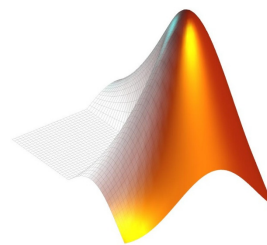


Building Geometries into Data Arrays

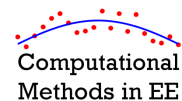
Outline

Computational
Methods in EE

- Visualizing MATLAB Data and Arrays
- 3D \rightarrow 2D \rightarrow 1D
- Arrays, x and y in MATLAB
- Building Geometries in Arrays
 - Initializing arrays
 - Array indexing
 - Squares and rectangles
 - Simple triangles and arbitrary polygons
 - Circles and ellipses
 - Formed half-spaces
 - Linear half-spaces
 - Boolean operations
 - Scaling data in arrays



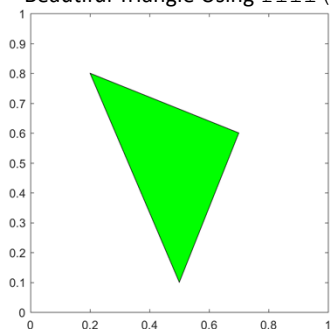
WARNING: Not Meant for Graphics!



This lecture teaches techniques that are NOT intended for generating graphics. See previous lecture if that is your purpose.

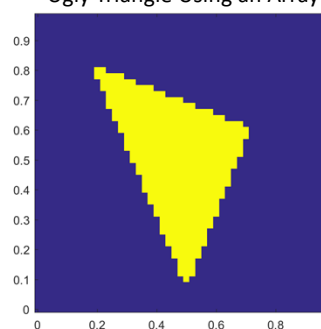
Instead, the techniques in this lecture are intended for you to build arrays containing different shapes and geometries so that you can do numerical computation on those shapes and geometries.

Beautiful Triangle Using `fill()`

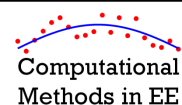


Lecture 2b

Ugly Triangle Using an Array



Slide 3



Visualizing MATLAB Data and Arrays

Lecture 2b

4

1D Data Arrays

Row Vectors

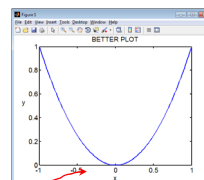
```
>> a = [1, 2, 3, 4, 5]
```

```
a =
```

```
1 2 3 4 5
```

Row vectors are most commonly used to store one-dimensional data. They can be used to label axes on grids, store functions, and more. Row vectors are used in some matrix algorithms, but less frequently.

```
x = linspace(-1,1,100);  
y = x.^2;
```



Column Vectors

```
>> a = [1; 2; 3; 4; 5]
```

```
a =
```

```
1  
2  
3  
4  
5
```

Column vectors can be used the same way as row vectors, but column vectors are used more commonly in linear algebra and matrix manipulation.

$$\begin{bmatrix} 0.8 & 0.6 & 1.0 & 1.0 \\ 0.9 & 0.1 & 1.0 & 0.5 \\ 0.1 & 0.3 & 0.2 & 0.8 \\ 0.9 & 0.5 & 1.0 & 0.1 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} 0.4 \\ 0.9 \\ 0.8 \\ 1.0 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 2.66 \\ 1.75 \\ 1.27 \\ 1.71 \end{bmatrix}$$

Column vectors

Lecture 2b

Slide 5

2D Data Arrays

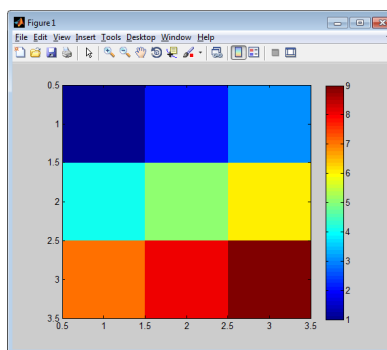
```
>> A = [ 1 2 3 ; 4 5 6 ; 7 8 9 ]
```

```
A =
```

```
1 2 3  
4 5 6  
7 8 9
```

A 2D array could be a matrix, a JPEG image, a 2D set of data, or many other things. MATLAB does not differentiate between these and treats them the same. It is up to you to know the difference and stay consistent in your code.

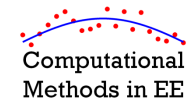
```
>> imagesc(A); colorbar
```



Lecture 2b

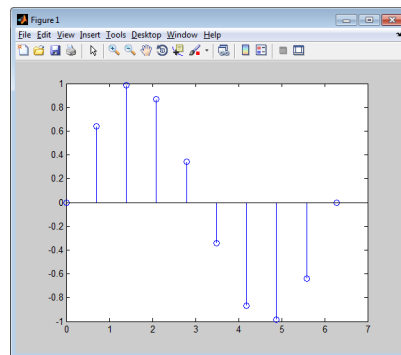
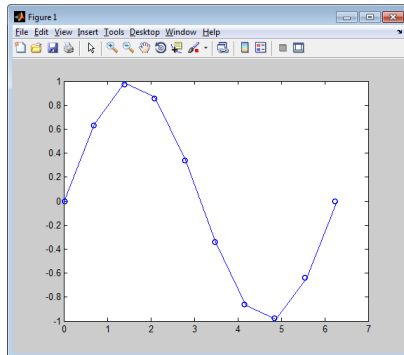
Slide 6

Visualizing 1D Arrays



```
>> phi = linspace(0,2*pi,10);
>> y = sin(phi);
>> plot(phi,y);
```

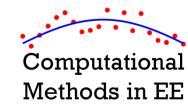
```
>> phi = linspace(0,2*pi,10);
>> y = sin(phi);
>> stem(phi,y);
```



