` stands for *definition* and indicates to the Python interpreter that a function definition will follow.

`function_name`

Each function needs a name. The function name should start with a letter and is typically all lowercase (in Python names that start with Uppercase are usually used to define *Classes*). Function names need to start with a letter and can only contain letters, numbers and the underscore character. Just about any name will do, but it is best to avoid using any Python key words such as `def`, `class`, `if`, `else`, `for`. A complete list of reserved Python keywords is in the index.

`(argument):`

Function names are followed by a set of parenthesis ( ). Many functions have variable names, called *arguments* in between the parenthesis. The name used for the function argument should be used in the body of the function and is only local to that function. After the parenthesis comes a : colon. A colon is required to end the first line of a function.

A colon : is required at the end of the first line of every function. If the : is not present the code will not run.

`<code>`

The body of the function contains the code that will run when the function is called. Any variables declared by the function arguments can be used in the body of the function. Any variables used in the body of the function are *local variables*. Local variables can not be called or accessed by other scripts.

`return`

The `return` key word is often the last line of a function. `return` indicates that whatever expression that follows will be the output of the function. The `return` keyword is not a function or a method and parenthesis are not used after `return`, just a space

`output`

Whatever expression is included after `return` will be *returned* or outputted by the function. The output expression after `return` can be a single variable, value or be a more complex expression that includes multiple variables.

A simple first function, is a function that will add two to any number. The function will be called `plustwo` and have one input argument, a number. The function will return that number plus 2. So the function should operate as shown below:

`plustwo(3)`

5

```
In [1]: def plustwo(n):
    n = n + 2
    return n
```

```
In [2]: plustwo(3)
```

```
Out[2]: 5
```

```
In [3]: plustwo(10)
```

```
Out[3]: 12
```

## 6.4 Functions with Multiple Arguments

Functions can be written to accept multiple arguments. When multiple arguments are specified, they are listed within the parenthesis after the function name and separated by a comma:

```
def function_name(argument1, argument2):
    <code>
    return output
```

An example function that adds that finds the area of a triangle given the base and height would accept two arguments `base` and `height`.

```
In [4]: def triarea(base, height):
    area = 0.5 * base * height
    return area
```

```
In [3]: triarea(10,5)
```

```
Out[3]: 25.0
```

## 6.5 Functions with Default Arguments

Functions can be specified with default arguments. If values for these arguments are not supplied when the function is called, the default values will be used. The general format is below:

```
def function_name(argument1=default_value, argument2=default_value):
    <code>
    return output
```

An example function is one that calculates the distance an object falls based on time. The general formula for fall distance  $d$  based on fall time  $t$  can be modeled as:

$$d = \frac{1}{2}gt^2$$

Where  $g$  is the acceleration due to gravity. On earth the value of  $g$  is 9.81 m/s<sup>2</sup>. But on the moon,  $g$  is about 1.625 m/s<sup>2</sup>. Our function will include the default value for earth's gravity and give programmers the option of specifying a different value for  $g$  if they choose.

```
In [5]: def falldist(t, g=9.81):
    d = 0.5 * g * t**2
    return d
```

On earth, a ball that falls for three seconds, can be calculated using `falldist(3)` and leaving out a value for  $g$ .

```
In [6]: falldist(3)
```

```
Out[6]: 44.145
```

On the moon, gravity is much weaker, an acceleration of 1.625 m/s<sup>2</sup>. To calculate how far a ball falls on the moon in three seconds, two arguments need to be supplied 3 and 1.625. If a second argument is given, this overrides the default value assigned in the first line of the function.

```
In [8]: falldist(3, 1.625)
```

```
Out[8]: 7.3125
```

## 6.6 Calling Functions from Other Files

User-defined functions can be called from other files, a different file than where the function definition was written. If a new file called *myfunctions.py* is created and contains two function definitions, `plustwo()` and `falldist()`, these functions can be used by a separate file as long as the file and function names are imported first. It is important that the file which contains the functions ends in the *.py* extension. Without a *.py* extension, the file can not be imported.

```
# myfunctions.py

def plustwo(n):
    n = n + 2
    return n

def falldist(t, g=9.81):
    d = 0.5 * g * t**2
    return d
```

This file can be imported into another script, or Jupyter Notebook running in the same directory. Using `from <filename> import <function_name>`. Note that although the file name must contain a *.py* extension, *.py* is not used as part of the file name during import.

```
In [1]: from myfunctions import plustwo
plustwo(3)
```

```
Out[1]: 5
```

```
In [2]: from myfunctions import falldist  
        falldist(3)
```

```
Out[2]: 44.145
```

## 6.7 Docstrings in Functions

It is good programming practice to document your code. Reusable chunks of code are particularly important to document as other programmers may use the code and you may use the code again at a different time.

Python has a couple different ways for programmers to add documentation. One way is to use simple comments. Comments are lines of code that do not get run by the Python interpreter. Comments are meant to be viewed by humans. In Python, comment lines start with the pound symbol #.

Another way to document code is to use docstrings. Docstrings are comments which are surrounded with triple quoatation marks and usually contain mulitple lines of explanation. A function containing a docstring takes the form:

```
def function_name(arguments):  
    """  
    Docstring text  
  
    """  
<code>  
  
    return <output>
```

Doc strings are what come up when the `help()` function is called. As an example, running the `help()` function on the builtin function `sum` brings up:

```
In [1]: help(sum)
```

```
Help on built-in function sum in module builtins:
```

```
sum(iterable, start=0, /)  
    Return the sum of a 'start' value (default: 0) plus an iterable of numbers  
  
    When the iterable is empty, return the start value.  
    This function is intended specifically for use with numeric values and may  
    reject non-numeric types.
```

We can produce the same type of output when a user types types `help()` by adding docstrings to a function.

Let's create our own function to convert g to kg. Let's call our function `g2kg`. The first thing to do is make sure that our function name is not assigned to another function or is used as a keyword by Python. We can check quick using `type()`. We know that `sum()` is a function, how about `g2kg`?

```
In [2]: print(type(sum))
        print(type(g2kg))

<class 'builtin_function_or_method'>

-----
NameError                                     Traceback (most recent call last)

<ipython-input-2-487fcfc6eb43> in <module>()
      1 print(type(sum))
----> 2 print(type(g2kg))

NameError: name 'g2kg' is not defined
```

Since `g2kg` is not defined, we can use `g2kg` as the name of a user-defined function. Once we know that our Remember the parenthesis, colon and return statement.

```
In [3]: def g2kg(g):
          kg = g/1000

          return kg
```

Now let's try and use our function. How many kg's is 1300 grams. We expect the output to be 1.3 kg

```
In [4]: g2kg(1300)
```

```
Out[4]: 1.3
```

If we call `help()` on our function, nothing will be returned because our function does not contain a docstring yet.

```
In [5]: help(g2kg)

Help on function g2kg in module __main__:

g2kg(g)
```

Now let's add a docstring to the function. Common components of docstrings include a summary of the function, what the function inputs and outputs are and an example of the function running.

```
In [6]: def g2kg(g):  
    """
```

*Function g2kg converts between g and kg*

*input: a measurement in grams, int or float  
output: measurement in kg, float*

*Example:*

```
>>> g2kg(1300)
```

*1.3*

```
"""
```

```
kg = g/1000
```

```
return kg
```

Now let's ask for help on our function and see if the docstring is printed back.

```
In [7]: help(g2kg)
```

Help on function g2kg in module \_\_main\_\_:

```
g2kg(g)  
    Function g2kg converts between g and kg
```

*input: a measurement in grams, int or float  
output: measurement in kg, float*

*Example:*

```
>>> g2kg(1300)
```

*1.3*

## 6.8 Positional and Keyword Arguments

Python functions can contain two types of arguments: *positional arguments* and *keyword arguments*.

## Positional Arguments

An *argument* is a variable, value or object passed to a function or method. *Positional arguments* are arguments that need to be included when a function is called in the proper position or order. The first positional argument always needs to be listed first, the second positional argument needs to be listed second, the third positional argument listed third etc.

An example of positional arguments can be seen in Python's `complex()` function. This function returns a complex number with a real term and an imaginary term. The order that numbers are passed to the complex function determines which number is the real term and which term is the imaginary term.

If the complex number  $3 + 5j$  needs to be created, the two positional arguments are the numbers 3 and 5. The 3 must be listed first and the 5 must be listed second.

In [1]: `complex(3, 5)`

Out[1]: `(3+5j)`

On the other hand, if the complex number  $5 + 3j$  needs to be created, the 5 needs to be listed first and the 3 listed second. Writing the same arguments in a different order produces a different result.

In [2]: `complex(5, 3)`

Out[2]: `(5+3j)`

## Positional Arguments specified an iterable

Positional arguments can also be passed to functions and methods using an iterable object. Examples of iterable objects include lists, tuples and sets. The general syntax to use is:

```
function(*iterable)
```

Where `function` is the name of the function and `iterable` is the name of the iterable preceded by the ampersand `*` character. An example of using a list to pass positional arguments to the `complex()` function is below:

In [3]: `term_list = [3, 5]`  
`complex(*term_list)`

Out[3]: `(3+5j)`

## Keyword Arguments

A *keyword argument* is an argument passed to a function or a method which is preceded by a *keyword* and an equals sign the general form is:

```
function(keyword=value)
```

Where `function` is the function name, `keyword` is the keyword argument and `value` is the value or object passed as that keyword. Python's complex function can also accept two keyword arguments. The two keyword arguments are `real=` and `imag=`. To create the complex number  $3 + 5j$  the, 3 and 5 can be passed to the function as the values assigned to the keyword arguments `real=` and `imag=`.

```
In [4]: complex(real=3, imag=5)
```

```
Out[4]: (3+5j)
```

### Keyword Arguments specified by a dictionary

Keyword arguments can also be passed to functions and methods using dictionary. The dictionary used must contain the keywords as keys and the values as values. The general form is:

```
keyword_dict = {'keyword1': value1, 'keyword2': value2}
function(**keyword_dict)
```

Where `function` is the name of the function and `keyword_dict` is the name of the dictionary containing keywords and values preceded by the double ampersand `**` character. Note that the keywords when assigned as keys in a dictionary must be surrounded by quotes `' '`. An example of using a dictionary to pass keyword arguments to the `complex()` function is below:

```
In [6]: keyword_dict = {'real': 3, 'imag': 5}
complex(**keyword_dict)
```

```
Out[6]: (3+5j)
```

```
In [14]: import typing
typing.get_type_hints()
```

```
Out[14]: {}
```

```
In [15]: import sys
sys.getrefcount(keyword_dict)
```

```
Out[15]: 2
```

## 6.9 Summary

### Key Terms and Concepts

function

function definition

arguments

default arguments

positional arguments

keyword arguments

output

doc string

return

.py file

import

## Python Commands

Command	Description
def	define a function
return	define the expression or value a function outputs
import	import a module or .py file
from	import a function or class from a module or .py file
as	name an alias for a function, method or class
"""	define a doc string

## 6.10 Review Questions

1.

2.

3.

4.

5.

6.

# Chapter 7

## Plotting with Matplotlib

### 7.1 Introduction

By the end of this chapter you will be able to:

- Import matplotlib into a Python script or jupyter notebook
- Construct line plots with matplotlib
- Construct bar charts with matplotlib
- Add error bars to bar charts
- Plot histograms
- Plot contours
- Construct 3D mesh grid plots

### 7.2 What is Matplotlib?

Matplotlib is a popular Python package used to plot data. Matplotlib started as a project in the early 2000's partly to use Python to visualize the electronic signals in the brain of epilepsy patients. Matplotlib's creator, John D. Hunter was a neurobiologist. He was looking for way to replicate MATLAB's plotting capability with Python. In addition to starting matplotlib, Dr. Hunter was part of the founding group that created Numfocus. The Numfocus group oversees some major Python projects including **matplotlib**, **numpy**, **pandas** and **jupyter**.

#### Why use Matplotlib?

**Matplotlib** is useful for creating static 2D plots, the kind of plots included in scientific publications and presentations. Almost any plot created in Microsoft Excel can be created with **matplotlib**. **Matplotlib** can also be used to make 3D plots and animations.

## 7.3 Installing Matplotlib

Before **matplotlib**'s plotting functions can be used. **Matplotlib** needs to be installed. Depending on which distribution of Python is installed on your machine, the installation methods are slightly different.

### Installing Matplotlib with the Anaconda Prompt

To install **matplotlib**, open the **Anaconda Prompt** and type:

```
> conda install matplotlib
```

Type y for yes when prompted.

### Installing Matplotlib with pip

To install **matplotlib** with pip, bring up a terminal window and type:

```
$ pip install matplotlib
```

This will install **matplotlib** in the current working python environment.

### Verify the installation

To verify that **matplotlib** is installed try to invoke **matplotlib**'s version at the Python REPL using the `__version__` attribute common to most Python packages.

```
In [1]: >>> import matplotlib  
>>> matplotlib.__version__  
  
Out[1]: '2.2.2'
```

## 7.4 Line Plots

Line plots in **matplotlib** can be created using **matplotlib**'s **pyplot** library

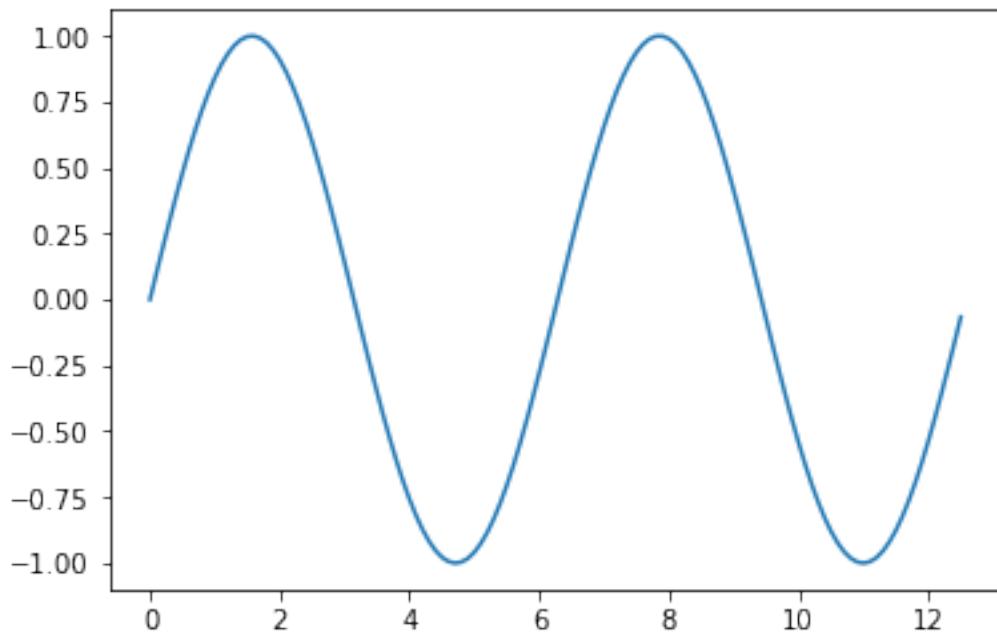
To build a line plot, first import **matplotlib**. It is common convention to import **matplotlib**'s **pyplot** library as `plt`. The `plt` alias will be familiar to other Python users.

If using a jupyter notebook include the line `%matplotlib inline` command after the imports. `%matplotlib inline` is a jupyter notebook magic command which causes **matplotlib** plots to display directly inside jupyter notebook output cells.

```
In [1]: import matplotlib.pyplot as plt  
import numpy as np  
# include if using a jupyter notebook  
%matplotlib inline
```

```
In [2]: x = np.arange(0, 4 * np.pi, 0.1)
y = np.sin(x)
```

```
In [3]: plt.plot(x, y)
plt.show()
```



## Features of a matplotlib plot

A variety of features on a **matplotlib** plot can be specified. The following is a list of commonly specified features:

### Line Color, Line Width, Line Style, Line Opacity and Marker Options

The color, width and style of line in a plot can be specified. Line color, line width and line style are included as extra arguments in the `plt.plot()` function call.

```
plt.plot(<x-data>, <y-data>, linewidth=<float or int>, linestyle='<linestyle abbrev>')
```

An example `plt.plot()` line including line color, line width and line style options is:

```
plt.plot(x, y, linewidth=2.0, linestyle='+', color='b', alpha=0.5, marker='o')
```

Below is a list of linewidths (many other widths are also available)

<code>linewidth=&lt;float or int&gt;</code>	Line Width
0.5	0.5 pixels wide
1	1 pixel wide
1.5	1.5 pixels wide
2	2 pixels wide
3	3 pixels wide

Below is a list of line styles

<code>linestyle='&lt;style abbreviation&gt;'</code>	Line Style
'-' or 'solid'	solid line (default)
'--' or 'dashed'	dashed line
'-. ' or 'dashdot'	dash-dot line
':' or 'dotted'	dotted line
'None' or ' ' or ''	no line

Below is a list of color abbreviations. Note 'b' is used for blue and 'k' is used for black.

<code>color = '&lt;color abbreviation&gt;'</code>	Color Name
'b'	Blue
'c'	Cyan
'g'	Green
'k'	Black
'm'	magenta
'r'	Red
'w'	White
'y'	Yellow

Below is a list of alpha (opacity) values (any alpha value between 0.0 and 1.0 is possible)

<code>alpha = &lt;float or int&gt;</code>	Opacity
0	transparent
0.5	Half transparent
1.0	Opaque

Colors can also be specified in hexadecimal form surrounded by quotation marks like '#FF69B4' or in RGBA (red,green,blue,opacity) color surrounded by parenthesis like (255,182,193,0.5).

<code>color = '&lt;color abbreviation&gt;'</code>	Color Format
'#FF69B4'	hexadecimal
(255,182,193,0.5)	RGBA

Below is a list of marker styles

<code>marker='&lt;marker abbreviation&gt;'</code>	Marker Style
"."	point
", "	one pixel
"o"	circle
"v"	triangle_down
"^"	triangle_up
"8"	octagon
"s"	square
"p"	pentagon
"*"	star
"h"	hexagon 1
"H"	hexagon 2
"+"	plus
"P"	filled plus
"x"	x
"X"	filled x
"D"	diamond
"d"	thin diamond

In addition to `marker='<marker style>'`, the color of the marker edge, the color of the marker face and the size of the marker can be specified with:

```
plt.plot( .... markeredgecolor='<color abbreviation>', markerfacecolor='<color abbreviation>', m...
```

## Title

The plot title will be shown above the plot. The `title()` command accepts a string as an argument

```
plt.title('My Title')
```

## x-axis label

The x-axis label will be down below the x-axis. The `xlabel()` command accepts a string as an argument.

```
plt.xlabel('My x-axis label')
```

## y-axis label

The y-axis label will be shown to the left of the y-axis. The `ylabel()` command accepts a string as an argument.

```
plt.ylabel('My y-axis label')
```

## Legend

The legend will appear within the plot area, in the upper right corner by default. The `legend` command accepts a list of strings and optionally accepts a `loc=` argument to position the legend in a different location

```
plt.legend(['entry1', 'entry2'], loc = 0)
```

The following are the location codes for legend location. These numbers need to be placed after `loc=` in the `plt.legend()` call.

Legend Location	<code>loc = &lt;number&gt;</code>
'best'	0
'upper right'	1
'upper left'	2
'lower left'	3
'lower right'	4
'right'	5
'center left'	6
'center right'	7
'lower center'	8
'upper center'	9
'center'	10

## Grid

A grid can be shown on the plot using the `plt.grid()` command. By default, the grid is turned off. To turn on the grid use:

```
plt.grid(True)
```

The only valid options are `plt.grid(True)` and `plt.grid(False)`. Note that `True` and `False` are capitalized and are not enclosed in quotations.

## Line Plot with specified features

Line plots with the specified features above are constructed according to this general outline:

### Imports

Import `matplotlib.pyplot` as `plt`, as well as any other modules needed to work with the data. If using a jupyter notebook include `%matplotlib inline` in this section

### Define Data

Your plot needs to contain something. This is defined after the imports

### Plot Data including options

Use `plt.plot()` to plot the data defined above. Note the `plt.plot()` needs to be called before any details are specified. Otherwise the details have no plot to apply to. Besides the data, arguments in `plt.plot()` call can include:

- \* `linewidth= <float or int>`
- \* `linestyle='<linestyle abbreviation>'`
- `color='<color abbreviation>'`
- `alpha= <float or int>`
- `marker='<marker abbreviation>'`
- `markeredgecolor='<color abbreviation>'`
- `markerfacecolor='<color abbreviation>'`
- `markersize=<float or int>`

### Add plot details

Add details such as a title, axis labels, legend and colors. Plot details to add include:

- `plt.title('<title string>')`
- `plt.xlabel('<x-axis label string>')`
- `plt.ylabel('<y-axis label string>')`
- `plt.legend(['list', 'of', 'strings'])`
- `plt.grid(<True or False>)`
- `plt.xticks([list of tick locations, floats or ints], [list of tick labels, strings])`
- `plt.yticks([list of tick locations, floats or ints], [list of tick labels, strings])`

### Show the plot

Use the `plt.show()` command to show the plot. This will cause the plot to display in a jupyter notebook or pop out as a new window if using a seperate .py script file. Note that the `plt.show()` needs to be called after all of the plot specifications.

A section of code following this outline and the resulting plot is shown below:

```
In [4]: # Imports
    import numpy as np
    import matplotlib.pyplot as plt
    # Include if using a jupyter notebook. Remove if using a .py-file.
    %matplotlib inline

    # Define Data
    x = np.arange(0, 4 * np.pi, 0.2)
    y = np.sin(x)

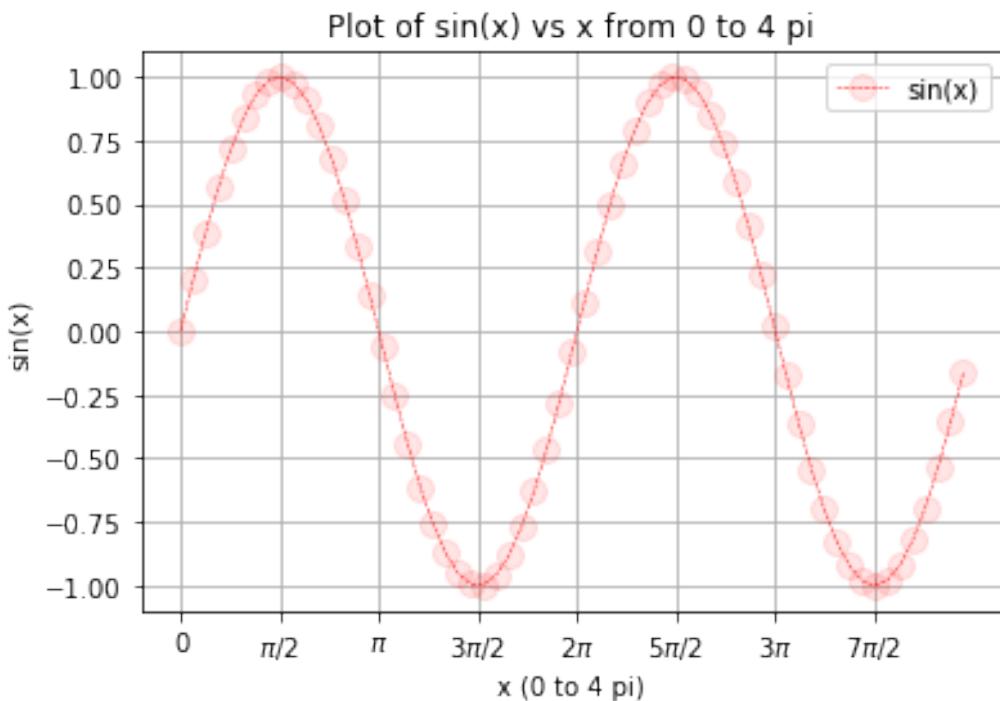
    # Plot Data including options
    plt.plot(x, y,
              linewidth=0.5,
              linestyle='--',
              color='r',
              marker='o',
              markersize=10,
              markerfacecolor=(1, 0, 0, 0.1))
```

```

# Add details
plt.title('Plot of sin(x) vs x from 0 to 4 pi')
plt.xlabel('x (0 to 4 pi)')
plt.ylabel('sin(x)')
plt.legend(['sin(x)'])
plt.xticks(
    np.arange(0, 4 * np.pi, np.pi / 2),
    ['0', '\u03c0/2', '\u03c0', '3\u03c0/2', '2\u03c0', '5\u03c0/2', '3\u03c0', '7\u03c0/2'])
plt.grid(True)

# Show the Plot
plt.show()

```



## 7.5 Multi Line Plots

Multi-line plots in **matplotlib** can be created using **matplotlib's** **pyplot** library. This section builds upon the work in the previous section where a plot with one line was created. This section will also introduce **matplotlib's** object oriented approach to building a plot. The object oriented approach to building plots will be used for the rest of the chapter.

## matplotlib object-oriented interface

An object-oriented plotting interface is an interface where components of the plot (like the axis, title, lines, markers, etc) are treated as programmatic *objects* that have *attributes* and *methods* associated with them. To create a new *object* is called *instantiation*. Once an object is created, or *instantiated*, the properties of that object can be modified and methods can be called on the object. The basic anatomy of a **matplotlib** plot includes a couple of layers, each of these layers is a programming *object*:

- Figure Objects: The bottom layer. Think of the figure layer as the figure window which contains the minimize, maximize, close buttons. A figure can contain one plot or multiple plots
- Plot Objects: A plot builds on the Figure layer. If there are multiple plots, each plot is called a subplot.
- Axis Objects: An axis is added to a Plot layer. Axis can be thought of as sets of x and y axis that lines and bars are drawn on. An Axis contains daughter attributes like axis labels, tick labels and line thickness.
- Data Objects: data points, lines, shapes are plotted on an axis

To build a figure object, **matplotlib's** `plt.subplot()` function is used. This functions creates both a figure *object* and an axis *object*. The `plt.subplot()` function *instantiates* a figure *object* and *instantiates* an axis object. For now, we we'll leave the `subplot()` arguments blank. By default the `subplot()` function will create a single figure object and a single axis object. We'll call the figure object `fig` and the axis object `ax`. Note these two outputs of the `plt.subplots()` function are separated by a comma.

We have a figure object and axis object, but both of these objects are without attributes. This produces a blank plot. We can add elements to the axis object to build a plot. Let's create three **numpy** arrays to add to our axis object.

The **numpy** arrays `x`, `y`, and `z` can be added to to axis object `ax`. We add a plot attribute (a line) to our axis object `ax` using the object oriented structure `<object>.<attribute>`. In this case, `ax` is the object and `plot` is the attribute. The `plt.show()` line shows the plot on the screen.

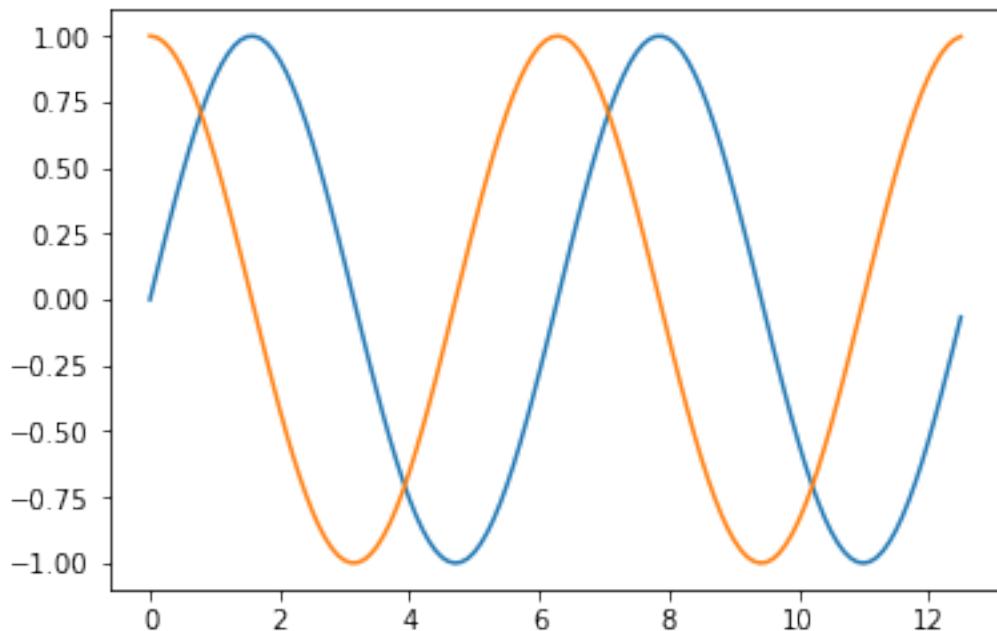
```
In [1]: import matplotlib.pyplot as plt
        import numpy as np
        %matplotlib inline

        x = np.arange(0,4*np.pi,0.1)
        y = np.sin(x)
        z = np.cos(x)

        fig, ax = plt.subplots()

        ax.plot(x,y)
        ax.plot(x,z)

        plt.show()
```



The `ax` object has many methods and attributes. Two methods we can run on the `ax` object include `ax.set_title()` and `ax.legend()`. A couple daughter objects include `ax.xaxis` and `ax.yaxis`. These daughter objects in turn have methods such as `ax.xaxis.set_label_text()` and `ax.yaxis.set_label_text()`.

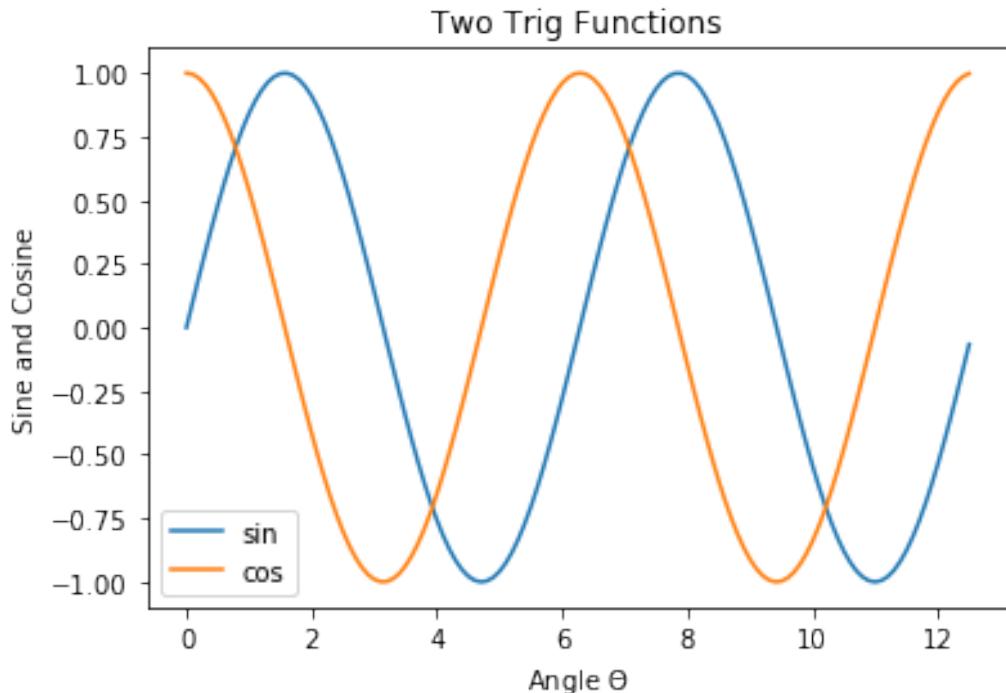
```
In [2]: fig, ax = plt.subplots()

    ax.plot(x,y)
    ax.plot(x,z)

    ax.set_title('Two Trig Functions')
    ax.legend(['sin','cos'])

    ax.xaxis.set_label_text('Angle $\Theta$')
    ax.yaxis.set_label_text('Sine and Cosine')

plt.show()
```



## 7.6 Bar Charts and Pie Charts

Bar charts and pie charts can be created using **matplotlib's pyplot** library.

### Bar Charts

To construct a bar plot using **matplotlib**, first import **matplotlib's pyplot** library. The common alias to use for **matplotlib.pyplot** is **plt**. If using a Jupiter notebook include the line `%matplotlib inline`.

```
In [1]: import matplotlib.pyplot as plt  
        import numpy as np  
        %matplotlib inline
```

We need some data to plot to create a bar chart. In this case, the data is from a set of **coefficient of thermal expansion** lab measurements. The **coefficient of thermal expansion** (CTE) is a material property that describes how much a material will change in length as a result of a change in temperature. Different materials have different CTE's and we can use the lab data to determine which material will expand the most if all three are heated up to the same temperature (assuming all three start at the same temperature).

First, we need to input the data as **numpy** arrays:

```
In [2]: # Data
aluminum = np.array([
    6.4e-5, 3.01e-5, 2.36e-5, 3.0e-5, 7.0e-5, 4.5e-5, 3.8e-5, 4.2e-5, 2.62e-5,
    3.6e-5
])
copper = np.array([
    4.5e-5, 1.97e-5, 1.6e-5, 1.97e-5, 4.0e-5, 2.4e-5, 1.9e-5, 2.41e-5, 1.85e-5,
    3.3e-5
])
steel = np.array([
    3.3e-5, 1.2e-5, 0.9e-5, 1.2e-5, 1.3e-5, 1.6e-5, 1.4e-5, 1.58e-5, 1.32e-5,
    2.1e-5
])
```

Next, calculate the average or **mean** using **numpy**'s `np.mean()` function.

```
In [3]: # Calculate the average
aluminum_mean = np.mean(aluminum)
copper_mean = np.mean(copper)
steel_mean = np.mean(steel)
```

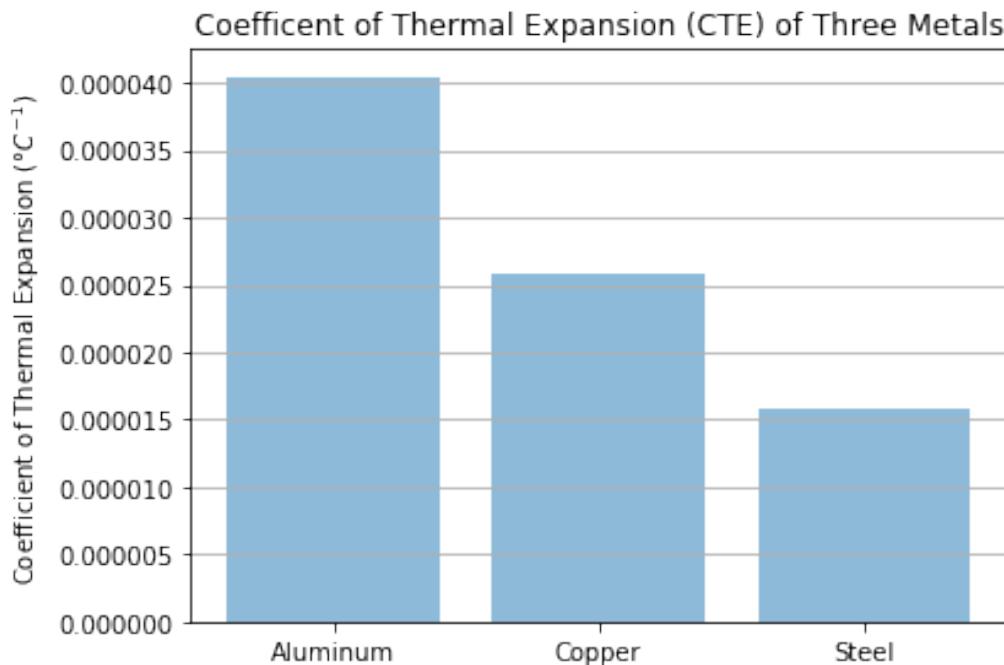
Then build a list of materials and CTE's:

```
In [4]: # Create Arrays for the plot
materials = ['Aluminum', 'Copper', 'Steel']
x_pos = np.arange(len(materials))
CTEs = [aluminum_mean, copper_mean, steel_mean]
```

The `materials`, `x_pos`, and `CTEs` (the labels below the bars) are defined, now the bar chart is created using the `ax.bar()` method. The `ax.bar()` method requires two positional arguments, a list of bar positions and a list of bar heights. In this bar chart, `x_pos` is the list of bar positions and `CTEs` is the list of bar heights.

```
In [5]: # Build the plot
fig, ax = plt.subplots()
ax.bar(x_pos, CTEs, align='center', alpha=0.5)
ax.set_ylabel('Coefficient of Thermal Expansion ($\degree C^{-1}$)')
ax.set_xticks(x_pos)
ax.set_xticklabels(materials)
ax.set_title('Coefficient of Thermal Expansion (CTE) of Three Metals')
ax.yaxis.grid(True)

# Save the figure and show
plt.tight_layout()
plt.savefig('bar_plot.png')
plt.show()
```



## Pie Charts

Pie charts can be constructed with `matplotlib's ax.pie()` method. The one required positional argument is a list of pie piece sizes. Optional keyword arguments include a list of piece labels (`label=`) and if the percentages will be auto-calculated and in what format (`autopct=`).