Lecture 2b

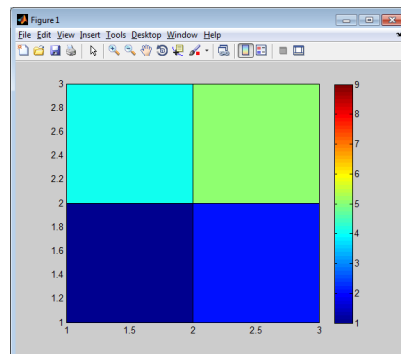
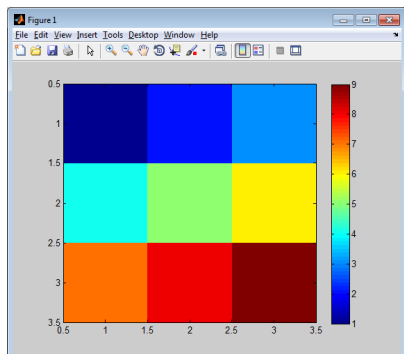
Slide 7

Visualizing 2D Arrays



```
A = [1 2 3 ; 4 5 6 ; 7 8 9 ];
imagesc(A);
colorbar;
```

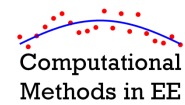
```
A = [1 2 3 ; 4 5 6 ; 7 8 9 ];
pcolor(A);
colorbar;
```



Lecture 2b

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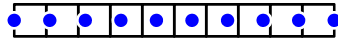
linspace() vs. [a:Δ:b]



Linspace

```
xa = linspace(0,10,10);
```

```
xa = 0  1.11  2.22  3.33  4.44  5.55  6.66  7.77  8.88  10.00
```



- Easier to control number of points
- Easier to control position of end points.
- More difficult to control step size.

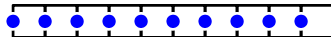
DIRECT ARRAY

```
Nx = 10;
```

```
dx = 1;
```

```
xa = [0:Nx-1]*dx;
```

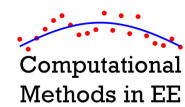
```
xa = 0  1  2  3  4  5  6  7  8  9
```



- Easier to control step size.
- More difficult to control number of points.
- More difficult to control position of last point.

Lecture 2b

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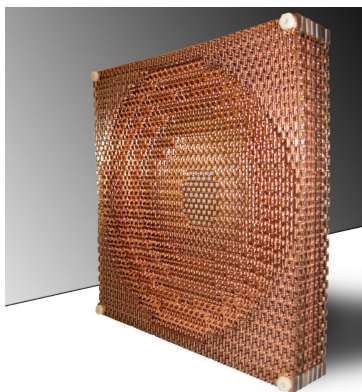
3D → 2D → 1D

Lecture 2b

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3D

All physical devices are three-dimensional.

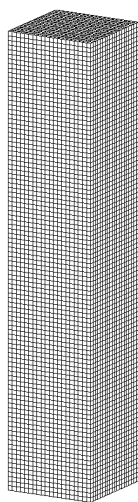


Lecture 2b

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Numerical Complexity

Typical grid required to model a 3D device.



$$\begin{aligned} N_x &= 20 \\ N_y &= 20 \\ N_z &= 100 \end{aligned}$$

Size of 3D Problem

$$20 \times 20 \times 100 = 40,000 \text{ points}$$

Size of 2D Problem

$$20 \times 100 = 2,000 \text{ points}$$

Size of 1D Problem

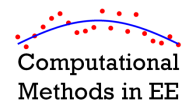
$$100 \text{ points}$$

Can we simulate 3D devices in one or two dimensions?

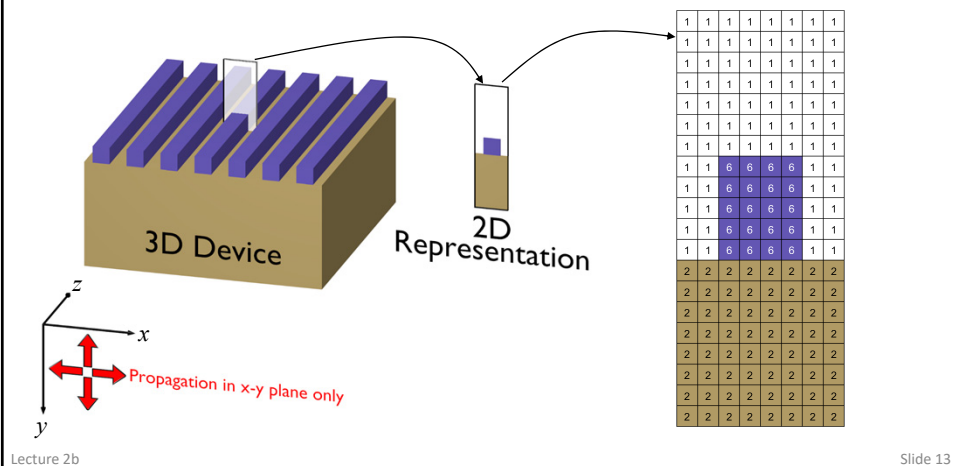
Lecture 2b

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3D → 2D (Exact)



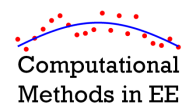
Sometimes it is possible to describe a physical device using just two dimensions. Doing so dramatically reduces the numerical complexity of the problem and is ALWAYS GOOD PRACTICE.



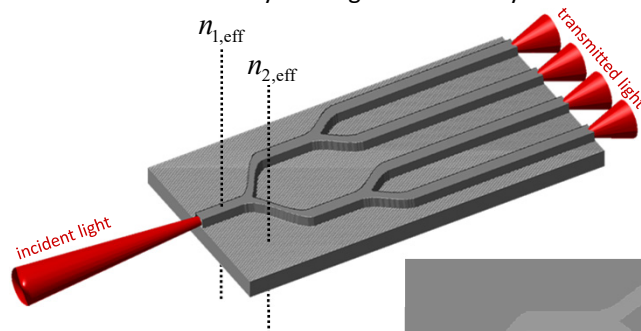
Lecture 2b

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3D → 2D (Approximate)



Many times it is possible to approximate a 3D device in two dimensions. It is very good practice to at least perform the initial simulations in 2D and only moving to 3D to verify the final design.