The data we will plot is from the number of students that choose different engineering majors each year.

The following table lists the approximate numbers of engineering graduates in different engineering disciplines:

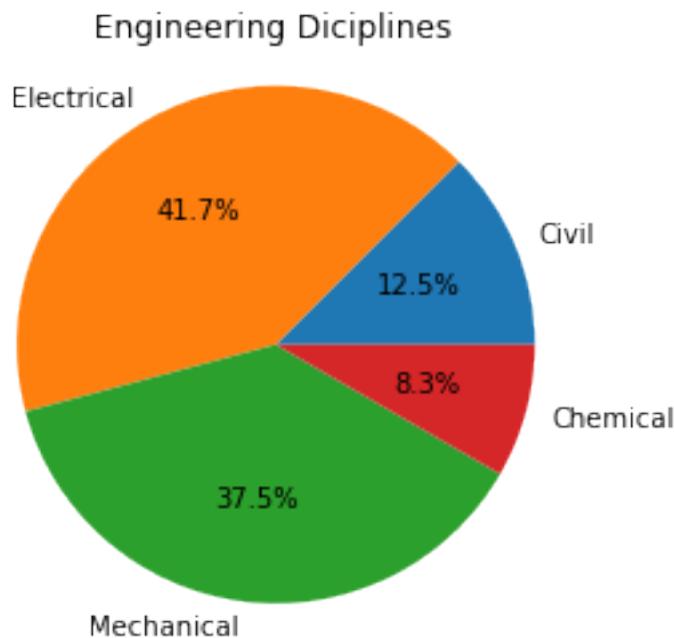
discipline	number of graduates
civil engineering	15,000 graduates
electrical engineering	50,000 graduates
mechanical engineering	45,000 graduates
chemical engineering	10,000 graduates

```
In [6]: # Pie chart, where the slices will be ordered and plotted counter-clockwise:
labels = ['Civil', 'Electrical', 'Mechanical', 'Chemical']
sizes = [15, 50, 45, 10]

fig, ax = plt.subplots()
```

```
ax.pie(sizes, labels=labels, autopct='%.1f%%')
ax.axis('equal') # Equal aspect ratio ensures that pie is drawn as a circle.
ax.set_title('Engineering Diciplines')

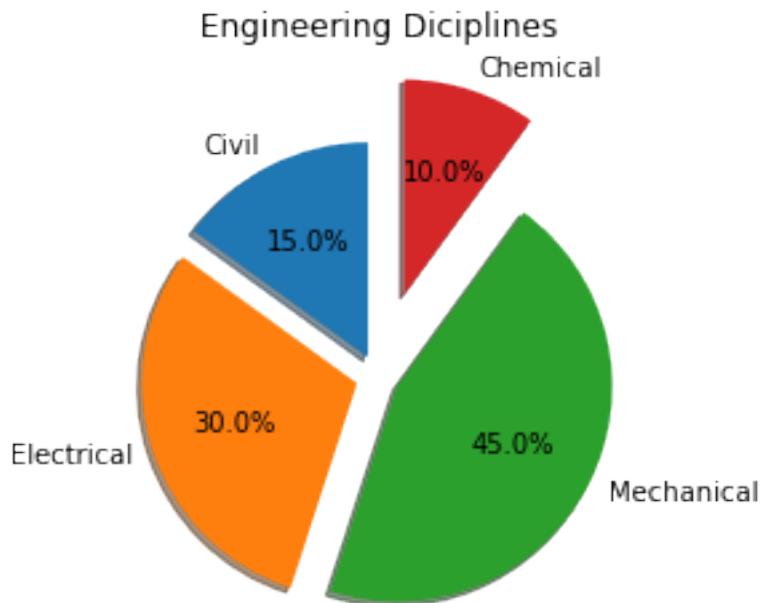
plt.show()
```



```
In [7]: # Pie chart, where the slices will be ordered and plotted counter-clockwise
labels = ['Civil', 'Electrical', 'Mechanical', 'Chemical']
sizes = [15, 30, 45, 10]
explode = (
    0.1, 0.1, 0.1, 0.4
) # "explode, and highlight 4th entry 'Logs' by offsetting it a greater amount"

fig, ax = plt.subplots()
ax.pie(
    sizes,
    explode=explode,
    labels=labels,
    autopct='%.1f%%',
    shadow=True,
    startangle=90)
ax.axis('equal') # Equal aspect ratio ensures that pie is drawn as a circle.
ax.set_title('Engineering Diciplines')

plt.show()
```



## 7.7 Error Bars

Error bars can be created with **matplotlib** and applied to both line plots and bar plots.

### Error bars in bar plots

To construct a bar plot with error bars, first import **matplotlib**. If using a jupyter notebook, include the line `%matplotlib inline`

```
In [1]: import matplotlib.pyplot as plt  
        import numpy as np  
        %matplotlib inline
```

We will apply error bars to the Coefficient of Thermal Expansion data used in a previous section. First the data is stored in three **numpy** arrays. Then the mean or average of each array is computed. The mean of each array will be the height of the bars. Next the standard deviation of each array is calculated. The standard deviation will be height of the error bars. Finally a couple lists are created that correspond to the bar labels (`labels`), the bar positions (`x_pos`), the bar heights (`CTEs`) and the error bar heights (`error`).

```
In [2]: # Data  
aluminum = np.array([6.4e-5, 3.01e-5, 2.36e-5, 3.0e-5, 7.0e-5, 4.5e-5, 3.8e-5, 4.2e-5,
```

```

copper = np.array([4.5e-5 , 1.97e-5 , 1.6e-5, 1.97e-5, 4.0e-5, 2.4e-5, 1.9e-5, 2.41e-5 ,
steel = np.array([3.3e-5 , 1.2e-5 , 0.9e-5, 1.2e-5, 1.3e-5, 1.6e-5, 1.4e-5, 1.58e-5, 1.32e-5

# Calculate the average
aluminum_mean = np.mean(aluminum)
copper_mean = np.mean(copper)
steel_mean = np.mean(steel)

# Calculate the standard deviation
aluminum_std = np.std(aluminum)
copper_std = np.std(copper)
steel_std = np.std(steel)

# Create Arrays for the plot
labels = ['Aluminum', 'Copper', 'Steel']
x_pos = np.arange(len(labels))
CTEs = [aluminum_mean, copper_mean, steel_mean]
error = [aluminum_std, copper_std, steel_std]

```

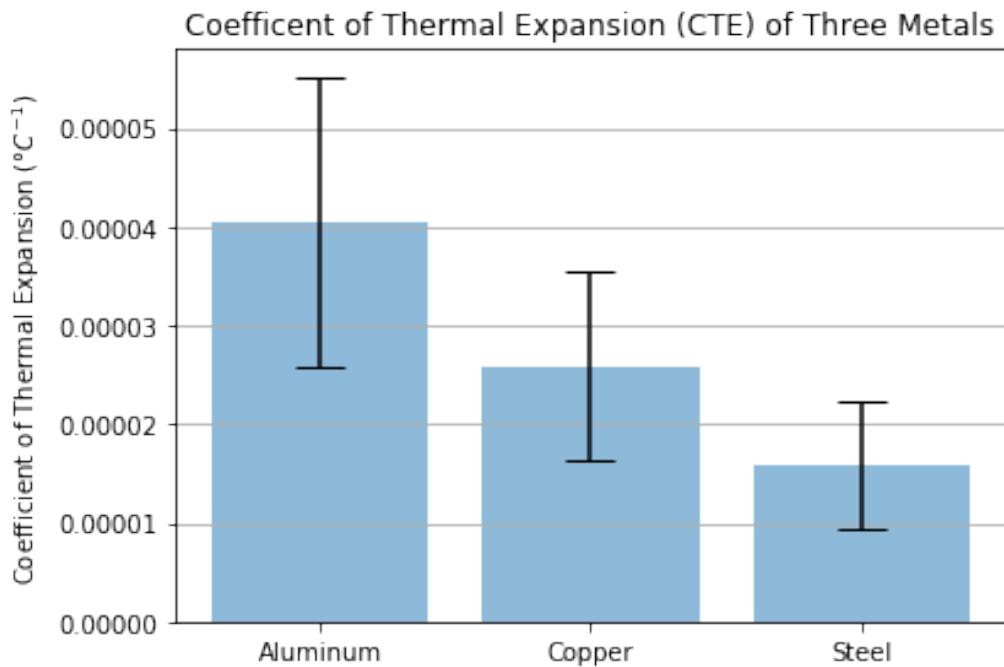
In [3]: # Build the plot

```

fig, ax = plt.subplots()
ax.bar(x_pos, CTEs, yerr=error, align='center', alpha=0.5, ecolor='black', capsize=10)
ax.set_ylabel('Coefficient of Thermal Expansion ($\degree C^{-1}$)')
ax.set_xticks(x_pos)
ax.set_xticklabels(labels)
ax.set_title('Coefficient of Thermal Expansion (CTE) of Three Metals')
ax.yaxis.grid(True)

# Save the figure and show
plt.tight_layout()
plt.savefig('bar_plot_with_error_bars.png')
plt.show()

```

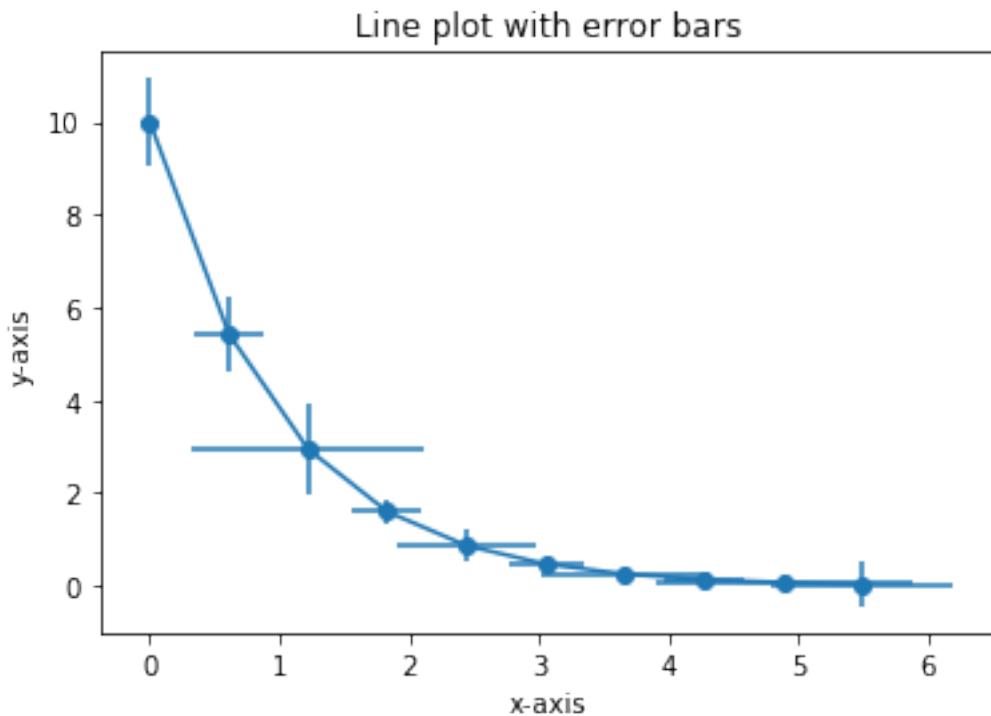


## Error bars in line plots

Error bars can also be added to line plots.

```
In [4]: #x = np.array([0.5, 1.0, 1.5, 2.0, 2.5, 3.0, 3.5, 4.0, 4.5, 5.0])
x = np.linspace(0,5.5,10)
y = 10*np.exp(-x)
xerr = np.random.random_sample((10))
yerr = np.random.random_sample((10))
```

```
In [5]: fig, ax = plt.subplots()
ax.errorbar(x, y, xerr=xerr, yerr=yerr, fmt='^-o')
ax.set_xlabel('x-axis')
ax.set_ylabel('y-axis')
ax.set_title('Line plot with error bars')
plt.show()
```



## 7.8 Histograms

Histogram plots can be created with **matplotlib**

To create a histogram, first import **matplotlib**. If using a Jupyter notebook, include the line  
`%matplotlib inline`

```
In [1]: import matplotlib.pyplot as plt
        import numpy as np
        %matplotlib inline
```

We'll use **numpy's** `np.random.normal()` function to create an array of random numbers with a normal distribution. The three arguments passed to the `np.random.normal()` function are `mu` (the mean), `sigma` (the standard deviation) and `size=` (the size of the array).

**Matplotlib's** `ax.hist()` method is used to build the histogram. The first argument passed to `ax.hist()` corresponds to the array of values to plot (`x`). The second argument corresponds to the number of bins, or number of bars on the histogram (20).

The line `plt.style.use('fivethirtyeight')` is included to style the plot to look like plots on [fivethirtyeight.com](http://fivethirtyeight.com). **Matplotlib** styles will be addressed in a subsequent section of this chapter.

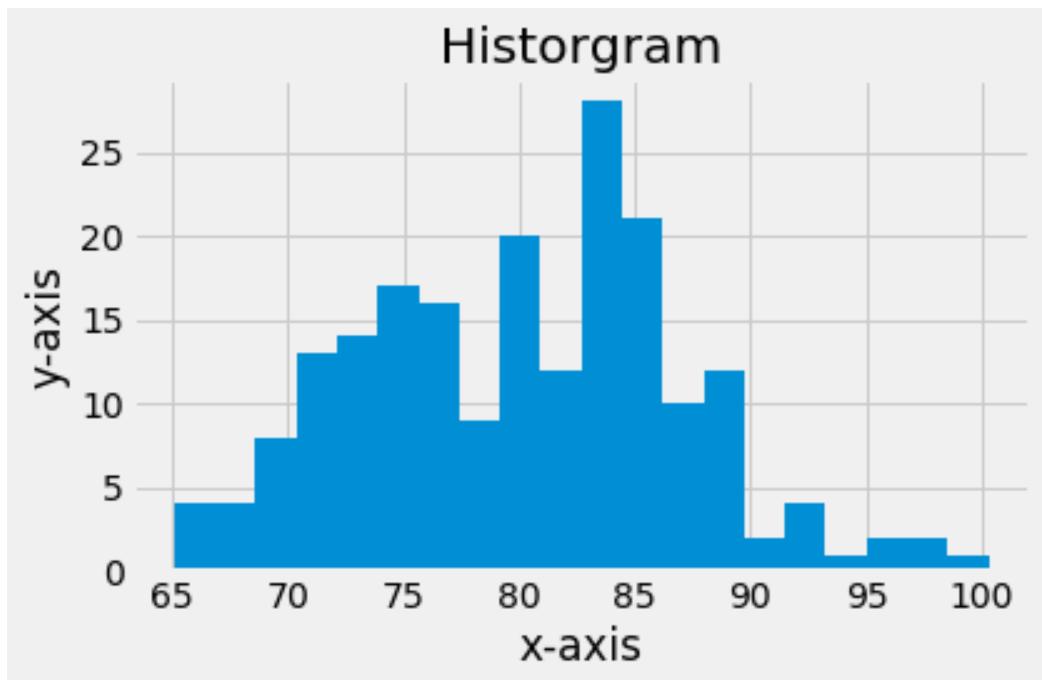
```
In [2]: import numpy as np
        import matplotlib.pyplot as plt
        plt.style.use('fivethirtyeight')

        mu = 80
        sigma = 7
        x = np.random.normal(mu, sigma, size=200)

        fig, ax = plt.subplots()

        ax.hist(x, 20, density=True, histtype='bar', facecolor='g', alpha=0.8)
        ax.set_title('Histogram')
        ax.set_xlabel('x-axis')
        ax.set_ylabel('y-axis')

        fig.tight_layout()
        plt.show()
```



## 7.9 Box Plots and Violin Plots

A couple other useful statistical plots are box plots and violin plots.

## Box Plots

To create a box plot, first import `matplotlib`. If using a jupyter notebook include the line  
`%matplotlib inline`

```
In [1]: import matplotlib.pyplot as plt
import numpy as np
%matplotlib inline
```

```
In [2]: fig, ax = plt.subplots()

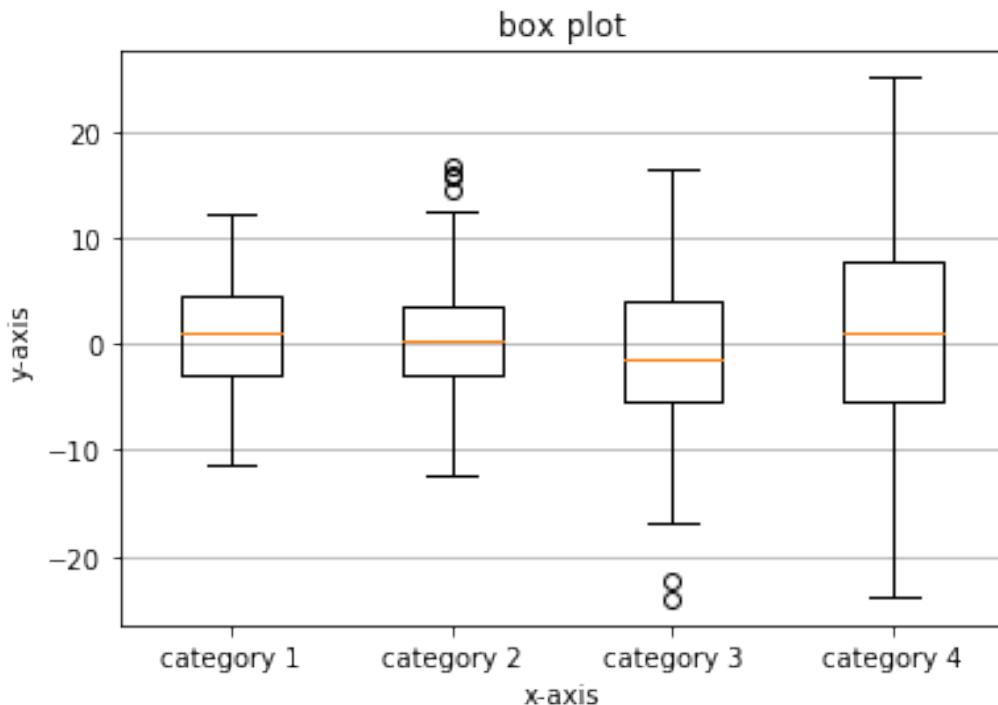
# generate some random data
data = [np.random.normal(0, std, 100) for std in range(6, 10)]

# plot box plot
ax.boxplot(data)
ax.set_title('box plot')

# adding horizontal grid lines

ax.yaxis.grid(True)
ax.set_xticks([y+1 for y in range(len(data))])
ax.set_xlabel('x-axis')
ax.set_ylabel('y-axis')

# add x-tick labels
plt.setp(ax, xticks=[y+1 for y in range(len(data))],
         ticklabels=['category 1', 'category 2', 'category 3', 'category 4'])
plt.show()
```



## Violin Plots

Violin plots are a type of statistical plot. A violin plot is similar to a box plot, but it shows some additional information. The sides of the “violins” in a violin plot corresponds to a kernel density estimation (kind of like a histogram) flipped vertically.

```
In [3]: fig, ax = plt.subplots()

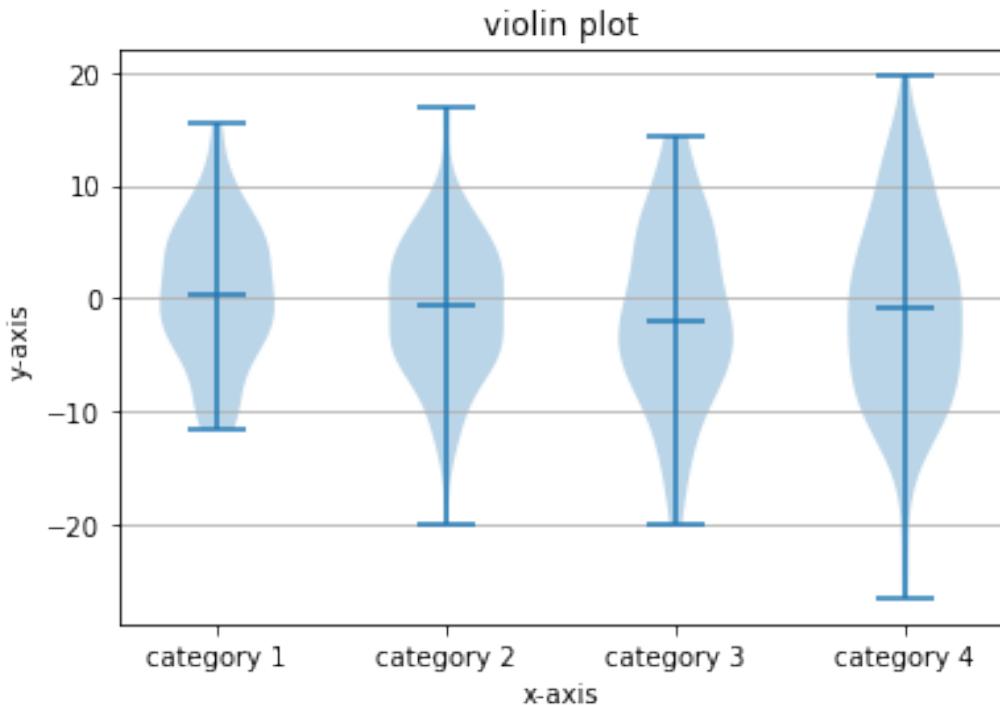
# generate some random test data
data = [np.random.normal(0, std, 100) for std in range(6, 10)]

# plot violin plot
ax.violinplot(data, showmeans=False, showmedians=True)
ax.set_title('violin plot')

# adding horizontal grid lines
ax.yaxis.grid(True)
ax.set_xticks([y+1 for y in range(len(data))])
ax.set_xlabel('x-axis')
ax.set_ylabel('y-axis')

# add x-tick labels
```

```
plt.setp(ax, xticks=[y+1 for y in range(len(data))],
         xticklabels=['category 1', 'category 2', 'category 3', 'category 4'])
plt.show()
```



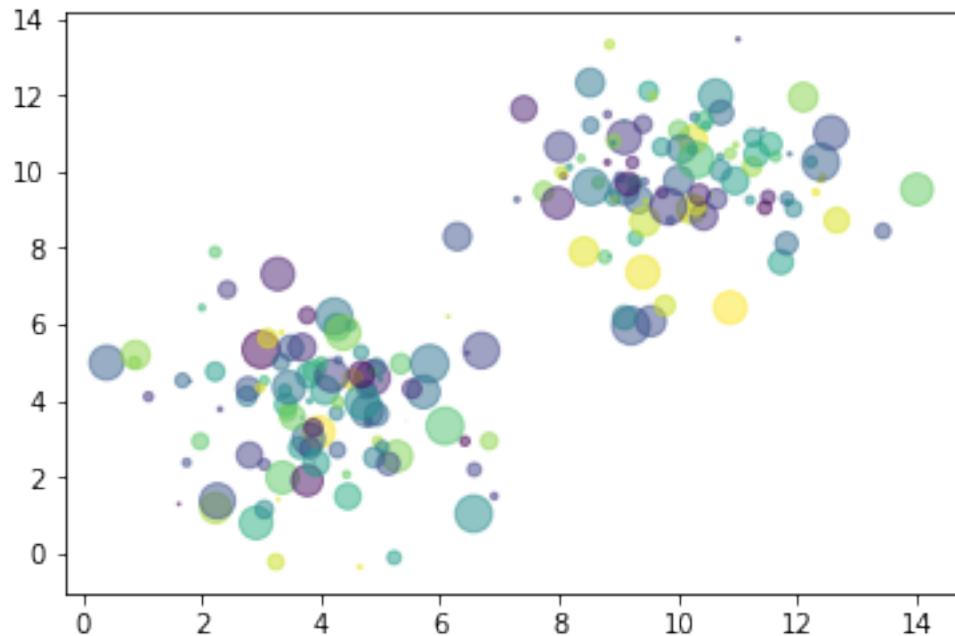
## 7.10 Scatter Plots

First import **matplotlib**. If using a jupyter notebook include the line %matplotlib inline

```
In [2]: import matplotlib.pyplot as plt
import numpy as np
%matplotlib inline
```

```
In [3]: N = 100
x1 = 1.5 * np.random.randn(N) + 10
y1 = 1.5 * np.random.randn(N) + 10
x2 = 1.5 * np.random.randn(N) + 4
y2 = 1.5 * np.random.randn(N) + 4
x = np.append(x1,x2)
y = np.append(y1,y2)
colors = np.random.rand(N*2)
```

```
area = np.pi * (8 * np.random.rand(N*2))**2 # 0 to 15 point radii  
fig, ax = plt.subplots()  
  
ax.scatter(x, y, s=area, c=colors, alpha=0.5)  
plt.show()
```



## 7.11 Plot annotations

Sometimes it is useful for problem solvers to annotate plots. Text can be included on a plot to indicate a point of interest.

To create a plot with annotations, first import **matplotlib**. If using a Jupyter notebook include the line `%matplotlib inline`

```
In [1]: import matplotlib.pyplot as plt  
import numpy as np  
%matplotlib inline
```

```
In [2]: fig, ax = plt.subplots()
```

```
x = np.arange(-5, 5, 0.01)
```

```
y = x**2

# Plot a line and add some simple annotations
ax.plot(x, y)
ax.annotate('function minum \n relative to data',
            xy=(0, 0),
            xycoords='data',
            xytext=(2, 3),
            arrowprops=
                dict(facecolor='black', shrink=0.05),
                horizontalalignment='left',
                verticalalignment='top')

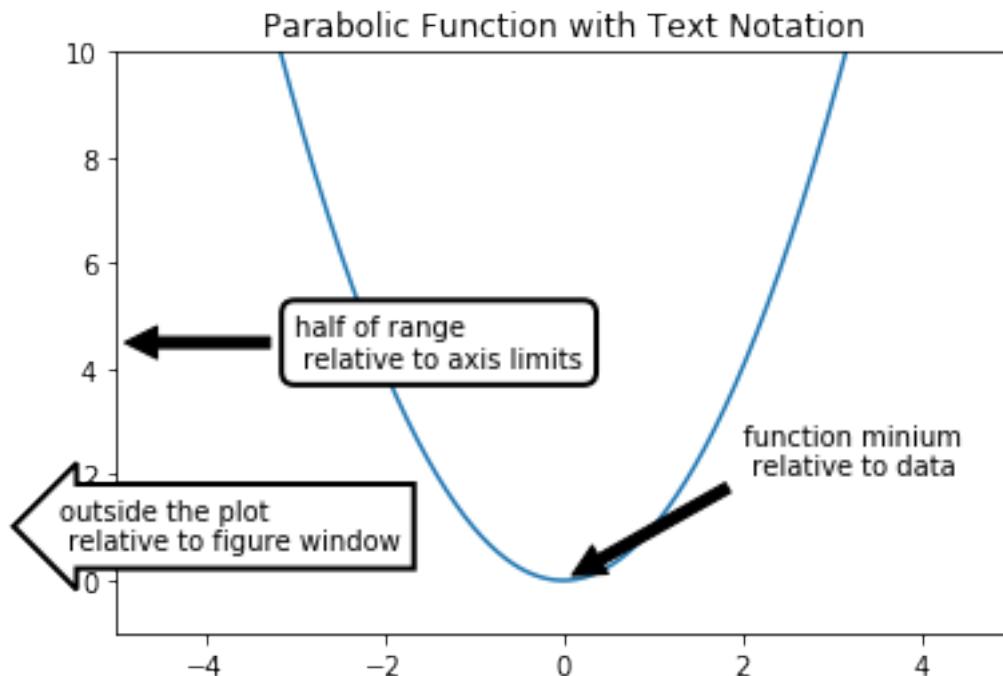
bbox_props = dict(boxstyle="round,pad=0.5", fc="w", ec="k", lw=2)

ax.annotate('half of range \n relative to axis limits',
            xy=(0, 0.5),
            xycoords='axes fraction',
            xytext=(0.2, 0.5),
            bbox=bbox_props,
            arrowprops=
                dict(facecolor='black', shrink=0.05),
                horizontalalignment='left',
                verticalalignment='center')

bbox_props = dict(boxstyle="larrow,pad=0.5", fc="w", ec="k", lw=2)

ax.annotate('outside the plot \n relative to figure window',
            xy=(20 ,75),
            xycoords='figure pixels',
            horizontalalignment='left',
            verticalalignment='top',
            bbox=bbox_props)

ax.set_xlim(-5,5)
ax.set_ylim(-1,10)
ax.set_title('Parabolic Function with Text Notation')
plt.show()
```



## 7.12 Subplots

Sometimes it is useful for engineers to include a couple plots side by side. This can be done in **matplotlib** using **subplots**

First import matplotlib. If using a jupyter notebook include the line `%matplotlib inline`

```
In [2]: import matplotlib.pyplot as plt
        import numpy as np
        %matplotlib inline
```

```
In [3]: # Data for plotting
t = np.arange(0.01, 20.0, 0.01)

# Create figure
fig, ((ax1, ax2), (ax3, ax4)) = plt.subplots(2, 2)

# linear x and y axis
ax1.plot(t, np.exp(-t / 5.0))
ax1.set(title='linear x and y')
ax1.grid()
```

```

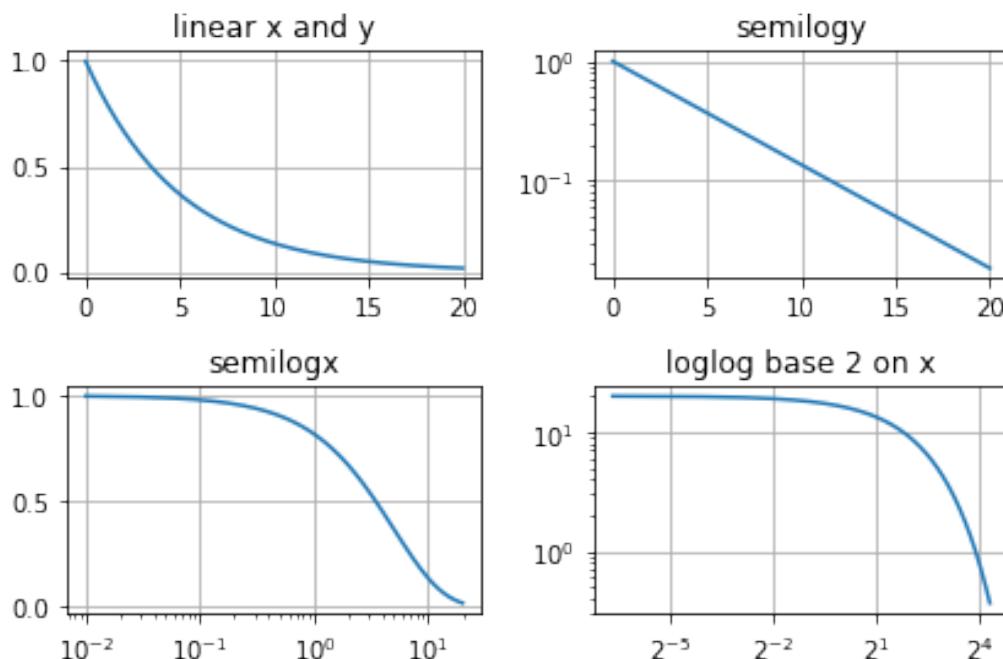
# log y axis
ax2.semilogy(t, np.exp(-t / 5.0))
ax2.set(title='semilogy')
ax2.grid()

# log x axis
ax3.semilogx(t, np.exp(-t / 5.0))
ax3.set(title='semilogx')
ax3.grid()

# log x and y axis
ax4.loglog(t, 20 * np.exp(-t / 5.0), basex=2)
ax4.set(title='loglog base 2 on x')
ax4.grid()

fig.tight_layout()
plt.show()

```



## 7.13 Plot Styles

Colors, font size, linethickness, all have default values in **matplotlib**. In addition to the default style for these plot attributes, additional styles are available to apply to **matplotlib** plots

To use the default style, either don't specify a style at all or use the line `plt.style.use('default')`. Remember, if using a jupyter notebook include the line `%matplotlib inline`

```
In [4]: import matplotlib.pyplot as plt
        import numpy as np
        %matplotlib inline
```

```
In [5]: plt.style.use('default')

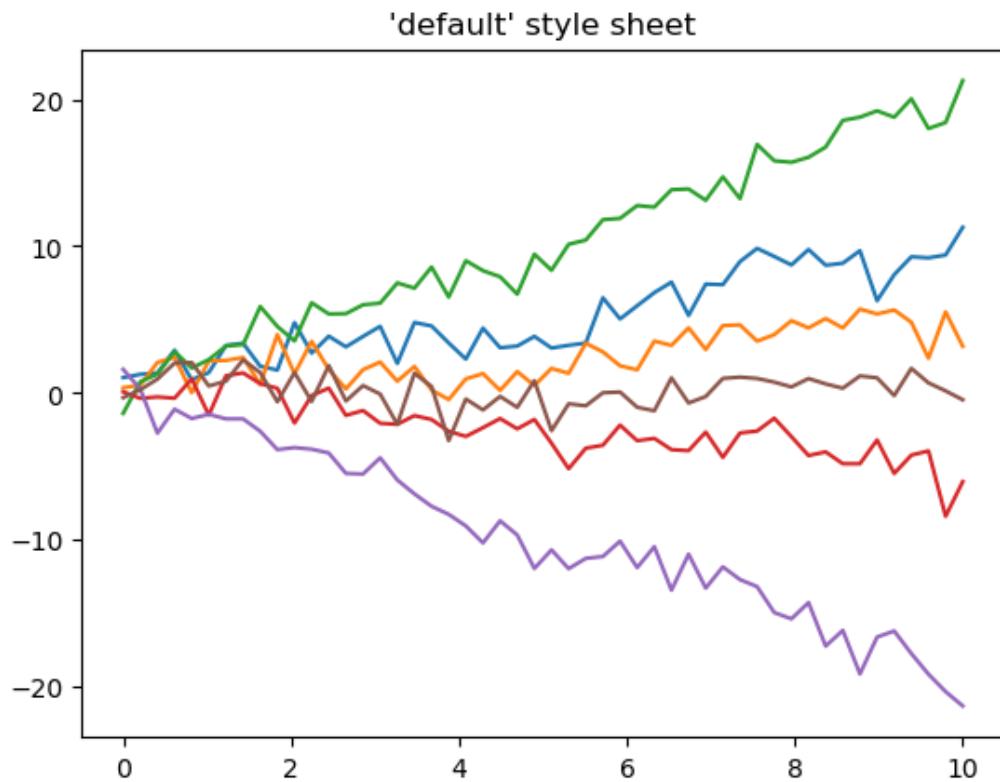
x = np.linspace(0, 10)

# Fixing random state for reproducibility
np.random.seed(19680801)

fig, ax = plt.subplots()

ax.plot(x, np.sin(x) + x + np.random.randn(50))
ax.plot(x, np.sin(x) + 0.5 * x + np.random.randn(50))
ax.plot(x, np.sin(x) + 2 * x + np.random.randn(50))
ax.plot(x, np.sin(x) - 0.5 * x + np.random.randn(50))
ax.plot(x, np.sin(x) - 2 * x + np.random.randn(50))
ax.plot(x, np.sin(x) + np.random.randn(50))
ax.set_title("'default' style sheet")

plt.show()
```



There are many different styles available besides the default `matplotlib` style. List the available styles with the command:

```
In [6]: for style in plt.style.available:  
    print(style)
```

```
seaborn-talk  
seaborn-bright  
seaborn-muted  
seaborn-dark  
seaborn-darkgrid  
seaborn-paper  
seaborn-white  
seaborn-pastel  
seaborn-colorblind  
Solarize_Light2  
seaborn  
fast  
seaborn-dark-palette  
tableau-colorblind10
```

```
seaborn-notebook
classic
seaborn-poster
bmh
seaborn-whitegrid
seaborn-deep
dark_background
_classic_test
fivethirtyeight
ggplot
seaborn-ticks
grayscale
```

```
In [7]: import matplotlib.pyplot as plt
import numpy as np

plt.style.use('fivethirtyeight')

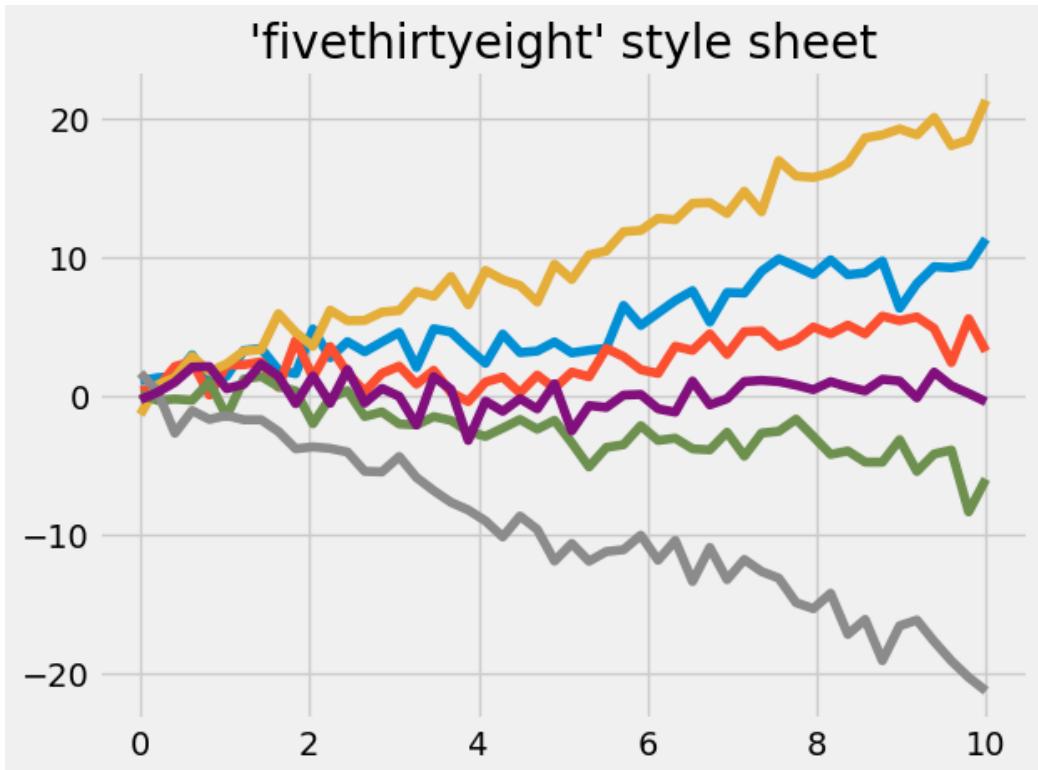
x = np.linspace(0, 10)

# Fixing random state for reproducibility
np.random.seed(19680801)

fig, ax = plt.subplots()

ax.plot(x, np.sin(x) + x + np.random.randn(50))
ax.plot(x, np.sin(x) + 0.5 * x + np.random.randn(50))
ax.plot(x, np.sin(x) + 2 * x + np.random.randn(50))
ax.plot(x, np.sin(x) - 0.5 * x + np.random.randn(50))
ax.plot(x, np.sin(x) - 2 * x + np.random.randn(50))
ax.plot(x, np.sin(x) + np.random.randn(50))
ax.set_title("'fivethirtyeight' style sheet")

plt.show()
```



```
In [8]: plt.style.use('ggplot')

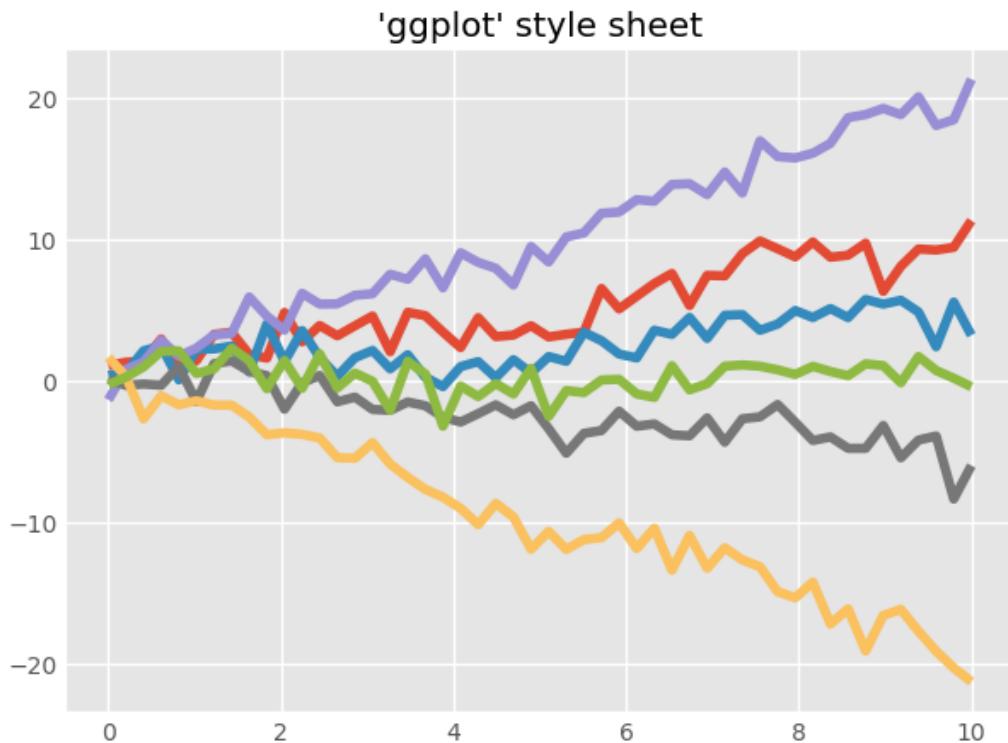
x = np.linspace(0, 10)

# Fixing random state for reproducibility
np.random.seed(19680801)

fig, ax = plt.subplots()

ax.plot(x, np.sin(x) + x + np.random.randn(50))
ax.plot(x, np.sin(x) + 0.5 * x + np.random.randn(50))
ax.plot(x, np.sin(x) + 2 * x + np.random.randn(50))
ax.plot(x, np.sin(x) - 0.5 * x + np.random.randn(50))
ax.plot(x, np.sin(x) - 2 * x + np.random.randn(50))
ax.plot(x, np.sin(x) + np.random.randn(50))
ax.set_title("'ggplot' style sheet")

plt.show()
```



```
In [9]: plt.style.use('seaborn')
```

```
x = np.linspace(0, 10)

# Fixing random state for reproducibility
np.random.seed(19680801)

fig, ax = plt.subplots()

ax.plot(x, np.sin(x) + x + np.random.randn(50))
ax.plot(x, np.sin(x) + 0.5 * x + np.random.randn(50))
ax.plot(x, np.sin(x) + 2 * x + np.random.randn(50))
ax.plot(x, np.sin(x) - 0.5 * x + np.random.randn(50))
ax.plot(x, np.sin(x) - 2 * x + np.random.randn(50))
ax.plot(x, np.sin(x) + np.random.randn(50))
ax.set_title("'seaborn' style sheet")

plt.show()
```



```
In [10]: plt.style.use('seaborn-colorblind')

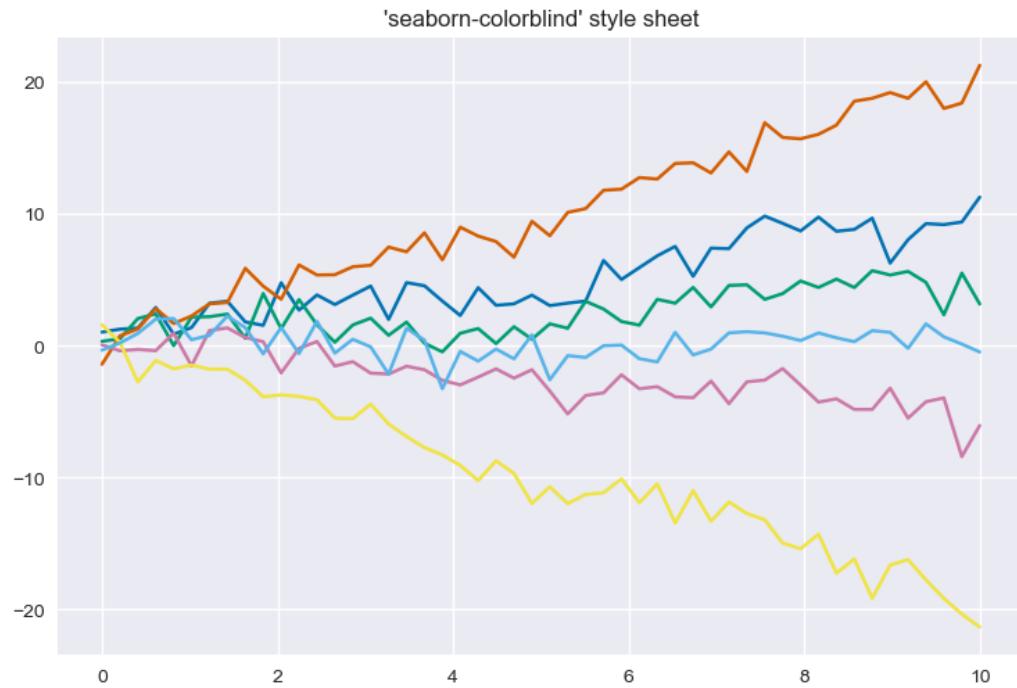
x = np.linspace(0, 10)

# Fixing random state for reproducibility
np.random.seed(19680801)

fig, ax = plt.subplots()

ax.plot(x, np.sin(x) + x + np.random.randn(50))
ax.plot(x, np.sin(x) + 0.5 * x + np.random.randn(50))
ax.plot(x, np.sin(x) + 2 * x + np.random.randn(50))
ax.plot(x, np.sin(x) - 0.5 * x + np.random.randn(50))
ax.plot(x, np.sin(x) - 2 * x + np.random.randn(50))
ax.plot(x, np.sin(x) + np.random.randn(50))
ax.set_title("'seaborn-colorblind' style sheet")

plt.show()
```



## 7.14 Contour Plots

In civil engineering a contour plot could show the topology of a build sight. In mechanical engineering a contour plot could show the stress gradient across part surface.

First import matplotlib. If using a jupyter notebook include the line `%matplotlib inline`

```
In [4]: import matplotlib.pyplot as plt
        import numpy as np

        %matplotlib inline
```

### **matplotlib's plt.contour() method**

Building contour plots using `matplotlib` entails using the `plt.contourf()` method. The basic method call is below:

```
ax.contour(X, Y, Z)
```

Where `X` and `Y` are 2D arrays of the `x` and `y` points, and `Z` is a 2D array of points that determines the “height” of the contour, which is represented by color in a 2D plot. The `np.meshgrid` function is useful to create two 2D arrays from two 1D arrays.

```
In [5]: x = np.arange(-3.0, 3.0, 0.1)
y = np.arange(-3.0, 3.0, 0.1)

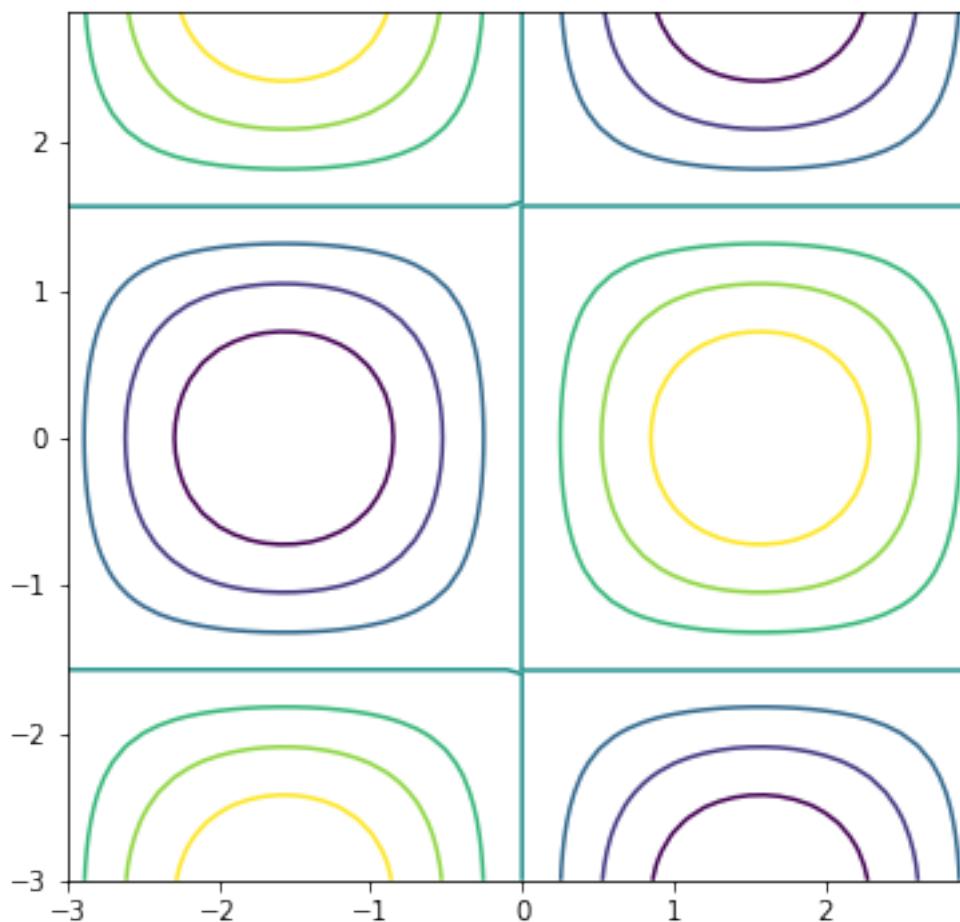
X, Y = np.meshgrid(x, y)

Z = np.sin(X)*np.cos(Y)

fig, ax = plt.subplots(figsize=(6,6))

ax.contour(X,Y,Z)

plt.show()
```



## matplotlib's plt.contourf() method

Matplotlib's plt.contourf() method is similar to plt.contour() except that it will produce contour plots that are "filled". Instead of lines in a plt.contour() plot, shaded areas are produced by a plt.contourf() plot. The general method call for plt.contourf() is similar to plt.contour().

```
ax.contourf(X, Y, Z)
```

Where X and Y are 2D arrays of the x and y points, and Z is a 2D array of points that determines the color of the areas on the 2D plot.

```
In [6]: import matplotlib.pyplot as plt
        import numpy as np

        %matplotlib inline

        x = np.arange(-3.0, 3.0, 0.1)
        y = np.arange(-3.0, 3.0, 0.1)

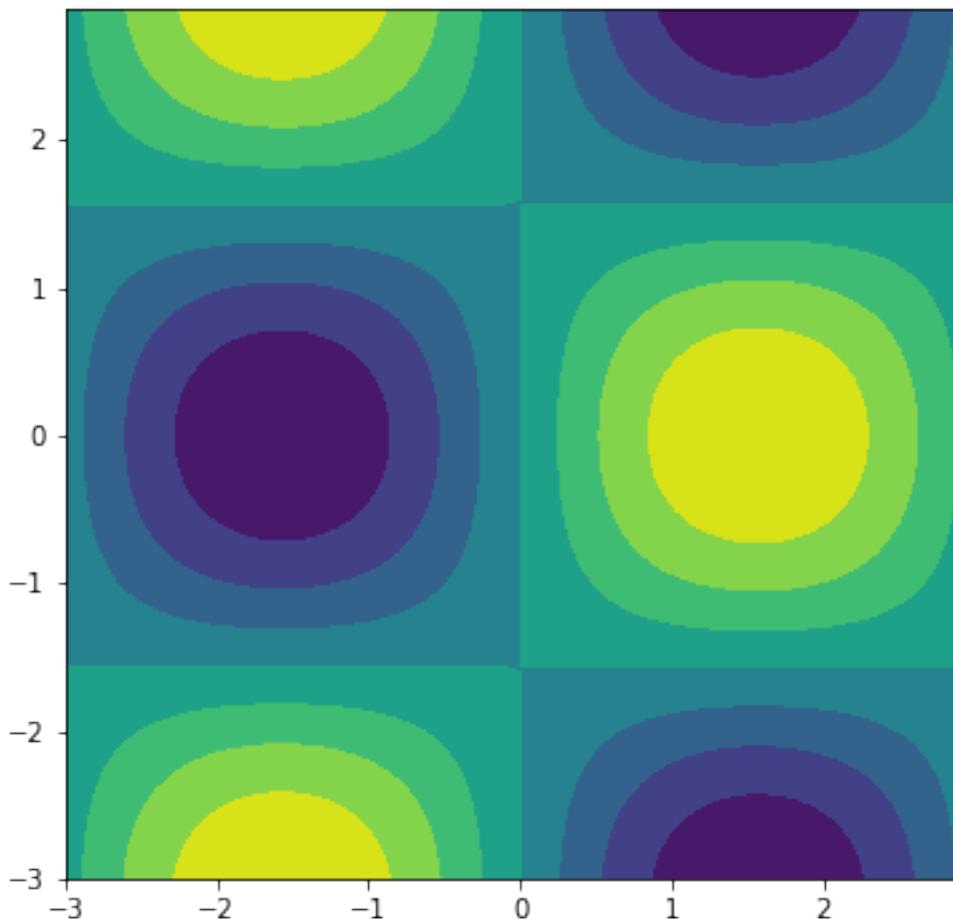
        X, Y = np.meshgrid(x, y)

        Z = np.sin(X)*np.cos(Y)

        fig, ax = plt.subplots(figsize=(6,6))

        ax.contourf(X,Y,Z)

        plt.show()
```



## Color bars on contour plots

Because colors represent a third dimension (like “height”) on a 2D plot, it is useful to have a scale to what each color means. A color scale is typically represented besides a plot. Color bars are added to **matplotlib** contour plots using the `fig.colorbar()` method. Since the color bar is not part of the contour plot, the color bar needs to be applied to the figure object, often called `fig`. A contour plot needs to be passed into the `fig.colorbar()` method, so when applying a color bar to a figure, a plot object needs to be available. A plot object is the output of the `ax.contour()` method. Previously the output of this method was not assigned to a variable. But to include a color bar on a contour plot, the plot object needs to be saved to a variable so that it can be passed to the `fig.colorbar()` method.

```
cf = ax1.contourf(X,Y,Z)
fig.colorbar(cf, ax=ax1)
```

Where `cf` is the plot object created by `ax1.contourf(X, Y, Z)`. The axis object that contains the contour plot, `ax1` is passed to the `fig.colorbar()` method along with the `cf` plot object.

```
In [10]: import matplotlib.pyplot as plt
         import numpy as np

%matplotlib inline

x = np.arange(-3.0, 3.0, 0.1)
y = np.arange(-3.0, 3.0, 0.1)

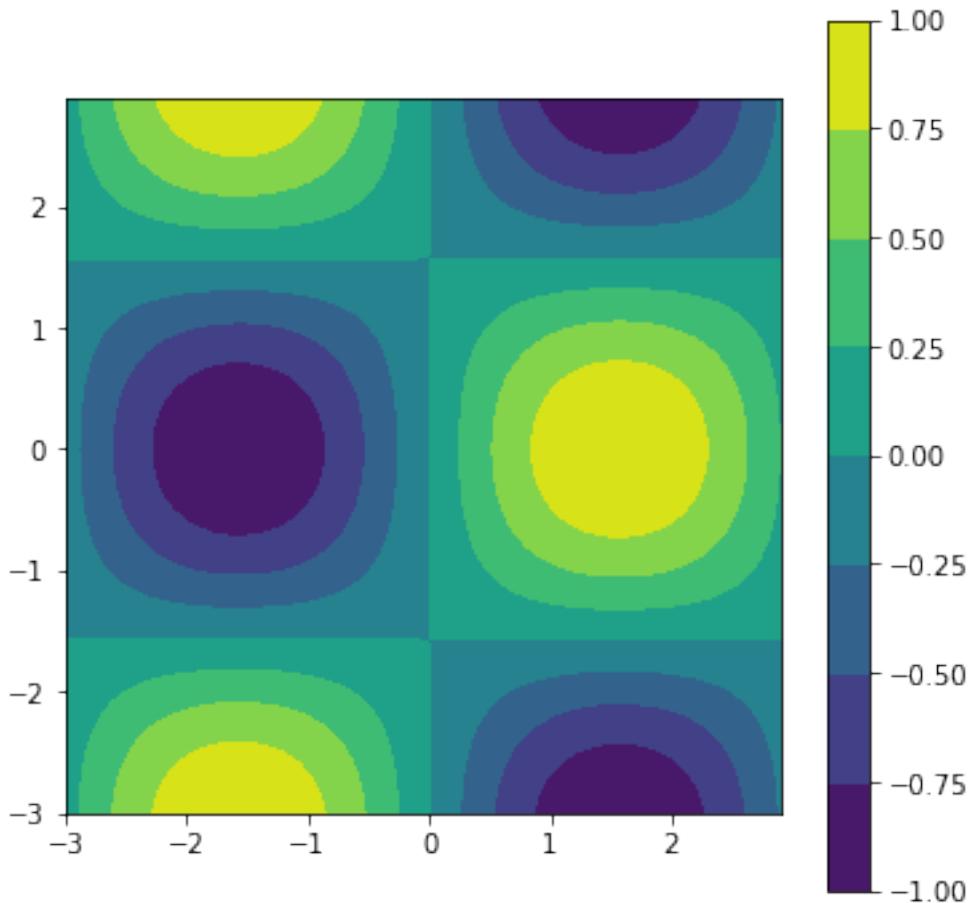
X, Y = np.meshgrid(x, y)

Z = np.sin(X)*np.cos(Y)

fig, ax1 = plt.subplots(figsize=(6,6))

ax1.set_aspect('equal')
cf = ax1.contourf(X,Y,Z)
fig.colorbar(cf, ax=ax1)

plt.show()
```



## Color maps on contour plots

The default color scheme of `matplotlib` contour and filled contour plots can be modified. A general way to do this is to call `matplotlib`'s `plt.get_cmap()` function which will output a color map object. There are many different colormaps available to apply to contour plots. A complete list is available in the `matplotlib` documentation. The colormap object is then passed to the `ax.contourf()` or `ax.contour` method as a keyword argument.

```
mycmap = plt.get_cmap('gist_earth')
ax.contourf(X, Y, Z, cmap=mycmap)
```

```
In [18]: import matplotlib.pyplot as plt
        import numpy as np

%matplotlib inline
```

```
x = np.arange(-3.0, 3.0, 0.1)
y = np.arange(-3.0, 3.0, 0.1)

X, Y = np.meshgrid(x, y)

Z = np.sin(X)*np.cos(Y)

fig, [ax1,ax2] = plt.subplots(1,2,figsize=(12,6))

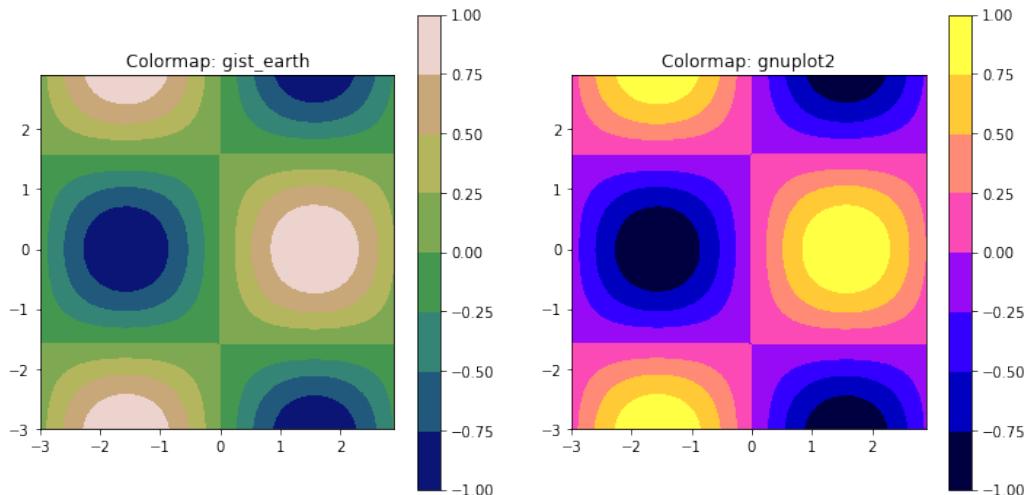
mycmap1 = plt.get_cmap('gist_earth')
ax1.set_aspect('equal')
ax1.set_title('Colormap: gist_earth')
cf1 = ax1.contourf(X,Y,Z, cmap=mycmap1)

fig.colorbar(cf1, ax=ax1)

mycmap2 = plt.get_cmap('gnuplot2')
ax2.set_aspect('equal')
ax2.set_title('Colormap: gnuplot2')
cf2 = ax2.contourf(X,Y,Z, cmap=mycmap2)

fig.colorbar(cf2, ax=ax2)

plt.show()
```



## 7.15 Quiver and Stream Plots

In this section, you will learn how to build quiver and stream plots using **matplotlib**

### Quiver Plots

A quiver plot is a type of 2D plot that shows vector lines as arrows. Quiver plots are useful in electrical engineering to visualize electrical potential and useful in mechanical engineering to show stress gradients.

To build a quiver plot, first import **matplotlib**. Again, the alias `plt` will be used instead of `matplotlib.pyplot`. If using a jupyter notebook include the line `%matplotlib inline`. For some of the quiver plots in this section, **numpy** will be needed as well.

```
In [1]: import matplotlib.pyplot as plt
        import numpy as np

        %matplotlib inline
```

#### Quiver plot with one arrow

Let's build a simple quiver plot that contains one arrow to see how `matplotlib`'s `ax.quiver()` method works. The `ax.quiver()` method takes four positional arguments:

```
ax.quiver(x_pos, y_pos, x_direct, y_direct)
```

Where `x_pos` and `y_pos` are the arrow starting positions and `x_direct`, `y_direct` are the arrow directions.

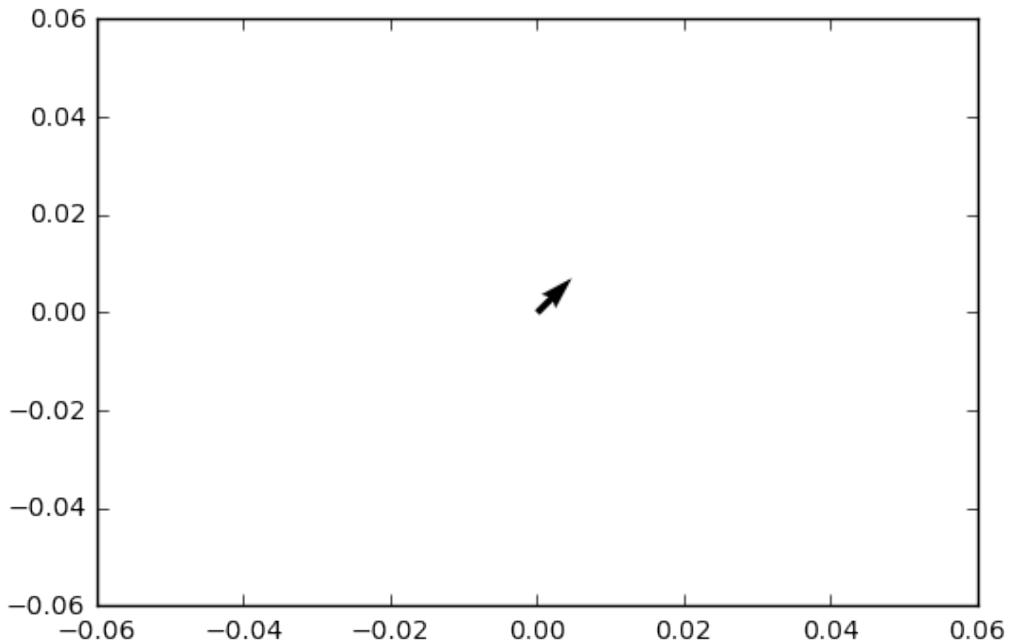
Let's build our first plot to contain one quiver arrow at the starting point `x_pos = 0`, `y_pos = 0`. We'll define this quiver arrow's direction as pointing up and to the right `x_direct = 1`, `y_direct = 1`.

```
In [2]: fig, ax = plt.subplots()
```

```
x_pos = 0
y_pos = 0
x_direct = 1
y_direct = 1

ax.quiver(x_pos,y_pos,x_direct,y_direct)

plt.show()
```



We can see one arrow pointing up and to the right.

### Quiver plot with two arrows

Now let's add a second arrow to the quiver plot by passing in two starting points and two arrow directions.

We'll keep our original arrow- starting position at the origin 0,0 and pointing up and to the right, direction 1,1. We'll define a second arrow with a starting position of -0.5,0.5 which points straight down (in the 0,-1 direction).

An additional keyword argument to add the the `ax.quiver()` method is `scale=5`. This will scale the arrow lengths so the arrows show up better on the quiver plot.

To see the start and end of both arrows, we'll set the axis limits between -1.5 and 1.5 using the `ax.axis()` method and passiging in a list of axis limits in the form `[xmin, xmax, ymin, ymax]`.

We can see two arrows. One arrow points to the upper right and the other arrow points straight down.

### Quiver plot using a meshgrid

Two arrows is great, but to create a whole 2D surface worth of arrows, we'll utilize `numpy's meshgrid()` function.

We need to build a set of arrays that denote the x and y starting positions of each quiver arrow on the plot. We will call our quiver arrow starting position arrays X and Y.

We can use the x,y arrow starting *positions* to define the x and y components of each quiver arrow *direction*. We will call the quiver arrow direction arrays u and v. On this quiver plot, we will define the quiver arrow direction based upon the quiver arrow starting point using:

$$x_{direction} = \cos(x_{starting\ point})$$

$$y_{direction} = \sin(y_{starting\ point})$$

```
In [3]: x = np.arange(0,2.2,0.2)
y = np.arange(0,2.2,0.2)

X, Y = np.meshgrid(x, y)
u = np.cos(X)*Y
v = np.sin(y)*Y
```

Now we can build the quiver plot using **matplotlib's** `ax.quiver()` method. Again, the method call takes four positional arguments:

```
ax.quiver(x_pos, y_pos, x_direct, y_direct)
```

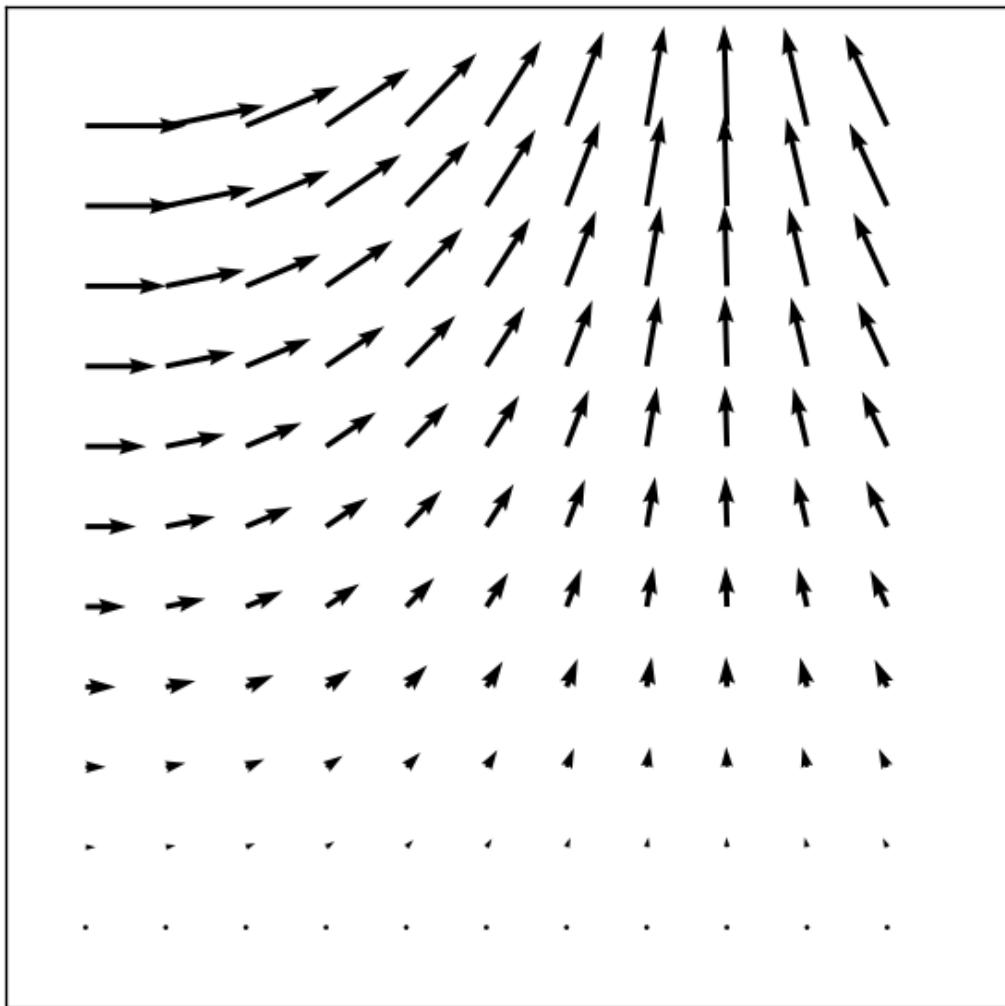
This time `x_pos` and `y_pos` are 2D arrays which contain the starting positions of the arrows and `x_direct`, `y_direct` are 2D arrays which contain the arrow directions.