Effective indices are best computed by modeling the vertical cross section as a slab waveguide.

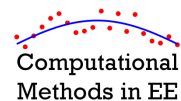
A simple average index can also produce good results.



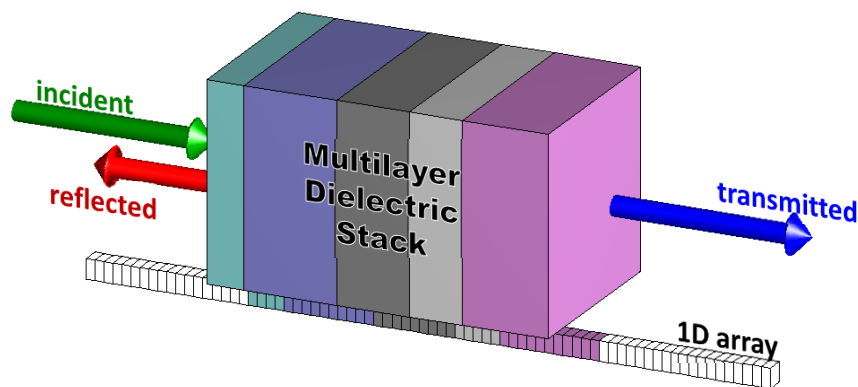
Lecture 2b

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3D \rightarrow 1D (Exact)

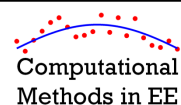


Sometimes it is possible to describe a physical device using just one dimension. Doing so dramatically reduces the numerical complexity of the problem and is ALWAYS GOOD PRACTICE.



Lecture 2b

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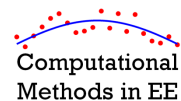


Arrays, x and y in MATLAB

Lecture 2b

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How MATLAB Indexes Arrays



MATLAB uses matrix notation for indexing arrays.

$$\begin{bmatrix} a_{11} & a_{12} & a_{13} & a_{14} \\ a_{21} & a_{22} & a_{23} & a_{24} \\ a_{31} & a_{32} & a_{33} & a_{34} \\ a_{41} & a_{42} & a_{43} & a_{44} \end{bmatrix} \quad a_{mn} \quad \begin{array}{l} m \text{ is the row number} \\ n \text{ is the column number} \end{array}$$

In MATLAB notation, a_{mn} is indexed as $A(m, n)$.

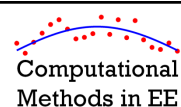
In this sense, the first number is the vertical position and the second number is the horizontal position. This is like $f(y, x)$ and so it is awkward for us to think about when the array is not a matrix.

To be consistent with matrix notation, the index of the first element in an array is 1, not zero like in other programming languages like C or Fortran.

Lecture 2b

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A More Intuitive Way of Indexing Arrays



Experience suggests that one of the most challenging tasks in numerical modeling is representing devices on a grid.

To be more intuitive, we would like the first argument when indexing an array to be the horizontal position and the second to be the vertical position so that it looks like $f(x, y)$ instead of $f(y, x)$.

For this reason, we will treat the first argument of an array as the horizontal position and the second as the vertical position. This is consistent with the standard $f(x, y)$ notation.

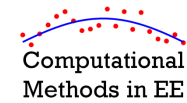
Think $A(nx, ny)$ instead of $A(m, n)$.

This is fine, but MATLAB still treats the array otherwise. We only need to consider how MATLAB handles things when using the `meshgrid()` command or when using plotting commands.

Lecture 2b

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meshgrid()



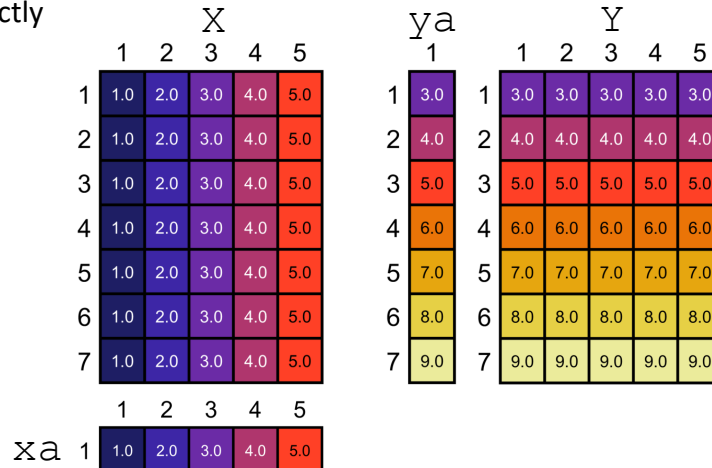
The `meshgrid()` command allows complex equations involving grid coordinates to be typed directly into MATLAB without the need of using `for` loops to iterate across the grid.

`% GENERATE MESHGRID`

`xa = [1:5];`

`ya = [3:9];`

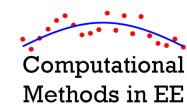
`[Y,X] = meshgrid(ya,xa);`



Lecture 2b

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Revised Use of meshgrid()



MATLAB Standard Use of `meshgrid()`

```
xa = [0:Nx-1]*dx;
ya = [0:Ny-1]*dy;
[X,Y] = meshgrid(xa, ya);
```

Revised Use of `meshgrid()`

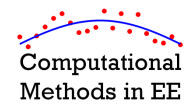
```
xa = [0:Nx-1]*dx;
ya = [0:Ny-1]*dy;
[Y,X] = meshgrid(ya, xa);
```

We will do
it this way.

Lecture 2b

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Revised Plot Commands



MATLAB Standard Use of `imagesc()`

```
imagesc(xa, ya, A);
```

← This fails to properly convey
our sense of x and y .

Revised Use of `imagesc()`

```
imagesc(xa, ya, A.');
```

```
>> A = zeros(4,4);
>> A(2,3) = 1;
>> A
```

A =

```
0 0 0 0
0 0 1 0
0 0 0 0
0 0 0 0
```

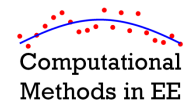
```
>> A.'
```

ans =

```
0 0 0 0
0 0 0 0
0 1 0 0
0 0 0 0
```

Lecture 2b

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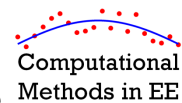


Building Geometries into Data Arrays

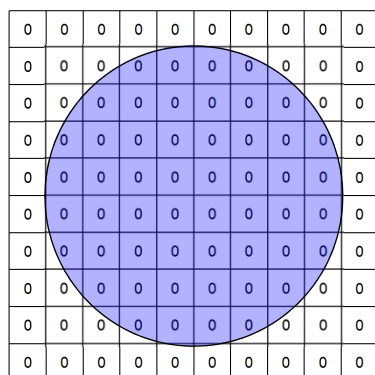
Lecture 2b

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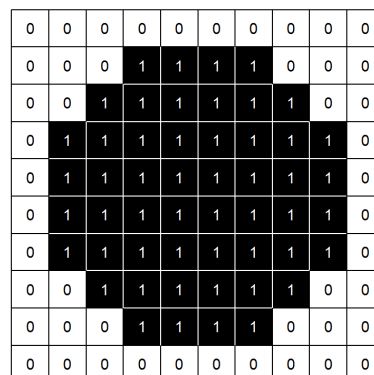
Building a Geometry?



A geometry is “built” into an array when you can visualize the array and see the desired geometry.



Suppose we wish to “build” a circle into this array.

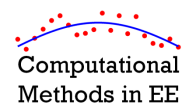


We fill in our array so that when the array is plotted we see our circle.

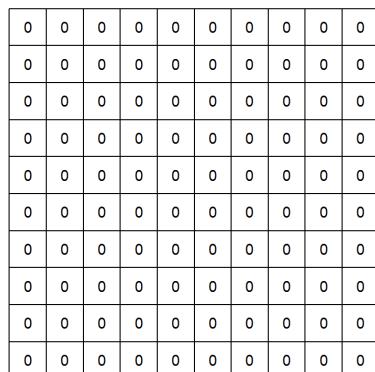
Lecture 2b

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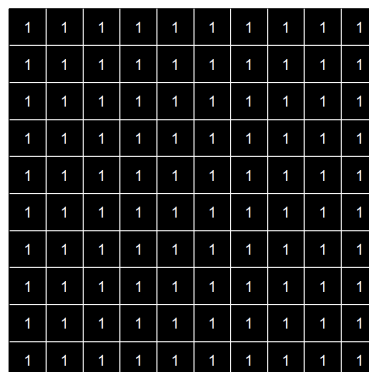
Initializing Data Arrays



```
Nx = 10;
Ny = 10;
A = zeros(Nx,Ny);
```



```
Nx = 10;
Ny = 10;
A = ones(Nx,Ny);
```



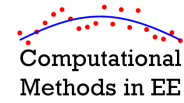
You can initialize an array with any number:

```
A = 3.1 * ones(Nx,Ny);
```

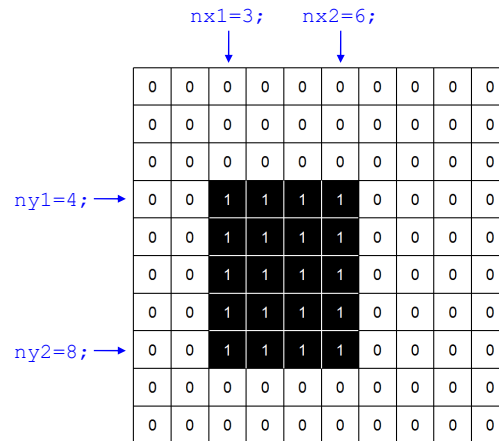
Lecture 2b

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Adding Rectangles to an Array



Consider adding rectangles by first computing the start and stop indices in the array, then filling in the array.



```
A = zeros(Nx,Ny);
```

```
nx1 = 3;
```

```
nx2 = 6;
```

```
ny1 = 4;
```

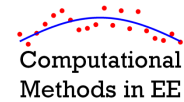
```
ny2 = 8;
```

```
A(nx1:nx2,ny1:ny2) = 1;
```

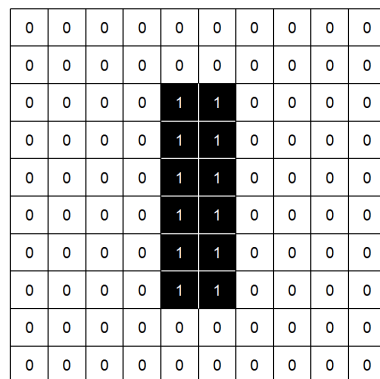
Lecture 2b

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Centering a Rectangle



It is often necessary to center a rectangle type structure in an array.



```
% DEFINE GRID
```

```
Sx = 1; %physical size along x
```

```
Sy = 1; %physical size along y
```

```
Nx = 10; %number of cells along x
```

```
Ny = 10; %number of cells along y
```

```
% DEFINE RECTANGLE SIZE
```

```
wx = 0.2;
```

```
wy = 0.6;
```

```
% COMPUTE POSITION INDICES
```

```
dx = Sx/Nx;
```

```
nx = round(wx/dx);
```

```
nx1 = 1 + floor((Nx - nx)/2);
```

```
nx2 = nx1 + nx - 1;
```

```
dy = Sy/Ny;
```

```
ny = round(wy/dy);
```

```
ny1 = 1 + round((Ny - ny)/2);
```

```
ny2 = ny1 + ny - 1;
```

```
% CREATE A
```

```
A = zeros(Nx,Ny);
```

```
A(nx1:nx2,ny1:ny2) = 1;
```