The commands `ax.xaxis.set_ticks([])` and `ax.yaxis.set_ticks([])` removes the tick marks from the axis and `ax.set_aspect('equal')` sets the aspect ratio of the plot to 1:1.

```
In [4]: fig, ax = plt.subplots(figsize=(7,7))
ax.quiver(X,Y,u,v)

ax.xaxis.set_ticks([])
ax.yaxis.set_ticks([])
ax.axis([-0.2, 2.3, -0.2, 2.3])
ax.set_aspect('equal')

plt.show()
```



Now let's build another quiver plot with the  $\hat{i}$  and  $\hat{j}$  components of the arrows,  $\vec{F}$  are dependant upon the arrow starting point  $x, y$  according to the function:

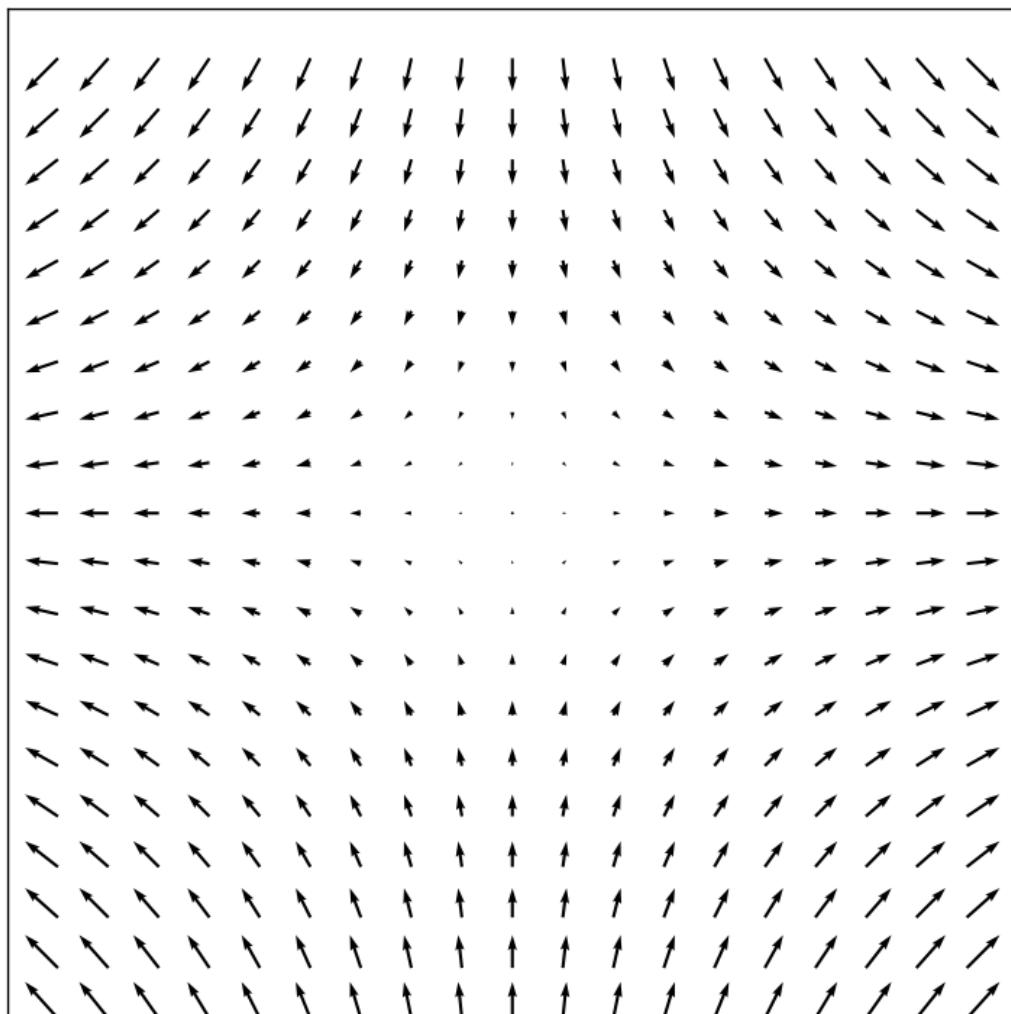
$$\vec{F} = \frac{x}{5} \hat{i} - \frac{y}{5} \hat{j}$$

Again we can use **numpy**'s `np.meshgrid()` function to build the arrow starting position arrays, then apply our function  $\vec{F}$  to the  $x$  and  $y$  arrow starting point arrays.

```
In [11]: x = np.arange(-1,1,0.1)
y = np.arange(-1,1,0.1)

X, Y = np.meshgrid(x, y)
u = np.cos(X)*Y
```

```
v = np.sin(y)*Y  
X,Y = np.meshgrid(x,y)  
  
u = X/5  
v = -Y/5  
  
fig, ax = plt.subplots(figsize=(9,9))  
  
ax.quiver(X,Y,u,v)  
  
ax.xaxis.set_ticks([])  
ax.yaxis.set_ticks([])  
ax.set_aspect('equal')  
  
plt.show()
```



### Quiver plot containing a gradient

Next let's build another quiver plot using the gradient function. The gradient function will have the form:

$$z = xe^{-x^2-y^2}$$

We can use **numpy's np.gradient()** function to apply the gradient function to every arrow's x,y starting position.

```
In [6]: x = np.arange(-2,2.2,0.2)
y = np.arange(-2,2.2,0.2)

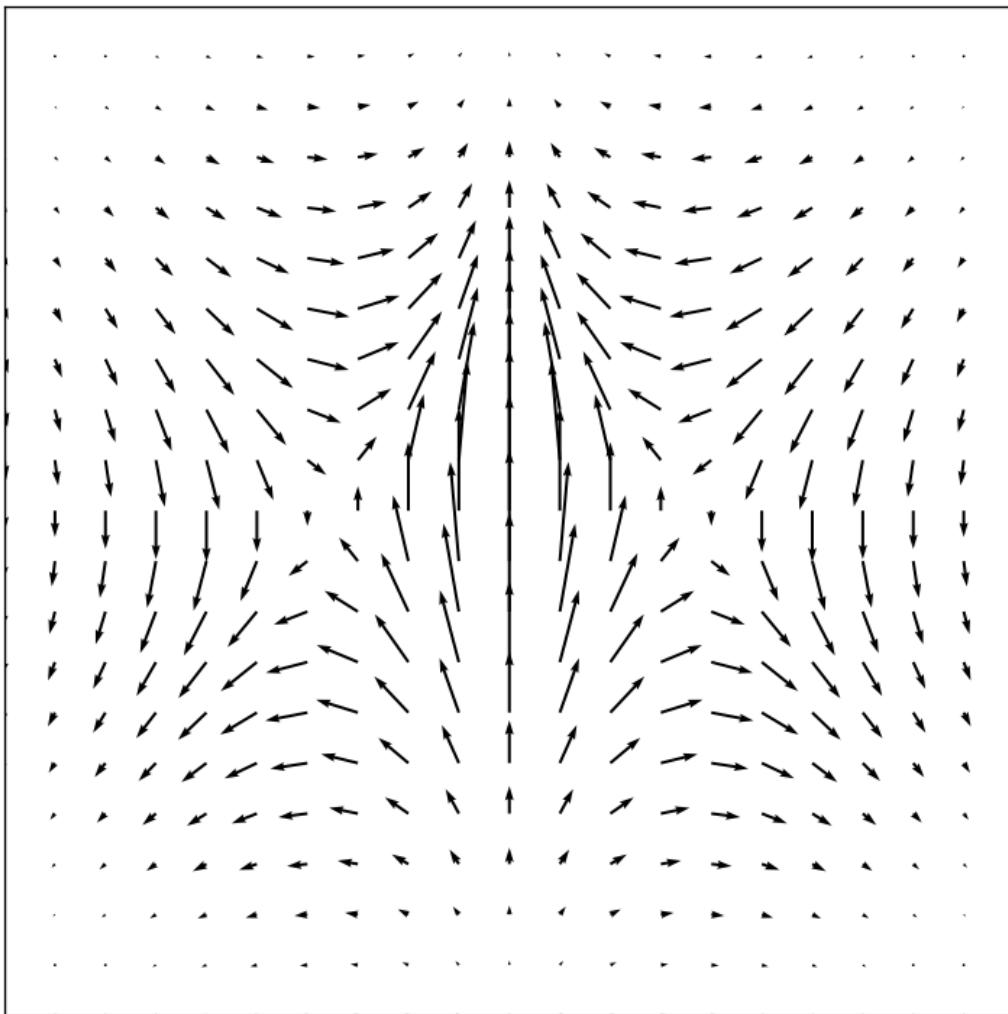
X, Y = np.meshgrid(x, y)
z = X*np.exp(-X**2 -Y**2)
dx, dy = np.gradient(z)

fig, ax = plt.subplots(figsize=(9,9))

ax.quiver(X,Y,dx,dy)

ax.xaxis.set_ticks([])
ax.yaxis.set_ticks([])
ax.set_aspect('equal')

plt.show()
```



### Quiver plot with four vortices

Now let's build a quiver plot containing four vortices. The function  $\vec{F}$  which describes the 2D field is:

$$\vec{F} = \sin(x)\cos(y) \hat{i} - \cos(x)\sin(y) \hat{j}$$

Again we can build these arrays using **numpy** and plot them with **matplotlib**.

```
In [8]: x = np.arange(0,2*np.pi+2*np.pi/20,2*np.pi/20)
y = np.arange(0,2*np.pi+2*np.pi/20,2*np.pi/20)
```

```
X,Y = np.meshgrid(x,y)

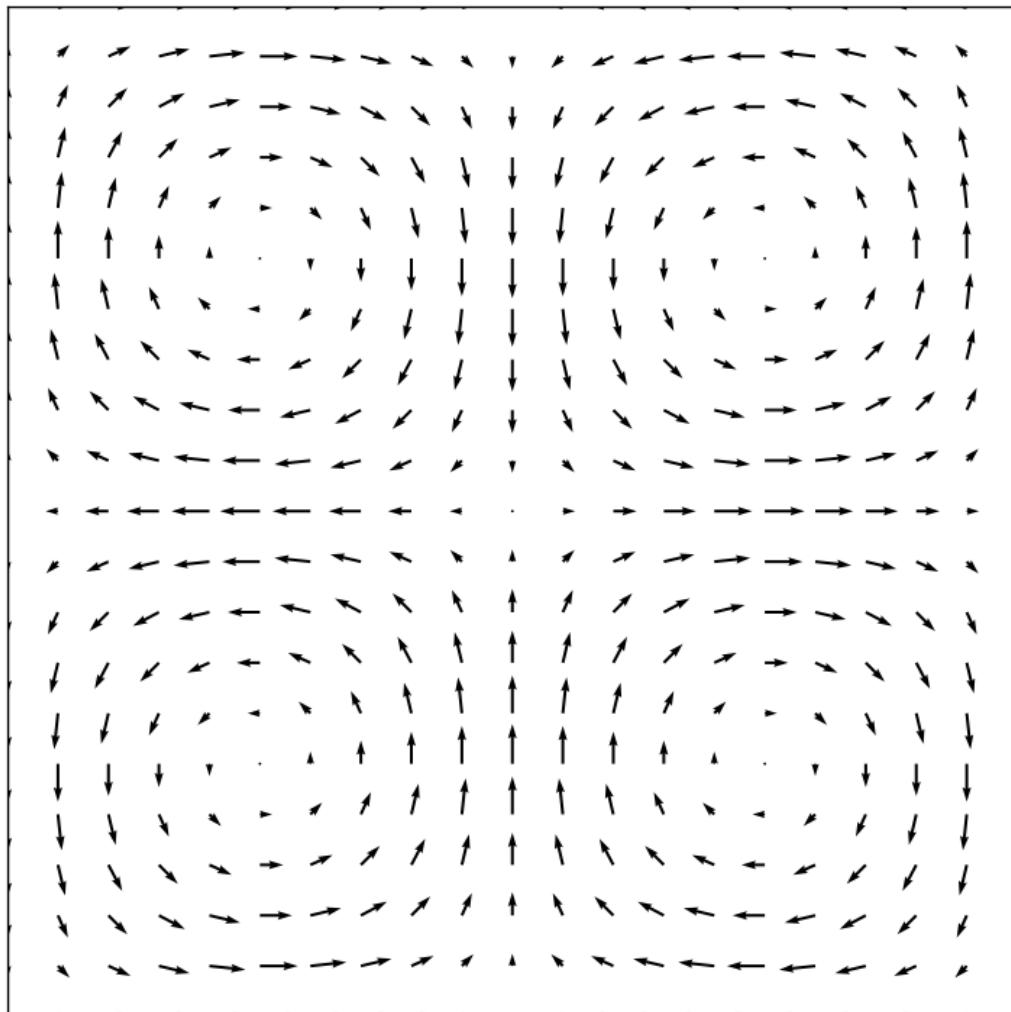
u = np.sin(X)*np.cos(Y)
v = -np.cos(X)*np.sin(Y)

fig, ax = plt.subplots(figsize=(9,9))

ax.quiver(X,Y,u,v)

ax.xaxis.set_ticks([])
ax.yaxis.set_ticks([])
ax.axis([0,2*np.pi,0,2*np.pi])
ax.set_aspect('equal')

plt.show()
```



## Quiver plots with color

Now let's add some color to the quiver plots. The `ax.quiver()` method has an optional fifth positional argument that specifies the quiver arrow color. The quiver arrow color argument needs to have the same dimensions as the position and direction arrays.

Using **matplotlib** subplots, we can build a figure which contains 3 quiver plots each in color

```
In [12]: import numpy as np
        import matplotlib.pyplot as plt
        %matplotlib inline

fig, [ax1,ax2,ax3] = plt.subplots(1,3)

x = np.arange(0,2.2,0.2)
y = np.arange(0,2.2,0.2)

X, Y = np.meshgrid(x, y)
u = np.cos(X)*Y
v = np.sin(y)*Y

n = -2
R = np.sqrt(((v-n)/2)**2 + ((u-n)/2)**2)

ax1.quiver(X,Y,u,v,R, alpha=0.8)

ax1.xaxis.set_ticks([])
ax1.yaxis.set_ticks([])
ax1.axis([-0.2, 2.3, -0.2, 2.3])
ax1.set_aspect('equal')

x = np.arange(-2,2.2,0.2)
y = np.arange(-2,2.2,0.2)

X, Y = np.meshgrid(x, y)
z = X*np.exp(-X**2 -Y**2)
dx, dy = np.gradient(z)

n = -2
R = np.sqrt(((dx-n)/2)**2 + ((dy-n)/2)**2)

ax2.quiver(X,Y,dx,dy,R)

ax2.xaxis.set_ticks([])
ax2.yaxis.set_ticks([])
```

```

ax2.set_aspect('equal')

x = np.arange(0,2*np.pi+2*np.pi/20,2*np.pi/20)
y = np.arange(0,2*np.pi+2*np.pi/20,2*np.pi/20)

X,Y = np.meshgrid(x,y)

u = np.sin(X)*np.cos(Y)
v = -np.cos(X)*np.sin(Y)

n = -1
R = np.sqrt(((dx-n)/2)**2 + ((dy-n)/2)**2)

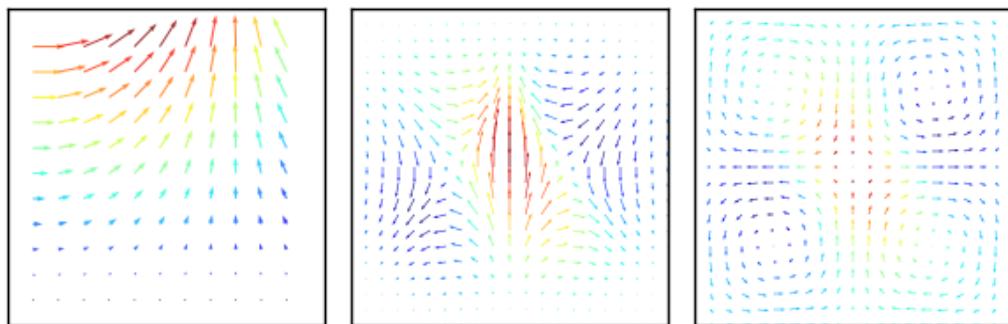
ax3.quiver(X,Y,u,v,R)

ax3.xaxis.set_ticks([])
ax3.yaxis.set_ticks([])
ax3.axis([0,2*np.pi,0,2*np.pi])
ax3.set_aspect('equal')

plt.tight_layout()
fig.savefig('3_quiver_plots.png', dpi=300, bbox_inches='tight')

plt.show()

```



## Stream Plots

A stream plot is a type of plot used to show fluid flow and 2D field gradients.

The basic method to build a stream plot in `matplotlib` is:

```
ax.streamplot(x_grid,y_grid,x_vec,y_vec, density=spacing)
```

Where `x_grid` and `y_grid` are arrays of x,y points. The arrays `x_vec` and `y_vec` denote the stream velocity at each point on the grid. The keyword argument `density=spacing` specifies how close together to draw the stream lines.

### A simple stream plot

Let's build a simple plot of stream lines on a  $10 \times 10$  grid where all the stream lines are parallel and point to the right.

```
In [1]: import matplotlib.pyplot as plt
        import numpy as np

#include if using a jupyter notebook. If using a .py script, comment out
%matplotlib inline

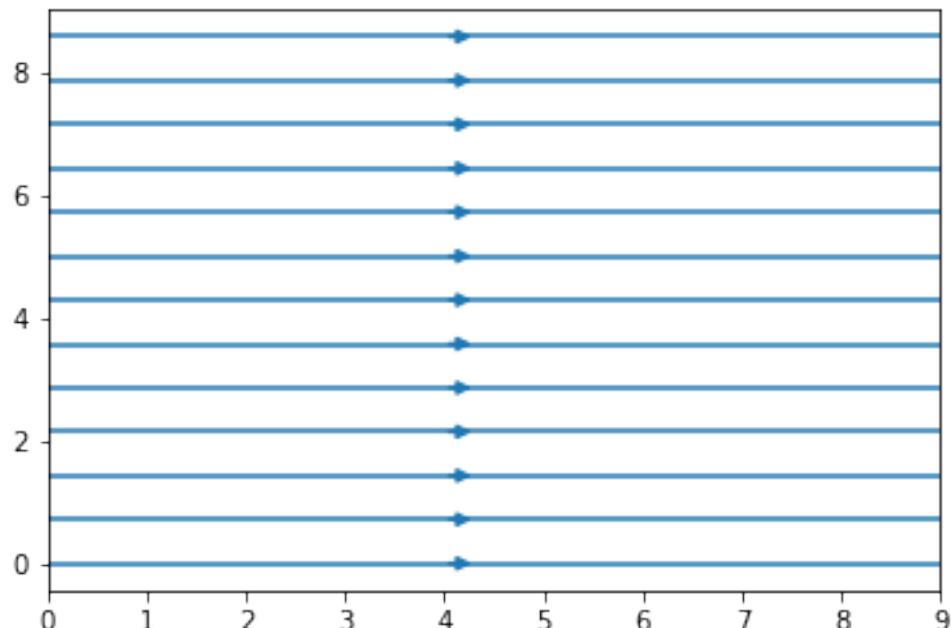
In [2]: x = np.arange(0,10)
        y = np.arange(0,10)

        X, Y = np.meshgrid(x,y)
        u = np.ones((10,10))
        v = np.zeros((10,10))

        fig, ax = plt.subplots()

        ax.streamplot(X,Y,u,v, density = 0.5)

        plt.show()
```



The plot contains parallel streamlines all pointing to the right.

### Stream plot of a field

We can build a stream plot which shows field lines based on a defined 2D vector field.

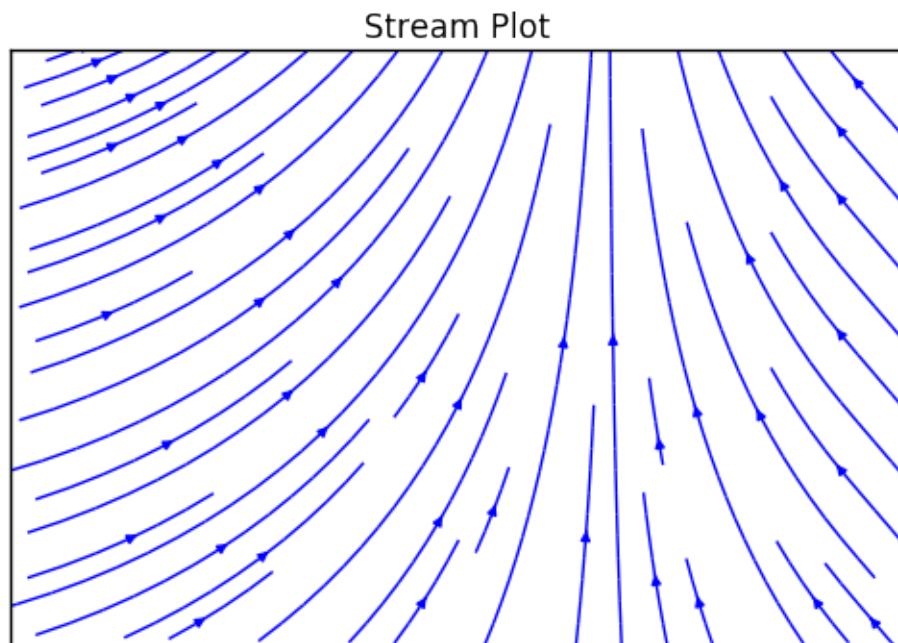
```
In [25]: x = np.arange(0,2.2,0.1)
y = np.arange(0,2.2,0.1)

X, Y = np.meshgrid(x, y)
u = np.cos(X)*Y
v = np.sin(y)*Y

fig, ax = plt.subplots()

ax.streamplot(X,Y,u,v, density = 1)
ax.axis([0.5,2.1,0,2])
ax.xaxis.set_ticks([])
ax.yaxis.set_ticks([])
ax.set_title('Stream Plot')

plt.show()
```



### Stream plot of two point charges

We can build a stream plot showing the electric field due to two point charges. The electric field at any point is dependant upon the position and distance relative to the point charges.

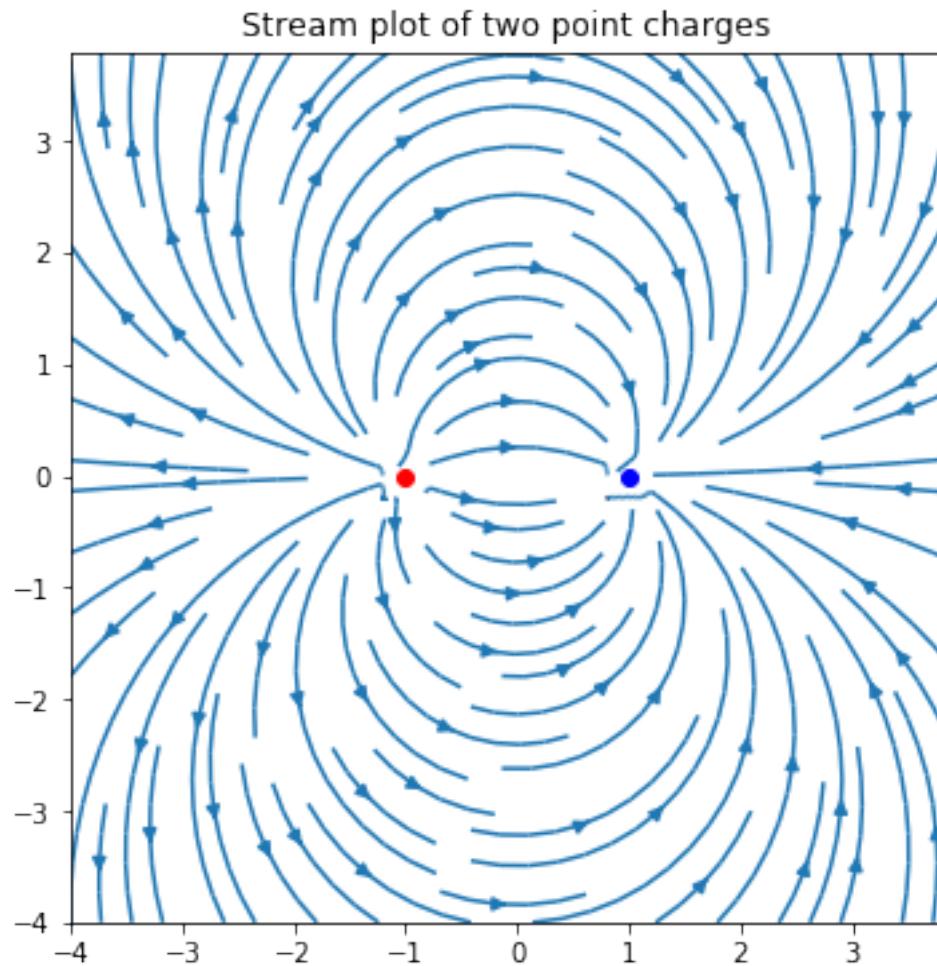
```
In [14]: import numpy as np
import matplotlib.pyplot as plt

x = np.arange(-4,4,0.2)
y = np.arange(-4,4,0.2)

X,Y = np.meshgrid(x,y)
Ex = (X + 1)/((X+1)**2 + Y**2) - (X - 1)/((X-1)**2 + Y**2)
Ey = Y/((X+1)**2 + Y**2) - Y/((X-1)**2 + Y**2)

fig, ax = plt.subplots(figsize=(6,6))
ax.streamplot(X,Y,Ex,Ey)
ax.set_aspect('equal')
ax.plot(-1,0,'-or')
ax.plot(1,0,'-ob')

ax.set_title('Stream plot of two point charges')
plt.show()
```



### Stream plot showing fluid flow around an object

Stream plots can also be used to show how fluid flows around a stationary object. In this example, we will consider a 2D circle as the stationary object and model the fluid flow around the circle.

In [5]: #from: <https://tonysyu.github.io/plotting-streamlines-with-matplotlib-and-sympy.html#.Wz>

```
import matplotlib.pyplot as plt
import numpy as np
import sympy
from sympy.abc import x, y

%matplotlib inline
```

```
def cylinder_stream_function(U=1, R=1):
    r = sympy.sqrt(x**2 + y**2)
    theta = sympy.atan2(y, x)
    return U * (r - R**2 / r) * sympy.sin(theta)

def velocity_field(psi):
    u = sympy.lambdify((x, y), psi.diff(y), 'numpy')
    v = sympy.lambdify((x, y), -psi.diff(x), 'numpy')
    return u, v

import numpy as np

def plot_streamlines(ax, u, v, xlim=(-1, 1), ylim=(-1, 1)):
    x0, x1 = xlim
    y0, y1 = ylim
    Y, X = np.ogrid[y0:y1:100j, x0:x1:100j]
    ax.streamplot(X, Y, u(X, Y), v(X, Y), color='cornflowerblue')

def format_axes(ax):
    ax.set_aspect('equal')
    ax.figure.subplots_adjust(bottom=0, top=1, left=0, right=1)
    ax.xaxis.set_ticks([])
    ax.yaxis.set_ticks([])
    ax.set_aspect('equal')

import matplotlib.pyplot as plt

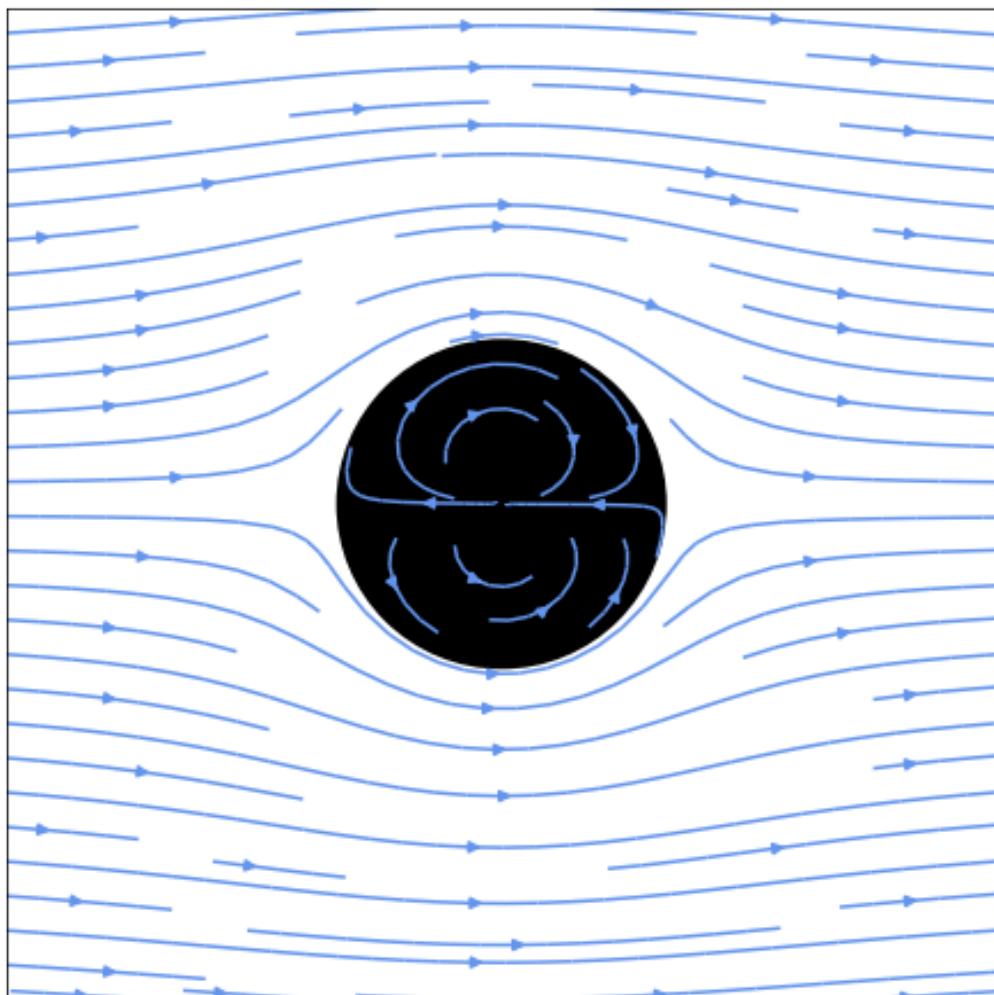
psi = cylinder_stream_function()
u, v = velocity_field(psi)

xlim = ylim = (-3, 3)
fig, ax = plt.subplots(figsize=(6, 6))
plot_streamlines(ax, u, v, xlim, ylim)
#ax.streamplot(u,v,xlim,ylim)

c = plt.Circle((0, 0), radius=1, facecolor='k')
ax.add_patch(c)

format_axes(ax)

plt.show()
```



## 7.16 3D Surface Plots

3D surface plots are useful for engineers.

The `mpl_toolkits.mplot3d import axes3d` submodule included with **matplotlib** provides the methods necessary to create 3D surface plots.

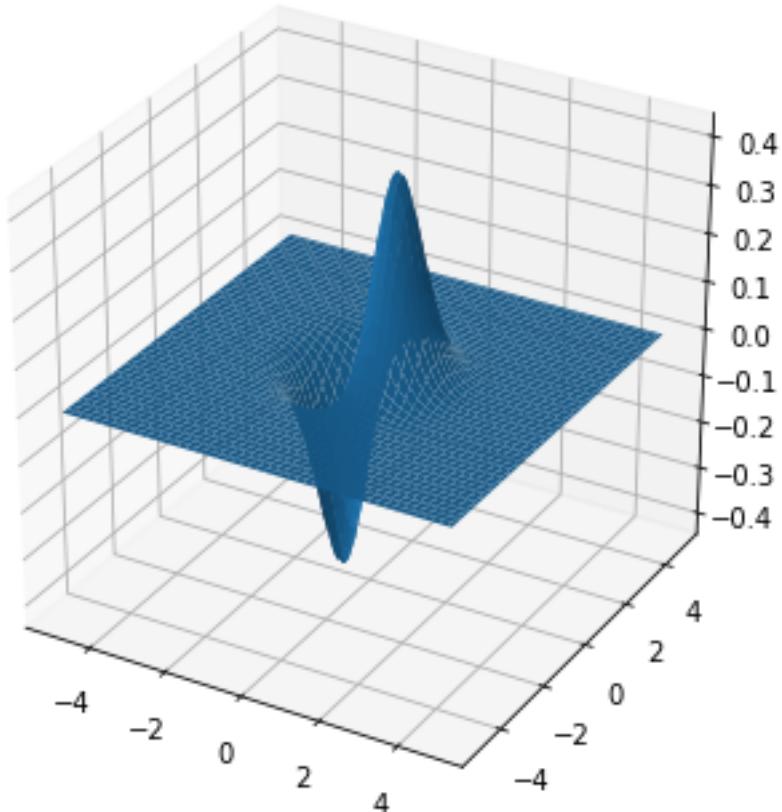
First import **matplotlib**. If using a jupyter notebook include the line `%matplotlib inline`

## Surface Plots

```
In [1]: from mpl_toolkits.mplot3d import axes3d
        import matplotlib.pyplot as plt
        import numpy as np
%matplotlib inline

In [2]: x = np.arange(-5,5,0.1)
        y = np.arange(-5,5,0.1)
        X,Y = np.meshgrid(x,y)
        Z = X*np.exp(-X**2 - Y**2)

In [3]: fig = plt.figure(figsize=(6,6))
        ax = fig.add_subplot(111, projection='3d')
        ax.plot_surface(X, Y, Z)
        plt.show()
```



## Wire Frame Plots

Wire frame 3D surface plots can be constructed using `matplotlib`'s `ax.plot_wireframe()` method. The general method call is:

```
ax.plot_wireframe(X, Y, Z, rstride=10, cstride=10)
```

Where `X` and `Y` are 2D array of `x` and `y` points and `Z` is a 2D array of heights. The keyword arguments `rstride=` and `cstride=` are the row step size and the column step size. These keyword arguments control how close together the “wires” in the wireplot are drawn.

```
In [4]: from mpl_toolkits.mplot3d import axes3d
import matplotlib.pyplot as plt
%matplotlib inline

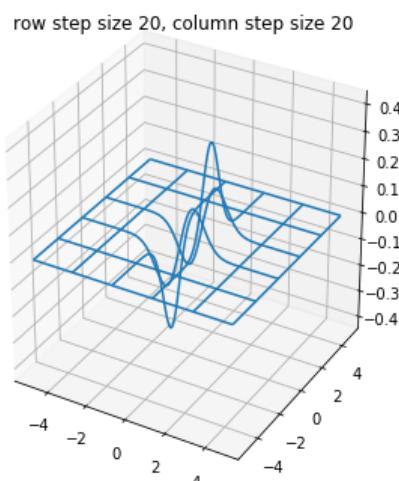
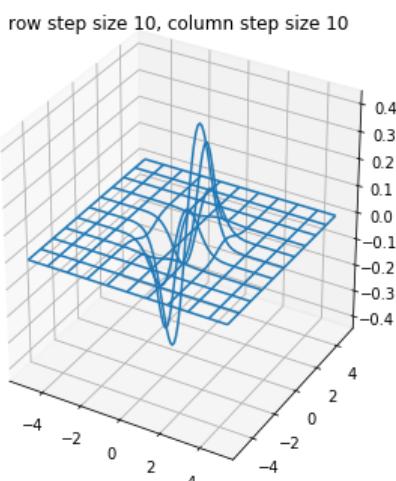
fig = plt.figure(figsize=(12,6))
ax1 = fig.add_subplot(121, projection='3d')
ax2 = fig.add_subplot(122, projection='3d')

x = np.arange(-5,5,0.1)
y = np.arange(-5,5,0.1)
X,Y = np.meshgrid(x,y)
Z = X*np.exp(-X**2 - Y**2)

# Plot a basic wireframe.
ax1.plot_wireframe(X, Y, Z, rstride=10, cstride=10)
ax1.set_title('row step size 10, column step size 10')

ax2.plot_wireframe(X, Y, Z, rstride=20, cstride=20)
ax2.set_title('row step size 20, column step size 20')

plt.show()
```



## Gradient Surface Plots

Gradient surface plots combine a 3D surface plot with a 2D contour plot. Along with the Z height included on the surface, a color is also included. The general method call is:

```
surf = ax.plot_surface(X, Y, Z, cmap=cm.coolwarm, linewidth=0, antialiased=False)
```

Where the keyword argument `cmap=` assigns the colors to the surface.

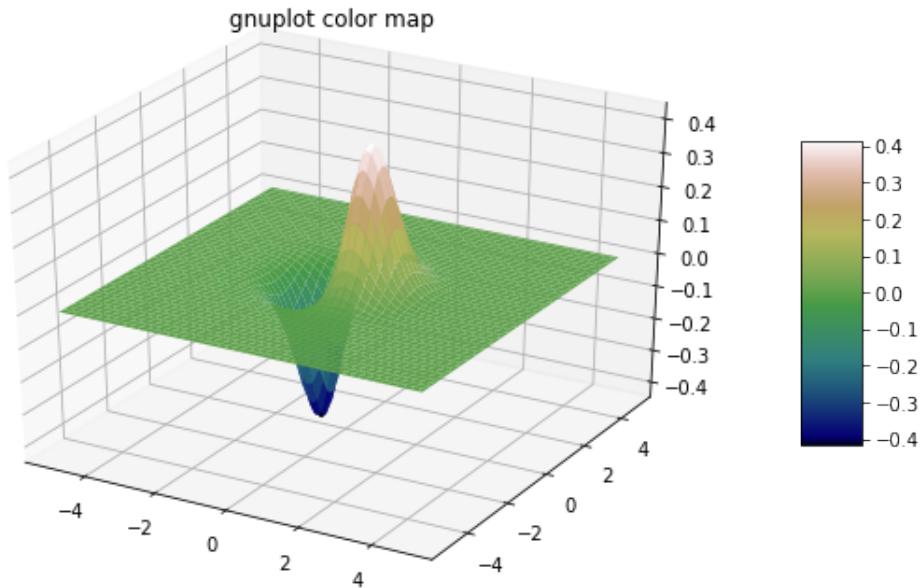
```
In [5]: from mpl_toolkits.mplot3d import axes3d
import matplotlib.pyplot as plt
%matplotlib inline

fig = plt.figure(figsize=(10,6))
ax1 = fig.add_subplot(111, projection='3d')

x = np.arange(-5,5,0.1)
y = np.arange(-5,5,0.1)
X,Y = np.meshgrid(x,y)
Z = X*np.exp(-X**2 - Y**2)

mycmap = plt.get_cmap('gist_earth')
ax1.set_title('gnuplot color map')
surf1 = ax1.plot_surface(X, Y, Z, cmap=mycmap)
fig.colorbar(surf1, ax=ax1, shrink=0.5, aspect=5)

plt.show()
```



### 3D Surface Plots with 2D contour plot projections

3D Surface Plots can be projected onto 2D surfaces. Below is sample code:

```
In [6]: from mpl_toolkits.mplot3d import axes3d
import matplotlib.pyplot as plt
from matplotlib import cm

fig = plt.figure(figsize=(12,6))
ax = fig.add_subplot(111, projection='3d')
#ax = fig.gca(projection='3d')

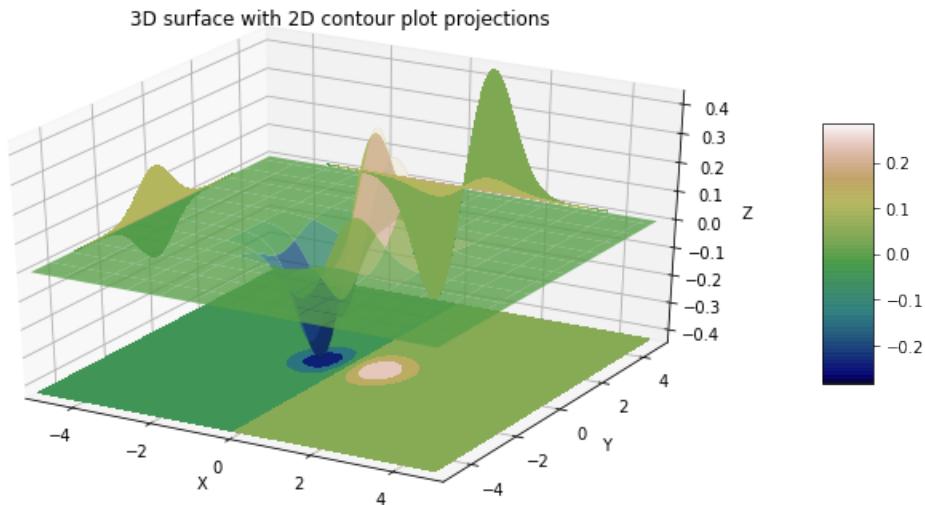
x = np.arange(-5,5,0.1)
y = np.arange(-5,5,0.1)
X,Y = np.meshgrid(x,y)
Z = X*np.exp(-X**2 - Y**2)

mycmap = plt.get_cmap('gist_earth')
surf = ax.plot_surface(X, Y, Z, rstride=8, cstride=8, alpha=0.8, cmap=mycmap)
cset = ax.contourf(X, Y, Z, zdir='z', offset=np.min(Z), cmap=mycmap)
cset = ax.contourf(X, Y, Z, zdir='x', offset=-5, cmap=mycmap)
cset = ax.contourf(X, Y, Z, zdir='y', offset=5, cmap=mycmap)

fig.colorbar(surf, ax=ax, shrink=0.5, aspect=5)
```

```
ax.set_xlabel('X')
ax.set_xlim(-5, 5)
ax.set_ylabel('Y')
ax.set_ylim(-5, 5)
ax.set_zlabel('Z')
ax.set_zlim(np.min(Z),np.max(Z))
ax.set_title('3D surface with 2D contour plot projections')

plt.show()
```



## 7.17 Summary

In this chapter you learned how to create plots using Python and **matplotlib**.

Types of charts: \* line graphs \* bar graphs \* pie charts \* bar and line graphs with error bars \* scatter plots \* histograms \* box plots and violin plots \* quiver plots \* heat maps

## Key Terms and Concepts

plot  
object  
attribute  
object oriented programming  
method

## Additional Resources

Matplotlib official documentation: <https://matplotlib.org/contents.html>

Matplotlib summary notebook on Kaggle: <https://www.kaggle.com/grroverpr/matplotlib-plotting-guide/notebook>

Python Plotting With Matplotlib (Guide) on Real Python: <https://realpython.com/python-matplotlib-guide/#why-can-matplotlib-be-confusing>

Python For Data Science: Matplotlib Cheat Sheet from DataCamp: [https://s3.amazonaws.com/assets.datacamp.com/blog\\_assets/Python\\_Matplotlib\\_Cheat\\_Sheet.pdf](https://s3.amazonaws.com/assets.datacamp.com/blog_assets/Python_Matplotlib_Cheat_Sheet.pdf)

## 7.18 Review Questions

6.1

6.2

6.3

6.4

6.5

6.6

6.7

6.8

6.9



# Chapter 8

## If Else Try Except

### 8.1 Introduction

After completing the following chapter, you will be able to:

- Use if, else if and else selection structures
- Use the pass and try and except key words
- Construct flow charts that describe how a script operates

### 8.2 Selection Statements

Selection statements are used in programming to decide or select particular blocks of code to run based on a defined logical condition. The primary selection structures in Python are:

- if
- else
- elif
- try
- except

### 8.3 If statements

The *if* statement is one of the basic selection structures in Python. The syntax for a section of code that uses an if statement is below:

```
if <logical_condition>:  
    <code to run>
```

The keyword *if* begins the selection statement. Following *if* a logical condition needs to be included. A logical condition is an expression that can be evaluated as True or False. An example

of logical condition is `a<5`. This logical condition will return True if `a` is less than 5. Otherwise if `a` is 5 or greater it will return False. Following the logical condition, a colon `:` is needed. After the if statement, a chunk of code to run when the condition is True is included. The section of code must be indented and indented the same amount. By convention this is 4 spaces. Most Python code editors, including Jupyter Notebooks will indent code after an if statement automatically.

An example set of code below shows how an if statement might work:

```
In [7]: a = 2
      if a<5:
          print('less than five')

less than five
```

In the first line of the code example above, the variable `a` is assigned the value 2. The second line of code is the if statement. The if-statement starts with the keyword `if` and is followed by the logical condition `a<5` and a colon `:`. The logical condition `a<5` will return either True or False depending on the value of `a`. Since `a=2`, the logical condition `a<5` evaluates as True. The line `print('less than five')` is indented after the if-statement. This is the line of code that will run if the if-statement is True. Since the if-statement is True the indented line `print('less than five')` runs and the user sees the text `less than five`.

## Multiple if statements

If statements can be chained together one after another to create a programmatic flow. For example, the following code block utilizes three different if-statements, each followed by an indented code block.

```
In [3]: a = 2
      if a<0:
          print('is negative')
      if a == 0:
          print('is zero')
      if a>0:
          print('is positive')

is positive
```

Note how each if-statement is followed by a logical condition and a colon `:`. Also note how the code below each if statement is indented. With the code left-justified (not indented), all three code lines will run and the output will be different. The `pass` keyword is used as code will not run unless at least one line of code is indented after the if-statement. `pass` is a line of code that does nothing.

```
In [6]: a = 2
      if a<0:
          pass
```

```

print('is negative')
if a == 0:
    pass
print('is zero')
if a>0:
    pass
print('is positive')

is negative
is zero
is positive

```

## 8.4 If-Else Statements

If statements can include *else* clauses. An *else* clause is a section of code that run if the if statement is False. The general form is:

```

if <true_condition>:
    <code block 1>
else:
    <code block 2>

```

The *else* key word needs to be on it's own line and be at the same indentation level as the *if* keyword that it corresponds to. *else* needs to be followed by a colon : and any code that is to run as part of the *else* statement must be indented the same amount. A sample if/else code section is below:

```

In [4]: a = 5
        if a>10:
            print('a is greater than 10')
        else:
            print('a is less than 10')

a is less than 10

```

Since *a=5* assigns a value to *a* that is less than 10, the code under the *if* statement does not run. Therefore the code under the *else* statement does run and *a is less than 10* is printed. If the value of *a* is modified so that it is greater than 10, the code under the *if* statement will run, and the code under the *else* keyword will not.

```

In [5]: a = 20
        if a>10:
            print('a is greater than 10')
        else:
            print('a is less than 10')

a is greater than 10

```

**elif**

The *else if* statement can be added to an if statement to run different sections of code depending on which one of many conditions are True. The basic syntax of an else if section of code is:

```
if <true_condition>:  
    <code block 1>  
elif <true_condition>:  
    <code block 2>  
else:  
    <code block 3>
```

The keyword `elif` must be followed by a logical statement that evaluates to True or False followed by a colon :. The `<code block>` will run if the else if condition is True and will be skipped if the else if condition is False. An example section of code if below:

```
In [7]: color = 'green'  
        if color == 'red':  
            print('The color is red')  
        elif color == 'green':  
            print('The color is green')  
        else:  
            print('The color is not red or green')
```

The color is green

If we modify the code to assign the string 'orange' to the variable `color`, the code under the `if` will not run and the code under the `elif` will not run either. Only the code under the `else` will be executed.

```
In [8]: color = 'orange'  
        if color == 'red':  
            print('The color is red')  
        elif color == 'green':  
            print('The color is green')  
        else:  
            print('The color is not red or green')
```

The color is not red or green

## 8.5 Try-Except Statements

## 8.6 Flow Charts

Flow charts are used to graphically represent the flow of a program. There are four basic shapes used in a flow chart, each with a specific use:

- oval: start and stop
- diamond: selection structures and loops
- parallelogram: input and output
- rectangle: calculations

Below is a sample program:

```
In [2]: # start
    num = input('Enter a number: ')
    num = float(num)
    if num>0:
        print('num greater than zero')
    if num<0:
        print('num less than zero')
    print('Done')
    # end
```

```
Enter a number: 8
num greater than zero
Done
```

## 8.7 Summary

### Key Terms and Concepts

selection structures

if

else

else-if

exceptions

try

flow chart

decision tree

## 8.8 Review Questions

```
In [ ]: 1.
```

2.

3.

4.

5.

6.

# Chapter 9

# Loops

## 9.1 Introduction

By the end of this chapter you will be able to:

- use a while loop
- use a for loop
- use the break statement
- use the continue statement
- construct flow charts that describe a program which contains a loop

## 9.2 While Loops

A *While Loop* is a type of loop that continues to run as long as a condition is True. When the condition becomes False the loop stops running. The general form of a while loop is below:

```
while <logical_statement>:  
    <code>
```

The keyword `while` must be included, as well as a `<logical_statement>` that can be evaluated as `True` or `False`. The `<code>` after the `while` statement must be indented and each line of code that will run as part of the while loop needs to be indented the same amount. Many code editors, like Jupyter notebooks will auto-indent the code within a loop. If the indentation is added manually, 4 spaces is standard.

An example of a while loop is below:

```
In [1]: i = 0  
      while i<4:  
          print(i)  
          i = i+1
```

```
0
1
2
3
```

The first line `i=0` creates a variable `i` and assigns it the value 0. The next line declares the logical condition needed to keep the loop running. The statement `i<4` will be True or False depending on the variable `i`. Since `i=0`, the statement `i<4` is True and the while loop starts to run. The code that runs inside the loop prints the value of `i` then increases `i` by 1. When `i=4`, the statement `i<4` is False and the while loop ends.

## Using a while loop to validate user input

While loops can be utilized to validate user input. Say we want to insist that a user inputs positive number. We can code this into a while loop that keeps on repeating until the user enters valid input. The code below will continue to ask a user for a positive number until one is entered.

```
In [1]: num_input = -1
while num_input < 0:
    str_input = input('Enter a positive number: ')
    num_input = float(str_input)

Enter a positive number: 4
```

In the section of code above, it is important to initialize the variable `num_input` with a value that causes the while statement `num_input < 0` to evaluate as True. `num_input = -1` causes the statement `num_input < 0` to evaluate as True and any other negative number would have worked as well. If the while statement can't be evaluated as True or False, Python will throw an error. It is therefore necessary to convert the user's input from a string to a float. The statement '`5`' < 0 does not evaluate to True or False, because the string '`5`' can't be compared to the number 0.

## 9.3 For Loops

*For Loops* are a component of many programming languages. A *For Loop* is a programming structure where a section of code is run a specified number of times. This compares to while loops which run as long as a logical condition is True.

Say we want to print out the statement:

```
Engineers solve problems in teams
Engineers solve problems in teams
Engineers solve problems in teams
```

One way to do accomplish this is with three print statements in a row:

```
In [1]: print('Engineers solve problems in teams')
        print('Engineers solve problems in teams')
        print('Engineers solve problems in teams')
```

```
Engineers solve problems in teams
Engineers solve problems in teams
Engineers solve problems in teams
```

## For Loops with range()

Another way to accomplish the same thing is to use a for loop. The basic structure of a for loop is below:

```
for <var> in range(<num>):
    <statements>
```

Where <var> can be any variable name, `range(<num>)` is the number of times the for loop runs and <statements> are the lines of code that execute each time the for loop runs. Note the for loop starts with the keyword `for` and includes a colon `:`. Both `for` and the colon `:` are required. Also note <statements> was indented. Each statement that will run as part of the for loop needs to be indented the same number of spaces. The standard indentation is 4 spaces.

Let's rewrite our example above using a for loop:

```
In [2]: for i in range(3):
        print('Engineers solve problems in teams')
```

```
Engineers solve problems in teams
Engineers solve problems in teams
Engineers solve problems in teams
```

The Python `range()` function will return a iterable list of values starting from zero and ending at  $n-1$ . For instance, when `range(3)` is called, the values 0, 1, 2 are returned. Note that 3 is not part of the iterable, even though the function input was `range(3)`. This can be confirmed with a for loop:

```
In [3]: for i in range(3):
        print(f'This is range number: {i}')
```

```
This is range number: 0
This is range number: 1
This is range number: 2
```

## For loops with lists

For loops can also be run using lists. If a list is used, the loop will run as many times as there are items in the list. The general structure is:

```
for <var> in <list>:  
    <statements>
```

Where `<var>` is a variable name assigned to the item in the list, `<list>` is the list object and `<statements>` are the programming statements that run for each item in the list. An example is below:

```
In [4]: my_list = ['electrical','civil','mechanical']  
        for item in my_list:  
            print(item)
```

```
electrical  
civil  
mechanical
```

Note how the loop ran three times, because there were three items in the list. Each time through the loop, the variable `item` was set to one particular item in the list. The first time through the loop, `item='electrical'`. The second time through the loop `item='mechanical'` and the third time through the loop `item='civil'`.

## 9.4 Break and Continue

Break and continue are two ways to modify the behavior of a loop

## 9.5 Flow Charts

Flow charts show the flow of a program graphically.

## 9.6 Summary

The summary from this chapter

### Key Terms and Concepts

- loop
- while loop
- for loop
- break statement
- continue statement
- infinite loop
- flow chart

# Chapter 10

## Matricies and Arrays

### 10.1 Introduction

By the end of this chapter you will be able to:

- Define a **numpy** array
- Modify a **numpy** array
- Index a **numpy** array
- Run mathematical operations on **numpy** arrays
- Solve a system of linear equations using matrices

### 10.2 Numpy

**Numpy** is a Python package used for numerical calculations, working with arrays of a homogeneous data type and scientific computing.

In previous chapters, **numpy** was used for the different functions and methods it provides. In addition to **numpy** math functions such as `np.sin()` **numpy** can also be used to construct homogeneous arrays and preform mathematical operations on arrays. A **numpy** array is different from a Python list. The data types stored in a Python list can all be different:

```
python_list = [ 1, -0.038, 'gear', True]
```

The list above contains four different data types 1 is an integer, -0.038 is a float, 'gear' is a string, and 'True' is a boolean.

```
In [1]: python_list = [1, -0.038, 'gear', True]
      for item in python_list:
          print(type(item))
```

```
<class 'int'>
<class 'float'>
<class 'str'>
<class 'bool'>
```

If the same four elements are stored in a **numpy** array, **numpy** will force all of the four items to conform to the same data type. In this case, all four items are converted to type '<U32', which is a string data type in **numpy**. **Numpy** arrays can also be two-dimensional, three-dimensional, or up to n-dimensional.

```
In [2]: import numpy as np
        np.array([1, -0.038, 'gear', True])
```

```
Out[2]: array(['1', '-0.038', 'gear', 'True'], dtype='<U32')
```

**Numpy** arrays are useful because mathematical operations can be run on the entire array simultaneously. If a list of numbers is stored in a regular Python list, when the list is multiplied by a scalar the list extends and repeats instead of multiplying each number in the list by the scalar.

```
In [3]: lst = [1, 2, 3, 4]
        lst*2
```

```
Out[3]: [1, 2, 3, 4, 1, 2, 3, 4]
```

To multiply each element of a Python list by the scalar number 2, a loop can be used:

```
In [4]: lst = [1, 2, 3, 4]
        for i, item in enumerate(lst):
            lst[i] = lst[i]*2
        lst
```

```
Out[4]: [2, 4, 6, 8]
```

The method above is fairly cumbersome and is also quite *computationally expensive*. An operation that is computationally expensive is an operation that takes a lot of processing time and/or storage resources like RAM. Another way of completing this same action is to use a **numpy** array. The **numpy** array can be multiplied by a scalar and this will produce an array with each element multiplied by the scalar.

```
In [5]: nparray= np.array([1,2,3,4])
        2*nparray
```

```
Out[5]: array([2, 4, 6, 8])
```

If we have a very long list, we can compare the amount of time it takes for each operation. Jupyter Notebooks have a nice built-in way to time how long it takes a line of code to execute. In a Jupyter

Notebook, when a line start with %timeit followed by code, the notebook will run the line of code multiple times and output an average of the time spent to complete the line of code. We can use %timit to compare an mathematical operation on a Python list using a for loop to the same mathematical operation on a **numpy** array.

```
In [6]: lst = list(range(10000))
%timeit for i, item in enumerate(lst): lst[i] = lst[i]*2

1.96 ms ± 97 ts per loop (mean ± std. dev. of 7 runs, 100 loops each)
```

```
In [7]: nparray= np.arange(0,10000,1)
%timeit 2*nparray
```

```
10.6 ts ± 8.35 ns per loop (mean ± std. dev. of 7 runs, 100000 loops each)
```

With 10,000 integers, the Python list and for-loop takes an average of single milliseconds, while the **numpy** array completing the same operation takes tens of microseconds. This is a speed increase of over 100x by using the **numpy** array. For larger lists and **numpy** arrays the speed increase using **numpy** is considerable.

## 10.3 Installing Numpy

Before **numpy**'s functions and methods can be used, **numpy** must be installed. Depending on which distribution of Python is being used, the installation methods are slightly different.

### Install numpy on Anaconda

If the Anaconda distribution of Python is installed, **numpy** comes pre-packaged and no further installation steps are necessary.

If using a version of Python from python.org or a version of Python that came with the operating system, the **Anaconda Prompt** and **conda** or **pip** can be used to install **numpy**.

### Install numpy with the Anaconda Prompt

To install **numpy**, open the **Anaconda Prompt** and type:

```
> conda install numpy
```

Type y for yes when prompted.

### Install numpy with pip

To install **numpy** with **pip**, bring up a terminal window and type:

```
$ pip install numpy
```

This will install **numpy** in the current working Python environment.

## Verify numpy installation

To verify **numpy** is installed, try to invoke **numpy** version at the Python REPL by calling the `__version__` attribute common to most Python packages.

```
In [3]: import numpy as np  
np.__version__
```

```
Out[3]: '1.14.2'
```

## 10.4 Array Creation

**Numpy** arrays are created with the `np.array()` function. The arguments provided to `np.array()` needs to be a list or iterable. An example is below. Note how the list `[1,2,3]` is passed into the function with square brackets at either end.

```
In [3]: import numpy as np  
np.array([1,2,3])
```

```
Out[3]: array([1, 2, 3])
```

The data type can be passed into the `np.array()` function as a second optional positional arguments. Available data types include 'int64', 'float', complex and >U32 (string data type).

```
In [5]: import numpy as np  
np.array([1,2,3],dtype='float')
```

```
Out[5]: array([1., 2., 3.])
```

The data type store in a **numpy** array can be determined using the `.dtype` method. For instance, an array of floats will return `float64`.

```
In [12]: import numpy as np  
my_array = np.array([1,2,3],dtype='float')  
my_array.dtype
```

```
Out[12]: dtype('float64')
```

## Arrays of Regularly Spaced Numbers

### np.arange()

Numpy's `np.arange()` function will create a **numpy** array according the arguments `start`, `stop+1`,`step`.

```
my_array = np.arange(start, stop+1, step)
```

This function is useful for creating an array of regularly spaced numbers. Consider creating a numpy array of even numbers between 0 and 10. Note that just like counting in Python, counting in numpy starts at zero and ends at n+1.

In [19]: `np.arange(0,10+2,2)`

Out[19]: `array([ 0, 2, 4, 6, 8, 10])`

### np.linspace()

Numpy's `np.linspace()` function will create a **numpy** array according the arguments `start`, `stop+1`,`number of elements`.

```
my_array = np.linspace(start, stop, number of elements)
```

This function is useful for creating an array of regularly spaced numbers where the spacing is not known but the number of values is. Consider creating a **numpy** array of 10 numbers between 0 and 2pi.

In [20]: `np.linspace(0,2*np.pi,10)`

Out[20]: `array([0.0, 0.6981317, 1.3962634, 2.0943951, 2.7925268, 3.4906585, 4.1887902, 4.88692191, 5.58505361, 6.28318531])`

### np.logspace()

Numpy's `np.logspace()` function will create a **numpy** array according the arguments `start`, `stop`,`number of elements`, but unlike `np.linspace()`, `np.logspace()` will produce a logarithmically spaced array.

```
my_array = np.logspace(start, stop, number of elements)
```

This function is useful for creating an array of logarithmically spaced numbers where the spacing interval is not known but the number of values is. Consider creating a **numpy** array of 10 logarithmically spaced numbers between 0.1 and 1.

In [26]: `np.logspace(0.1, 1, 10)`

Out[26]: `array([ 1.25892541, 1.58489319, 1.99526231, 2.51188643, 3.16227766, 3.98107171, 5.01187234, 6.30957344, 7.94328235, 10. ])`

**np.zeros()**

**Numpy's** `np.zeros()` function will create a **numpy** array containing zeros of a specific size. This is often useful when the size of an array is known, but the values that will go into it have not been created yet.

```
my_array = np.zeros((rows,cols))
```

In [53]: `np.zeros((5,5))`

Out [53]: `array([[0., 0., 0., 0., 0.],  
[0., 0., 0., 0., 0.],  
[0., 0., 0., 0., 0.],  
[0., 0., 0., 0., 0.],  
[0., 0., 0., 0., 0.]])`

**np.ones()**

**Numpy's** `np.ones()` function will create a **numpy** array containing all 1's of a specific size. This is often useful when the size of an array is known, but the values that will go into it have not been created yet.

```
my_array = np.ones((rows,cols))
```

In [54]: `np.ones((3,5))`

Out [54]: `array([[1., 1., 1., 1., 1.],  
[1., 1., 1., 1., 1.],  
[1., 1., 1., 1., 1.]])`

## Arrays of Random Numbers

**Numpy** has functions to create many different types of random number arrays in the `np.random` module. A few of the common random number types are below.

### Array of Random Integers

Arrays of random integers can be created with **numpy's** `np.random.randint()` function. The general syntax is:

```
np.random.randint(lower limit, upper limit, number of values)
```

To create an array of 5 different random numbers, each random number between 1 and 10:

In [30]: `np.random.randint(0,10,5)`

Out [30]: `array([9, 4, 9, 1, 9])`

A multi-dimentional size can be provided as the third arument. A  $5 \times 5$  array of random numbers between 1 and 10:

```
In [31]: np.random.randint(0,10,[5,5])
```

```
Out[31]: array([[8, 1, 6, 7, 7],  
                 [9, 9, 0, 7, 7],  
                 [6, 2, 1, 0, 2],  
                 [8, 3, 4, 2, 1],  
                 [4, 5, 1, 0, 3]])
```

### Array of Random Floats

Arrays of random floating point numbers can be created with **numpy**'s `np.random.rand()` function. The general syntax is:

```
np.random.rand(number of values)
```

To create an array of 5 different random numbers, each random number between 0 and 1:

```
In [36]: np.random.rand(5)
```

```
Out[36]: array([0.02421777, 0.06312956, 0.45358935, 0.72194406, 0.65034115])
```

### Random Array Choice from a List

```
np.random.choice(list of choices, number of choices)
```

To choose three numbers at random from a list of [1,5,9,11] use:

```
In [37]: lst = [1,5,9,11]  
np.random.choice(lst,3)
```

```
Out[37]: array([1, 1, 9])
```

### Random Array with a Normal Distribution

`np.random.randn()` will return a random array of numbers with a normal distribution, assuming a mean of 0 and variance of 1.

```
np.random.randn(number of values)
```

```
In [38]: np.random.randn(10)
```

```
Out[38]: array([-1.88792019,  0.5247404 , -1.16660705,  0.68567961, -0.57930791,  
                 -0.54634836,  0.1534303 , -1.64928217, -0.01712827,  0.9343703 ])
```

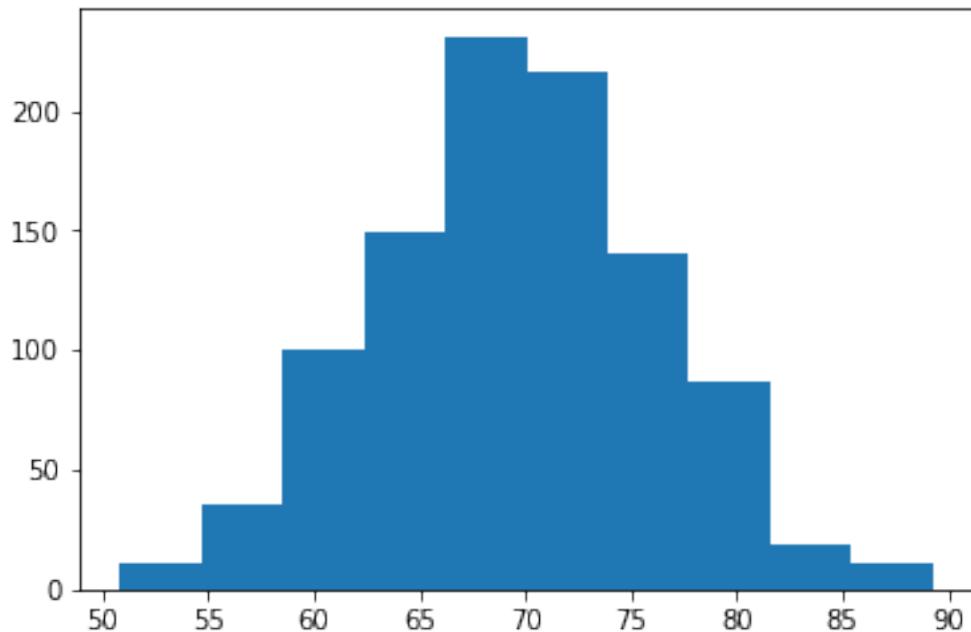
To specify a mean `mu` and a standard deviation `sigma`, the function can be wrapped with:

```
In [39]: mu = 70  
sigma = 6.6  
  
sigma * np.random.randn(10) + mu
```

```
Out[39]: array([65.56436887, 70.7579809 , 78.70706918, 76.5538997 , 72.83272356,  
62.17107227, 57.15193348, 66.07326289, 75.47326815, 76.13660167])
```

To quickly plot a normal distribution, **matplotlib plt.hist()** function can be used.

```
In [43]: import matplotlib.pyplot as plt  
import numpy as np  
%matplotlib inline  
  
mu = 70  
sigma = 6.6  
  
sample = sigma * np.random.randn(1000) + mu  
plt.hist(sample)  
plt.show()
```



## 2-D Arrays

### np.meshgrid

```
In [47]: x = np.arange(0,6)
y = np.arange(0,11,2)
X, Y = np.meshgrid(x,y)
print(X)
print(Y)
```

```
[[0 1 2 3 4 5]
 [0 1 2 3 4 5]
 [0 1 2 3 4 5]
 [0 1 2 3 4 5]
 [0 1 2 3 4 5]
 [0 1 2 3 4 5]]
[[ 0  0  0  0  0  0]
 [ 2  2  2  2  2  2]
 [ 4  4  4  4  4  4]
 [ 6  6  6  6  6  6]
 [ 8  8  8  8  8  8]
 [10 10 10 10 10 10]]
```

### np.mgrid

```
In [52]: X, Y = np.mgrid[0:5,0:11:2]
print(X)
print(Y)
```

```
[[0 0 0 0 0 0]
 [1 1 1 1 1 1]
 [2 2 2 2 2 2]
 [3 3 3 3 3 3]
 [4 4 4 4 4 4]]
[[ 0  2  4  6  8 10]
 [ 0  2  4  6  8 10]
 [ 0  2  4  6  8 10]
 [ 0  2  4  6  8 10]
 [ 0  2  4  6  8 10]]
```

## Section Summary

Below is a list of numpy functions used in this section

np.array np.arange np.linspace np.logspace np.zeros np.ones np.random.rand np.random.randint  
np.random.randn np.meshgrid np.mgrid

## 10.5 Array Indexing

Elements in a numpy array can be accessed using *indexing*. Indexing is an operation that pulls out a select set of values from an array. The *index* of a value in an array is that value's location. There is a difference between the the value that is stored and the index or location of that value within an array. Take the following example. Remember that counting in Python starts at zero.

```
In [2]: import numpy as np
a = np.array([2,4,6])
```

In the array above, there are three values stored: 2, 4 and 6. Each of these values has a different index. The value 2 has an index of 0. 2 is in the 0 location in the array. The value 4 has an index of 1 and the value 6 has an index of 2. A table summarizes this below:

Index or Location	Value
0	2
1	4
2	6

Individual values stored in array can be accessed using indexing. The general form is:

```
<value> = <array>[<index>]
```

Where *<value>* is the value store in the array, *<array>* is the array object name and *[index]* specifies the index or location of that value. Applied to our example above, the value 6 is stored at index 2.

```
In [3]: import numpy as np
a = np.array([2,4,6])
value = a[2]
print(value)
```

6

## Multi-dimensional Array Indexing

Mulit-dimensional arrays are indexed as well. A simple 2-D array is defined by a list of lists.

```
In [5]: import numpy as np
a = np.array([[2,3,4],[6,7,8]])
print(a)
```

```
[[2 3 4]
 [6 7 8]]
```

Values in a 2-D array can be accessed using the general notation below:

```
<value> = <array>[row, col]
```

Where `<value>` is the value pulled out of the 2-D array named `<array>`. `[row, col]` specifies the row and column index of the value. Remember that Python counting starts at 0, so the first row is row zero and the first column is column zero.

We can access the value 8 in the array above by calling the row and column index `[1,2]` for the 2nd row (remember row 0 is the first row) and the 3rd column (remember column 0 is the first column).

```
In [6]: import numpy as np
```

```
a = np.array([[2,3,4],[6,7,8]])
value = a[1,2]
print(value)
```

```
8
```

## Assigning Values with Indexing

Array indexing can be used to access values in an array and they can also be used for *assigning* values of an array. In order to assign a value to a particular index or location in an array, the following general form is used:

```
<array>[index] = <value>
```

Where `<array>` is the array object that value will be assigned to, `[index]` is the index or location the value will be put in and `<value>` is the value assigned to that location.

If we want to put the value 10 into the third index or location of an array, it can be coded as follows:

```
In [8]: import numpy as np
        a = np.array([2,4,6])
        a[2] = 10
        print(a)
```

```
[ 2  4 10]
```

Values can also be assigned into 2-D arrays using the form

```
<array>[row, col] = <value>
```

An example is below:

```
In [10]: import numpy as np

a = np.array([[2,3,4],[6,7,8]])
print(a)

a[1,2]=20
print(a)

[[2 3 4]
 [6 7 8]]
[[ 2  3  4]
 [ 6  7 20]]
```

## 10.6 Array Slicing

Multiple values stored within an array can be accessed simultaneously with array *slicing*. To pull out a section or slice of an array, the colon operator : is used when calling the index. The general form is:

```
<slice> = <array>[start:end+1]
```

Where *<slice>* is the slice or section of the array object *<array>*. The index of the slice is specified in `[start:end+1]`. Note that Python counting starts at zero and ends at n+1. To pull the first 2 values out of an array, the indexing operation is `[0:2]`. An example is below:

```
In [1]: import numpy as np

a = np.array([2, 4, 6])
b = a[0:2]
print(b)

[2 4]
```

A blank stands in for the last index. A slicing operation `[1:]` will pull out the 2nd through last value of an array

```
In [3]: import numpy as np

a = np.array([2, 4, 6, 8])
b = a[1:]
print(b)

[4 6 8]
```

A blank also stands in for the first index. The slicing operation `[:3]` will pull out the 1st through third values of an array

```
In [4]: import numpy as np
```

```
a = np.array([2, 4, 6, 8])
b = a[:3]
print(b)
```

```
[2 4 6]
```

## Slicing 2D Arrays

2D arrays can be sliced with the general form

```
<slice> = <array>[start_row:end_row+1, start_col:end_col-1]
```

```
In [7]: import numpy as np
```

```
a = np.array([[2, 4, 6, 8], [10, 20, 30, 40]])
b = a[0:2, 0:3]
print(b)
```

```
[[ 2  4  6]
 [10 20 30]]
```

Again, a blank represents the first index or the last index. The colon operator also represents “all”. To slice out the first two rows and all columns that code is:

```
In [1]: import numpy as np
```

```
a = np.array([[2, 4, 6, 8], [10, 20, 30, 40]])
b = a[:2, :] # [first two rows, all columns]
print(b)
```

```
[[ 2  4  6  8]
 [10 20 30 40]]
```

## 10.7 Array Operations

Mathematical operations can be completed using numpy arrays.

### Scalar Addition

Scalars can be added and subtracted from arrays and arrays can be added and subtracted from each other:

```
In [2]: import numpy as np
```

```
a = np.array([1, 2, 3])
b = a + 2
print(b)
```

[3 4 5]

```
In [3]: import numpy as np
```

```
a = np.array([1, 2, 3])
b = np.array([2, 4, 6])
c = a + b
print(c)
```

[3 6 9]

## 10.8 Scalar Multiplication

Numpy arrays can be multiplied and divided by scalars:

```
In [4]: import numpy as np
```

```
a = np.array([1,2,3])
b = 3*a
print(b)
```

[3 6 9]

```
In [5]: import numpy as np
```

```
a = np.array([10,20,30])
b = a/2
print(b)
```

[ 5. 10. 15.]

## Matrix Multiplication

Numpy array can be multiplied by each other using matrix multiplication. These matrix multiplication methods include element-wise multiplication, the dot product and the cross product

### Element-wise multiplication

```
In [14]: import numpy as np  
  
a = np.array([1, 2, 3])  
b = np.array([4, 5, 6])  
a * b  
  
Out[14]: array([ 4, 10, 18])
```

### Dot Product

```
In [13]: import numpy as np  
  
a = np.array([1, 2, 3])  
b = np.array([4, 5, 6])  
np.dot(a,b)  
  
Out[13]: 32
```

### Cross Product

```
In [12]: import numpy as np  
  
a = np.array([1, 2, 3])  
b = np.array([4, 5, 6])  
np.cross(a, b)  
  
Out[12]: array([-3, 6, -3])
```

## Exponents and Logarithms

```
np.exp()  
np.log() - natural log  
np.log2() base-2 log  
np.log10() base 10 log  
np.e
```

## Trigonometry

```
sin()  
cos()  
tan()  
arcsin()  
arccos()  
arctan()  
hypot() Given the sides of a right triangle, returns the hypotenuse.
```

```
degrees()
radians()
deg2rad()
rad2deg()
```

## 10.9 Systems of Linear Equations

In [1]: `import numpy as np`

A system of linear equations is shown below

$$8x + 3y - 2z = 9$$

$$-4x + 7y + 5z = 15$$

$$3x + 4y - 12z = 35$$

The `np.linalg.solve()` function can be used to solve this system for the variables  $x$ ,  $y$  and  $z$ . Set a numpy array `A` as a 3 by 3 array of the coefficients. Set a numpy array `b` as the right-hand side of the equations. Then solve for the values of  $x$ ,  $y$  and  $z$  using `np.linalg.solve(A, b)`. The resulting array will have three entries. One entry for each variable.

In [2]: `A = np.array([[8, 3, -2], [-4, 7, 5], [3, 4, -12]])`  
`b = np.array([9, 15, 35])`  
`x = np.linalg.solve(A, b)`  
`x`

Out[2]: `array([-0.58226371, 3.22870478, -1.98599767])`

In [16]: `x[0]`

Out[16]: `-0.5822637106184365`

We can plug the values of  $x$ ,  $y$  and  $z$  back into one of the equations to check the answer.

$$8x + 3y - 2z = 9$$

Where  $x$  is the first entry in the array,  $y$  is the second entry in the array and  $z$  is the third entry in the array.

```
x = x[0]
y = x[1]
z = x[2]
```

When these values are plugged into the equation above, the answer should be 9.0.

In [4]: `8 * x[0] + 3 * x[1] - 2 * x[2]`

Out [4]: 9.0

Another example from engineering statics is the following:  
three forces operate on a point. The forces are defined as:

F1 =

F2 =

F3 =

What is the tension in AC and BC?

## 10.10 Summary

### Key Terms and Concepts

numpy

array

matrix

computationally expensive

slice

index

homogenous data type

### Numpy Functions and Methods

`np.array()`

## 10.11 Review Questions

1.

2.

3.

4.

5.

6.

7.

8.

9.

# Chapter 11

## Symbolic Math

### 11.1 Introduction

By the end of this chapter you will be able to:

- Define Python variables as symbolic math variables
- Define mathematical equations using symbolic math variables
- Solve for symbolic math variables in terms of other symbolic math variables
- Derive numerical solutions using symbolic math variable substitution
- Simplify equations using symbolic math variables

### 11.2 SymPy

SymPy <http://www.sympy.org> is a Python library for **symbolic math**.

Symbolic Math is using symbols to represent mathematical expressions. An example symbolic math expression is below:

$$x^2 + y^2 = z$$

In the expression, we have the variables  $x$ ,  $y$  and  $z$ .

If we define a second symbolic math expression as:

$$x = a + b$$

then we can substitute in  $a + b$  for  $x$ .