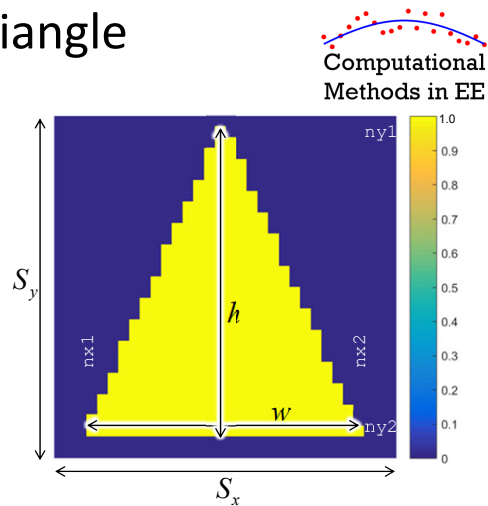
Lecture 2b

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A Simple Centered Triangle

```
% TRIANGLE
w = 0.8*Sx;
h = 0.9*Sy;

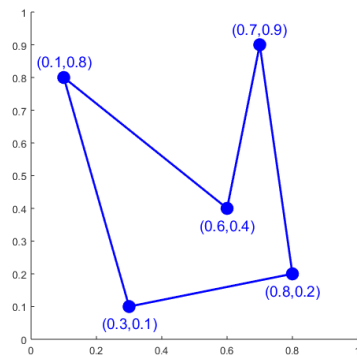
% CREATE CENTERED TRIANGLE
ER = zeros(Nx,Ny);
ny = round(h/dy);
ny1 = 1 + floor((Ny - ny)/2);
ny2 = ny1 + ny - 1;
for ny = ny1 : ny2
    f = (ny - ny1 + 1)/(ny2 - ny1 + 1);
    nx = round(f*w/dx);
    nx1 = 1 + floor((Nx - nx)/2);
    nx2 = nx1 + nx - 1;
    ER(nx1:nx2,ny) = 1;
end
```



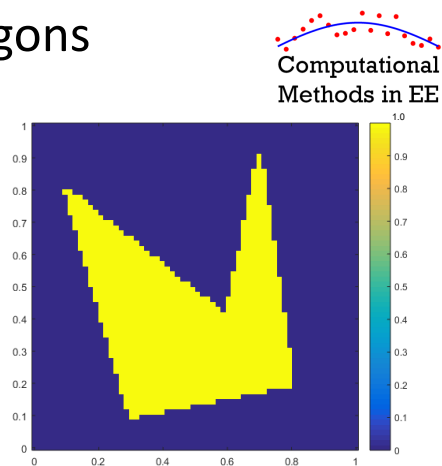
Lecture 2b

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Creating Arbitrary Polygons



```
% DEFINE VERTICES OF POLYGON
p1 = [ 0.3 ; 0.1 ];
p2 = [ 0.8 ; 0.2 ];
p3 = [ 0.7 ; 0.9 ];
p4 = [ 0.6 ; 0.4 ];
p5 = [ 0.1 ; 0.8 ];
P = [ p1 p2 p3 p4 p5 ];
```



```
% CALL POLYFILL() TO FILL
% POLYGON IN ARRAY A
A = polyfill(xa, ya, P);
```

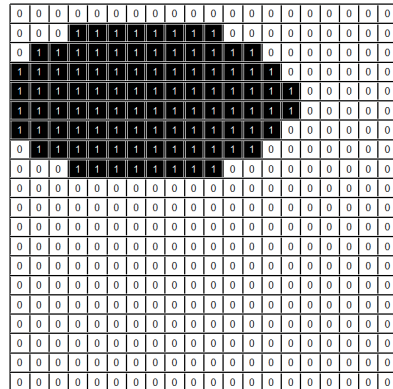
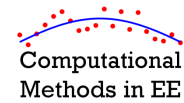
Get `polyfill()` from course website.

Lecture 2b

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Offset Ellipses

Ellipses and circles can be placed anywhere on the grid.



```
% DEFINE GRID
Sx = 1;      %physical size along x
Sy = 1;      %physical size along y
Nx = 20;     %number of cells along x
Ny = 20;     %number of cells along y
```

```
% GRID ARRAYS
dx = Sx/Nx;
xa = [0:Nx-1]*dx;
xa = xa - mean(xa);
```

```
dy = Sy/Ny;
ya = [0:Ny-1]*dy;
ya = ya - mean(ya);
```

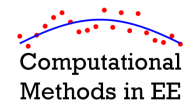
```
[Y,X] = meshgrid(ya,xa);
```

```
% CREATE ELLIPSE
xc = -0.15;
yc = +0.25;
rx = 0.4;
ry = 0.2;
A = ( ((X - xc)/rx).^2 + ...
      ((Y - yc)/ry).^2 ) <= 1;
```

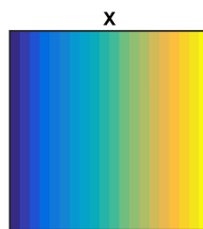
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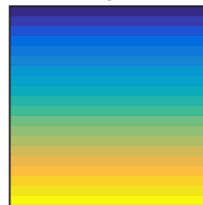
Radial & Azimuthal Geometries



Meshgrid

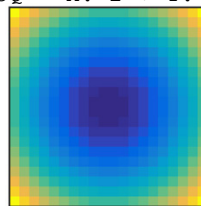


Y

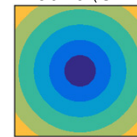


Radial Grid

$$RSQ = X.^2 + Y.^2;$$



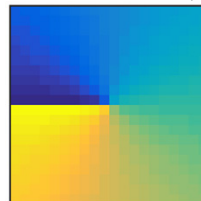
$$A = \text{round}(s \cdot RSQ);$$



Radial grid lets you create circles, ellipses, rings and more.

Azimuthal Grid

$$THETA = \text{atan2}(Y,X);$$



$$A = \text{round}(s \cdot THETA);$$

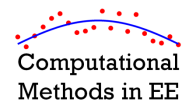


Azimuthal grid lets you create pie wedges and more.

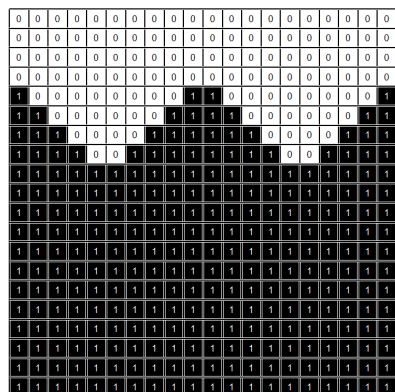
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Formed Half-Spaces



We can “fill in” half the grid under an arbitrary function like this...



```
% DEFINE GRID
Sx = 1;      %physical size along x
Sy = 1;      %physical size along y
Nx = 20;     %number of cells along x
Ny = 20;     %number of cells along y

% GRID ARRAYS
dx = Sx/Nx;
xa = [0:Nx-1]*dx;
xa = xa - mean(xa);

dy = Sy/Ny;
ya = [0:Ny-1]*dy;
ya = ya - mean(ya);

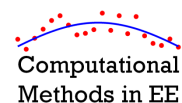
% CALCULATE SURFACE
y = 0.2 + 0.1*cos(4*pi*xa/Sx);

% FILL HALF SPACE
A = zeros(Nx,Ny);
for nx = 1 : Nx
    ny = round((y(nx) + Sy/2)/dy);
    A(nx,1:ny) = 1;
end
```

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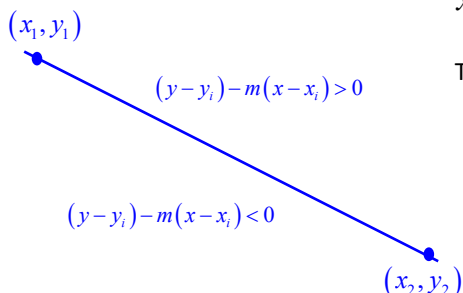
Linear Half-Spaces (1 of 2)



Given two points (x_1, y_1) and (x_2, y_2) , an equation for the line passing through these two points is:

$$(y - y_i) = m(x - x_i)$$

$$m = \frac{y_2 - y_1}{x_2 - x_1} \quad i = 1 \text{ or } 2$$



This equation can be rearranged as

$$(y - y_i) - m(x - x_i) = 0$$

The space on one half of this line is called a half-space. It is defined as:

$$(y - y_i) - m(x - x_i) > 0$$

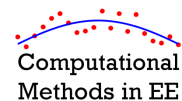
or

$$(y - y_i) - m(x - x_i) < 0$$

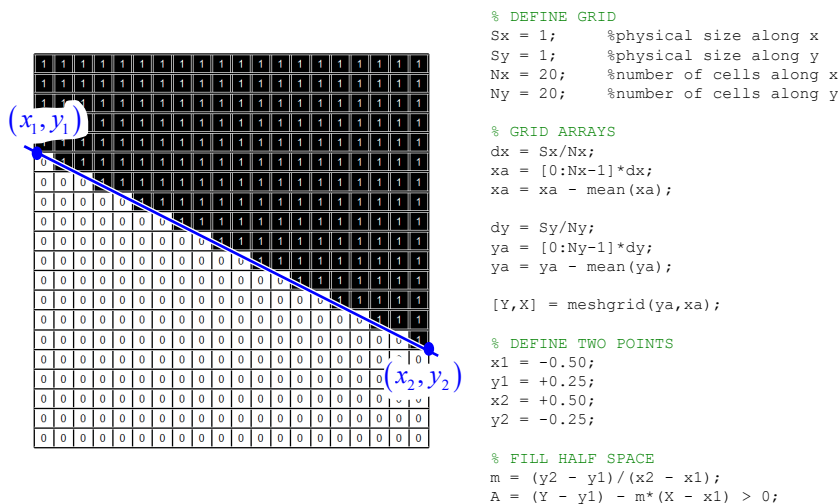
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Linear Half-Spaces (2 of 2)



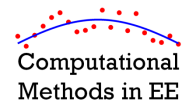
A half-space can be filled anywhere on the grid.



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Creating Linear Gradients (1 of 2)

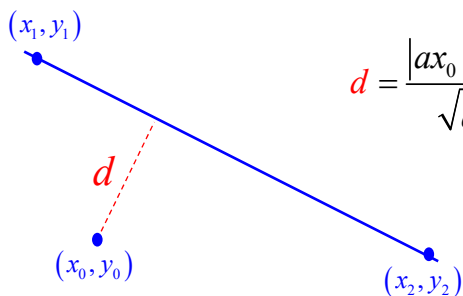


The distance from a point to a line is calculated as

Two Dimensions

$$d = \frac{|(y_2 - y_1)x_0 - (x_2 - x_1)y_0 + x_2y_1 - x_1y_2|}{\sqrt{(x_2 - x_1)^2 + (y_2 - y_1)^2}}$$

$$d = \frac{|ax_0 + by_0 + c|}{\sqrt{a^2 + b^2}} \quad ax_0 + by_0 + c = 0$$



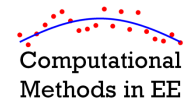
Three Dimensions

$$d = \frac{|(\vec{r}_2 - \vec{r}_1) \times (\vec{r}_1 - \vec{r}_0)|}{|\vec{r}_2 - \vec{r}_1|}$$

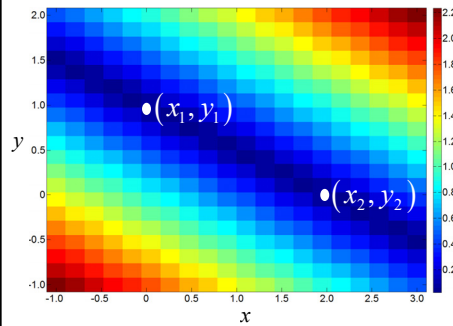
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Creating Linear Gradients (2 of 2)