This would result in the expression:

$$(a + b)^2 + y^2 = z$$

$$a^2 + 2ab + b^2 + y^2 = z$$

Now to solve for  $y$  in terms of  $a, b$  and  $z$ , would result in:

$$y = \sqrt{z - a^2 - 2ab - b^2}$$

If we have numerical values for  $z, a$  and  $b$ , we can use Python to calculate the value of  $y$ . But if we don't have numerical values for  $z, a$  and  $b$  Python can also be used to rearrange terms and solve for one variable in terms of the other. Working with mathematical symbols in a programmatic way instead of working with numerical values in a programmatic way is called symbolic math.

To work with symbolic math, the **Sympy** library needs to be installed. Using the **Anaconda Prompt** this can be accomplished with the command:

```
$ conda install sympy
```

Sympy is included with the Anaconda distribution of Python, so if you have the full Anaconda distribution, you will be notified that the **Sympy** library is already installed.

## 11.3 Defining Variables

To define variables with **Sympy**, first import the `symbols()` function from the **Sympy** module:

```
In [1]: from sympy import symbols
```

Symbolic math symbols are declared using **Sympy's** `symbols()` function. Note that in the arguments of the `symbols()` function, symbol names are separated by a space (no comma) and surrounded by quotes. The output of the `symbols()` function are **Sympy** symbol objects. These output objects need to be separated by commas with no quotation marks.

```
In [2]: x, y = symbols('x y')
```

### Substitution

Now that the symbols `x` and `y` are instantiated, a symbolic math expression using `x` and `y` can be created. A symbolic math expression is a combination of symbolic math variables with numbers and mathematical operators (such as `+, -, /` and `*`). The standard Python rules for calculating numbers apply in **Sympy** symbolic math expressions.

```
In [3]: expr = 2*x + y
```

Use the `.subs()` method to insert a numerical value into a symbolic math expression, `.` The first argument of the `.subs()` method is the variable and the second argument is the numerical value. In the expression above:

$$2x + y$$

If we substitute

$$x = 2$$

The resulting expression should be

$$\begin{aligned} & 2(2) + y \\ & 4 + y \end{aligned}$$

In [4]: `expr.subs(x, 2)`

Out[4]: `y + 4`

The `.subs()` method does not replace variables in place, it only completes a one-time substitution. If `expr` is called after the `.subs()` method is applied, the original `expr` expression is returned

In [5]: `expr`

Out[5]: `2*x + y`

In order to make the substitution permanent, a new expression object needs to be instantiated as the output of the `.subs()` method.

```
In [6]: expr = 2*x + y
        expr2 = expr.subs(x, 2)
        expr2
```

Out[6]: `y + 4`

**Sympy** variables can also be substituted into **Sympy** expressions

```
In [7]: x, y, z = symbols('x y z')
        expr = 2*x + y
        expr2 = expr.subs(x, z)
        expr2
```

Out[7]: `y + 2*z`

More complex substitutions can also be used. Consider the following:

$$2x + y$$

substitute in

$$y = 2x^2 + z^{-3}$$

results in

$$2x + 2x^2 + z^{-3}$$

```
In [8]: x, y, z = symbols('x y z')
expr = 2*x + y
expr2 = expr.subs(y, 2*x**2 + z**(-3))
expr2
```

```
Out[8]: 2*x**2 + 2*x + z**(-3)
```

A more practical example could involve a large equation and several variable substitutions

$$n_0 e^{-Q_v / RT}$$

$$n_0 = 3.48 \times 10^{-6}$$

$$Q_v = 12,700$$

$$R = 8.31$$

$$T = 1000 + 273$$

```
In [9]: from sympy import symbols, exp
n0, Qv, R, T = symbols('n0 Qv R T')
expr = n0*exp(-Qv/(R*T))
```

Multiply **Sympy** `subs()` methods can be chained together to substitute multiple variables in one line of code

```
In [10]: expr.subs(n0, 3.48e-6).subs(Qv, 12700).subs(R, 8031).subs(T, 1000+273)
```

```
Out[10]: 3.48e-6*exp(-12700/10223463)
```

To evaluate an expression as a floating point number, use the `.evalf()` method

```
In [16]: expr2 = expr.subs(n0, 3.48e-6).subs(Qv, 12700).subs(R, 8031).subs(T, 1000+273)
```

```
In [17]: expr2.evalf()
```

```
Out[17]: 3.47567968697765e-6
```

## 11.4 Defining Equations

Using symbolic math variables we can define equations using **Sympy**. *Equations* in **Sympy** are different than *expressions*. An expression does not have equality. An equation has equality.

```
In [28]: from sympy import symbols, Eq, solveset, solve
         from sympy.solvers.solveset import linsolve

In [29]: x, y = symbols('x y')

In [30]: eq1 = Eq(4*x+2*y - 3)

In [33]: eq2 = Eq(-2*x-6*y + 10)

In [37]: sol = solve((eq1, eq2),(x, y))
         sol

Out[37]: {x: -1/10, y: 17/10}
```

The **Sympy** solution object is a dictionary. The keys are the **Sympy** variable objects and the values are the numerical values these variables correspond to.

```
In [40]: print(f'The solution is x = {sol[x]}, y = {sol[y]}')

The solution is x = -1/10, y = 17/10
```

## 11.5 Solving two equations for two unknowns

Solving two equations for two unknown can be accomplished using **Sympy**. Consider the following set of two equations with two variables

$$x + y - 5 = 0$$

$$x - y + 3 = 0$$

To solve this system of two equations for the two unknowns  $x$  and  $y$ , first the **Sympy** package needs to be imported. From the **sympy** package, we'll use the functions `symbols`, `Eq` and `solve`.

```
In [1]: import numpy as np
        from sympy import symbols, Eq, solve
```

Next we create two **sympy** symbols objects,  $x$  and  $y$ . Note the string passed as an argument to the `symbols()` function, '`x y`', does not have any commas. The outputs of the `symbols()` function are the two symbols objects  $x$  and  $y$ . These outputs must be separated by a comma and are not surrounded by quotes.

```
In [2]: x, y = symbols('x y')
```

Now we can define the two equations as **Sympy** equation objects

```
In [3]: eq1 = Eq(x + y - 5)
eq2 = Eq(x - y + 3)
```

Now we can use **Sympy**'s solve function, to computer the value of  $x$  and  $y$ . The first argument passed to the solve() function is a tuple of the two equations (eq1, eq2). The second argument passed to the solve function is a tuple of the variables we want to solve for (x, y).

```
In [4]: solve((eq1,eq2), (x, y))
```

```
Out[4]: {x: 1, y: 4}
```

The solution is in the form of a Python dictionary. The dictionary keys are the variables and the dictionary values are the numerical solutions. We can access the solution out of the dictionary using regular dictionary indexing.

```
In [5]: sol_dict = solve((eq1,eq2), (x, y))
print(f'x = {sol_dict[x]}')
print(f'y = {sol_dict[y]}')

x = 1
y = 4
```

Solving two equations for two unknown can be accomplished using **Sympy**. Consider the following engineering statics problem:

GIVEN:

A mass of 22 lbs is hung from a ring. The ring is supported by two cords, cord CE is 30 degrees above the horizontal to the right and cord BD is 45 degrees to the left above the horizontal.

$m = 20 \text{ lb}$

$T_{CE}$  @ +30 degrees CCW relative to +x-axis

$T_{BD}$  @ +45 degress CW relative to -x-axis

FIND:

magnitude of  $T_{CE}$  and  $T_{BD}$

SOLUTION:

To solve for the magnitude of TCE and TBD, need to solve to two equations for two unknowns. To accomplish this with **Sympy**, first we need to import **numpy** and **sympy**. The **Sympy** functions **symbols**, **Eq** and **solve** will all be needed.

```
In [6]: import numpy as np
from sympy import symbols, Eq, solve
```

Next define the symbolic math variables (that will be used in the equations) as **Sympy symbols** objects. Multiple symbolic math variables can be defined at the same time. Note the argument names (on the right-hand side of the assignment operator `=`) need to be enclosed in quotes ' ' and separated by spaces, no commas. The object names (on the left-hand side of the assignment operator `=`) are separated with commas, no quotes.

```
In [7]: Tce, Tbd = symbols('Tce Tbd')
```

Next two equations based on the sum of the forces need to be defined. Assuming the ring is in static equilibrium:

$$\Sigma \vec{F} = 0$$

$$\Sigma F_x = 0$$

$$\Sigma F_y = 0$$

The three forces operating on the ring are defined as:

$T_{ce}$  = tension in cable CE

$$\vec{T}_{ce} = T_{ce}\cos(30)\hat{i} + T_{ce}\sin(30)\hat{j}$$

$T_{bd}$  = tension in cable BD

$$\vec{T}_{bd} = -T_{bd}\cos(45)\hat{i} + T_{bd}\sin(45)\hat{j}$$

$$\vec{m} = 0\hat{i} - 22\hat{j}$$

Taking  $\Sigma F_x = 0$  (sum of the  $\hat{i}$  terms):

$$T_{ce}\cos(30) - T_{bd}\cos(45) = 0$$

Taking  $\Sigma F_y = 0$  (sum of the  $\hat{j}$  terms):

$$T_{ce}\sin(30) + T_{bd}\sin(45) - 22 = 0$$

Our first equation, based on the sum of the forces in the x-direction (the  $\hat{i}$  terms) is:

$$T_{ce}\cos(30) - T_{bd}\cos(45) = 0$$

This equation can be represented as a **Sympy** equation object. Note the right-hand side of the equation is 0. **Sympy** equation objects are instantiated with expressions equal to zero. If the expression was not equal to zero, we would simply subtract both sides by the term on the right-hand side of the equals sign and use the resulting expression (equal to zero) to create the **Sympy** equation object.

```
In [8]: eq1=Eq(Tce*np.cos(np.radians(30)) - Tbd*np.cos(np.radians(45)))
print(eq1)
```

```
Eq(-0.707106781186548*Tbd + 0.866025403784439*Tce, 0)
```

The second equation, based on the sum of the forces in the y-direction is:

$$T_{ce}\sin(30) + T_{bd}\sin(45) - 22 = 0$$

We can define this equation as a **Sympy** equation object as well:

```
In [9]: eq2=Eq(Tce*np.sin(np.radians(30)) + Tbd*np.sin(np.radians(45))-22)
print(eq2)
```

```
Eq(0.707106781186548*Tbd + 0.5*Tce - 22, 0)
```

Now to solve the two equations for  $T_{ce}$  and  $T_{bd}$  we use sympy's `solve` method. The first argument is a tuple of the equations we want to solve, the second argument is a tuple of the variables we want to solve for.

```
In [10]: solve((eq1,eq2),(Tce, Tbd))
```

```
Out[10]: {Tbd: 19.7246603876972, Tce: 16.1051177665153}
```

The solution is saved in a dictionary. The dictionary keys are the variable names and the dictionary values are the numerical solution.

We can solve the same problem, but keep  $m$  as a variable.

```
In [11]: m, Tce, Tbd = symbols('m, Tab, Tac')
```

```
In [12]: eq1=Eq(Tce*np.cos(np.radians(30)) - Tbd*np.cos(np.radians(45)))
eq2=Eq(Tce*np.sin(np.radians(30)) + Tbd*np.sin(np.radians(45))-m)
```

```
In [13]: solve((eq1,eq2),(Tce,Tbd))
```

```
Out[13]: {Tab: 0.732050807568877*m, Tac: 0.896575472168053*m}
```

Now our solution is in terms of the variable  $m$ .

## 11.6 Summary

### Key Terms and Concepts

symbolic math

symbolic variable

numerical calculation

systems of equations

expression

equation

## 11.7 Review Questions

- 1.
- 2.
- 3.
- 4.
- 5.
- 6.
- 7.



# Chapter 12

# Python and External Hardware

## 12.1 Introduction

By the end of this chapter you will be able to:

- Connect external hardware to a computer running Python
- Install the **pyserial** library
- Read data over a serial connection using Python
- Save data coming in over a serial connection to variables and external files using Python
- Write data to a serial line using Python
- Read data from a sensor using Python
- Control an LED using Python

## 12.2 Pyserial

**Pyserial** is a Python package that facilitates serial communication. A computer running Python with the **pyserial** package installed can communicate with external hardware. **Pyserial** is a useful package for engineers because it allows engineers to exchange data between a computer and pieces of hardware such as voltmeters, oscilloscopes, strain gauges, flow meters etc.

**Pyserial** provides an interface to communicate over the *serial* communication protocol. Serial communication is one of the oldest computer communication protocols. Serial communication predates the USB specification now used by computers and other pieces of hardware like mice, keyboards and webcams. USB stands for Universal Serial Bus. USB and is built upon and extends the original serial communication interface.

## Installing Pyserial

To use the `pyserial` package with `Python`, `pyserial` needs to be installed. `Pyserial` can be installed using the `Anaconda Prompt` or `pyserial` can be installed over the command line using `pip`:

```
> conda install pyserial
```

or

```
$ pip install pyserial
```

After installing `pyserial`, the successful installation can be confirmed at the Python REPL:

```
In [1]: >>> import serial
        >>> print(serial.__version__)
```

3.4

Note: even though `pyserial` is installed with `conda install pyserial`, the module is imported with the line `import serial`.

## 12.3 Bytes and Unicode Strings

Before using `pyserial` and communicating with external hardware over the serial interface, it is important to understand the difference between *bytes* and *unicode strings* in Python.

The distinction between bytes and unicode strings is important because strings in Python are *unicode* by default. However, external hardware like Arduino's, oscilloscopes and voltmeters transmit characters as *bytes*.

### Unicode Strings

In Python when a new string is defined, the syntax is:

```
In [2]: ustring = 'A unicode string'
```

We can see what data type the `ustring` variable is assigned with the `type()` function:

```
In [3]: print(type(ustring))

<class 'str'>
```

When the Python interpreter declares the variable `ustring` is of `<class 'str'>`, it indicates `ustring` is a *unicode string*.

**In Python 3 all strings are *unicode strings* by default.**

*Unicode Strings* are useful because there are many letter and letter-like characters that are not part of the set of letters, numbers and symbols on a regular computer keyboard. For instance: in Spanish, the accent character is used over certain vowels. Letters with accents can't be represented by the letters on a standard English keyboard. However, letters with accents are part of a set of letters, numbers and symbols in *unicode strings*.

## Byte Strings

Another way that characters such as letters, numbers and punctuation can be stored is as *bytes*. A *byte* is a unit of computer information that has a fixed width (one byte long). Because of this fixed width, one *byte* only has a small number of unique combinations. This limits *byte strings* to basically only the letter, numbers and punctuation marks on a computer keyboard. This limited set of characters is called the ASCII (pronounced *ask-ee two*) character set. A table of ASCII character codes is in the appendix. For instance, ASCII code 49 corresponds to the number one 1.

**Python does not use *byte strings* by default.**

However, external hardware such as Arduinos, oscilloscopes, and voltmeters speak *byte strings* by default. In fact, almost all machines speak *byte strings* by default, including the servers that bring Netflix to your laptop.

To define a *byte string* in Python, a letter `b` is placed before the quotation marks when a string is created.

```
In [5]: bstring = b'bstring'
```

We can view the type of our `bstring` variable using the `type()` function

```
In [6]: print(type(bstring))
```

```
<class 'bytes'>
```

## Convert between unicode strings and byte strings

In order for a Python program to communicate with external hardware, we need to be able to convert between *unicode strings* and *byte strings*. This conversion is done with the `.encode()` and `.decode()` methods.

The `.encode()` method “encodes” a *unicode string* into a *byte string*.

```
<byte string> = <unicode string>.encode()
```

The `.decode()` method “decodes” a *byte string* into a *unicode string*.

```
<unicode string> = <byte string>.decode
```

**Remember: machines speak bytes, Python strings are unicode by default.**

We need to decode what machines transmit to Python before further processing. Python defaults *unicode* (and machines do not), so within our Python code we need to *encode* our *unicode strings* so machines can understand it.

```
In [9]: ustring = 'A unicode string'
        new_bstring = ustring.encode()
        type(new_bstring)
```

Out[9]: bytes

```
In [10]: bstring = b'bstring'
        new_ustring = bstring.decode()
        type(new_ustring)
```

Out[10]: str

When a command from a Python program (a unicode string) is sent to a piece of external hardware (that reads bytes):

The .encode() method needs to be applied to the unicode string (to convert the unicode string to a byte string) before the command is sent to the piece of external hardware.

When a chunk of data comes in from a piece of external hardware (a byte string) and is read by a Python script (which speaks *unicode* by default):

The .decode() method needs to be applied to the byte string (to convert the byte string to a unicode string) before it is processed further by Python program.

## 12.4 Reading a Sensor with Python

In this section you will learn how to read a sensor connected to an external piece of hardware (an Arduino) using Python. To accomplish this the following hardware is required:

- A computer running Python
- An Arduino
- A potentiometer (the sensor)
- wires, a resistor and a breadboard to connect the sensor to the Arduino
- A USB cable to connect the Arduino to the computer

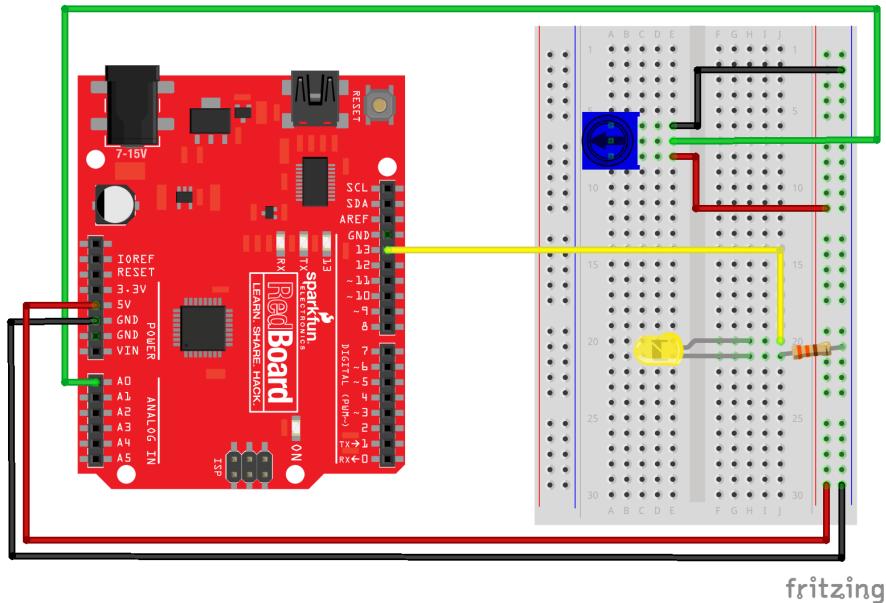
### Set up the sensor

Connect the sensor to the Arduino using a resistor, wires and a breadboard. Note the long lead of the LED is connected to PIN13 on the Arduino and the short lead of the LED is connected through a resistor to ground. If the LED is wired backwards, the LED will not turn on. In the hardware schematic, the blue square with an arrow on it is a potentiometer. Potentiometers can be controlled by a user and the user knows when the sensor signal is changed.

The hardware schematic describes how to connect the Arduino, LED and potentiometer.

### Upload code to the Arduino

Once the LED and potentiometer is hooked up to the Arduino, upload the following code to the Arduino using the Arduino IDE. Note that Arduinos don't use the Python programming language. The programming language used by Arduinos is a variant of the C programming language.



## Arduino with potentiometer

The Arduino sketch (a sketch is what an Arduino program is called) below accomplishes a couple things. First the Arduino reads the sensor value and stores the sensor value in the variable `sensorValue`. Then the Arduino sends the sensor value over the serial line (as a byte sting). Next the sensor value is compared to 500. If the sensor value is less than 500, the LED stays off. If the sensor value is greater than 500, the LED turn on. This process repeats in a loop.

```
// potentiometer_read.ino
// reads a potentiometer and sends value over serial
int sensorPin = A0;      // The potentiometer is connected to analog pin 0
int ledPin = 13;          // The LED is connected to digital pin 13
int sensorValue;         // an integer variable to store the potentiometer reading

void setup() // this function runs once when the sketch starts
{
    // make the LED pin (pin 13) an output pin
    pinMode(ledPin, OUTPUT);

    // initialize serial communication
    Serial.begin(9600);
}

void loop() // this function runs repeatedly after setup() finishes
{
    sensorValue = analogRead(sensorPin); // read the voltage at pin A0
    Serial.println(sensorValue);        // Output sensor value to Serial Monitor

    if (sensorValue < 500) {           // if sensor reading is less than 500,
        digitalWrite(ledPin, LOW); }   // Turn the LED off
```



Arduino IDE Check to Verify



Arduino IDE Arrow to Upload

```

else {                                // if sensor reading is greater than 500
    digitalWrite(ledPin, HIGH); }        // Keep the LED on

delay(100);                            // Pause 100 milliseconds before next sensor reading
}
  
```

## Connect the Arduino to the computer and Upload the Sketch

Connect the Arduino to the computer using a USB cable. Upload the sketch to the Arduino. In the Arduino IDE, click the [check mark] to verify and the [arrow] to upload. If the sketch does not upload, check which COM port is selected in Tools → Ports.

## Check the Sensor Signal

To verify the Arduino sketch is working correctly, the sensor signal can be checked in three ways:

- The LED turns on and off as the potentiometer dial is turned
- In the Arudino **Serial Monitor**, numbers change as the potentiometer dial is turned
- In the Arduino **Seral Plotter**, the line moves as the potentiometer dial is turned

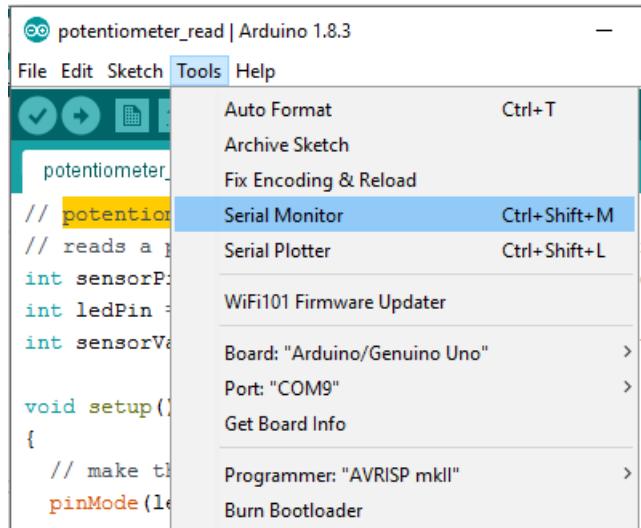
### LED turns ON and OFF

The LED should turn on and off as the potentiometer is turned. If the LED does not turn on and off when the potentiometer is turned, make sure the potentiometer is turned back and forth through its full range of rotation. Ensure the USB cable is plugged in to both the Arudino and the computer.

### Arudino Serial Monitor

Access the Arduino **Serial Monitor** using Tools → Serial Monitor.

If the sketch is working correctly, a running list of numbers is shown in the Arduino **Serial Monitor**. The output in the Serial Monitor should be a running list of numbers between 0 and 1024. When



Arudion IDE Tools Serial Monitor

the potentiometer is dialed back and forth, the numbers streaming down the **Serial Monitor** should change. If output can't be seen in the **Serial Monitor**, ensure [Auto Scroll], [Both NL & CR] and [9600 baud] are selected. Also make sure the Port is set correctly in Tools → Port.

### Arduino Serial Plotter

To access the Arduino Serial Plotter use Tools → Serial Monitor. Note the Serial Monitor needs to be closed before the Serial Plotter can be opened. if the sketch is working correctly, a moving line is shown on the Arduino Serial Plotter when the potentiometer is dialed back and forth.

The output of the Serial Plotter should be a running line graph. The height of the line on the graph should change as the potentiometer is dialed back and forth. If the Serial Plotter is blank, make sure [9600 baud] is selected in the lower right corner of the Serial Plotter. Also make sure the Port has been set correctly in Tools → Port.

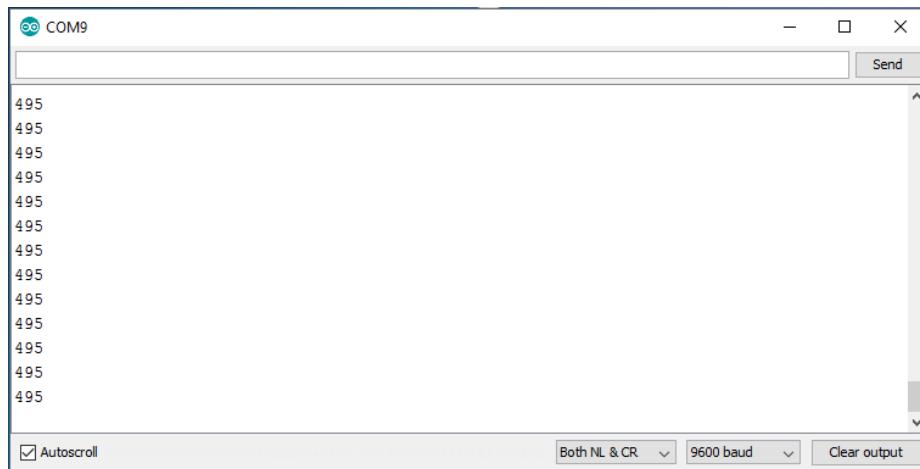
### Write a Python Script to read the sensor

Once the hardware is connected and the Arduino sketch is working properly, a Python script can be constructed to read the sensor value. Communication between the Python script and the Arduino can be accomplished using the **PySerial** package. Make sure **PySerial** is installed before the script is run. At the top of the Python script, import the **PySerial** module. Note that although the package is called **PySerial**, use `import serial` to import the package.

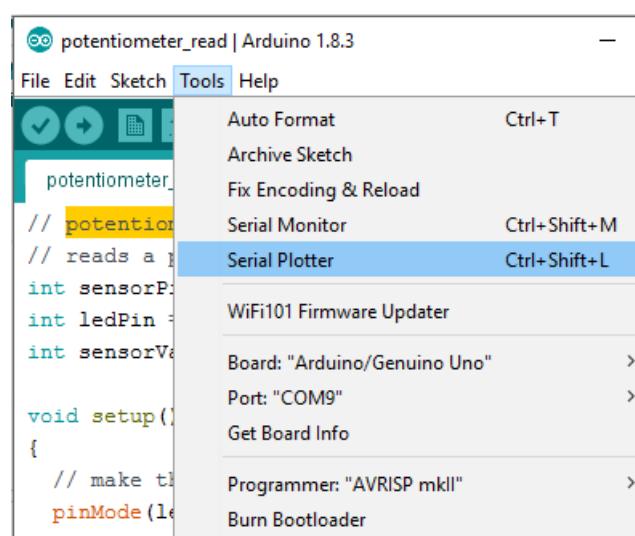
```
import serial
import time
```

Next create a loop that will run for about 5 seconds while data is collected from the sensor. If it seems like the loop is stuck, press [Ctrl] + [c].

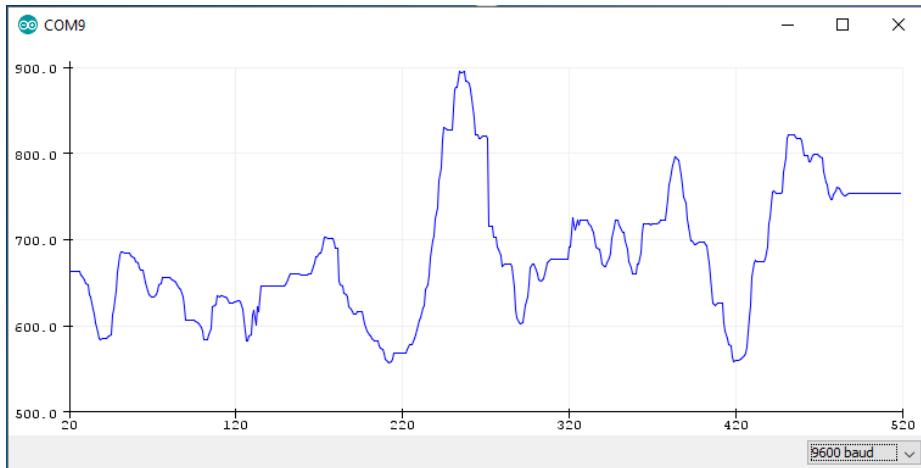
```
data = [] # create an empty list to store the data
```



Arduino Serial Monitor Output



Arduino Serial Plotter Menu



Arudino Seral Plotter

```
for i in range(50):
    with serial.Serial('COM4', 9800, timeout=1) as ser:
        line = ser.readline()      # read a '\n' terminated line
        string = line.decode()    # convert the byte string to a unicode string
        data.append(float(string)) # convert the unicode string to a float and add it to the list
    time.sleep(0.1) # wait 0.1 seconds before reading the next line
```

After the data has been collected, it can be displayed with the `print()` function and a for loop. The output should look like the numbers in the Arduino **Serial Monitor**.

```
for line in data:
    print(line)
```

The data can also be plotted with `matplotlib`. The plot should look like the line plot in the Arduino **Serial Plotter**.

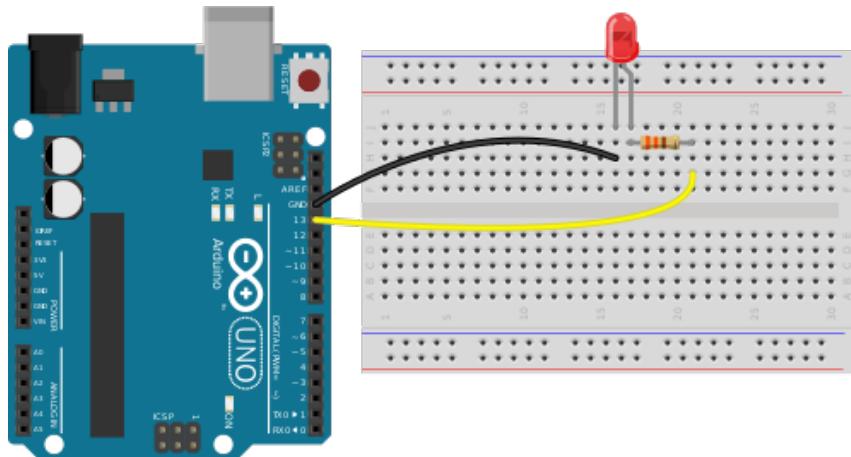
```
import matplotlib.pyplot as plt
# if using a jupyter notebook include, comment out if using a .py file
%matplotlib inline

plt.plot(data)
plt.show()
```

## 12.5 Controlling an LED with Python

In this section you will learn how to control an LED connected to an external piece of hardware (an Arduino) using Python. To accomplish this task the following hardware is required:

- A computer running Python
- An Arduino
- An LED



Arduino with LED

- Wires, a resistor and a breadboard to connect the LED to the Arduino
- A USB cable to connect the Arduino to the computer

## Set up the LED

Connect the LED to the Arduino using a resistor, wires and a breadboard. Note the short leg of the resistor is connected to ground and the long leg of the resistor is through a resistor to PIN 13. A resistor is needed to prevent too much current from flowing through the LED. This type of resistor is called a *pull up resistor*.

## Upload code to the Arduino

Upload the following code to the Arduino using the Arduino IDE. This is the example sketch called Physical Pixel. The Physical Pixel sketch can be found in the Arduino IDE by going to File → Examples → 04.Communication → PhysicalPixel

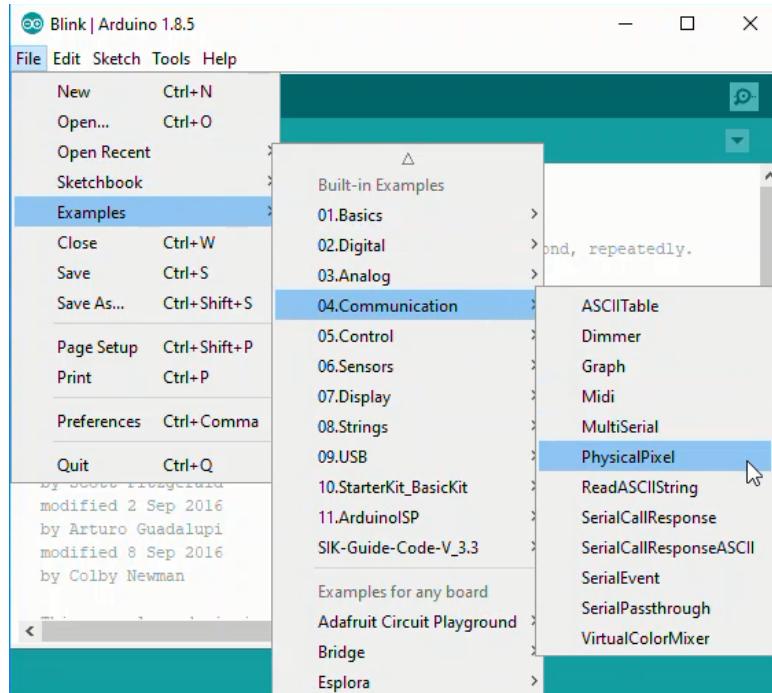
The code for the Physical Pixel Sketch is shown below. Note that Arduinos don't use the Python programming language.

```
// Found in the Arduino IDE: File --> Examples --> 04.Communication --> PhysicalPixel

const int ledPin = 13; // the pin that the LED is attached to
int incomingByte; // a variable to read incoming serial data into

void setup() {
  // initialize serial communication:
  Serial.begin(9600);
  // initialize the LED pin as an output:
  pinMode(ledPin, OUTPUT);
}

void loop() {
```



Physical Pixel Example Sketch in the Arduino IDE

```
// see if there's incoming serial data:
if (Serial.available() > 0) {
    // read the oldest byte in the serial buffer:
    incomingByte = Serial.read();
    // if it's a capital H (ASCII 72), turn on the LED:
    if (incomingByte == 'H') {
        digitalWrite(ledPin, HIGH);
    }
    // if it's an L (ASCII 76) turn off the LED:
    if (incomingByte == 'L') {
        digitalWrite(ledPin, LOW);
    }
}
```

## Connect the Arduino to the Computer

Connect the Arduino to the computer using a USB cable. Make sure the Port is selected properly in the Arduino IDE under Tools → Port.

In the Arduino IDE, click the [checkmark] to verify and the [arrow] to upload. If the sketch does not upload, check which COM port is selected in Tools → Port.



Arduino IDE Check to Verify



Arduino IDE Arrow to Upload

## Turn the LED on and off with the Arduino Serial Monitor

Bring up the Arduino Serial Monitor and type L or H and click [Send] and observe the LED turn on and off.

## Write a Python Script to turn the LED on and off

After the LED turns on and off based on input at the Arduino Serial Monitor, it is time to write a Python script to turn the LED on and off. This can be accomplished using the **PySerial** package. Make sure **PySerial** is installed before script is run.

At the top of the script, import the **PySerial** module. Note that even though the package is called **PySerial** the line `import serial` is used. The **time** module is also imported as the `time.sleep()` function will be used in the script.

```
import serial
import time
```

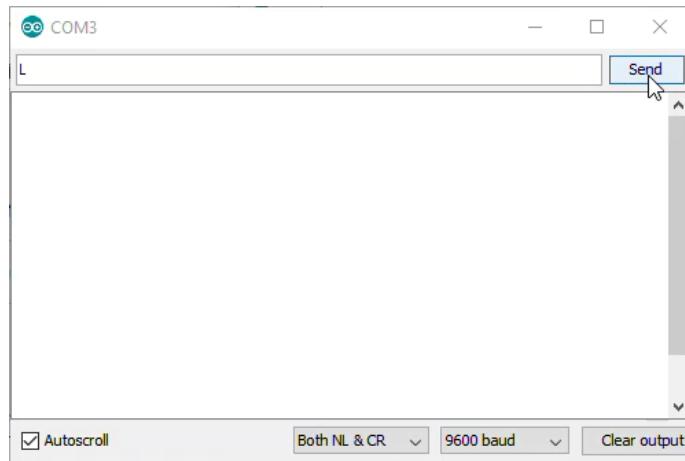
In the next part of the Python script, create a loop that will blink the LED on and off for about 5 seconds. Note the byte string `b'H'` need to be sent to the Arduino, not the unicode string '`H`'. The unicode string '`H`' is pre-pended with the letter `b` in `ser.writelines(b'H')`.

```
data = []
for i in range(10):
    with serial.Serial('COM4', 9800, timeout=1) as ser:
        ser.writelines(b'H')      # send a byte
        time.sleep(0.5)          # wait 0.5 seconds before reading the next line
        ser.writelines(b'L')      # send a byte
```

## Write a Python script to allow a user to turn the LED on and off

Once the LED blinks on and off successfully using a Python script, it is time to write a new Python script that will allow a user to turn the LED on and off. At the top of the new Python script import the **PySerial** and **time** modules.

```
import serial
import time
```



Arduino Serial Monitor

Next, give the user instructions. If the user types H, the LED will turn on. If the user types L the LED will turn off. If the user types q, the program will quit.

```
print('This is a program that allows a user to turn an LED on and off')
print('type H to turn the LED on')
print('type L to turn the LED off')
print('type q to quit')
```

Finally, the script needs a while loop to ask the user for an H or L character. Once the user enters the letter, the letter needs to be converted to a byte string. Then the byte string is sent over the serial line to the Arduino. A delay is added so that the Arduino can process the previous command before dealing with the next one.

```
user_input = input('H = on, L = off, q = quit' : )
while user_input != 'q':
    with serial.Serial('COM4', 9800, timeout=1) as ser:
        byte_command = encode(user_input)
        ser.writelines(byte_command) # send a byte
        time.sleep(0.1) # wait 0.5 seconds before reading the next line
        user_input = input('H = on, L = off, q = quit' : )
print('q entered. Exiting the program')
```

When the script is running, type H and L and observe the LED blink on and off.

## 12.6 Summary

### Key Terms and Concepts

External Hardware

Sensor

LED

Resistor  
breadboard  
Arduino  
Serial Communication  
USB  
Unicode  
Unicode String  
UTF-8  
Byte code  
ASCII  
ASCII Character

## **12.7 Review Questions**

- 1.
- 2.
- 3.
- 4.
- 5.
- 6.
- 7.
- 8.
- 9.
- 10.

# Chapter 13

## MicroPython

### 13.1 Introduction

By the end of this chapter you will be able to:

- Install MicroPython on a microcontroller
- Run Python commands on a microcontroller using the MicroPython REPL
- Save module files and run Python scripts on a microcontroller
- Use MicroPython to read sensor data using a microcontroller
- Use MicroPython to activate a relay using a microcontroller

### 13.2 What is MicroPython?

#### What is MicroPython?

MicroPython is a port, or version of Python designed to run on small, inexpensive, low-power microcontrollers. Examples of microcontrollers that MicroPython can run on include the [pyboard](#), the [WiPy](#) and ESP8266 boards like the [Adafruit Feather Huzzah](#). Normally, Python is run on a desktop or laptop computer (also on big servers at server farms). Compared to a desktop or laptop, microcontrollers are much smaller, cheaper and less powerful. A “regular” version of Python can’t run on small, cheap microcontrollers because Python is too resource intensive. Regular Python takes up too much hard disk space, runs on too much RAM and requires a more powerful processor than microcontrollers have.

It is pretty amazing that a version of Python (MicroPython) runs on these small, cheap microcontrollers like the ESP8266. To get MicroPython to run at all on these small boards, MicroPython only contains a subset of all the standard library modules included with “regular” Python. Some of the libraries that are included with MicroPython don’t have the full set of functions and classes that come with the full version of Python. This allows MicroPython to be compact (around 600 kB for

the ESP8266 port) and only use a small amount of RAM (down to 16k according to the [Micropython main page](#))

You can try using MicroPython online with this neat [MicroPython online emulator](#). The emulator allows you to run commands at a MicroPython Prompt and see the result on a virtual pyboard.

## What is Micropython used for?

MicroPython is installed on small, cheap microcontrollers like the [ESP8266](#). Anything these small microcontrollers can do, MicroPython can do. This includes using the microcontroller as a remote sensor to measure things like temperature, humidity and light level. MicroPython can also be used to blink LED's, control arrays of LED's, or run small displays. MicroPython can control servo motors, stepper motors and solenoids. Civil Engineers could use MicroPython to monitor water levels. Mechanical Engineers could use MicroPython to drive robots. Electrical Engineers could use microPython to measure voltage levels in embedded systems. In the later posts in this series, we will use MicroPython, running on a small cheap ESP8266 board, to create a remote Internet-connected weather station. The last posts in the series will use MicroPython, running on a **really cheap** (around \$2) ESP-01 module to turn on and off an LED from any computer connected to the Internet anywhere in the world.

## Why should problem solvers learn MircoPython?

Using Python to solve engineering problems such as calculations, statistics, modeling and visualization is really useful for undergraduate Engineers. But Python on it's own is fairly limited in controlling devices outside the computer it's running on. You don't want to leave a laptop in a remote estuary to measure water temperature, but you could leave a little microcontroller and low-cost temperature sensor. A small robot can't carry around a heavy laptop, but a small, light, low-power board could run a simple robot. You don't want to use a laptop for every small electrical measurement or embedded system control, but a \$2 WiFi module would work.

In addition, learning how to use MicroPython on small, cheap microcontroller can help undergraduates Engineers understand how programming works. It is a different kind of feedback and excitement seeing a motor whirl around compared to seeing a picture of a motor with the speed displayed as text. There is a different kind of wonder seeing an array of LED's light up compared to a 2-D plot on a computer screen. Plus MicroPython is just fun! It's as easy to program MicroPython as it is to program regular Python. The little projects you can do with MicroPython running on a small, low-cost board are almost unlimited. We could send MicroPython to space in a micro-satellite, or bury MicroPython underground in a small boring machine, or launch MicorPython into the sky on a weather balloon.

### 13.3 Installing MicroPython

MicroPython is a port of the Python programming language that runs on small, inexpensive microcontrollers. In this section, you will learn how to install MicroPython on an Adafruit Feather Huzzah ESP8266 microcontroller using Python and a package called **esptool**. In subsequent sections, you will learn how to blink an LED and read a sensor using MicroPython.

To install MicroPython on an ESP8266-based microcontroller, like the Adafruit Feather Huzzah

ESP8266, we need the following hardware:

Hardware	Purpose
Windows 10	install Micropython on the microcontroller
Adafruit Feather Huzzah ESP8266 microUSB cable	microcontroller running MicroPython connect microcontroller to computer

To install MicroPython we will use the following software and tools:

Software	Purpose
Windows 10	download MicroPython
Anaconda distribution of Python	run <b>esptool</b> that installs MicroPython
Anaconda Prompt	Install the <b>esptool</b> package using <b>pip</b>
<b>esptool</b>	A <b>pip</b> installable package used to install MicroPython
firmware <b>.bin</b> file	Version of MicroPython run on the microcontroller

## Summary of Steps:

1. Install the [Anaconda distribution](#) of Python
2. Create a new conda environment and `pip install esptool`
3. Download the [latest MicroPython .bin firmware file](#)
4. Install the [SiLabs driver](#) for the Adafruit Feather Huzzah ESP8266
5. Connect the Adafruit Feather Huzzah ESP8266 board to the laptop using a microUSB cable
6. Determine which serial port the Feather Huzzah is connected to
7. Run the esptool to upload the .bin firmware file to the Feather Huzzah
8. Download and install [Putty](#), a serial monitor
9. Use Putty to connect to the Feather Huzzah and run commands in the MicroPython REPL

## Install the Anaconda distribution of Python

If you don't have Anaconda installed already, go to [Anaconda.com/download](#) and install the latest version.

## Create a new conda environment and install esptool

It's best practice when using Python to work in virtual environments. We'll create a new virtual environment with conda to use with our MicroPython projects. Open the Anaconda prompt and create a new virtual environment named `micropython`. Activate the environment with the `conda activate` command. After activating the virtual environment you should see `(micropython)` before the Anaconda Prompt. Once inside the virtual environment, use `pip` to install `esptool`. The `esptool` will be used to upload the MicroPython `.bin` firmware file onto the Adafruit Feather Huzzah board. Confirm that `esptool` is installed in the `(micropython)` virtual environment with `conda list`. I also created a new directory in the **Documents** folder called `micropython` to store all the project files.

The following files are stable firmware for the ESP8266. Program your board using the esptool.py program as described [in the tutorial](#).

- [esp8266-20171101-v1.9.3.bin \(elf, map\)](#) (latest)
- [esp8266-20170823-v1.9.2.bin \(elf, map\)](#)
- [esp8266-20170612-v1.9.1.bin \(elf, map\)](#)
- [esp8266-20170526-v1.9.bin \(elf, map\)](#)
- [esp8266-20170108-v1.8.7.bin \(elf, map\)](#)

The following are daily builds of the ESP8266 firmware. They have the latest features and bug fixes, WebREPL is not automatically started, and debugging is enabled by default.

- [esp8266-20180218-v1.9.3-318-g60c6b880.bin \(elf, map\)](#) (latest)
- [esp8266-20180217-v1.9.3-318-g60c6b880.bin \(elf, map\)](#)
- [esp8266-20180216-v1.9.3-315-g73d1d20b.bin \(elf, map\)](#)
- [esp8266-20180215-v1.9.3-315-g73d1d20b.bin \(elf, map\)](#)

## MicroPython Firmware

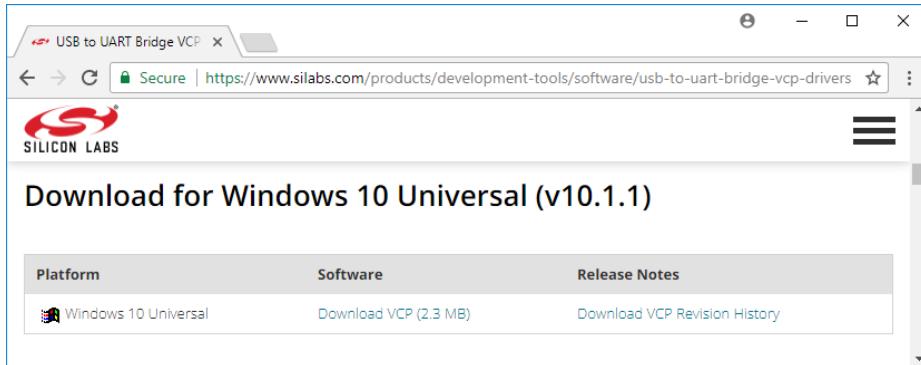
```
> conda create -n micropython python=3.6
> conda activate micropython
(micropython) > pip install esptool
(micropython) > conda list
(micropython) > cd Documents
(micropython) > mkdir micropthon
(micropython) > cd micropthon
```

## Download the latest MicroPython firmware .bin file

Go to [github.com](https://github.com) and [download the latest .bin firmware](#) file at [micropython.org/download#esp8266](https://micropython.org/download#esp8266). Move the **.bin** firmware file to a new **micropython** directory. The **.bin** firmware file is the version of Micropython that will run on the Adafruit Feather Huzzah ESP8266. Straight from Adafruit, the Feather Huzzah microcontroller does not have Micropython installed, so we need to install Micropython ourselves. After installing the Micropython **.bin** firmware file onto the board, we will be able to bring up the Micropython REPL prompt, type commands into the Micropython REPL and run Micropython **.py** scripts on the board.

## Install the SiLabs driver for the Adafruit Feather Huzzah ESP8266

Before we can connect the Adafruit Feather Huzzah to the computer, we need a specific driver installed. For my Windows 10 laptop to see the Adafruit Feather Huzzah board, the [CP210x USB](#)



SiLabs Driver Download Page

to [UART Bridge VCP driver](#) needs to be downloaded from SiLabs and installed. This is quick and easy, but does require admin privileges.

### Connect the Adafruit Feather Huzzah ESP8266 board to the laptop

Use a microUSB cable (the same kind of cable that charges many mobile phones) to connect the Feather Huzzah to the computer. Make sure that the microUSB cable is a full USB **data cable** and not just a simple power cable. If you have trouble getting the Feather Huzzah to work, one reason might be the micoUSB cable is only a charging cable and can not transfer data.

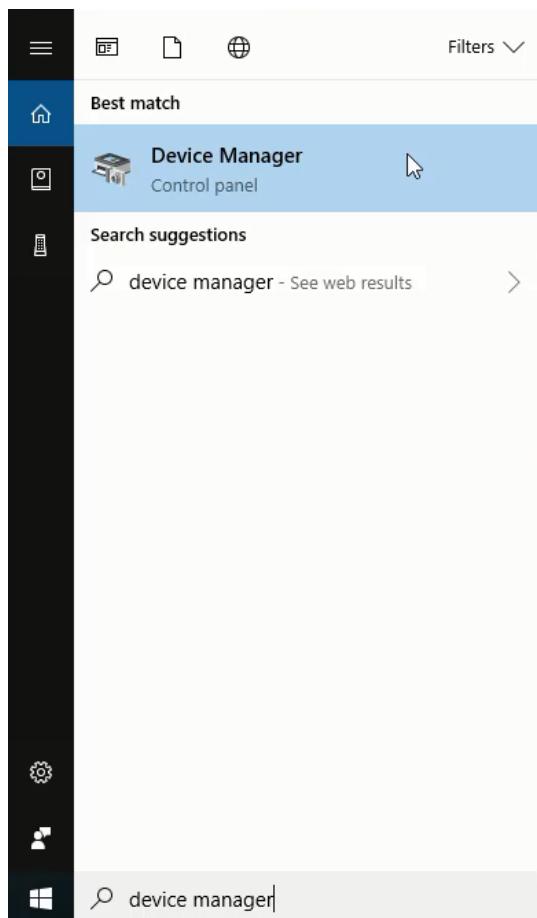
### Determine which serial port the Feather Huzzah is connected to

Use Windows Device Manager to determine which serial port the Feather Huzzah board is connected to. The serial port is one of the parameters that needs to be defined when the .bin firmware file is upload on the board. Look for something like **Silicon Labs CP210x USB to UART Bridge (COM4)** in the **Ports (COM & LPT)** menu. The USB to UART bridge is actually the Feather Huzzah board. CP210x refers to the chip that handles serial communication on the Feather Huzzah, not the ESP8266 chip itself. Make note of the number after **(COM )**. It often comes up as **(COM4)** but it may be different on your machine.

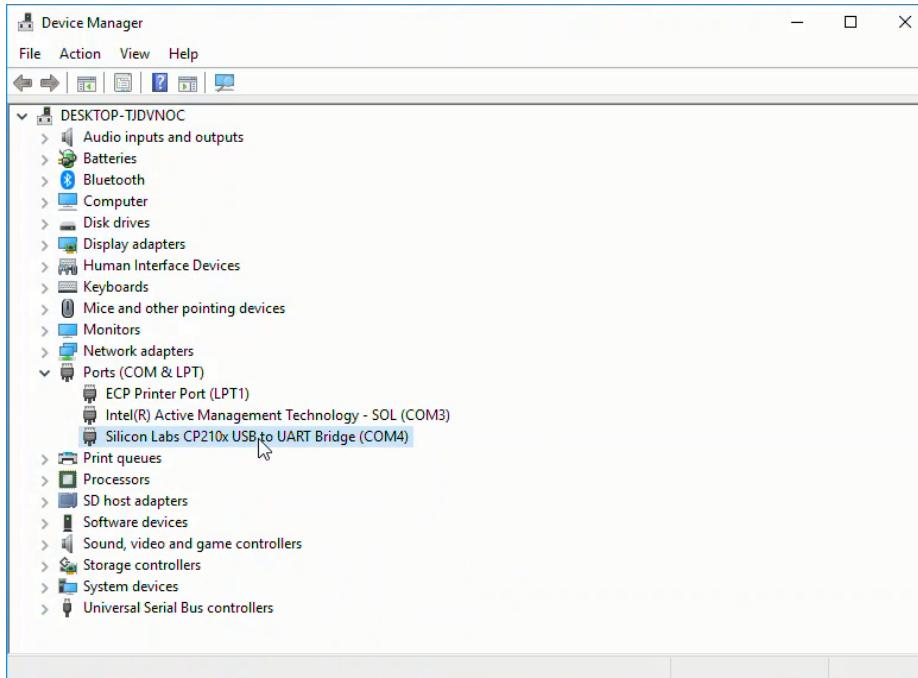
### Run esptool to upload the .bin file to the Feather Huzzah

Open the Anaconda Prompt and cd into the **micropython** directory with the .bin file. You can use the dir command to see the directory contents. Make sure the .bin firmware file is in the directory. It will be called something like `esp8266-20171101-v1.9.3.bin`. Activate the micropython environment with `conda activate micropython`. Run `esptool --help` to ensure esptool is installed properly. Note there is no `.py` extension after `esptool`. On my Windows laptop, the command `esptool` worked, but the command `esptool.py` did not (this is different than the commands shown on the [MicroPython docs](#)). If you try to run `esptool` and you are not in the `(micropython)` virtual environment, you will get an error.

```
> cd Documents  
> cd micropython
```



Find Windows 10 Device Manager



Windows 10 Device Manager Menu

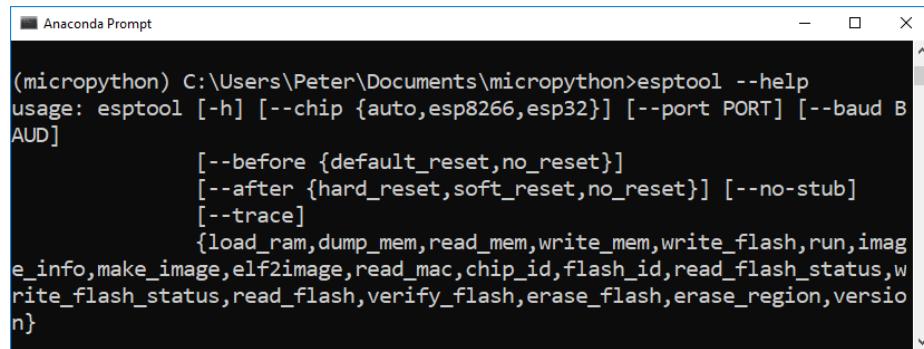
```
> pwd
Documents/micropython
> dir
> conda activate micropython
(micropython) > esptool --help
```

Before we write the .bin firmware file to the board, we should first erase the flash memory on the Feather Huzzah using the `esptool erase_flash` command. Make sure to specify the `--port`. This is the COM port you found in the Windows Device Manager. In my case the port was COM4.

```
(micropython) esptool --port COM4 erase_flash
```

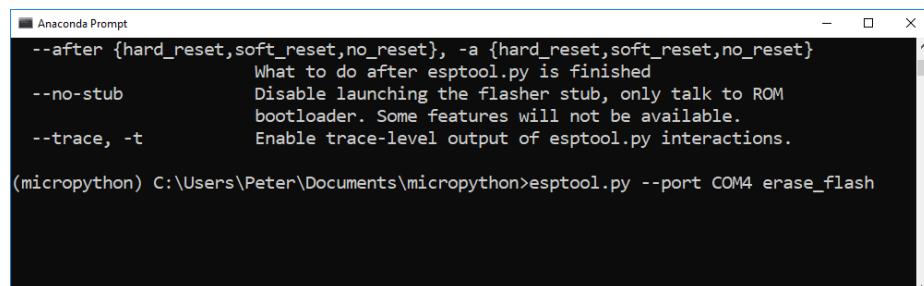
Now it's time to write the .bin firmware file to the flash memory on the board using the `esptool write_flash` command. Make sure to use the exact .bin firmware file name you see sitting in the `micropython` directory. The port has to be set as the port you found in the Windows Device Manager. `--baud` is the baud rate, or upload speed. I found that `--baud 460800` worked, but you could also specify `--baud 115200` which is slower. The upload time was a matter of seconds with either baud rate. The 0 after `--flash_size=detect` means we want the firmware to be written at the start of the flash memory (the 0th position) on the board. Again, make sure the .bin firmware file name is correct. It is easy to mistype. Another issue I ran into was that I tried to use the command `esptool.py` instead of `esptool` as shown on the [MicroPython docs](#). The documentation for [MicroPython on the ESP8266](#) specifies the command `esptool.py` (including the `.py` file extension). This did work on my Windows 10 machine. Omitting the `.py` file extension, and running `esptool` worked instead.

```
(micropython) > esptool --port COM4 --baud 460800 write_flash --flash_size=detect
```



```
(micropython) C:\Users\Peter\Documents\micropython>esptool --help
usage: esptool [-h] [--chip {auto,esp8266,esp32}] [--port PORT] [--baud B
AUD]
                [--before {default_reset,no_reset}]
                [--after {hard_reset,soft_reset,no_reset}] [--no-stub]
                [--trace]
                {load_ram,dump_mem,read_mem,write_mem,write_flash,run,image_
info,make_image,elf2image,read_mac,chip_id,flash_id,read_flash_status,w
rite_flash_status,read_flash,verify_flash,erase_flash,erase_region,versio
n}
```

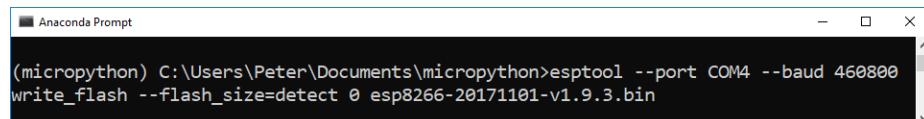
esptool help



```
--after {hard_reset,soft_reset,no_reset}, -a {hard_reset,soft_reset,no_reset}
        What to do after esptool.py is finished
--no-stub
        Disable launching the flasher stub, only talk to ROM
bootloader. Some features will not be available.
--trace, -t
        Enable trace-level output of esptool.py interactions.

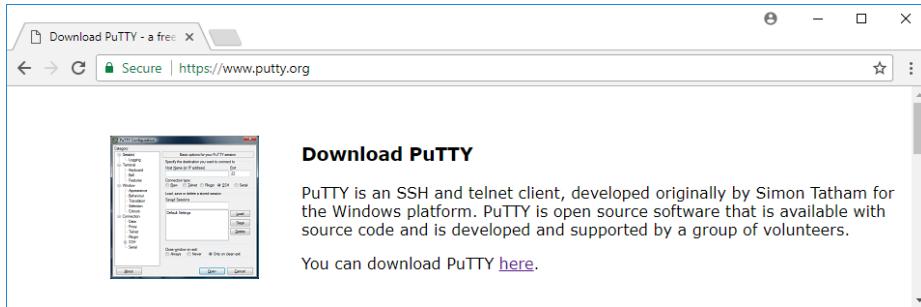
(micropython) C:\Users\Peter\Documents\micropython>esptool.py --port COM4 erase_flash
```

esptool erase flash



```
(micropython) C:\Users\Peter\Documents\micropython>esptool --port COM4 --baud 460800
write_flash --flash_size=detect 0 esp8266-20171101-v1.9.3.bin
```

Use esptool to upload MicroPython firmware



PuTTY Downloads Page

## Download and install PuTTY, a serial monitor

Now that MicroPython is installed on the board, we need to talk to our board over a serial connection. Windows 10 doesn't have a built-in serial monitor (like screen on OSX and Linux). So we need to download and install **PuTTY**. PuTTY is a lightweight SSH and serial client for Windows. PuTTY will allow us to communicate with the Adafruit Feather Huzzah board. [PuTTY can be downloaded here](#). PuTTY is pretty small and the download and install should be pretty quick.

## Use PuTTY to connect to the Feather Huzzah

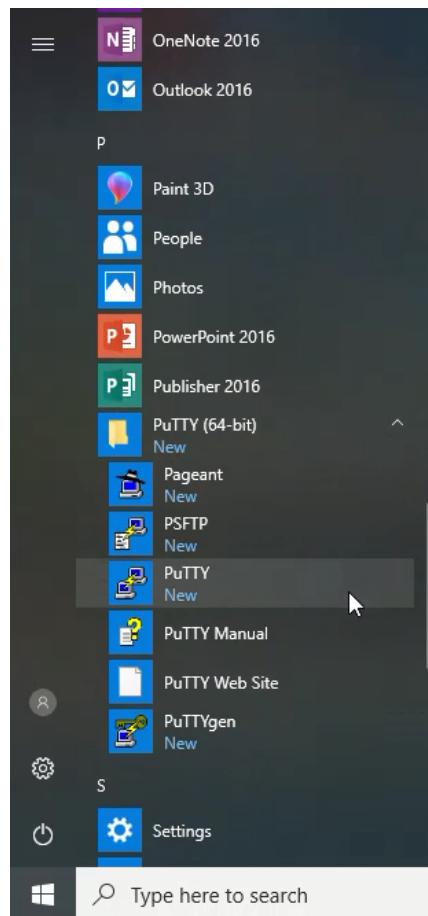
Ensure the Feather board is connected to the computer with a USB cable and ensure you can see the board in the Windows Device Manager. Then use Putty to connect to the board over serial. Make sure you specify the correct serial port in the **Serial line** box and **115200** baud in the Speed box. **MicroPython is set to run at 115200 baud**, other baud rates will lead to junk characters in the serial monitor. I had trouble finding the serial connection option in Putty. When I opened Putty, the default was an SSH connection. We can't connect to the Feather Huzzah over SSH. You need to select the **Serial** radio button below the header **Connection type:** near the top of the Putty window.

If you see `>>>` the MicroPython REPL (the MicroPython prompt) is running and the Adafruit Feather Huzzah ESP8266 is working! This version of Python isn't running on your computer, it's MicroPython running on the little microcontroller! Sometimes I had to type [Enter] or Ctrl-D to get the `>>>` REPL prompt to show up. A few times I needed to close Putty, unplug then replug the board and try Putty again. The Feather Huzzah also has a tiny little black RESET button that can be pressed to restart the board.

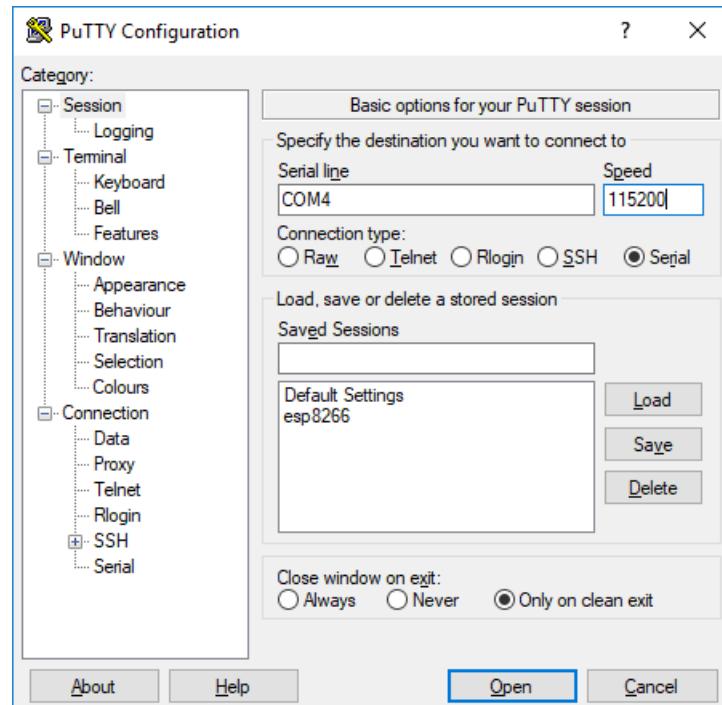
At the `>>>` MicroPython REPL prompt try the following commands:

```
>>> print('MicroPython for Engineers!')
MicroPython for Engineers
```

```
>>> import sys
>>> sys.platform
'esp8266'
```



PuTTY in Windows 10 Start Menu



PuTTY Configuration

```
COM4 - PuTTY
1≡#4 ets_task(40100130, 3, 3fff837c, 4)
OSErr: [Errno 2] ENOENT

MicroPython v1.9.3-8-g63826ac5c on 2017-11-01; ESP module with ESP8266
Type "help()" for more information.
>>> 
```

The MicroPython REPL Prompt

```
COM4 - PuTTY
1≡#4 ets_task(40100130, 3, 3fff837c, 4)
OSErr: [Errno 2] ENOENT

MicroPython v1.9.3-8-g63826ac5c on 2017-11-01; ESP module with ESP8266
Type "help()" for more information.
>>> import sys
>>> sys.platform
'esp8266'
>>> 
```

result of commands typed in the MicroPython REPL

## 13.4 MicroPython REPL

The last section detailed the installation of MicroPython on an Adafruit Feather Huzzah ESP8266 microcontroller using Python and a package called **esptool**. In this section, you will learn how to write commands to the MicroPython REPL (the Micropython prompt) to turn an LED on and off.

Before you can use the MicroPython REPL (the MicroPython prompt) running on the Adafruit Feather Huzzah ESP8266, MicroPython needs to be installed on the board and PuTTY needs to be installed the Windows 10 computer to communicate with the board over serial. The previous section detailed how to install MicroPython on an ESP8266 microcontroller and how to install [PuTTY](#) on a Windows 10 machine.

### Summary of Steps

1. Connect the Adafruit Feather Huzzah ESP8266 using a USB cable
2. Determine which COM port the board is connected to using the Windows Device Manager
3. Open PuTTY and connect to the board at 115200 baud
4. Run commands at the prompt to turn the built-in LED on the Adafruit Feather Huzzah ESP8266 on and off

### Connect the Adafruit Feather Huzzah ESP8266 board to the laptop

Use a microUSB cable to connect the microcontroller to the computer. Make sure that the microUSB cable is a full USB data cable and not just a simple power cable. Cables that are just used to charge phones may only be power cables and may not be capable of transmitting data.

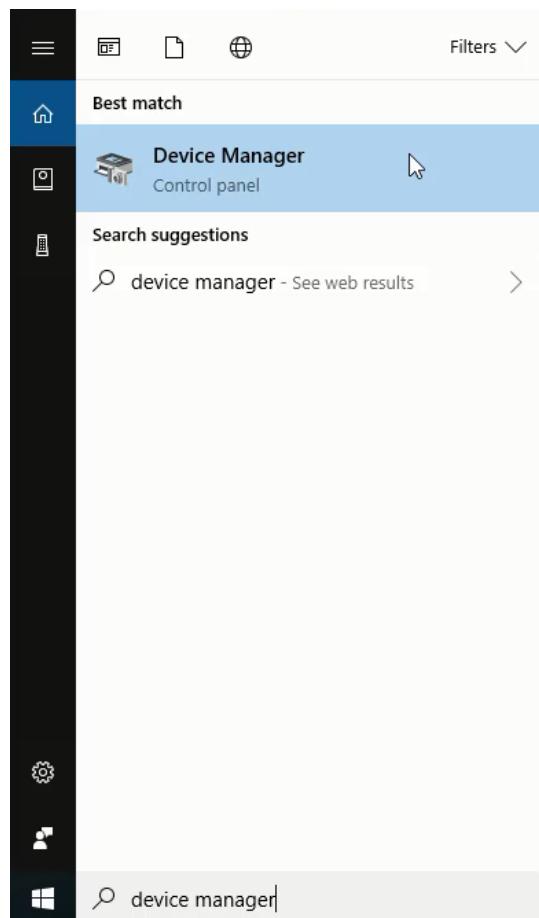
### Determine which serial port the Feather Huzzah is connected to

Use Windows Device Manager to determine which serial port the Feather Huzzah is connected to. On Windows 10, the microcontroller usually comes up as COM4. You can find the serial port by looking in the Ports (COM & LPT) category of the Windows Device Manager. Look for something like **Silicon Labs CP210x USB to UART Bridge (COM4)** in the Ports (COM & LPT) menu. It is the **COM#** that you are looking for.

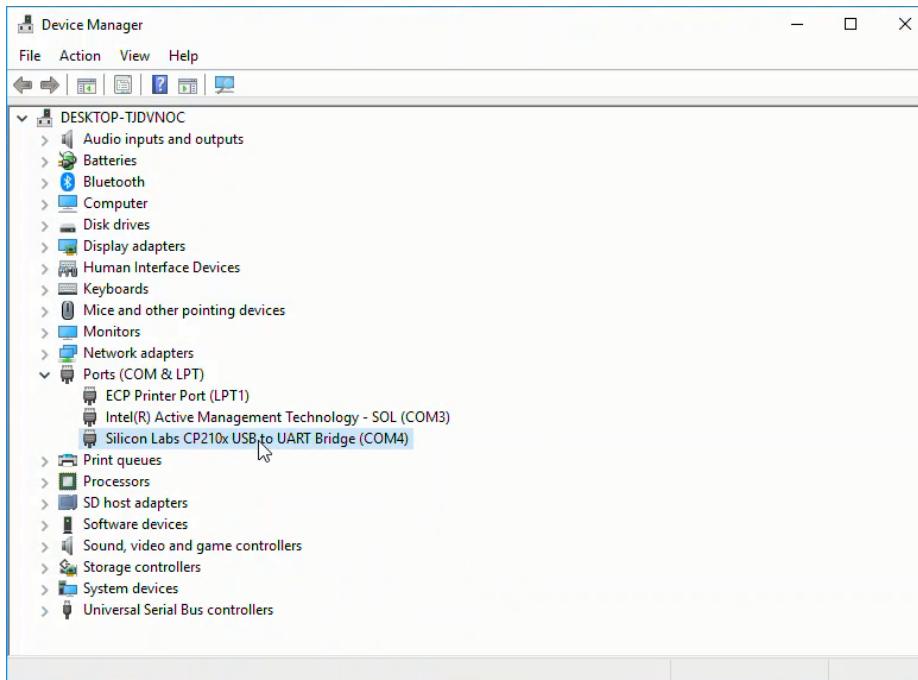
### Use Putty to connect to the Feather Huzzah

Ensure the Feather Huzzah board is connected with a USB cable, then connect to it with PuTTY using the proper serial port (COM#) and 115200 baud. Remember to use the **Serial** radio button under **Connection Type:** to select serial communication or you will be trying to communicate with the Feather Huzzah over SSH which won't work.

This should bring up the MicroPython REPL prompt **>>>**. If you can't see the **>>>** prompt, try typing [Enter], Ctrl-D, pushing the RESET button on the Feather Huzzah or unplugging then replugging the USB cable.



Find the Windows 10 Device Manager



Device Manager Menu on Windows 10

## Run commands at the prompt to turn the built-in LED on the Adafruit Feather Huzzah ESP8266 on and off

At the MicroPython REPL (the MicroPython command prompt `>>>`) try the following commands:

```
>>> print('MicroPython for Engineers!')
MicroPython for Engineers
```

If we import the `sys` module, we can see the MicroPython implementation and platform.

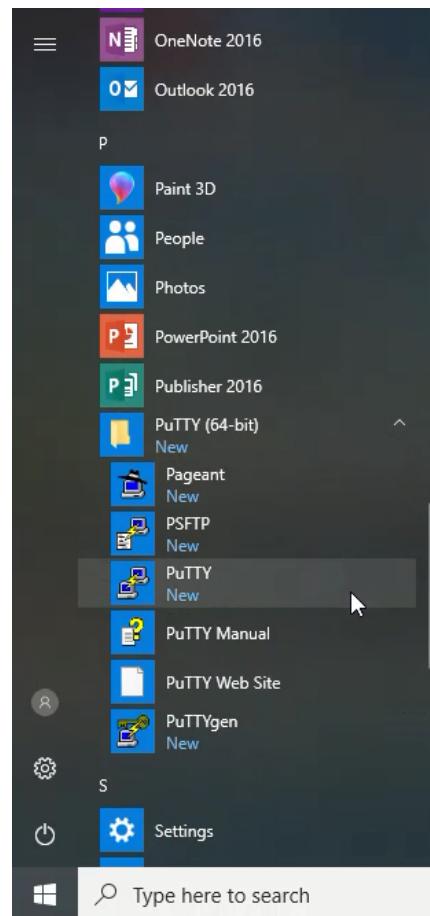
```
>>> import sys
>>> sys.implementation
(name='micropython', version=(1, 9, 3))
>>> sys.platform
'esp8266'
```

If you see similar output, that means MicroPython is working on the Feather Huzzah. We can also view the flash memory size of our Feather Huzzah and the size of the MicroPython firmware we installed. Try this at the MicroPython prompt:

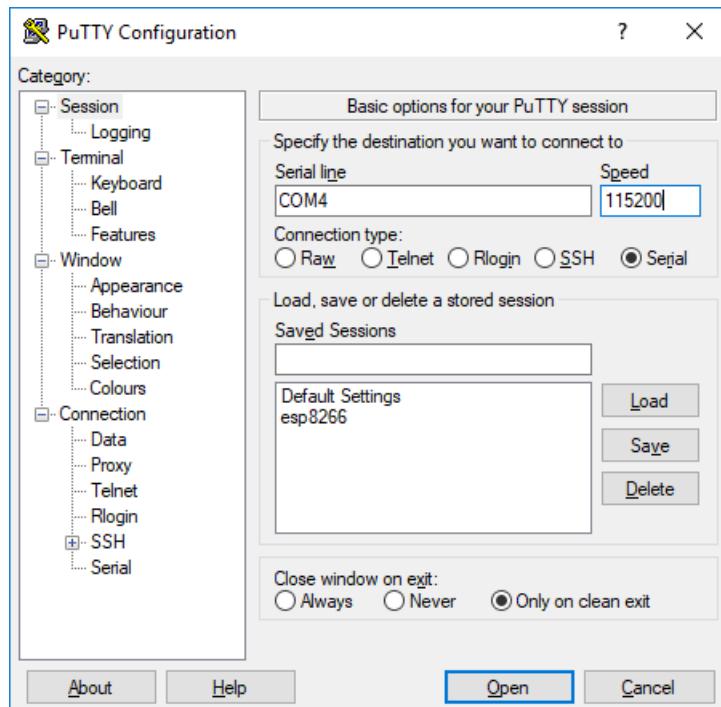
```
>>> import port_diag
```

We can see the flash memory size is 4 MB. Below the label `Firmware checksum`: we can see a line for `size: 600872`. This means the size of our Micropython installation is about 600 KB or 0.6 MB. Just over half a megabyte and we are running a working version of Python!