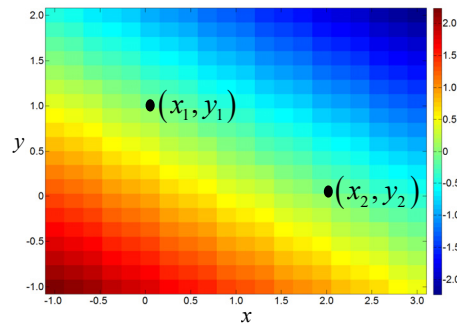


$$d = \frac{(y_2 - y_1)x_0 - (x_2 - x_1)y_0 + x_2y_1 - x_1y_2}{\sqrt{(x_2 - x_1)^2 + (y_2 - y_1)^2}}$$



```
x1 = 0;    y1 = 1;
x2 = 2;    y2 = 0;
D = (y2 - y1)*X - (x2 - x1)*Y + x2*y1 - x1*y2;
D = abs(D)./sqrt((y2 - y1)^2 + (x2 - x1)^2);
```

$$d = \frac{(y_2 - y_1)x_0 - (x_2 - x_1)y_0 + x_2y_1 - x_1y_2}{\sqrt{(x_2 - x_1)^2 + (y_2 - y_1)^2}}$$

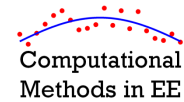


```
x1 = 0;    y1 = 1;
x2 = 2;    y2 = 0;
D = (y2 - y1)*X - (x2 - x1)*Y + x2*y1 - x1*y2;
D = D./sqrt((y2 - y1)^2 + (x2 - x1)^2);
```

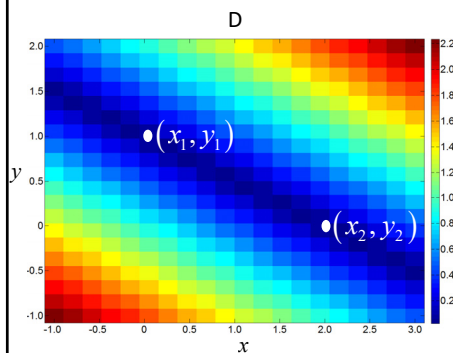
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Creating Thick Bars

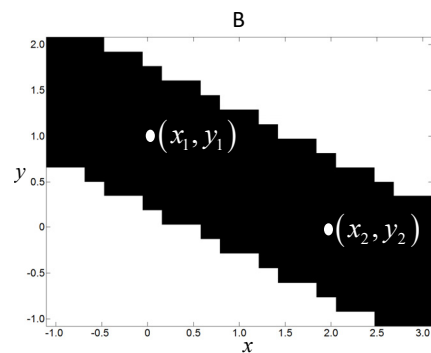


We can use the linear gradients to create thick bars through our grid with any thickness and orientation.



```
x1 = 0;    y1 = 1;
x2 = 2;    y2 = 0;
D = (y2 - y1)*X - (x2 - x1)*Y + x2*y1 - x1*y2;
D = abs(D)./sqrt((y2 - y1)^2 + (x2 - x1)^2);
```

```
B = D < 0.7;
```

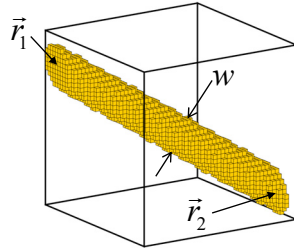


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Creating Thick Bars on 3D Grids

Computational
Methods in EE



```
% DEFINE TWO POINTS ALONG BAR AND WIDTH
w = 0.1;
r1 = [ 0.1 ; 0 ; 0.8 ];
r2 = [ 0.8 ; 1 ; 0.1 ];

% CALCULATE DISTANCE FUNCTION
d = r2 - r1;
d = d/norm(d);
D = sqrt( (d(2)*(r1(3) - Z) - d(3)*(r1(2) - Y)).^2 + ...
          (d(3)*(r1(1) - X) - d(1)*(r1(3) - Z)).^2 + ...
          (d(1)*(r1(2) - Y) - d(2)*(r1(1) - X)).^2 );

% CALCULATE BAR
ER = (D <= w);
```

$$\hat{\delta} = \frac{\vec{r}_2 - \vec{r}_1}{|\vec{r}_2 - \vec{r}_1|}$$

$$d = |\hat{\delta} \times (\vec{r}_1 - \vec{r}_0)|$$

$$= \left| \left[\delta_y(z_1 - z) - \delta_z(y_1 - y) \right] \hat{a}_x + \left[\delta_z(x_1 - x) - \delta_x(z_1 - z) \right] \hat{a}_y + \left[\delta_x(y_1 - y) - \delta_y(x_1 - x) \right] \hat{a}_z \right|$$

$$= \sqrt{\left[\delta_y(z_1 - z) - \delta_z(y_1 - y) \right]^2 + \left[\delta_z(x_1 - x) - \delta_x(z_1 - z) \right]^2 + \left[\delta_x(y_1 - y) - \delta_y(x_1 - x) \right]^2}$$

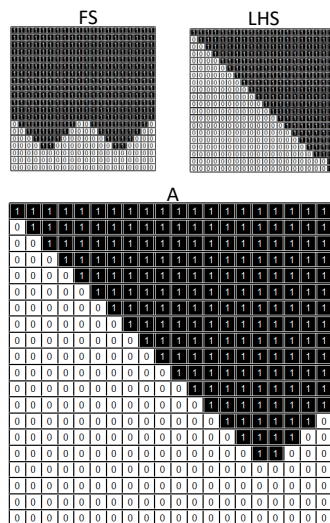
Lecture 2b

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Masking and Boolean Operations