Now let's turn the Feather Huzzah's built-in LED on and off. The Feather Huzzah has a built-in red LED connected to Pin 0. We can access this LED with MicroPython's `machine` module.



PuTTY in Windows 10 start menu



PuTTY configuration

```
COM4 - PuTTY
1≡#4 ets_task(40100130, 3, 3fff837c, 4)
OSError: [Errno 2] ENOENT

MicroPython v1.9.3-8-g63826ac5c on 2017-11-01; ESP module with ESP8266
Type "help()" for more information.
>>> 
```

MicroPython REPL prompt

```
COM4 - PuTTY
>>> print('Micropython for Engineers!')
Micropython for Engineers!
>>> import sys
>>> sys.implementation
(name='micropython', version=(1, 9, 3))
>>> sys.platform
'esp8266'
>>> 
```

Results of running sys commands at the MicroPython REPL prompt

```
>>> import port_diag
FlashROM:
Flash ID: 1640ef (Vendor: ef Device: 4016)
Flash bootloader data:
Byte @2: 00
Byte @3: 40 (Flash size: 4MB Flash freq: 40MHZ)
Firmware checksum:
size: 600872
md5: 35e285a80516e70242ebf7d780d6c70f
True

Networking:
STA ifconfig: ('10.0.0.23', '255.255.255.0', '10.0.0.1', '75.75.75.75')
AP ifconfig: ('192.168.4.1', '255.255.255.0', '192.168.4.1', '75.75.75.75')
Free WiFi driver buffers of type:
0: 8 (1,2 TX)
1: 0 (4 Mngmt TX(len: 0x41-0x100))
2: 8 (5 Mngmt TX (len: 0-0x40))
3: 4 (7)
4: 7 (8 RX)
lwIP PCBs:
Active PCB states:
Listen PCB states:
Local port 8266, foreign port 9530 snd_nxt 0 rcv_nxt 1073716632 State: LISTEN
TIME-WAIT PCB states:
>>>
```

Results of running `import port_diag` at the MicroPython REPL prompt

First, we use the `machine` module to create a `Pin` object. The first argument when we instantiate the `Pin` object is the pin number on the board (in this case 0). Pin 0 on the Feather Huzzah is connected to the built-in red LED. The second argument is the pin type. We want Pin 0 to act as an output pin (`machine.Pin.OUT`). We are going to assign our pin the attribute `.on()` or `.off()`. This will cause the Feather board to output a positive voltage or no voltage to Pin 0 to turn the built-in red LED on and off. You can also connect Pin 0 to an external LED through a resistor then to ground and have this external LED turn on and off.

```
>>> import machine
>>> pin = machine.Pin(0, machine.Pin.OUT)
```

Note that Pin 0 on the Adafruit Feather Huzzah is kind of wired “backwards”. We call `pin.off()` and the built-in LED turns **on** and call `pin.on()` and the built-in LED turns **off**.

```
>>> pin.on()
>>> pin.off()
>>> pin.on()
>>> pin.off()
```

Now let’s see if we can make the LED blink. We’ll do this with a simple `for` loop. At the MicroPython REPL, initiating a loop will automatically indent the next line, so a tab is not needed before the `pin.on()` statement. To run the loop, type backspace on an empty line (to backspace from an indented line) and hit [Enter].

```
>>> import time
>>> for i in range(10):
...     pin.on()
...     time.sleep(1)
```

```
...     pin.off()
...     time.sleep(1)
...
```

This will blink the LED on and off for a total of 20 seconds.

## 13.5 Blinking a LED

In this section, you will learn how to blink the built-in LED on to an Adafruit Feather Huzzah ESP8266 microcontroller using the MicroPython REPL.

Before the LED on the Adafruit Feather Huzzah ESP8266 can be blinked, MicroPython needs to be installed on the Feather Huzzah board and PuTTY needs to be installed (if using Windows 10) to facilitate communication between the Feather Huzzah board and the computer. Alternatively, the MacOS or Linux terminal and `screen` can be used for serial communication.

The Feather Huzzah has a built-in red LED mounted on the board close to the USB cable input. MicroPython can be used to blink this LED on and off.

### Connect the Adafruit Feather Huzzah to the computer with a USB cable and bring up the MicroPython REPL using PuTTY.

Connect the Adafruit Feather Huzzah ESP8266 to the computer with a microUSB cable. Ensure this is a USB data cable, not just a charging cable. Open Putty and connect to the Feather Huzzah using the proper serial port (COM#) and 115200 baud. (Remember to use the **Serial** radio button under **Connection Type**:

This will bring up the MicroPython REPL prompt `>>>`. If you can't see the `>>>` prompt, try typing [Enter] or Ctrl-D or push the RESET button on the Feather Huzzah. If none of these methods work, try closing Putty and unplugging then replugging in the USB cable.

### Run code at the MicroPython REPL to turn the LED on and off

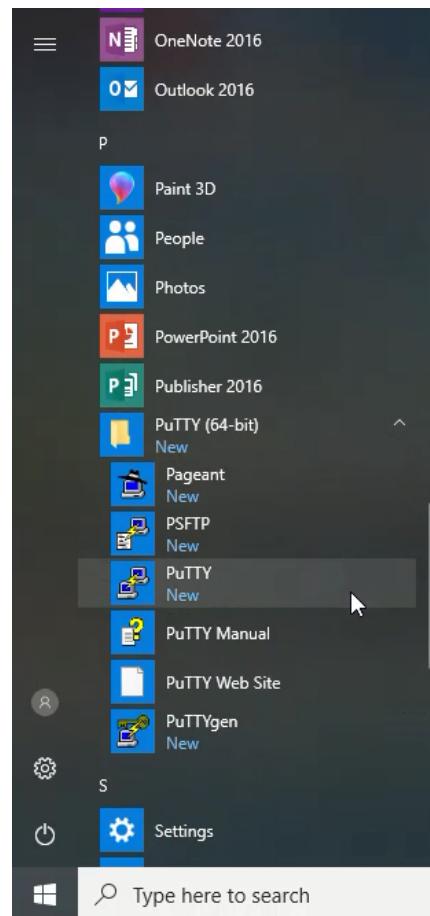
In the PuTTY serial window, test to see if the MicroPython REPL is functioning with a basic *Hello World* program.

```
>>> print("Hello World")
Hello World
```

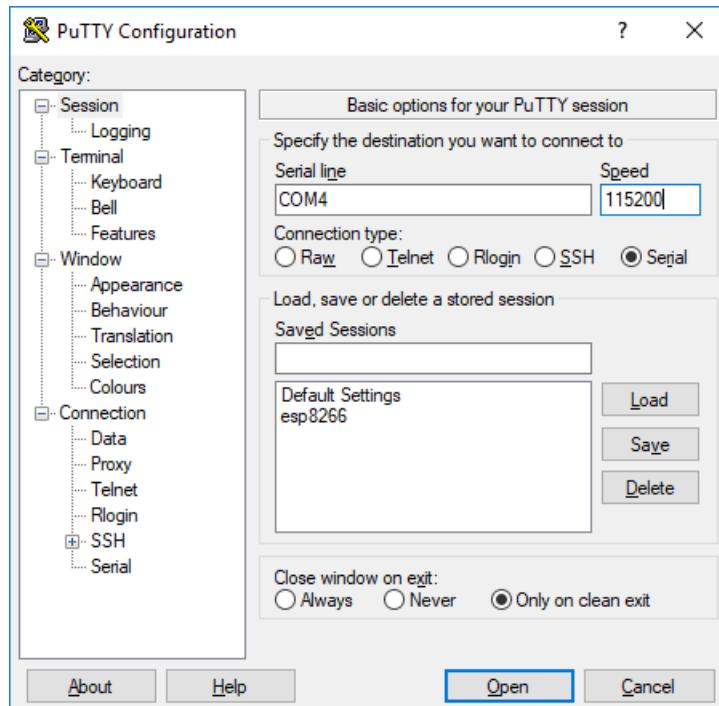
Next, we will blink the Feather Huzzah's built-in LED. The Feather Huzzah has a built-in LED connected to Pin 0. If we control the current going to Pin 0, we control the built-in LED. To control a Pin using MicroPython, first the **machine** module needs to be imported. Next a Pin object needs to be created. The integer passed into `machine.Pin()` determines the pin number assigned to the Pin object.

```
>>> import machine
>>> pin = machine.Pin(0)
```

The value (on or off) of Pin 0 can be returned using



PuTTY in the Windows 10 Start Menu



PuTTY Configuration

```
>>> pin.value
1
```

To assign a value to Pin 0, the `Pin` object must be created as an *output* pin. An output pin is a pin where a program or user determines the pin output. An input pin is a pin set up to read input, like the input from a sensor. In this case we want to assign Pin 0 as an output pin.

```
>>> pin = machine.Pin(0, machine.Pin.OUT)

# turn the LED on
>>> pin.value(0)

# turn the LED off
>>> pin.value(1)
```

## Run code at the MicroPython REPL to blink the LED

Now we can write a for loop at the MicroPython REPL to blink the LED on and off. In order to do this, we need to import the `machine` module and the `time` module.

```
>>> import machine
>>> import time
>>> pin = machine.Pin(0, machine.Pin.OUT)
>>> for i in range(10):
```

```

...     pin.value(1)
...     time.sleep(0.5)
...     pin.value(0)
...     time.sleep(0.5)
# backspace to exit loop indent and execute the loop.
....
```

## 13.6 Reading a Sensor

In this section, you will learn how to connect a temperature sensor to an Adafruit Feather Huzzah ESP8266 and use the MicroPython REPL to read the temperature.

Before we can use the [MCP9808 temperature sensor](#), MicroPython needs to be installed on the board and PuTTY needs to be installed on Windows 10 (on MacOS and Linux, use a terminal and screen) to communicate with the board over serial.

### Summary of Steps

1. Connect the temperature sensor to the Adafruit Feather Huzzah ESP8266
2. Connect the Adafruit Feather Huzzah ESP8266 to the computer with a USB cable and bring up the MicroPython REPL using PuTTY.
3. Run code at the MicroPython REPL to read the temperature

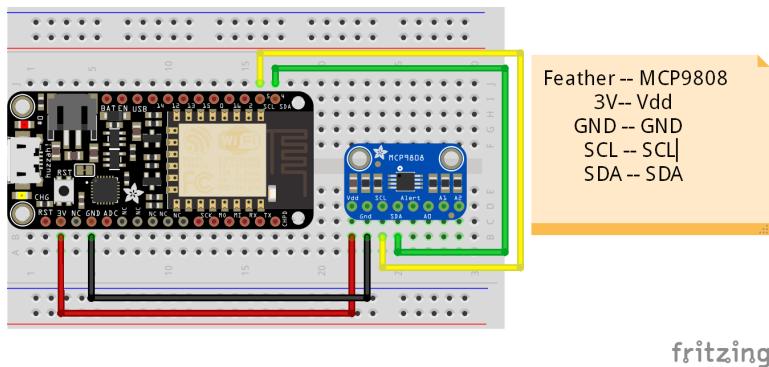
### Connect the MCP9808 temperature sensor to the Adafruit Feather Huzzah board

Connect the [MCP9808 temperature sensor](#) breakout board to the Feather Huzzah board with jumper wires. There are four connections: A 3V power line from the Feather Huzzah to the MCP9808 Vdd pin, GND connected between both boards, and the I2C data and clock lines connected between the two boards. On the Feather Huzzah ESP8266, the I2C data line is SDA (pin 4) and the I2C clock line is SCL (pin 5). These connect with the MPC9808 I2C data line SDA and the MPC9808 I2C clock line SCL. Unlike Serial communication where RX connects to TX, in I2C communication SDA connects to SDA and SCL connects to SCL.

Feather Huzzah	wire	MCP9808
3V	red	Vdd
GND	black	GND
SDA (pin 4)	green	SDA
SCL (pin 5)	yellow	SCL

### Connect the Adafruit Feather Huzzah to the computer with a USB cable and bring up the MicroPython REPL using PuTTY.

Connect the Adafruit Feather Huzzah ESP8266 to the computer with a microUSB cable. Ensure this is a USB data cable, not just a charging cable. Open Putty and connect to the Feather Huzzah using



MCP9808 temp sensor connected to an Adafruit Feather Huzzah ESP8266

the proper serial port (COM#) and 115200 baud. (Remember to use the **Serial** radio button under **Connection Type**:

This will bring up the MicroPython REPL prompt `>>>`. If you can't see the `>>>` prompt, try typing [Enter] or Ctrl-D or push the RESET button on the Feather Huzzah. If none of these methods work, try closing Putty and unplugging then replugging in the USB cable.

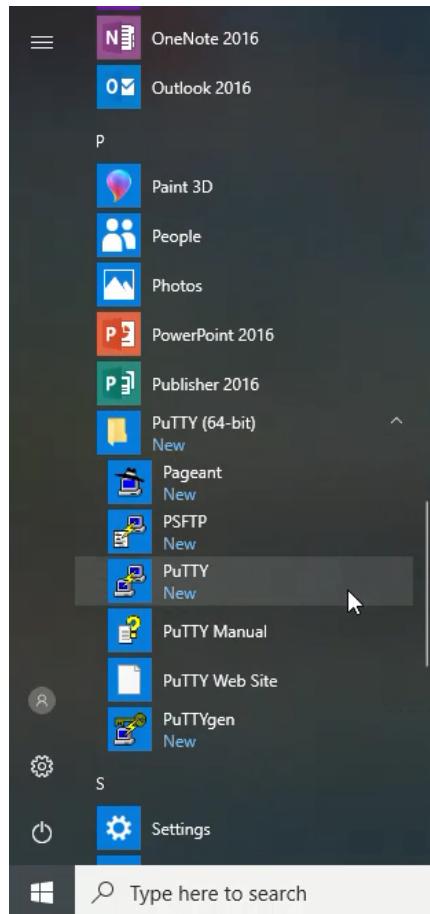
### Run code at the MicroPython REPL to read the temperature

In the PuTTY serial window, import the `machine` module and then create an instance of the `machine.I2C` class with the `scl` and `sda` parameters set as `scl=machine.Pin(5)` and `sda=machine.Pin(4)`. Then create an empty `bytearray` which will store the data coming in from the MCP9808 temperature sensor. As strings in Micropython are UTF-8 encoded by default (like in Python 3), a `bytearray` needs to be used to read the raw output from the MCP9808 chip registers. The command `i2c.readfrom_mem_into()` method brings in the data from the sensor and saves it to the `byte_data` variable. The arguments inside the `i2c.readfrom_mem_into()` method 24 and 5 correspond to the I2C memory address and registry address of the temperature data stored in the MCP9808 temperature sensor.

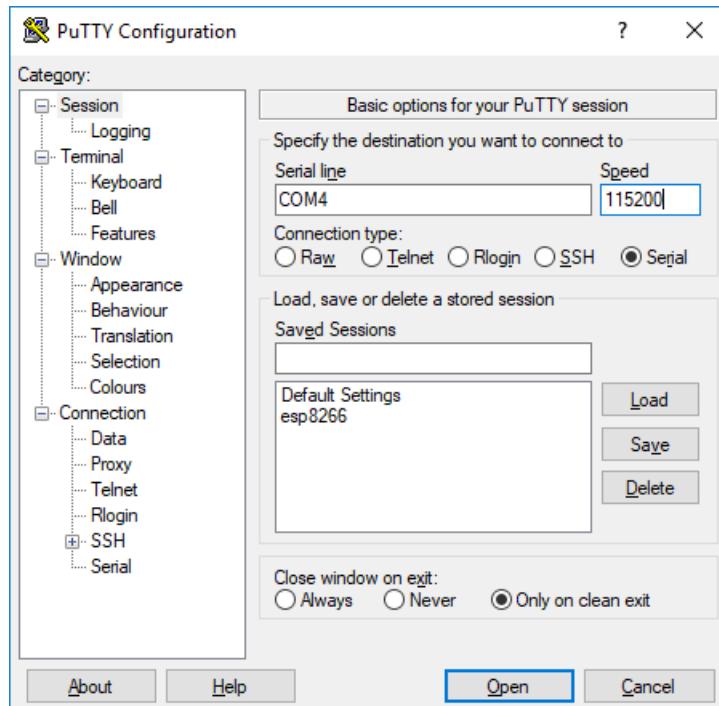
```
>>> import machine
>>> i2c = machine.I2C(scl=machine.Pin(5), sda=machine.Pin(4))
>>> byte_data = bytearray(2)
>>> i2c.readfrom_mem_into(24, 5, byte_data)
>>> value = byte_data[0] << 8 | byte_data[1]
>>> temp = (value & 0xFFFF) / 16.0
>>> if value & 0x1000:
...     temp -= 256.0
.... print(temp)
```

## 13.7 Uploading code

In this section, you will learn how to create a working WiFi weather station built using an Adafruit Feather Huzzah ESP9266, and a temperature sensor. The working WiFi weather station will post



PuTTY in the Windows 10 Start Menu



PuTTY Configuration

the temperature to [ThingSpeak.com](#)

Before the MicroPython REPL (the Python prompt) running on the Adafruit Feather Huzzah ESP8266 can be used, MicroPython needs to be installed on the board. PuTTY also needs to be installed on a computer in order for the computer to communicate with Feather Huzzah over a serial connection. See the previous section on how to install MicroPython on an Adafruit Feather Huzzah ESP9266 and how to install PuTTY on a Windows computer.

## Summary of Steps

1. Install **ampy** with **pip**
2. Write python code
3. Put the code on the board with **ampy**
4. Run functions from the MicroPython REPL
5. Run a program

## Install **ampy** with **pip**

**Ampy** is a Python package developed by Adafruit, the company that makes the Feather Huzzah board. **Ampy** is used to push code stored on a computer to the Feather Huzzah board. **Ampy** can be installed using the **Anaconda Prompt**. Alternatively, **pip** can be used to install **ampy**. If using a virtual environment, active the virtual environment first before proceeding with the **ampy** package installation.

```
> conda activate micropython  
(micropython) > pip install ampy-adafruit  
(micropython) > ampy --help
```

## Write Python Code

Now write the Python code that will be put on the board. The Feather Huzzah board has two main Python files: **boot.py** and **main.py**. Additional files can also be added to the board. **boot.py** is the file that runs first when the board is powered up. After **boot.py** runs, then **main.py** will run. Another **.py** file can be added to the board to provide **main.py** with some functions and classes to work with.

Two general things need to be accomplished on the Feather Huzzah board to turn it into a WiFi weather station: read the temperature and post the temperature to ThingSpeak.com. Two different **.py** files will be constructed, one **.py** file for each of these general functionalities (reading the temperature and posting the temperature).

The first **MCP9808.py** file will simplify reading temperature data off of the Adafruit MCP9808 temperature breakout. A function that parses out the temperature data from the I2C bus and return it as the output for the **readtemp** function will be created. The function needs to import the **machine** module to use the I2C bus. The **machine** module provides the class to create a new **i2c** object. When the **i2c** object is instantiated, the **scl** and **sda** pins that the sensor is connected to need to be specified. **scl** is the i2c clock line and **sda** is the i2c data line. These are pins 5 and 4 on the Adafruit Feather Huzzah. Then a new byte array variable needs to be created, so that later data from the sensor can be saved into it. Next read the sensor data using the **i2c.readfrom\_mem\_into()** function. The first argument is the I2C bus address for the sensor. In this case the sensor is at I2C bus address 24. The line **>>> i2c.scan()** typed into the MicroPython REPL will show the I2C bus address. The next function argument is the register on the MCP9808 temperature sensor where the temperature value is stored, which happens to be register 5. If register 5 is accessed on the MCP, the temperature can be recorded. The third arguments is the variable to store the temperature data into. The **i2c.readfrom\_mem\_into()** method changes the variable that is a method argument, rather than changing a variable which is the method output as most methods do. This is why the **byte\_data** variable needs to be created before calling the **i2c.readfrom\_mem\_into()** method. Next some post processing is needed to convert the byte array into a temperature in degrees C.

```
# MCP9808.py  
  
# Functions for the MCP9808 temperature sensor  
# learn.adafruit.com/micropython-hardware-i2c-devices/i2c-master  
  
def readtemp():  
    import machine  
    i2c = machine.I2C(scl=machine.Pin(5), sda=machine.Pin(4))  
    byte_data = bytearray(2)  
    i2c.readfrom_mem_into(24, 5, byte_data)  
    value = byte_data[0] << 8 | byte_data[1]  
    temp = (value & 0xFFFF) / 16.0  
    if value & 0x1000:  
        temp -= 256.0  
    return temp
```

Now build a Python file for the set of WiFi functions.

```
# wifitools.py

def connect(SSID, password):
    import network
    sta_if = network.WLAN(network.STA_IF)
    if not sta_if.isconnected():
        print('connecting to network...')
        sta_if.active(True)
        sta_if.connect(SSID, password)
        while not sta_if.isconnected():
            pass
    print('network config:', sta_if.ifconfig())


def http_get(url):
    import socket
    _, _, host, path = url.split('/', 3)
    addr = socket.getaddrinfo(host, 80)[0][-1]
    s = socket.socket()
    s.connect(addr)
    str_send = 'GET /%s HTTP/1.0\r\nHost: %s\r\n\r\n' % (path, host)
    s.send(bytes(str_send, 'utf8'))
    while True:
        data = s.recv(100)
        if data:
            print(str(data, 'utf8'), end=' ')
        else:
            break

def thingspeak_post(API_key, data):
    if not isinstance(data, str):
        data = str(data)
    base_url = 'https://api.thingspeak.com/update?api_key='
    mid_url = '&field1='
    url = base_url + API_key + mid_url + data
    http_get(url)
```

Now we will construct a MicroPython script called *main.py* which will use the functions stored in *MCP9808.py*. The *main.py* script will import the *MCP9808.py* and *wifitools* functions then use the *wifitools.connect()* function to connect to the WiFi network. A *time.sleep(5)* line to allows time for the Feather Huzzah board to connect to the WiFi network. Next we'll run a loop for a total of 8 hours at 60 minutes each hour. Inside the loop, we'll read in the temperature from the MCP9808 using the *MCP9808.readtemp()* function and post it to ThingSpeak.com using the *wifitools.thingspeak\_post()* function. To take the temperature once a minute, we need to *time.sleep(60)* (wait 60 seconds) between each measurement.

```
# main.py
# ESP8266 Feather Huzzah Weather Station
```

```
import wifitools
import MCP9808
import time
import config

api_key = config.API_KEY
ssid = config.SSID
password = config.WIFI_PASSWORD

wifitools.connect(ssid, password)
time.sleep(5)

for i in range(8*60):
    data = MCP9808.readtemp()
    wifitools.thingspeak_post(api_key, data)
    time.sleep(60)
```

## Upload Python Code to the Feather Huzzah with **ampy**

Once all the *.py* files are created, ensure the Feather Huzzah board is connected with a USB cable, and be aware of which serial port the Feather Huzzah is connected to. Upload the code files to the board using **ampy**. Make sure you are in the directory with the *.py* files and that you are working in a virtual environment that has **ampy** installed in it. In the example code below, the `(micropython)` virtual environment is active.

```
(micropython) > ampy --port COM4 put MCP9808.py
(micropython) > ampy --port COM4 put wifitools.py
(micropython) > ampy --port COM4 put main.py
(micropython) > ampy --port COM4 ls
boot.py
wifitools.py
MCP9808.py
config.py
main.py
```

## Unplug and power up the Feather Huzzah and watch the data on ThingSpeak.com

The Feather Huzzah needs to be restarted to run the code uploaded with **ampy**. To restart the board, unplug and then replug in the board's power (the USB cable). Once power is restored, the board will run through the *boot.py* script then start the *main.py* script. When the board runs the *main.py* script, the board will connect to the WiFi network, read the temperature then upload the temperature to ThingSpeak.com. When ThingSpeak.com is viewed, you will see the temperature plotted on the Thinkspeak.com Channel's page.

## 13.8 Summary

### Key Terms and Concepts

MicroPython

Microcontroller

MicroPython REPL

Baud Rate

## 13.9 Review Questions

1.

2.

3.

4.

5.

6.

7.

8.

9.

# Chapter 14

# Appendix

## 14.1 Contents

The following will be detailed in the appendix:

- Reserved and Key Words in Python
- Python **math** and **statistics** module fuctions
- Answers to selected problems
- Glossary
- About the Author
- About the contrirubuors

## 14.2 Reserved and Key Words in Python

The following are reserved and key words in Python. These words should not be used as the names for user-defined functions, classes, methods or modules. The key words can be accessed with the following code:

```
In [1]: import keyword
        print(f'There are {len(keyword.kwlist)} key words')
        for keywr in keyword.kwlist:
            print(keywr)
```

```
There are 33 key words
False
None
True
and
```

```
as  
assert  
break  
class  
continue  
def  
del  
elif  
else  
except  
finally  
for  
from  
global  
if  
import  
in  
is  
lambda  
nonlocal  
not  
or  
pass  
raise  
return  
try  
while  
with  
yield
```

## Logical Key Words

```
True  
False  
not  
and  
or  
is  
None  
in
```

## Control Flow Key Words

```
if  
else  
elif  
for  
while
```

```
break
continue
pass
try
except
finally
raise
return
yield
```

## Definition Key Words

```
def
global
nonlocal
class
lambda
with
assert
del
```

## Module Key Words

```
import
from
as
with
```

## 14.3 ASCII Character Codes

The following is a list of ASCII character codes. These character codes can also be accessed using the following code:

```
In [1]: for ASCIIcode in range(32,127):
    print(f'ASCII code: {ASCIIcode}      Character: {chr(ASCIIcode)}')
```

```
ASCII code: 32      Character:
ASCII code: 33      Character: !
ASCII code: 34      Character: "
ASCII code: 35      Character: #
ASCII code: 36      Character: $
ASCII code: 37      Character: %
ASCII code: 38      Character: &
amp; ASCII code: 39      Character: '
ASCII code: 40      Character: (
ASCII code: 41      Character: )
ASCII code: 42      Character: *
ASCII code: 43      Character: +
```

ASCII code: 44	Character: ,
ASCII code: 45	Character: -
ASCII code: 46	Character: .
ASCII code: 47	Character: /
ASCII code: 48	Character: 0
ASCII code: 49	Character: 1
ASCII code: 50	Character: 2
ASCII code: 51	Character: 3
ASCII code: 52	Character: 4
ASCII code: 53	Character: 5
ASCII code: 54	Character: 6
ASCII code: 55	Character: 7
ASCII code: 56	Character: 8
ASCII code: 57	Character: 9
ASCII code: 58	Character: :
ASCII code: 59	Character: ;
ASCII code: 60	Character: <
ASCII code: 61	Character: =
ASCII code: 62	Character: >
ASCII code: 63	Character: ?
ASCII code: 64	Character: @
ASCII code: 65	Character: A
ASCII code: 66	Character: B
ASCII code: 67	Character: C
ASCII code: 68	Character: D
ASCII code: 69	Character: E
ASCII code: 70	Character: F
ASCII code: 71	Character: G
ASCII code: 72	Character: H
ASCII code: 73	Character: I
ASCII code: 74	Character: J
ASCII code: 75	Character: K
ASCII code: 76	Character: L
ASCII code: 77	Character: M
ASCII code: 78	Character: N
ASCII code: 79	Character: O
ASCII code: 80	Character: P
ASCII code: 81	Character: Q
ASCII code: 82	Character: R
ASCII code: 83	Character: S
ASCII code: 84	Character: T
ASCII code: 85	Character: U
ASCII code: 86	Character: V
ASCII code: 87	Character: W
ASCII code: 88	Character: X
ASCII code: 89	Character: Y
ASCII code: 90	Character: Z
ASCII code: 91	Character: [
ASCII code: 92	Character: \

```
ASCII code: 93    Character: ]
ASCII code: 94    Character: ^
ASCII code: 95    Character: _
ASCII code: 96    Character: `
ASCII code: 97    Character: a
ASCII code: 98    Character: b
ASCII code: 99    Character: c
ASCII code: 100   Character: d
ASCII code: 101   Character: e
ASCII code: 102   Character: f
ASCII code: 103   Character: g
ASCII code: 104   Character: h
ASCII code: 105   Character: i
ASCII code: 106   Character: j
ASCII code: 107   Character: k
ASCII code: 108   Character: l
ASCII code: 109   Character: m
ASCII code: 110   Character: n
ASCII code: 111   Character: o
ASCII code: 112   Character: p
ASCII code: 113   Character: q
ASCII code: 114   Character: r
ASCII code: 115   Character: s
ASCII code: 116   Character: t
ASCII code: 117   Character: u
ASCII code: 118   Character: v
ASCII code: 119   Character: w
ASCII code: 120   Character: x
ASCII code: 121   Character: y
ASCII code: 122   Character: z
ASCII code: 123   Character: {
ASCII code: 124   Character: |
ASCII code: 125   Character: }
ASCII code: 126   Character: ~
```

## 14.4 Virtual Environments

Using **virtual environments** is a good standard of practice in Python

## 14.5 Numpy Math Functions

The code below will print out all of the numpy functions and methods:

```
import numpy as np
for func in dir(np):
    print(func)
```

## Numpy Statistics Fuctions and Methods

```
np.mean  
np.median  
np.std  
np.var  
np.erf
```

## Numpy Trigonometric Functions and Methods

```
np.pi  
np.sin  
np.cos  
np.tan  
np.arcsin  
np.arccos  
np.arctan  
np.arcsinh  
np.arccosh  
np.arctanh  
np.arctan2  
np.radians  
np.rad2deg  
np.deg2rad  
np.radians  
  
np.sinc  
np.sinh  
np.tanh  
  
np.angle
```

## Numpy Exponential and Logarithmic Functions and Methods

```
np.log  
np.log10  
np.log1p  
np.log2  
np.logaddexp  
np.logaddexp2  
np.exp  
np.exp2  
np.sqrt  
np.power  
np.e
```

## Numpy Matrix Creation and Manipulation Functions and Methods

```
np.linspace  
np.zeros
```

```
np.ones
np.ndarray
np.matrix
np.transpose
np.size
np.shape
np.reshape
np.meshgrid
np.dot
np.asmatrix
np.asarray
np.arange
np.array
```

## 14.6 Git and github.com

**Git** is a common version control tool used by computer program developers to save code and work on code as a team. **Git** is a program run from the command line or **Anaconda Prompt**.

[github.com](#) is a website and service used by open source projects to share code and allow other users to make changes to existing code.

Both **git** and [github.com](#) are useful for problemsolvers working in teams.

To use git and github the understanding of a few terms is import:

- **git** - a command line program used to track file changes and collaborate on code with others
- **repo** - short name for “repository”. A repo is a directory that contains files and other subfolders with files
- **local repo** - a directory that contains files and subfolders on your computer that git knows about
- **remote repo** - a set of files and subfolders stored in the cloud that git knows about

Useful git commands are summarized below:

command	description
git initialize	a new repository
git remote add origin https://github.com/user/repo.git	a local repo with a remote repo on github.com

command	description
git add	adds all the files and changes to the local git repo
git commit	the changes in the local repo
git push	the changes up to the remote repo on github.com
git pull	the version in the remote repo down to the local repo

command	description
<code>git clone https://github.com/user/repo.git</code>	a remote repo on github.com to a local directory

## Cloning a repo

One common task to complete with git is to clone a repo from github.com and save it locally. This is accomplished with:

```
$ git clone https://github.com/user/repo.git
```

This command will copy the repo named `repo` from the user `user`. To clone the repo for this book, use:

```
$ git clone https://github.com/ProfessorKazarinoff/Problem-Solving-with-Python.git
```

## Creating a synching a remote repo on github.com with a local repo

Another common task to complete with git is to synch a remote repo with github.com with a local repo on any one of your computers. This is useful for one person if they want to keep the files in a particular project synched. It is also useful for a group of problem solvers who are working on the same project to have access to the same remote repo on github.com and then have the same local repo on all of their computers.

First, go to github.com and create a new account. Log on and create a new repo. It is a good idea to include a license and a `.gitignore` file. For a Python project, the `.gitignore` file for Python is a good start.

Second, create a local directory and `cd` into it. Initialize a git repo locally in that directory then synch the local folder with the remote repo on github.com.

```
$ mkdir newproject
$ cd newproject
$ git init
$ git remote add origin https://github.com/user/repo.git
$ git pull origin master
```

Third, work on the project locally. For example, you could edit one of the files or create a new file.

Finally, save your work and commit the changes you made with git. Push those changes up to the remote repo on github.com

```
$ git add .
$ git commit -m "commit message"
```

```
$ git push origin master
```

## 14.7 LaTeX Math

Latex Math can be included in Jupyter Notebook markdown cells as well as in parts of **matplotlib plots** like axis labels and text fields. A table of useful LaTeX commands and the associated output is below:

LaTex Command	Output
<code>2^{3}</code>	$2^3$
<code>H_{2}</code>	$H_2$
<code>\frac{3}{4}</code>	$\frac{3}{4}$
<code>\pi</code>	$\pi$
<code>\Delta</code>	$\Delta$
<code>\epsilon</code>	$\epsilon$
<code>\sigma</code>	$\sigma$
<code>2 \times 3</code>	$2 \times 3$
<code>\int_a^b x^2 dx</code>	$\int_a^b x^2 dx$
<code>\sum</code>	$\sum$
<code>\vec{F}</code>	$\vec{F}$
<code>\hat{k}</code>	$\hat{k}$
<code>\bar{x}</code>	$\bar{x}$
<code>15 \%</code>	$15\%$

## 14.8 Problem Solving with Python Book Construction

### Jupyter Notebooks

This book was constructed using **jupyter notebooks** saved on github.com. The github repo for the books can be found at:

<https://github.com/ProfessorKazarinoff/Problem-Solving-with-Python>

The directory structure of the github repo contains all the **jupyter notebooks** used to write the book. The repo also contains a set of conversion tools which assist with the conversion of the book from **jupyter notebooks** to a website, .pdf and hard copy.

```
Problem-Solving-with-Python/
|-- conversion_tools/
|-- notebooks/
|-- LICENSE
|-- notebooks/
|-- pdf/
|-- README.md
|-- website/
```

The notebooks directory contains a directory for each chapter of the book:

```
notebooks/
|-- 00-Preface/
|-- 01-Orientation/
|-- 02-The-Python-REPL/
|-- 03-Data-Types-and-Variables/
|-- 04-Jupyter-Notebooks/
|-- 05-Functions-and-Modules/
|-- 06-Plotting-with-Matplotlib/
|-- 07-If-Else-Try-Except/
|-- 08-Loops/
|-- 09-Linear-Algebra/
|-- 10-Symbolic-Math/
|-- 11-Python-and-External-Hardware/
|-- 12-MicroPython/
|-- 99-Appendix/
|-- figures/
`-- TOC.ipynb
```

Within each chapter directory, there is a **jupyter notebook** for each section, and an images directory for any images used in the markdown sections of the notebooks.

```
01-Orientation/
|-- 01.00-Welcome.ipynb
|-- 01.01-Why-Python.ipynb
|-- 01.02-Installing-Python.ipynb
|-- 01.03-Installing-Anaconda.ipynb
|-- 01.04-Installing-Anaconda-on-OSX.ipynb
|-- 01.05-Summary.ipynb
|-- 01.06-Review-Questions.ipynb
`-- images/
```

## Website

The website for the book was constructed using **mkdocs** and the **Material for MkDocs** theme. Jupyter notebooks were exported to .html files with markdown cells unformatted.

## HARD COPY

The hard copy of the book was constructed using **LATEX**, **nbconvert** and a set of custom scripts and templates. One conversion script combined all of the notebooks into one BIG notebook. This BIG notebook was then converted into **LATEX** using a custom template. Outside of the Python ecosystem, a separate installation of TeXworks was used to compile the LATEX to .pdf.

## **14.9 About the Author**

Peter D. Kazarinoff, PhD is a full-time faculty member in Engineering and Engineering Technology at Portland Community College in Portland, OR. Peter earned a PhD in Engineering from the University of Washington and a BA from Cornell University. He teaches courses in Engineering Programming, Materials Science, Manufacturing and others.

Peter lives in Portland OR with his wife and two kids.