Computational
Methods in EE

The figure below is the formed surfaced
masked by a linear half-space.



```
% DEFINE GRID
Sx = 1; %physical size along x
Sy = 1; %physical size along y
Nx = 20; %number of cells along x
Ny = 20; %number of cells along y

% GRID ARRAYS
dx = Sx/Nx;
xa = [0:Nx-1]*dx;
xa = xa - mean(xa);

dy = Sy/Ny;
ya = [0:Ny-1]*dy;
ya = ya - mean(ya);

[Y,X] = meshgrid(ya,xa);

% CREATE A FORMED SURFACE
y = -0.2 + 0.1*cos(4*pi*xa/Sx);
FS = zeros(Nx,Ny);
dy = Sy/Ny;
for nx = 1 : Nx
    ny = round((y(nx) + Sy/2)/dy);
    FS(nx,ny:Ny) = 1;
end

% CREATE A LINEAR HALF SPACE
x1 = -0.5;
y1 = +0.5;
x2 = +0.5;
y2 = -0.5;
m = (y2 - y1)/(x2 - x1);
LHS = (Y - y1) - m*(X - x1) > 0;

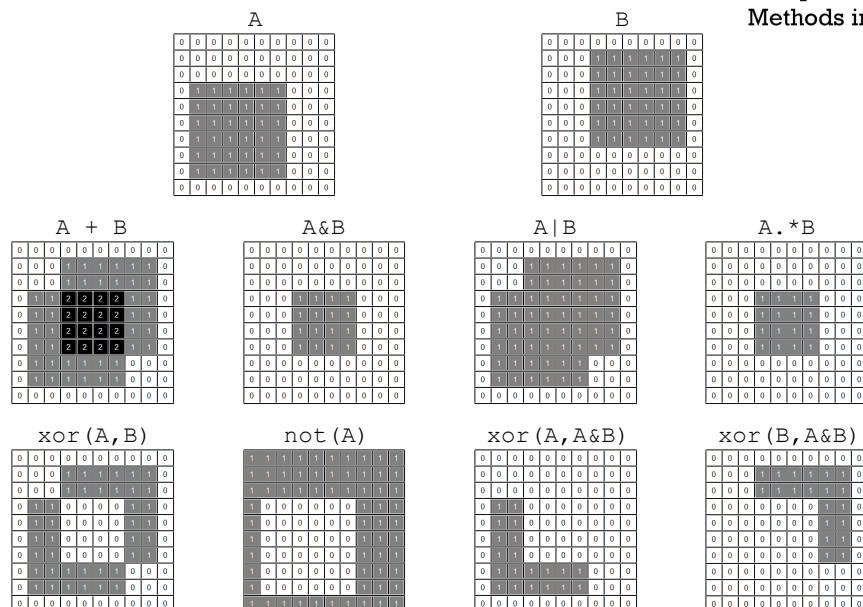
% COMBINE ABOVE GEOMETRIES
A = FS .* LHS;
```

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Comparison of Boolean Operations

Computational
Methods in EE



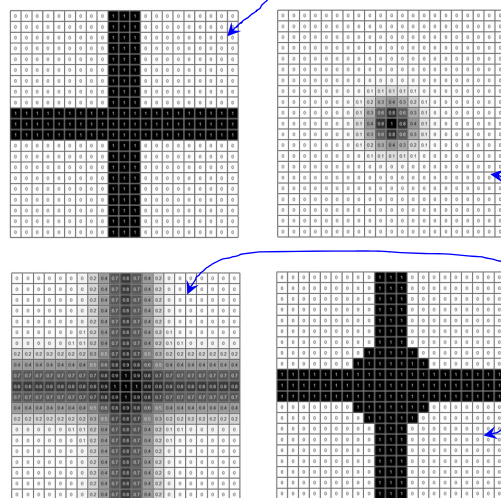
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Blurring Geometries

Computational
Methods in EE

Blurring is used to resolve surfaces that slice through the middle of cells or to build more realistic device geometries.



```
% DEFINE GRID
Sx = 1; %physical size along x
Sy = 1; %physical size along y
Nx = 21; %number of cells along x
Ny = 21; %number of cells along y
```

```
% GRID ARRAYS
dx = Sx/Nx;
xa = [0:Nx-1]*dx;
xa = xa - mean(xa);
dy = Sy/Ny;
ya = [0:Ny-1]*dy;
ya = ya - mean(ya);
[Y,X] = meshgrid(ya,xa);
```

```
% CREATE A CROSS
ER = abs(X)<=0.075 | abs(Y)<=0.075;
```

```
% CREATE BLUR FUNCTION
B = exp(-(X.^2 + Y.^2)/0.1^2);
```

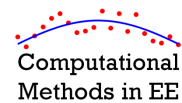
```
% PERFORM BLUR OPERATION
ER = fft2(ER).*fft2(B)/sum(B(:));
ER = ifftshift(real(ifft2(ER)));
```

```
% PERFORM THRESHOLD OPERATION
ER = ER > 0.4;
```

Lecture 2b

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Scaling the Values of the Data



Eventually, we need to build devices on a grid. This is done by a dielectric constant to specific geometries in the array. Typically, the background will be air with a dielectric constant of 1.0.

```
er1 = 1.0;
er2 = 2.4;
A   = er1*(1-A) + er2*A;
A   = er1 + (er2 - er1)*A;
```

0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
0	0	0	0	1	1	0	0	0	0
0	0	1	1	1	1	1	1	0	0
0	0	1	1	1	1	1	1	0	0
0	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	0
0	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	0
0	0	1	1	1	1	1	1	0	0
0	0	1	1	1	1	1	1	0	0
0	0	0	0	1	1	0	0	0	0
0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0

1.0	1.0	1.0	1.0	1.0	1.0	1.0	1.0	1.0	1.0
1.0	1.0	1.0	1.0	2.4	2.4	1.0	1.0	1.0	1.0
1.0	1.0	2.4	2.4	2.4	2.4	2.4	2.4	1.0	1.0
1.0	1.0	2.4	2.4	2.4	2.4	2.4	2.4	1.0	1.0
1.0	2.4	2.4	2.4	2.4	2.4	2.4	2.4	2.4	1.0
1.0	2.4	2.4	2.4	2.4	2.4	2.4	2.4	2.4	1.0
1.0	1.0	2.4	2.4	2.4	2.4	2.4	2.4	1.0	1.0
1.0	1.0	2.4	2.4	2.4	2.4	2.4	2.4	1.0	1.0
1.0	1.0	1.0	1.0	2.4	2.4	1.0	1.0	1.0	1.0
1.0	1.0	1.0	1.0	1.0	1.0	1.0	1.0	1.0	1.0

Lecture 2b

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